ESPON

SIESTA
Spatial Indicators for a ‘Europe 2020 Strategy’ Territorial Analysis

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Annex F

Employment, Skills and Jobs

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This report presents the draft final results of an Applied Research Project conducted within the framework of the ESPON 2013 Programme, partly financed by the European Regional Development Fund.

The partnership behind the ESPON Programme consists of the EU Commission and the Member States of the EU27, plus Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland. Each partner is represented in the ESPON Monitoring Committee.

This report does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the members of the Monitoring Committee.

Information on the ESPON Programme and projects can be found on www.espon.eu

The web site provides the possibility to download and examine the most recent documents produced by finalised and ongoing ESPON projects.

This basic report exists only in an electronic version.

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Introduction

The present report is part of the SIESTA project on the third pillar "Inclusive Growth" and is adapted in order to fit the special features of the EU 2020 Strategy. It reiterates and tries to explain the importance of productive employment as a basic condition for social progress in the light of EU2020 Strategy. The Interdisciplinary Centre for Advanced Researches on Territorial Dynamics, University of Bucharest has a specific responsibility for surprising and monitoring the progress made by European countries on the labour market. An active labour market and education policies which supported the mobility and flexicurity explain progresses in the labour market schemes and at the same time a large number of employees.

The inclusive growth implies a direct link between the determinants of growth: the dimension captures the importance of structural transformation for economic diversification, including jobs. According to the report of the Commission on Growth and Development, the inclusive growth approach focuses on productive employment and equality of opportunity in terms of access to markets and capacity of the individual on the labour supply.

Inclusive growth is an essential requirement in rapid and sustained poverty reduction that allows people to contribute to and benefit from economic growth. Also, it supports high levels of employment and rising wages, through acquiring competitiveness in new sectors and technologies.

In preparing the report, we received support from Lead Partner staff members; literature and old ESPON projects reviews have been very helpful for the maps comments. Some old and new problems of the European states were discussed.

The analysis considers the importance of labour market conditions and the educational outcomes in recent years, but also the transition from education to employment.

Finally, policy recommendations are key issues in order to give high priority to reducing the unemployment and recognising the problems related to social and economic integration. These recommendations will contribute to further enrich and ensure an effective and meaningful outcome.

2. Comments on maps

2.1. Maps 52 and 53: Employment rate of the age group 20-64 and distance to the national targets

Definition:

The employment rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons aged 20 to 64 in employment by the total population of the same age group. The indicator is based on the EU Labour Force Survey. The survey covers the entire population living in private households and excludes those in collective households such as boarding houses, halls of residence and hospitals. Employed population consists of those persons who during the reference week did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour, or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent (according to EUROSTAT database).

Relevance:

The European Union has agreed on an employment rate target for women and men of 75% for the 20-64 years age group by 2020. Europe needs to make full use of its labour potential to face the challenges of an ageing population and rising global competition. There is a risk that people away or poorly attached to the world of work lose ground from the labour market.

Economic crisis and demographic developments are posing huge challenges to the whole of Europe, offering risks and threats to existing jobs, as well as many new opportunities. The workforce is about to shrink. Only two-thirds of European working age population is currently employed, compared to over 70% in the US or Japan. The employment rates of women, older workers, youth have been severely hit by the crisis, with a high unemployment rate.

There are several objectives and priorities to raise the employment rate, job creation and skills:

- flexible and reliable contractual arrangements, focusing on the reduction of segmentation in the labour market and putting greater weight on internal flexibility in times of economic downturn;

- comprehensive lifelong learning, improving access to lifelong learning, to help people move to high-value added sectors and

expanding occupations; adopting targeted approaches for the more vulnerable workers, particularly the low skilled, unemployed, younger and older workers, disabled people, people with mental disorders, or minority groups; enhancing stakeholders' involvement and social dialogue on the implementation of lifelong learning; establishing effective incentives and cost sharing arrangements, to enhance public and private investment in the continuing training of the workforce, and increase workers' participation in lifelong learning.

- Active Labour Market Policies, adapting the mix of ALMPs and their institutional setting to reduce the risk of long-term unemployment;

- Modern Social Security Systems, reforming unemployment benefit systems to make their level and coverage easier to adjust over the business cycle; improving benefits coverage for those most at risk of unemployment, such as fixed-term workers, young people in their first jobs and the self-employed; reviewing the pension system to ensure adequate and sustainable pensions for those with gaps in pension-saving contributions, due to periods of unemployment, sickness or caring duties, or to short-term contracts (EU2020 Strategy).

Research results within the ESPON program have been attempts to positively describe and assess employment situations in Europe rather than supporting the social policy agenda by providing spatial typologies which would link the employment situations with the underlying causes and drivers of unemployment (especially for the low-skilled, young and/ or female work force).

	Region	*Employment rate age group 20-64 in %, 2010*
FI	Åland	83.6
CH	Eastern Switzerland	83.3
CH	Central Switzerland	83.2
CH	Zurich	82.9
CH	Espace Mittelland	81.8
SE	Stockholm	81.7
NO	Oslo og Akershus	81.1
CH	Northwestern Switzerland	81.1
NO	Vestlandet	80.9
IS	Iceland	80.4

Table 1. The ten regions with the highest employment rate in 2010.

MS	*Region*	*Employment rate age group 20-64 in %, 2010*
UK	West Midlands	68.1
IT	Marche	68.0
PT	Norte	68.0
RO	Bucureşti + Ilfov	68.0
FI	East Finland	67.9
GR	Notio Aigaio	67.8
ES	La Rioja	67.8
IT	Toscana	67.8
CZ	Střední Morava	67.7

Table 2. The regions with the median employment rate in 2010.

MS	*Region*	*Employment rate age group 20-64 in %, 2010*
TR	Sanliurfa	34.4
TR	Mardin	38.8
TR	Van	43.2
IT	Campania	43.7
TR	Kayseri	45.7
TR	Gaziantep	45.7
IT	Calabria	46.1
IT	Sicilia	46.6
TR	Istanbul	46.9
RS	Serbia	47.18

Table 3. The ten regions with the lowest employment rate in 2010.

MS	*Region*	*Employment rate 20-64, 2010 - Distance to the national targets*
IT	Campania	-25.3
FR	Réunion	-25
ES	Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	-23
ES	Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	-22.9
IT	Calabria	-22.9
IT	Sicilia	-22.4
FR	Guyane	-22
HU	Észak-Magyarország	-21.3
IT	Puglia	-20.8
HU	Észak-Alföld	-20.6

Table 4. The ten regions which are the most distant to their national 2020 employment rate target in 2010 in percentage points.

MS	*Region*	*Employment rate 20-64, 2010 - Distance to the national targets*
IT	Sudtirol	6.8
FI	Åland	5.6
DE	Freiburg	3.2
DE	Schwaben	2.5
IT	Emilia-Romagna	2.5
IT	Vallée d'Aoste	2.4
DE	Oberbayern	2
DE	Tübingen	1.9
DE	Trier	1.8
IT	Trentino	1.8

Table 5. The top ten regions which have reached their national 2020 employment rate target in 2010 in percentage points.

MS	*Region*	*Employment rate 20-64, 2010 - Distance to the national targets*
PL	Łódzkie	-4.8
BE	Prov. Brabant Wallon	-4.7
NL	Friesland	-4.7
DE	Köln	-4.6
FR	Aquitaine	-4.6
CZ	Jihovýchod	-4.5
ES	Comunidad de Madrid	-4.5
BE	Prov. Luxembourg	-4.4
DE	Braunschweig	-4.4
FR	Franche-Comté	-4.4

Table 6. The median ten regions which are closer to their national 2020 employment rate target in 2010 in percentage points.

Employment rate for those aged 20 to 64 in the EU27 decreased to 68.6% in 2010. Employment rates significantly differ across Europe. Along term trend has been the de-industrialisation, as the relative decline of employment in the manufacturing sector is termed.There are two big groups: the Northwest of Europe vs. the rest. As tendencies the rates are lower the farther south and the farther east a region is located, resulting in lowest employment rates in southern Spain, southern Italy and Turkey. In contrast, highest employment rates are found in Switzerland, Scandinavia, Sweden, Norway, Benelux, Cyprus, Germany, Austria, United Kingdom and Finland. The map suggests that there are many disparities within individual countries itself (for instance, Italy, Turkey, Spain).

In 2010, the employment rate for persons aged 20 to 64 was highest in Switzerland (81.1%), Iceland (80.4%), Sweden (78.7%), the Netherlands (76.8%), Denmark (76.1%), Cyprus (75.4%), Germany and Austria (both 74.9%). The lowest rates were recorded in Bosnia and Herzegovina (39.03%), Serbia (47.18%), Montenegro (47.6%), Macedonia (48.1%), Turkey (50%), Croatia (58.6%), Malta (59.9%), Hungary (60.4%), Italy (61.1%), Spain (62.5%) and Romania (63.3%).

Within a country, employment rate tend to be a broadly similar regional distribution to overall employment rates. As regards the distribution of labour force by regions there are clear differences between urban and rural areas. However, there are a number of examples of regional pockets of employment that point to inequalities – for example, southern Italy, southern Spain, south-eastern Turkey, or French overseas regions. The ten regions with the lowest employment rate in 2010are located in Turkey, six regions among them (34.4% in Sanliurfa, Mardin - 38.8%, Van - 43.2%, Kayseri - 45.7%, Gaziantep - 45.7%, Istanbul - 46.9%), but together to these there are three south-Italian regions (Campania 43.7,

Calabria 46.1, respectively Sicilia with 46.6%) and Serbia which represent red spots in Europe related to the employment rate percentage.

But some regions in the North-West score low too, for example West Wales and the Valleys in the UK, Border, Midland and Western in Ireland or Hainaut and Brussels in Belgium.

Within central Europe, the values corresponding to an average distance to national target are consisted from figures among 4.8 negative difference points in Poland and 4.4 negative points one of the region in Belgium, in Germany and France.

Since 2007, these disparities even increase over all European NUTS-2 regions, caused by two combined effects: first, regions with already high employment rates even managed to increase these rates even more; second, many regions with low or intermediate employment rates, experience a drop in these rates (negative developments of employment). Taking these two trends together, regional disparities in Europe widened for employment in the period 2007-2010.

Many regions in Germany, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and Austria have already reached 75%. To ensure that the EU reaches 75% by 2020, especially those countries and regions where employment rates are currently low will have to make significant progress but the contribution from countries and regions already close to or above 75% will also be needed.

Member States have set national targets varying from 62.9% in Malta to 80% in Denmark and Sweden. Not all Regions are expected to reach the EU or national employment targets, as they face very different starting positions. For the Albania and Kosovo data are missed for 2010, but the map shows the situation for 2009.

The ten regions most distant to their national target are two of the four French outermost regions, four southern Italian regions, two Hungarian regions and the Spanish enclaves Melilla and Ceuta. There are some countries have opted not to select a national employment target for 2020: UK from EU, Switzerland, Lichtenstein, Norway, Iceland and Turkey, Croatia, Serbia, Kosovo, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Macedonia and Republic of Albania.

The Northern Periphery and the Baltic Sea Region continue to place emphasis on increasing labour market and employment, to reach the national target 80%. Employment rates are high across all groups and labour supply has started to grow after the decreases over the last six-seven years, with signs of enhanced integration of groups. There are recent reforms on increasing incentives to work, reforming active labour

market policy and the education form. Also employment rate gaps between foreign-born and native people are still a concern. The governments want to include stronger measures to increase the employment rate of young people and immigrants. To better integrate immigrants, jobs combined with language courses are now being implemented and the validation of qualifications from outside Sweden is being introduced.

The top ten regions which have reached their national 2020 employment rate target in 2010 in percentage points are situated in the center of Europe: four regions in Italy, Sudtirol with 6.8% difference points, Emilia-Romagna (2.5%), Vallée d'Aoste (2.4%) and Trentino (1.8%), only one region in Finland - Aland with 5.6 positive difference points and five regions in Germany (Freiburg – 3.2%, Schwaben - 2.5%, Oberbayern – 2%, Tübingen – 1.9%, Trier – 1.8%).

In the Cyprus case, the rate is the highest among the ten EU member states and above the average employment rate of the EU15. Over the 2005-2007 period, Cyprus has made good progress in implementing employment policies: to promote flexible and secure forms of employment for older workers, women, youth and immigrants.

Regarding to the Danube Space, for example Germany and Austria, both the national (Germany 77% and Austria 78%) and EU2020S target will be achieved thought the focus on older workers employment rate, wage moderation, the effects of reforms implemented to promote better incentives to take up work and prolong working life and improve education outcomes for vulnerable youth. In the other countries included in this Danube area, the most regions are lower employment rates, under 60%.

For migrants employment, many EU countries have welcomed both skilled and unskilled migrant workers, but as arrivals in a new country they need time and help to participate fully and equally in society. In this case, there are differences among the countries, especially in the southern of Europe: Spain, Italy, Greece and others like Luxembourg, Belgium, Norway or Denmark.

However, as a consequence of the economic crisis that began in 2008, employment decreased in 2010 and people without a job or looking for one rose. This crisis has most severely hit people with temporary contracts, youth or those with low skills. Geographically, the most affected countries during the recession have been Denmark, Spain, Ireland, Greece and Baltic States. During 2010, employment rates fell in nine Member States and increased in seventeen. The biggest improvement was in Estonia and the worst in Greece.

Policy recommendations:

To fully understand differences in labour market across countries, it is need to consider the institutional factors, because the supply and demand shifts have different quantitative impacts on employment depending on norms, education system and social insurance policies (Katz, 1994).

For the North West Europe governments improving labour market productivity growth is a key challenge. Regarding to the employment policies they focused on reforming benefit schemes, discouraging early retirement, or increasing funding to tackle early school leaving.

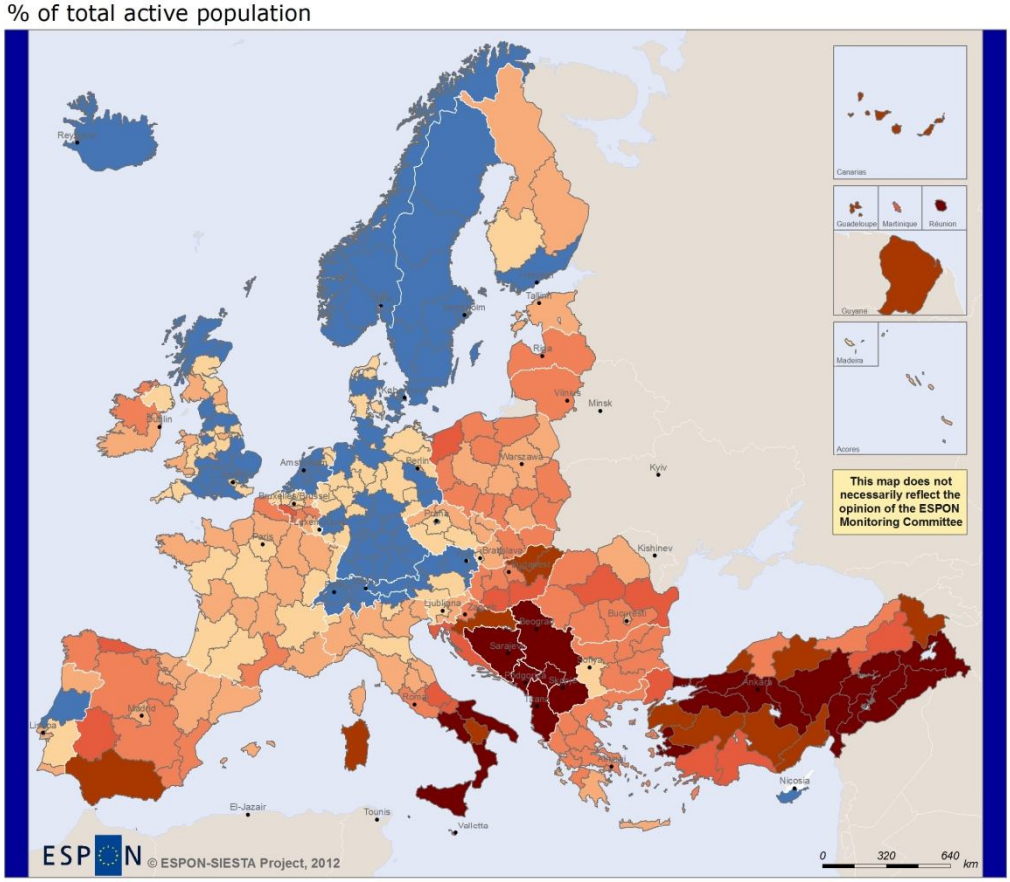
The Netherlands has set an overall employment target of 80% for 2016 and announced new policies orientations, like an action plan to reduce unemployment of older workers and a new tax on pensions – in case of retirement before the statutory retirement age of 65, extra funding for improving quality childcare has been announced. To maintain the current strong performance, continued efforts to further strengthen flexicurity policies are necessary.

Policies to promote gender equality will be needed to increase labour force participation thus adding to growth and social cohesion. Action under this priority will require modernising, strengthening our employment education and training policies and social protection systems by increasing labour participation and reducing structural unemployment, as well as raising corporate social responsibility among the business community.

The existing decays among the European regions ask from EU organisms and national governments the appropriate politics to increase the economic attraction of underdevelopment ones, to revise the pension systems, to valorise the regional strengths for increasing of the employability.

Employment rate of the age group 20-64, 2010

% of total active population



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Regional level: NUTS 0 and 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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% of total active population aged 20-64

- < 50,00
- 50 - 55
- 55 - 60
- 60 - 65
- 65 - 70
- 70 - 74
- > = 75

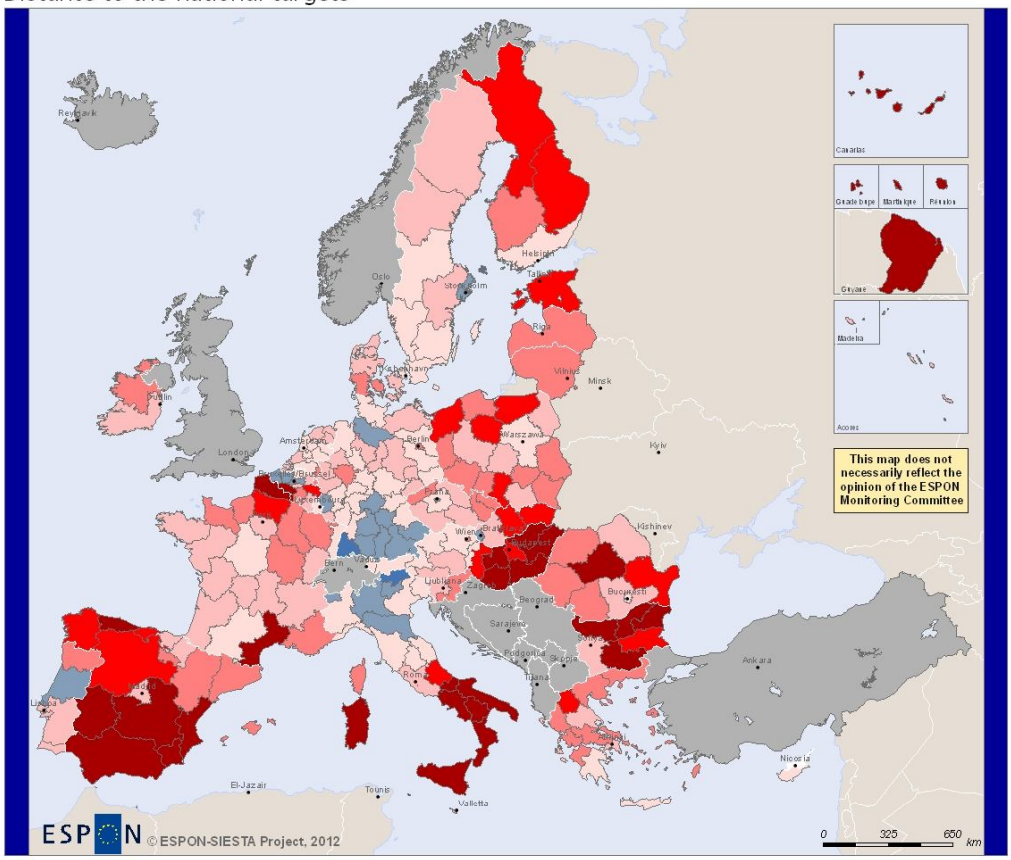
NOTES:
Data missing for Al and XK for 2010, data for these countries are showed for 2009.

EU 27 =68.5

The EU 27 target is to reach a 75 %.
Regions in blue have reached the target

Employment rate of the age group 20-64, 2010

Distante to the national targets



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Regional level: NUTS 0 and 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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Percentage points difference

- < -12
- - 2 - -9
- -9 - -6
- -6 - -3
- -3 - 0
- 0 - 3
- > 3
- No national headline target

NOTES:
Blue regions have reached the target

2.2. Map 54: Change in the employment rate (age group 20-64)

Definition:

According to EUROSTAT, “the employment rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons aged 20 to 64 in employment by the total population of the same age group”. It takes into considering the population living in private households, excluding in the same time those living in collective households (boarding houses, halls of residence and hospitals). In the same time the “employed population consists of those persons who during the reference week did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour, or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent” for example absents caused by illness, holidays, industrial disputes, education or training. (EUROSTAT)

Relevance:

The employment rate is both a structural indicator and a short-term indicator. As a structural indicator, it may shed light on the structure of labour markets and economic systems, as measured through the balance of labour supply and demand, or the quality of employment. As a short-term indicator, employment follows the business cycle; however, it has limits in this respect, as employment is often referred to as a lagging indicator. This is because following a recession scientists and policy makers have found that the employment rate tends not to grow to any significant extent until the remainder of the economy has recovered. They say that this happens because of the high risk and costs of creating new jobs (EUROSTAT).

Reviewing the scientific literature the employment rate is conceptualized as one of the economic indicator that policy makers and scientists examine in order to understand the state in which the economy finds itself at a given time.

This ratio of employment is used to evaluate the ability of the economy to create jobs and therefore is used in conjunction with the unemployment rate for a general evaluation of the labour market stance. Registering a high ratio of employment means that an important proportion of the population in working age is employed, which in general will have positive effects on the GDP per capita. However the statistics on employment rate has some shortcomings in showing the working conditions, the real earnings and the size of the black market. Therefore, for an accurate

analysis of the labour market, it is recommended to consider also other statistics.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) considers that the employment rate provides measures of: labour supply, labour input, the structure of employment, extent to which the available labour time and human resources are actually utilised or not.

The ILO sees the information given by the employment rate as essential for macro-economic and human resources development planning and policy formulation. (www.ilo.org).

In essence, the greater the level of economic production, the greater the number of people employed. (www.ehow.com)

MS	*Region*	*2010-2000 difference*
FR	Corsica	26,6
DE	Brandenburg SV	10,6
DE	Brandenburg NE	10,1
DE	Koblenz	9,7
BG	Yugozapaden	9,0
DE	Luneburg	9,0

Table 7. This table shows the six regions with the highest increase of employment rate.

MS	*Region*	*2010-2000 difference*
LU	Luxembourg	3,2
PL	Kujawsko-Pomorskie	3,2
SE	Norra Mellansverige	3,2
DE	-	3,0
PL	Opolskie	3,0
NL	Groningen	2,8
SE	Mellersta Norrland	2,8

Table 8. This table shows the seven regions with average increase of employment rate

MS	*Region*	*2010-2000 difference*
HU	Nyugat-Dunántúl	-4,8
RO	North-East	-5,2
IE	Border, Midland and Western	-5,3
ES	Canarias	-5,3
RO	Sud Muntenia	-5,4
RO	North-Vest	-6,2
RO	South-East	-6,6
RO	Centru	-8,0
IS	Iceland	-9,0
RO	South-Vest Oltenia	-11,8

Table 9. This table shows the ten regions with lowest increase of employment rate

From the first analysis of the change at the employment rate map, the most striking feature is the heterogeneous geographical distribution of values. Thus, within the boundaries of the same country, there are regions with an increase of the employment rate, when comparing to the values of 2000, as well as regions where this rate has decreased.

At European level, a certain tendency can be determined. Regions that are located at the marginal areas register a decrease of the employment rate. There are however exceptions. Regions from Czech Republic, from Switzerland, north of France and from south of Great Britain do not show such decrease. The authors do not delimit a rule from this conclusion but it is a fact that the majority of countries that are at the limit of the ESPON space have a decrease in the values of this rate. In these category, we include: Iceland, Ireland, Portugal, Crete Island (Greece), Romania, Lithuania, Estonia and Norway.

As previously mentioned, the majority of the regions of the countries above listed have known a decrease of the employment rate. To these countries situated at periphery of the analyzed space, regions near to the European pentagon are added. Almost all regions from Hungary, Czech Republic, the entire Republic of Serbia (including Kosovo), the regions of western half of Switzerland, regions in the north of France, the regions on the Mediterranean cost of Spain, Denmark, central England and the regions of the eastern Scotland are in this situation.

The values corresponding to the steepest decrease (3%) are registered in the countries at the edge of the European space: Iceland, Ireland, Portugal (4 regions), insular Spain (Baleares, Canares), Crete (Greece), Serbia and all the regions of Romania, except the Bucuresti-Ilfov region. The regions that do not follow this pattern of peripherisation are from

western Hungary (Nyugat-Donantul) and western Slovakia (the Bratislava region), as well as three regions from central and northern England.

The case of Iceland has a special particularity for the ESPON space. Even though Iceland is not a member of the European Community, it has shown a very major decrease of over 8%. It is important to mention that, despite this distinct reduction, the employment rate in the Iceland community is with over 5% above the target established at the European Union. The employment rate has dropped from 88% to 80%, but it must be remembered that the total population of Iceland is the size of a middle city of continental Europe, with a little over 300.000 people. Therefore, this could be one part of the explanation for the high fluctuation of its statistics.

Another particularity of the distribution of the employment rate can be highlighted in the region Aland from Finland. In the 2000-2010 period, it has registered a decrease of a little over 3%. But, just as in the case of Iceland, even though the values of the employment rate were reduced by a considerable percentage, it is still 8% above the limited target of the EU2020S. The decrease is of 87.4% in 2000 to 83.6% in 2010. The explanation has similar grounds to the explanation of the Iceland case. The region of Aland is the smallest region of Finland, with a total population of approximate of 28.000 people.

With the exception of region Corsica, all the other regions that had an increase in the employment rate with a percentage higher of 9% are found in Germany. These regions are Luneburg, Brandenburg NE, Brandenburg SV and Koblenz. The regions of northern Germany have also registered an increase in the employment rate, when compared with values registered in 2000. The rest of the countries in the analyzed area register increases between 0% and 6%.

Change in the employment rate in the Baltic and Scandinavian region has an overall positive trend. There are countries and NUTS 2 regions that register a decrease of the employment rate, like Estonia, Lithuania, Denmark and some Norwegian regions; the decrease is moderate, not more than -3%. It should be mentioned, that regions from Norway and Denmark despite the decrease registered, they are still above the EU2020S target. The same thing cannot be mentioned for Estonia and Lithuania. All the other regions managed to increase their employment rate, Poland and eastern Germany having some problems to meet the target.

While the Scandinavian and Baltic regions register a positive trend, the same process cannot be mentioned for the Danube region. This region encounters serious problems in maintaining their employment rate. There

is a strong divide between regions (SW-NE, the dividing line passing from Prague-Bratislava-Zagreb-Belgrade-Sofia) but this divide is not spatially continuous. Southern Germany, Austria, Slovakia, Slovenia, Croatia and Bulgaria manage to increase their employment rate, while the Czech Republic, Hungary, Serbia and Romania tend to stay behind. There are however strong differences inside each category. In this sense, although Bulgarian regions managed to increase their employment rate they are still far away from the EU2020S target. This cannot be said for Austria or southern Germany. While the Czech regions are closer to the target despite this decrease of the employment rate, Romanian and Serbian regions have still a long way to reach the EU2020S target regarding the employment rate.

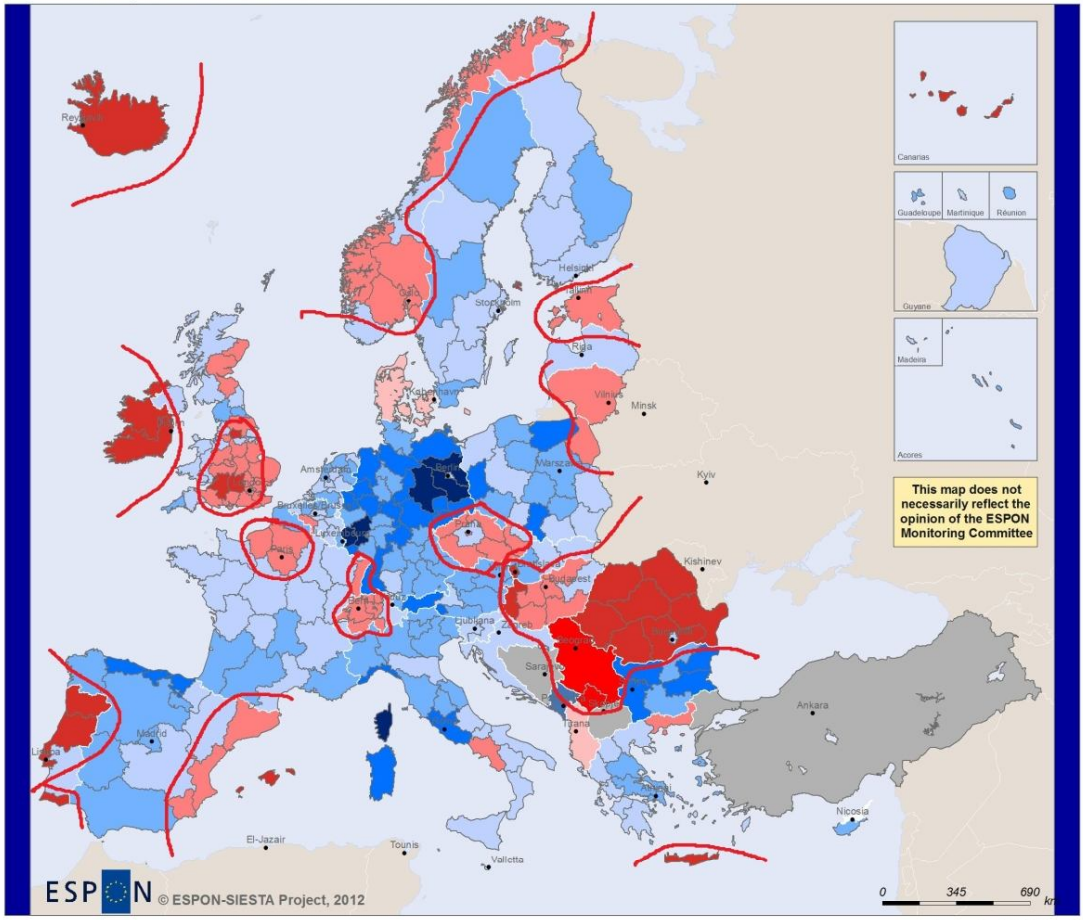
The Mediterranean region (including the whole Iberic peninsula), with few exceptions (3 Portugal regions, insular and Mediterranean regions of Spain, Campania, Thessaloniki and Crete) managed to increase their employment rate. Despite this increase of the employment rate the Mediterranean region lags far behind the EU employment target (their employment rate comes close to former centralized economies like Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria and Slovakia).

Policy recommendations:

Similar politics must to be promoted for the Eastern and South-Western parts of Europe to diminish the negative trends concerning the dynamics of the employment rate. Nevertheless the analysed period includes the economic boom; the crisis effects were more significant for these areas. An important role in this territorial distribution of the employment rate dynamics had the migration, and increasing of the informal economic activities. So, the promotion of the economic politics should be sustained by an appropriate labour force migration politics.

Change in the employment rate (age group 20-64)

2010 compared with 2000



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Regional level: NUTS 0 and 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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Percentage points difference

- < -3
- -3 - 0
- 0 - 3
- 3 - 6
- 6 - 9
- > 9
- No data

NOTES:
Data for BG corresponds to 2003-2010 change.
Data for DE41 and FE42 correspond to 2002-2010 change.
Data for DEB1, DEB2 and DEB3 correspond to1999-2010 change.
Data for HR is showed at state level and correspond to 2002-2010 change.
Data for XK corresponds to 2001-2009 change.
Data for ME corresponds to 2001-2010 change.
Data for AI corresponds to 2000-2009 change.
DK data is showed at state level

2.3. Map 55: Gender balance in employment rate (age group 20-64), 2010

Definition:

The data represents the gender balance in employment rate for 2010, taking into consideration the age group of 20-64. To obtain this data the difference between male employment rate and female employment rate was calculated. For calculating the difference two series of data were considered. On the one had the employment rate of males and on the other the employment rate of females for all the member states, but also EFTA countries, candidate countries and non EU member states. The main database used in collecting the needed data was EUROSTAT at NUTS level 2. To round up the database for non-EU member states data from the National Statistical Institutions were consulted. According to the EUROSTAT definition the employment rate divides the number of persons aged 20 to 64 in employment by the total population of the same age group.

Relevance:

One of the main concerns expressed by the European Commission in the EU2020S is the low employment rate of the EU-states. A significant gap, representing one of the Europe's structural weaknesses, is among other the difference between men and woman employment rate. In this regard one of the targets for EU2020S is to reach a 75% employment rate for both women and men of 20-64 years. (EU2020S, COM (2010) 682 final) Another issue stressed out is the on-going fight for equality between male and female having in mind to build a gender-equal society. Equality is one of common values on which the European Union is founded. (Article 2 and 3 TEU) Since the first European directive on gender equality (1975), it has been constantly emphasised principals like dose stated in the Women's Charta: equal economic independence, equal pay for equal work and work for equal value, equality in decision-making, dignity, integrity and an end to gender-based violence and gender equality beyond the Union (75/117/EEC, COM(2010) 78). Being still underrepresented in the labour market, women need to receive more attention so that the objectives of EU2020S of smart, sustainable and inclusive growth can be achieved.

MS	*Region*	*Difference between female and male employment rates*
TR	Mardin	-59,3
TR	Gaziantep	-55,2
TR	Van	-51,0
TR	Sanliurfa	-50,3
TR	Kayseri	-49,2
TR	Istanbul	-48,8
TR	Konya	-47,6
TR	Kocaeli	-47,3
TR	Malatya	-46,3
TR	Manisa	-46,2

Table 10. This table shows the ten regions with the highest difference between female and male employment rates.

MS	*Region*	*Difference between female and male employment rates*
LT	Lietuva	1,5
LV	Latvija	-0,2
FI	Itä-Suomi	-1,3
NO	Hedmark og Oppland	-1,6
EE	Eesti	-2,0
FI	Pohjois-Suomi	-2,3
SE	Övre Norrland	-2,5
NO	Trøndelag	-2,8
NO	Nord-Norge	-2,9
DE	Mecklenburg-Vorpommern	-3,2

Table 11. This table shows the ten regions with the smallest difference between female and male employment rate.

MS	*Region*	*Difference between female and male employment rates*
PT	Alentejo	-10,6
HU	Nyugat-Dunántúl	-10,6
ES	Cataluna	-10,6
DE	Mittelfranken	-10,7
BE	Prov. West.-Vlaanderen	-10,8
UK	Herefordshire, Worcestershire and Warks	-10,8
ES	Comunidada de Madrid	-11,0
DE	Braunschweig	-11,1
BE	Yugozapaden	-11,1
PL	Swietokrzyskie	-11,2
UK	Kent	-11,2

Table 12. This table shows the eleven regions with an average difference between female and male employment rate

The last economic and demographic path that that EU has enforced the need to make full use of the labour potential and by that, the Europe strategy aims to increase the employment rate of people aged 20 to 64 by 75% until 2020 (EU2020S). The main focus is to promote polices supporting the increase of labour force participation among women, old workers and young people. Promoting the participation of women in the labour market is not only an economic concern stressed out by the crises in recent years, but also a permanent fight against gender inequality. Equality between women and men is one of common values on which the European Union is founded. As continuity to the Women's Charta published in 2010 a new set of priorities were presented by the European Commission in point of equality between women and men (COM(2010) 78, COM(2010) 491). In addition to the fundamental right, economic advantages can be obtained by cultivating gender equality. In the past recent years five priorities concerning gender equality has been highlighted. The first priority concerns the equal economic independence. Although the female employment rate increased reaching its peak at 62,8% in 2008, the last EU Labour Force Survey show a slight decrease registering only 62,3% for 2011. As key actions the European Commission aims to promote the gender equality in the implementation of the EU2020S, but also to include it in other programmes as Structural Funds or 7th Framework Programme for Research; to promote female entrepreneurship and self-employment; to assess remaining gaps in entitlement for workers' rights to family-related level; to assess the Member States' performance concerning the children facilities; promoting gender equality with regard to immigration and integration of migrants.

Equal pay for equal work and work of equal value is a second priority to reach gender equality by all EU Member States. To ensure a reduction of the pay gaps the European Commission aims to improve the transparency of pay by making use of European social partners; to support equal pay initiatives in the workplace such as equality labels, 'charters' and awards; to increase awareness on how much longer women need to work than men to earn the same by celebrating European Equal Pay Day; seek to encourage women to enter non-traditional professions. A third priority is the equality in decision-making determining the Commission to consider as action a targeted initiative to improve the gender balance in this situation; monitor progress made towards achieving the 25% target for women in top-level decision-making positions in research; monitor progress towards the aim of 40% of members of one sex in committees and expert groups established by the Commission; to promote participation by women in European Parliament elections. Still a considerable number of women suffer violence because of their gender. Dignity, integrity and an end to gender-based violence is another priority for the EU. In order to contribute toward eliminating violence, the Commission highlights the need of an EU-wide strategy on combating violence, ensure that EU asylum legislation takes account of gender equality considerations and draws up a Men's Health report, following the 2010 Women's Health report. Finally, gender equality in external actions aims to progress equal treatment between women and men in the candidate and potential candidate countries for accession to the EU, implement the EU Plan of Action on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Development (2010-2015); continue to encourage ENP partner countries to promote gender equality through regular policy dialogue and exchange of experience; integration of gender considerations into EU humanitarian aid.

Whit the launch of the new strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth the European Council is bound by the European Treaty (Article 121 and 148 TEU, COM(2010) 193/3) to adopt broad economic policy guidelines and employment guidelines forming together an integrated guideline for implementing the EU2020S. The 7th Guideline for the employment policies states that, to increase the labour market participation and reducing structural unemployment the Member States should integrate the flexicurity principals and in the same time make use of European Social Funds in order "to increase labour market participation and combat segregation and inactivity, gender inequality, whilst reducing structural unemployment" (COM(2010) 193/3).

For 2010 the UE27 reached only 68,6% of the total employment rate by men and women aged 20-64 in comparison to US registering 70,5% or

Japan 74,7%. (EUROSTAT Database) To overcome this gaps one important target is focused on the difference between the male and female employment rate. The employment rate gender gap at EU27 level is of -13,0% in 2010. In the last years this value decreased moderately form 2007 having then -15,7%. Although important progress has been made to overcome the gender gaps, still in many regions of Europe women are disadvantaged by individual decisions on education, career paths, working arrangements, on family and fertility1, religion or social concepts. At country level important differences are visible. The only country showing a positive balance is Lithuania peaking at +1,5%. In contrast all regions of Turkey show highest figures in ESPON countries, dropping to -44,7%. Anyhow, at a first glance at the map, the general trend is of a rather major disparity between man and women employment rate among the Sothern (Mediterranean) countries as Turkey, Greece, Italy, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Spain, followed by most of the Central and South-Eastern Europe countries registering an average difference between man and women employment rate of about -5% to -15%. An exception in this case is the Czech Republic having overall high gaps between men and women employment rate. Finally the smallest or no disparities are to be found in North Europe in Latvia, Estonia, Finland, Norway and Sweden.

If some of the countries show a homogeneous development at regional level as Turkey, Greece, Switzerland, Croatia, Finland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Ireland or Iceland, in other countries differences between regions are to be noticed. Among those countries with regional diversity are Spain, France, Germany, Romania and Bulgaria.

The country most struggling with the employment rate is Turkey. Analysed at micro-level, all 26 sub-regions register difference between -25,8% (Trabzou) and -59,3 (Mardin) where the female population reaches only 10,6%. Several other countries face a considerable gap of the gender employment rate. Among those is Greece where all regions at NUTS 2 level register gaps below -20%, dropping at -34,1% in Notio Aigaio. In the same category falls Italy (with 11 NUTS 2 regions under the -20% threshold), Spain (with 4 NUTS 2 regions under the -20% threshold), Malta and Kosovo. Scattered regions in other countries are affected by a gap in employment rate between the male and female population. In Portugal, Região Autónoma dos Açores registers -22,8%, while the Romanian poorest region Sud-Est drops at -21,7% and the Czech regions Střední Čechy and Severozápad find themselves at the established

[1] Strategy for equality between women and men 2010 – 2015, COM(2010) 491;

threshold with -20,7%, respectively -20,2% difference between male and female employment rate.

Small disparities in the gender employment rate are to be found especially in Finland, Estonia, Lithuania and Norway all ranking at -5% to 0%. Besides that other dissipated regions of Sweden (Övre Norrland), Germany (Mecklenburg-Vorpommen, Brandenburg-Südwest, Brandenburg-Nordost, Berlin, Chemnitz and Sachsen-Anhalt), France (Center and Poitou-Charentes) Denmark (Hovedstaden) and Bulgaria (Severozapaden). The only country with a positive value between male and female employment rate is Lithuania. Although the above mentioned regions find themselves in the top regions with a limited gender gap in employment rate most of dose do not reach the European target of 75% employment rate.

Policy recommendations:

To reach the target of 75% in employment rate by 2020 measures and polices need to be taken. An important step in this way is to recognize the importance of female participation in the labour market and to facilitate their integration. First of all the promotion of specific disadvantaged female groups have to find support in job opportunities as for example: young people and older people considering active aging, disabled, legal migrants and other vulnerable groups. Member States should also remove barriers to labour market entry for newcomers, support self-employment and job creation in areas including green employment and care and promote social innovation. A second step is to assist women in work-life balance and child care facilities. The impact on parenthood is still an obstacle for the participation of women on the labour market, considering they have to choose between career and child care. This issue is most of the time reflected also on the birth rate of each country.

Even though important steps were made in reducing and eliminating unequal pay between genders, more transparency and awareness among employer and employee needs to be taken in consideration. This as well as the under-representation of women in decision-making processes and positions has to be encouraged.

The unbalance among the female and male employment rates ask a restructuration politics of the economic activities, on the one hand and a new vision on the increasing of female population employability. In this respect the education policy could be a tool for push the female population for searching jobs. Usually the female population works in the public and services sectors, the first very less developed in the unbalanced areas. In consequence, it’s need to be applied a political measures complex, touching many other social and economical sectors.

2.4. Map 56: Unemployment rate (age group 15 and over), 2009

Definition

The unemployment rate represents unemployed persons as a percentage of the labour force based on International Labour Office (ILO) definition. The labour force is the total number of people employed and unemployed. Unemployed persons comprise persons aged 15 to 74 who:
- are without work during the reference week;
- are available to start work within the next two weeks;
- and have been actively seeking work in the past four weeks or had already found a job to start within the next three months.

Relevance

High unemployment is a threat to social cohesion leading to poverty and social exclusion and it is one of the most important incentives for people to leave their regions. The level of unemployment reflects the region's shortfall in jobs, though it may also indicate a mismatch between the skills of the labour force and those needed by the market (Espon Atlas 2006).

In terms of unemployment, certain population groups are affected different than others: young people, women, low-skilled workers, older workers, minorities and migrants.

Until the crisis, Europe was registering important progresses. Labour markets were performing well, unemployment levels were dropping to 7% and the GDP growth was very close to the Lisbon Strategy's envisaged 3% average growth.

High levels of unemployment have strong negative relation to the high investments in R&D, the demographic dynamism and the high levels of immigration. On the other hand, areas with high levels of unemployment are positively associated with public administration centers and increased construction activity.

	Region	*Unemployment rate age group 15 and over in %, 2009*
XK	Kosovo	45.4
MK	Montenegro	32.2
ES	Fuerteventura, Lanzarote	29.2
ES	Gran Canaria	27.7
FR	Reunion	27.1
ES	Cadiz	26.9
ES	Almeria	26.8
ES	Malaga	26.4
ES	Granada	26.3
ES	Cordoba	26.1

Table 13. The ten regions with the highest unemployment rate in 2009.

	Region	*Unemployment rate age group 15 and over in %, 2009*
DE	Gottingen	8.6
GR	Ileia Prefecture	8.6
FR	Nievre	8.6
FR	Rhone	8.6
PL	Bialski	8.6
RO	Arad	8.6
SE	Skane lan	8.6
UK	Blackpool	8.6
UK	Luton	8.6
DE	Gottingen	8.6

Table 14. The regions with the median unemployment rate in 2009.

	Region	*Unemployment rate age group 15 and over in %, 2009*
RO	Satu Mare	1.3
RO	Vrancea	1.3
NL	Veluwe	1.9
DE	Eichstatt	2.1
IT	Piacenza	2.1
NL	Overig Zeeland	2.1
NO	Agder og Rogaland	2.2
NL	Alkmaar en omgeving	2.3
NL	Zeeumwsch-Vlaanderen	2.3
RO	Timiş	2.3

Table 15. The ten regions with the lowest unemployment rate in 2009.

Unemployment rates in Europe are typically higher for females, the young, the unskilled and the less educated. Long-term unemployment, those unemployed for over a year, has declined in recent years.

In 2009 the unemployment situation was quite different, many EU member states registering unemployment rates above 10%: Spain (17.9%), Latvia (16.9%), Lithuania (14.5%), Estonia (13.6%), Slovakia (12.3%), Ireland (11.7%) and Hungary (10.5%). The lowest unemployment rate was registered by Netherlands (3.4%), Denmark (4.5%), Austria (5.5%), Cyprus (5.6%) or Luxemburg (6.2%). The differences between the member states concerning unemployment underline the differences between long term unemployment and structural unemployment. At EU level, the average of structural unemployment rate was of 7.1%, the highest structural unemployment rate between the member states was registered by Slovakia (12%) and the lowest rate was registered by Netherlands (3.2%).

These reflect in particular a sharp drop in employment due to a strong contraction in the construction industry, caused by the marked downturn in the housing markets in those Member States.

The labour market, which has performed well in 2005-2008, was clearly affected by the economic slowdown albeit with a lag. The greatest increases in the unemployment rate have been recorded in Spain, Estonia, Ireland and Latvia, all affected by severe housing market downturns (A European Economic Recovery Plan, Detailed overview of progress across the EU in the specific macro- and micro-economic as well as the employment areas, Communication from the Commission to the European Council 2009).

The recent crisis also led to rapid increases in unemployment rates. In the three Baltic States and seven Spanish regions unemployment rates increased by between 10 and 18pp. Unemployment increased least (1.8%) in the RCE (Regional Competitiveness and Employment) regions. The convergence regions witnessed a more substantial increase (2.8%). The sharpest increase, however, occurred in the transition regions (6.4%). Despite the overall increases, unemployment decreased in 52 regions, mostly in Germany but also in some regions in Poland, France, Finland and Austria. The highest rates in European area are registered in the French overseas departments, which face specific challenges, and many Spanish regions. Most of the 26 regions with unemployment rates over 15 % can be found in these two, as well as in Slovakia and in the Baltic States. In contrast, 34 regions mainly located in Austria, Germany, northern Italy and The Netherlands have rates below 5 %. Unemployment rates dropped also in some regions of France, Poland, Austria and the UK.

On the other side, several regions in Spain, Ireland, Baltic States and Greece witnessed a substantial increase in the unemployment rates.

In most cases, reductions in unemployment rates are correlated with increased levels of GDP per capita and lower levels of poverty. Regions growing unemployment tend to have lower levels of economic growth and higher levels of poverty.

The highest rates of unemployment were found in Kosovo and Montenegro, where 45.5%, respectively 32.2% of the working age population was out of work, followed by the southern part of Spain, the Andalusia region (Fuerteventura and Lanzarote – 29.2%, Gran Canaria - 27.7%, Cadiz - 26.9%, Almeria - 26.8%, Malaga - 26.4%, Granada - 26.3% and Cordoba - 26.1%) and Reunion 27.1%. Also Estonia, Latvia and Hungary reported reductions in unemployment with the proportion of people unemployed falling some percent in these countries.

Also the labour markets in the Western Balkans have been undergoing changes to their transition from centrally planned to market oriented economies. Those events led a dramatic rise in unemployment and figures have provided a full picture with a substantial number of unemployed people, combined with a political instability and a large-scale rural under development. In Serbia and Albania, official figures put unemployment above 15%, but a worst phenomenon is registered in Macedonia and Bosnia-Herzegovina where unemployment is officially reported at close to 20%. With a regard to Kosovo and Montenegro, an average of 35-40% of the population is aged 15 and over is unemployed (as table 13 above shows).

Rates are relatively low in Romania and Bulgaria, while they are relatively high in the Baltic States and Ireland. At the onset of crisis in the beginning of the 2008, millions of jobs were lost, with a steepest fall of young people in labour participation rates.

Policy recommendations:

As a result of the present economic and financial crisis, the European Union must focus on long-term strategic planning and stronger coordination and use this downturn as a lever to address future challenges, particularly in the area of economic activities, labour market and skills requirements policies (Son, L., and G.G. Carica. 2010).

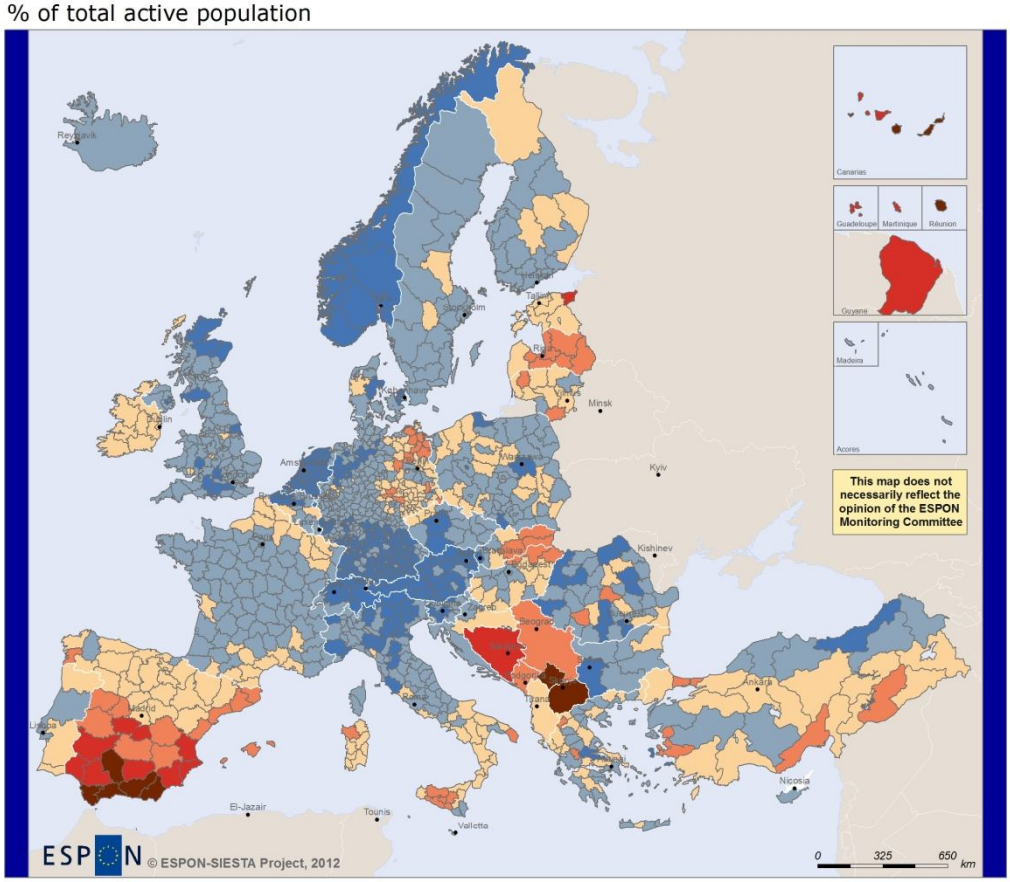
The crisis has exacerbated the long-term social challenges Europe faces nowadays, such as the integration of an increasing immigrant population, social exclusion, child poverty and solidarity between generations in the context of an ageing society. In order to meet these challenges,

employment rates of both men and women must rise rapidly and social protection systems will have to be modernized so that they provide an affordable response to the future needs of the society. This implies that new policies must demonstrably contribute to social cohesion, tackling unemployment and fostering social inclusion while securing well performing labour markets, rethinking education systems and labour markets, enhancing mobility and boosting Europe's dynamism towards its innovative and creative potential(Son, L., and G.G. Carica. 2010).

An important issue regards on unemployment statistics procedures. There are big discrepancies between statistical data on unemployment and the reality. For Romania, the national and regional values are strongly touched by three important elements: the lowest level of employment rate, the shortest period of registration for unemployment persons, and the huge number of people working abroad, but, statistically, registered as population (as consequence the proportion is very low). The same situation is in other countries from Eastern Europe, well-known as out-migrants providers.

Unemployment rate (age group 15 and over), 2009

% of total active population



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Regional level: NUTS 0 and 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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% of total active population aged 15 and over

- < 5
- 5 - 10
- 10 - 15
- 15 - 20
- 20 - 25
- > 30

NOTES:
PT, NO, CH, BG, BE and TR are showed at NUTS 2 level. RS, XK, ME, MK, BA and AL are showed at state level.

EU 27 average = 9.6 %
Red regions are over EU 27 average

2.5. Map 57: Unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities (combined years)

Definition:

Shortly sad the unemployment rate represents the unemployed persons divided by the labour force. But what do we understand by unemployed persons and what are characteristics of the labour force. In order to standardize the statistical data at global level the International Labour Organization came up with a worldwide acknowledged theory. By unemployed people ISO counts in “persons above a specified age who are available to, but did not, furnish the supply of labour for the production of goods and services. The age limit of the working population is established by each country depending on the compulsory schooling age, minimum age for admission to employment, and retirement age. (www.ilo.org) Urban Audit, based on the ILO definition, considers unemployed those persons resident in the studied area having between 15 and 75 years and were (a) without work (b) but available for work and (c) actively seeking work (Urban Audit Handbook).

Relevance:

The unemployment is a common indicator of the economic status of a country, region or city. As stated in the EU2020S, one of the European Commission target is to increase the employment to 75%, hence to decrease the unemployment. It is therefore considered an absolutely determinant indicator considering also the evolution of the crisis across the European space. Unemployment is in the same time perceived as a threat to social cohesion leading to poverty and social exclusion, making this indicator as twice as important. As mentioned before unemployment is considered particularly importing due to the current economic situation in Europe. This is why this indicator is analysed and represented out of several point of views: unemployment in at regional and urban level, unemployment among women and unemployment among young people.

MS	*City*	*Unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities (combined years)*
RO	Călăraşi	28,00
HR	Slavonski Brod	25,50
RO	Giurgiu	25,40
HR	Split	22,70
HR	Osijek	22,50
RO	Bacău	20,70
SK	Košice	20,10
SK	Prešov	19,20
IT	Sassari	18,20
GR	Kavala	18,10

Table 16. This table shows the ten regions with the highest unemployment rates in Urban Audit cities (combined years).

MS	*City*	*Unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities (combined years)*
NO	Stavanger	0,80
BG	Sofia	1,30
NO	Bergen	1,40
NO	Kristiansland	1,50
NO	Oslo	1,50
NO	Trondheim	1,80
NO	Tromsø	1,90
CH	Bern	2,00
CH	St Gallen	2,10
IT	Bologna	2,10

Table 17. This table shows the ten regions with the lowest unemployment rates in Urban Audit cities (combined years).

MS	*City*	*Unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities (combined years)*
FR	Nantes	9,60
FR	Besançon	9,60
UK	Birmingham	9,60
FR	Grenoble	9,50
FR	Clemont-Ferrand	9,40
PT	Lisboa	9,30
FR	Limoges	9,20
CZ	Ústí nad Labem	9,10
GR	Athina	9,10
FR	Poitiers	9,10

Table 18. This table shows the ten regions with average unemployment rates in Urban Audit cities (combined years).

The map representing the unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities doesn't show a clear spatial pattern, like a north-south or east-west divide, but in turn a heterogeneous but very clear clustering pattern emerges. Each of the five categories of unemployment (0,80-4,80, 4,81-7,70, 7,71-10,80 and so on) are spread heterogeneously over cities surveyed in Urban Audit.

As the general European pattern, the Baltic regions behave considerably in a heterogeneous way. The cities from this region find themselves belonging to the first four categories, but the dominant ones belong to the first two categories (up to 7,70% unemployment). This fact is due to the well-tuned and competitive economies of their own countries.

The Urban Audit cities from the Danube region are also characterized by a large variety of categories to which they belong. But in comparison to the Baltic region, the Danube regions is dominated by cities belonging to the fourth and fifth categories, the ones corresponding to the highest values of unemployment (from 10,81% up to 28%). The economy from this region is not capable of employing a high percentage of the labour force, and this is because some of these economies just ended a transition period, restructuring its economy, trying to adapt to the free market economy and thus firing a large percentage of the employees.

The Mediterranean region has a similar behaviour to the Danube region. It is dominated by cities belonging to the last two categories. Urban Audit cities from Southern Italy, Mediterranean Spain, and central Greece have one of the highest values of unemployment. This is because of the fragility given by the lack of economic diversity of their economies.

Cities that have an unemployment rate between 0,80% and 4,80% of total active resident population scatter all over Europe (from Norway to Hungary and Cyprus, and from Ireland to Italy and Bulgaria). The cities comprised in this category cluster heavily in Norway (all of Norwegian Urban Audit Cities). A second smaller Nordic cluster is formed by Stockholm and to other Estonian cities. This clustering pattern is also found in Ireland, southern cities of Great Britain, northern Italy, Swiss cities and southern German Urban Audit cities, and in Bulgaria.

Urban Audit cities belonging to the second category (4,81-7,70%) are clustered in northern Spain, NW and central Italy, northern Great Britain, central and western Germany, Benelux, Denmark, Sweden and Lithuania. What do all of these regional clusters have in common? Probably they have in common a strong historical industrial development (mining, heavy industry, industrial chemistry). The cities from these regions underwent a string economic restructuring, changing their economic profile in due time, managing to keep an average rate of unemployment.

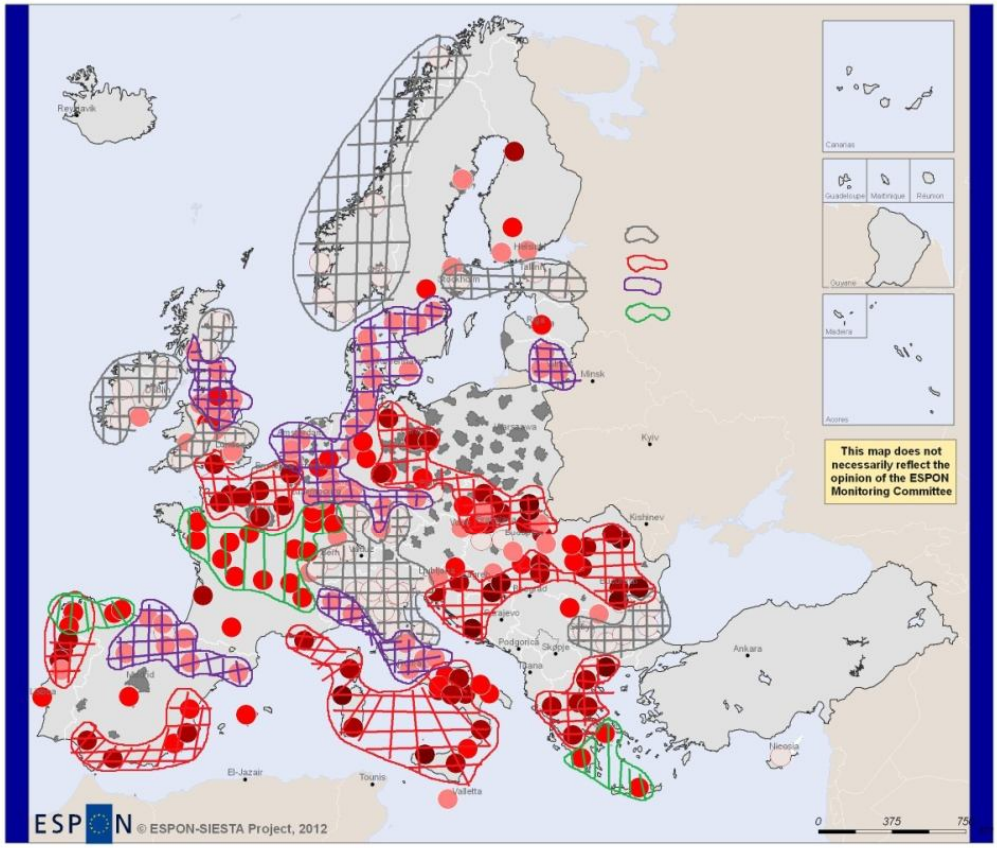
The third category, corresponding to the interval 7,71%-10,81% clusters cities form NW Spain, central France, insular Greece and some cities from central Europe (Hungary, Slovenia, Croatia).

The last category, comprising an unemployment rate higher than 10,81% of total active resident population, dominates the European unemployment landscape. It's well defined clusters range from Portugal, SE Spain, northern, southern and insular France, southern and insular Italy, central Italy, continental Greece, central Europe, and Eastern Europe. Excepting northern France, all the other clusters are characterised by fragile economies, in part due to the low diversity of economic activities, and in part to the deep transformations of the former centralised economies from the east of the Iron Curtain.

Policy recommendations:

Using the results provided by Urban Audit are clearly individualised the intraregional discrepancies, and the place of cities in the regions. The differentiation in the urban unemployment rate leads to defining a specific urban policy for increasing of the proportion of employees at the cities level.

Unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities (combined years*)



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Regional level: LUZ
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, URBAN AUDIT, 2012
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% of total active resident population

- 0,80 - 4,80
- 4,81 - 7,70
- 7,71 - 10,80
- 10,81 - 16,20
- 16,21 - 28,00
- Large Urban Zones

NOTES:
Data are not available for the following countries: PL Data for CY, LV, LT, MT, FI, SE, UK, NO and CH are shownfor 2008. Data for FR are showed for 2006. Data for HU are shown for 2005. Data for AT, BE, CZ, DK, IE, GR, IT, NL, PT, RO, SI and SK are shown for 2004.

2.6. Map 58: Change in unemployment rate, 2007-2009

Definition:

Shortly sad the unemployment rate represents the unemployed persons divided by the labour force. But what do we understand by unemployed persons and what are characteristics of the labour force. In order to standardize the statistical data at global level the International Labour Organization came up with a worldwide acknowledged theory. By unemployed people ISO counts in “persons above a specified age who are available to, but did not, furnish the supply of labour for the production of goods and services. The age limit of the working population is established by each country depending on the compulsory schooling age, minimum age for admission to employment, and retirement age. (www.ilo.org) Urban Audit, based on the ILO definition, considers unemployed those persons resident in the studied area having between 15 and 75 years and were (a) without work (b) but available for work and (c) actively seeking work. (Urban Audit Handbook)

Relevance:

The unemployment is a common indicator of the economic status of a country, region or city. As stated in the EU2020S, one of the European Commission target is to increase the employment to 75%, hence to decrease the unemployment. It is therefore considered an absolutely determinant indicator considering also the evolution of the crisis across the European space. Unemployment is in the same time perceived as a threat to social cohesion leading to poverty and social exclusion, making this indicator as twice as important. As mentioned before unemployment is considered particularly importing due to the current economic situation in Europe. This is why this indicator is analysed and represented out of several point of views: unemployment in at regional and urban level, unemployment among women and unemployment among young people.

MS	*Region*	*Change in unemployment rate, 2007-2009*
ES	Lanzarote	20.1
ES	Fuerteventura	19.2
ES	Gran Canaria	15.9
ES	El Hierro	15.7
ES	Malaga	15.5
ES	Almeria	15.3
ES	Tenerife	14.8
ES	Granada	14.3
ES	La Gomera	14.1
LV	Zemgale	13.2

Table 19. This table shows the ten regions with the most severe change in unemployment rates, 2007-2009.

MS	*Region*	*Change in unemployment rate, 2007-2009*
FR	Haute-Garonne, Guadeloupe	0,80
IT	Reggio Calabria, Treviso, Macerata	0,80
DE	Enzkreis, Heilbronn Stadtkreis, Rottweil, Schwarzwald-Baar-Kreis, Reutlingen, Biberach, Merzig-Wadern, Schweinfurt Kreisfreie Stadt, Goslar	0,80
AT	Bludenz-Bregenzer Wald, Sankt Pölten	0,80
PT	Região Autónoma da Madeira	0,80
FI	Tavastia Proper	0,80
UK	Sefton, Buckinghamshire	0,80
RO	Maramures County, Mures County	0,80

Table 20. This table shows the regions with median change in unemployment rates, 2007-2009.

MS	*Region*	*Change in unemployment rate, 2007-2008*
BG	Sofia province	-12.2
PL	Miasto Szczecin	-12.6
BG	Vidin Province	-13.4
BG	Dobrich Province	-13.4
BG	Smolyan Province	-13.9
BG	Silistra Province	-15.2
PL	Miasto Poznań	-15.2
BG	Shumen Province	-17.4
DE	Eichsfeld	-20.6
BG	Razgrad Province	-23.5

Table 21. This table shows the ten regions with the highest decrease of the unemployment rates, 2007-2009.

At a first look of the map, the colour that jumps into the reader's attention is red or different nuances of red. This means that the majority NUTS 3 regions registered an increase of the number of people unemployed. The time spam of 2007-2009 is enough to capture the impact of the financial and economical world crisis. The year 2007 is pre-crisis year, 2008 is the year when the crisis appeared and 2009 is the first year with full on-going crisis.

The country responses to holding or creating new jobs are heterogeneous. There are types of countries in which every region manages to create new jobs and thus lowering the unemployment rate (Bulgaria- EU, Norway-non EU, Croatia-non EU, Macedonia-non EU, Montenegro-non EU, Serbia-non EU, Bosnia and Herzegovina-non EU); there is the type of countries in which every region registers loses of working places (Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Portugal, Spain, Ireland, Iceland, Sweden, Czech Republic, Cyprus). And there is the third type, the country which combines both regions that maintain or increase the rate of employment, and regions that don't succeed to maintain their employment rate.

The Baltic region appears to be strongly divided and heterogeneous. There can be said that there is a north-south divide, in the sense that the regions above the shore line of Germany and Poland, excepting the Norwegian regions, all register an increase in the level of unemployment between 2007 and 2009. The major focus falls on the Baltic countries of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, where the majority of regions lost more

than 9% of their employment rate. This is the case of one of the most severe increases of the unemployment rate together with southern and eastern regions of Spain. On the other hand the majority of regions from northern Germany and northern Poland, and as mentioned earlier the Norwegian regions register a moderate decrease of the unemployment rate with up to 3%.

The Danube region is also characterized by the same heterogeneity. Regions from southern Germany either register an increase or a decrease of the unemployment rate with up to 3%. The Czech Republic, Slovakia, Austria and Hungary, the majority of their regions lose 3% of their working places. In some Hungarian regions the percentage of job losses is even higher (6-9%). On the other hand the former republics of Yugoslavia, together with the entire Bulgarian regions and the majority of south-eastern regions of Romania register a slight decrease of the unemployment rate (up to 3%). The Bulgarian regions also hold the highest decrease of the unemployment rate between 2007 and 2009.

If the Baltic region and the Danube region were characterized by heterogeneity, the Mediterranean region appears to be much more homogeneous. With few exceptions of decrease of the unemployment rate (peninsular Greece, Corsica) the majority of the remaining regions suffer an increase of the unemployment rate. Italy (continental and insular) and Greece (also continental and insular) show a slight increase of the earlier mentioned rate (up to 3%). The Mediterranean regions of Turkey belong to the next two categories of increase in the unemployment rate (3-6% and 6-9%). But without any doubt, Spain stands out, in a negative way. The Mediterranean regions of Spain, together with the insular regions, and other central Spanish regions register the highest rate of increase of the unemployment rate. Most of these regions lose more than 20% of the existing working places.

Western Europe is also divided and heterogeneous, but with a slight dominance of regions with increase of the unemployment rate. Excepting the German kreises, some clustered regions from Bretagne and central France, and some other punctual and isolated regions from Belgium, The Netherlands, Swiss and Great Britain, the western part of Europe fall into the general trend of decrease of existing jobs and thus the increase of the unemployment rate, a special situation emerging from Ireland and Scotland.

In top 15 NUTS 3 regions that registered the most revere drop in the employment rate, 13 regions are from Spain. This severe decrease ranges between -20.1% in -13% in. The other two regions in top 15 are from Latvia and Lithuania. Several NUTS 3 regions in Spain almost reach an unemployment rate of almost 30%.

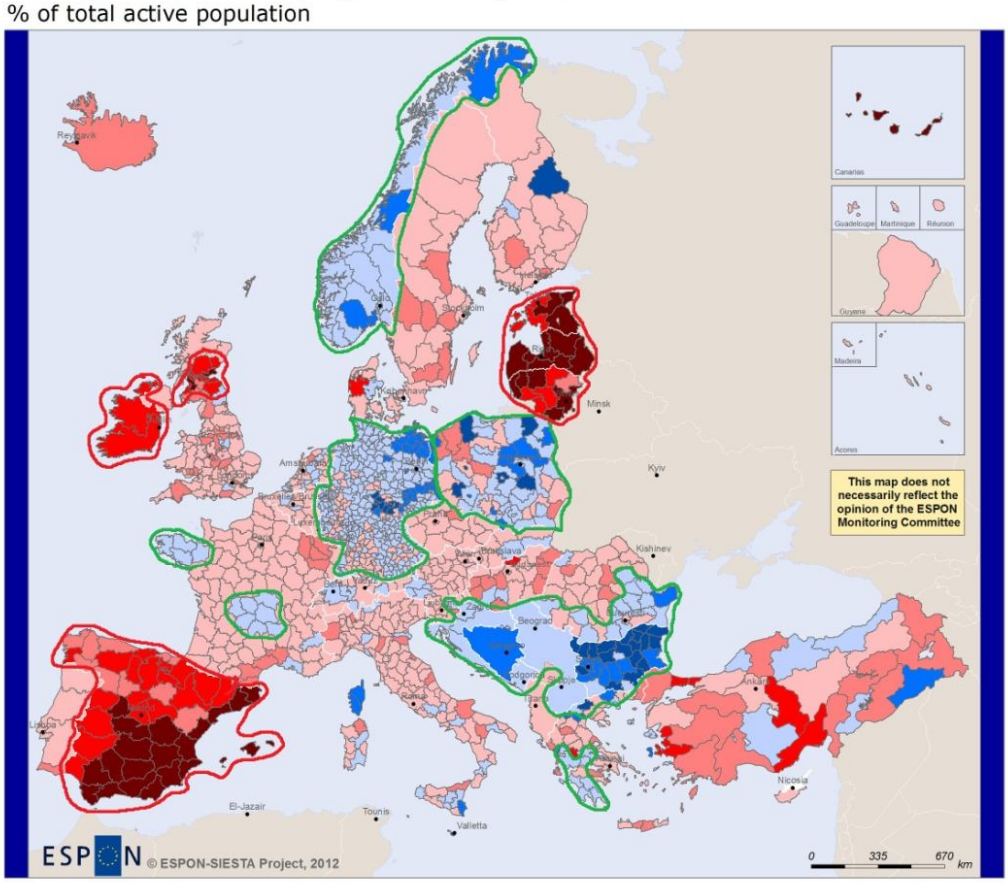
On the other hand, in the top 15 NUTS 3 regions that managed to reduce the unemployment rate, 10 regions are from Bulgaria, two are from Germany, and three from Poland. The Bulgarian regions managed to reduce their unemployment rate with up to 23.5%.

Policy recommendations:

Taking into account the high effects of the crisis on the unemployment changes between 2007 and 2010, especially in the Baltic republics, Spain and Ireland, urgently is asking for defining the policies in the field. Unemployment changes are the results of negative evolutions of the national and regional economies. For UE and national organisms a priority is a politics complex for improving the economic indicators of the strong affected areas.

Change in the unemployment rate, 2007-2009

% of total active population



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Regional level: NUTS 0 and 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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Percentage points difference

- < -6
- -6 - -3
- -3 - 0
- 0 - 3
- 3 - 6
- 6 - 9
- > 9

NOTES:
PT, NO, CH, BG, BE and TR are showed at NUTS 2 level. RS, XK, ME, MK, BA and AL are showed at state level.

2.7. Map 59: Gender balance in unemployment (age group 15 and over), 2009

Definition:

The unemployment rate is a conventional way to measure the state of the labour market. It shows the number of people unemployed as percentage of the active people. To obtain a more detailed image and some particularities of the economic performance of a region the unemployment rate is divided and can be analysed out of several point of views. Hence this criterion can be broken-down into age groups (especially young unemployment), time of unemployment (long term and very long term unemployment) and gender (male and female unemployment).

Relevance:

In most cases two aspects are extremely important in analysing the economic trends respectively the youth unemployment and the long-term unemployment. In the same time unemployment among women is a new indicator showing labour market disparities, strongly pronounced in some European regions. More than that it is also a parameter used in defining the social and territorial cohesion status of a region. With the EU2020S the participation of women in the labour market and by that the achievement of a strong human capital is enforced. (EU2020S, COM (2011) 11 final). More over higher number of employed women can prevent social exclusion and discrimination and in the same time encouraging the fight against poverty. Of course all of this has to be framed by flexible career-family balance.

MS	*Region*[2]	*Gender balance in unemployment (age group 15 and over), 2009*
ES	Melila	16,1
XK	Kosovo	15,7
ES	Ceuta	15,3
GR	Lesvos Prefecture	14,8
GR	Evrytania Prefecture	14,1
GR	Drama Prefecture	13,8
GR	Fokida Prefecture	13,7
GR	Ewoia Prefecture	13,5
ES	Salamanca	12,4
GR	Lefkada Prefecture	12,2

Table 22. This table shows the ten regions with the highest difference between female and male unemployment rates.

MS	*Region*	*Gender balance in unemployment (age group 15 and over), 2009*
DE	Coburg, Landkreis	1,0
DE	Saarlouis	1,0
IT	Reggio Emilia	1,0
HU	Békés	1,0
NL	Achterhoek	1,0
NL	Kop van North Holland	1,0
AT	Osttirol	1,0
PL	Ostrołęcko-siedlecki	1,0
SE	Västmanland	1,0
UK	Thurrock	1,0

Table 23. This table shows the ten regions with an average difference between female and male unemployment rate

[2]The selected regions are at different NUTS levels, according to the data availability and map 59 Gender balance in unemployment (age group 15 and over), 2009

MS	*Region*	*Gender balance in unemployment (age group 15 and over), 2009*
RO	Vâlcea County	-14,4
UK	Eilian Siar	-12,7
TR	Sanliurfa	-10,4
TR	Van	-9,9
IE	Border Region	-9,7
LV	Pierīga	-9,7
IE	Midlands Region	-9,2
RO	Gorj County	-8,9
RO	Arad County	-8,9
LV	Zemgale	-8,8

Table 24. This table shows the ten regions with the smallest difference between female and male unemployment rate.

At a first glances the difference between female and male unemployment rate shows an interesting pattern, separating the extreme southern part of Europe with the rest of it. As so, regions in Spain, Italy and Greece register a high gap in female participation in labour market as percent of the active population. Regions with score laying below +6 are scattered over the Eastern and Central-Eastern Europe. On the contrary Northern Europe the data on gender balance in unemployment suggest a higher involvement of women in the labour market. Still the ranking regions with a high number of working female are to be found in Romania and Turkey. The industrial breakdown in Romania after the regime change and the massive migration of the male population looking for a job opportunity outside the country borders could explain the phenomena of the former communist country. A different situation is in the case of Turkey, where most of the female population is registered as “housewife” showing as a result a lower score in unemployment rate. Western Europe is maintaining itself at an average value of -2 to +2, meaning that the balance in gender unemployment remains stable. A higher verity in unemployment at gender level is visible in Eastern Europe. Regions with scores between -2 and -6 are scattered all over the countries although, the tendency is that of a higher unemployment rate among the male population.

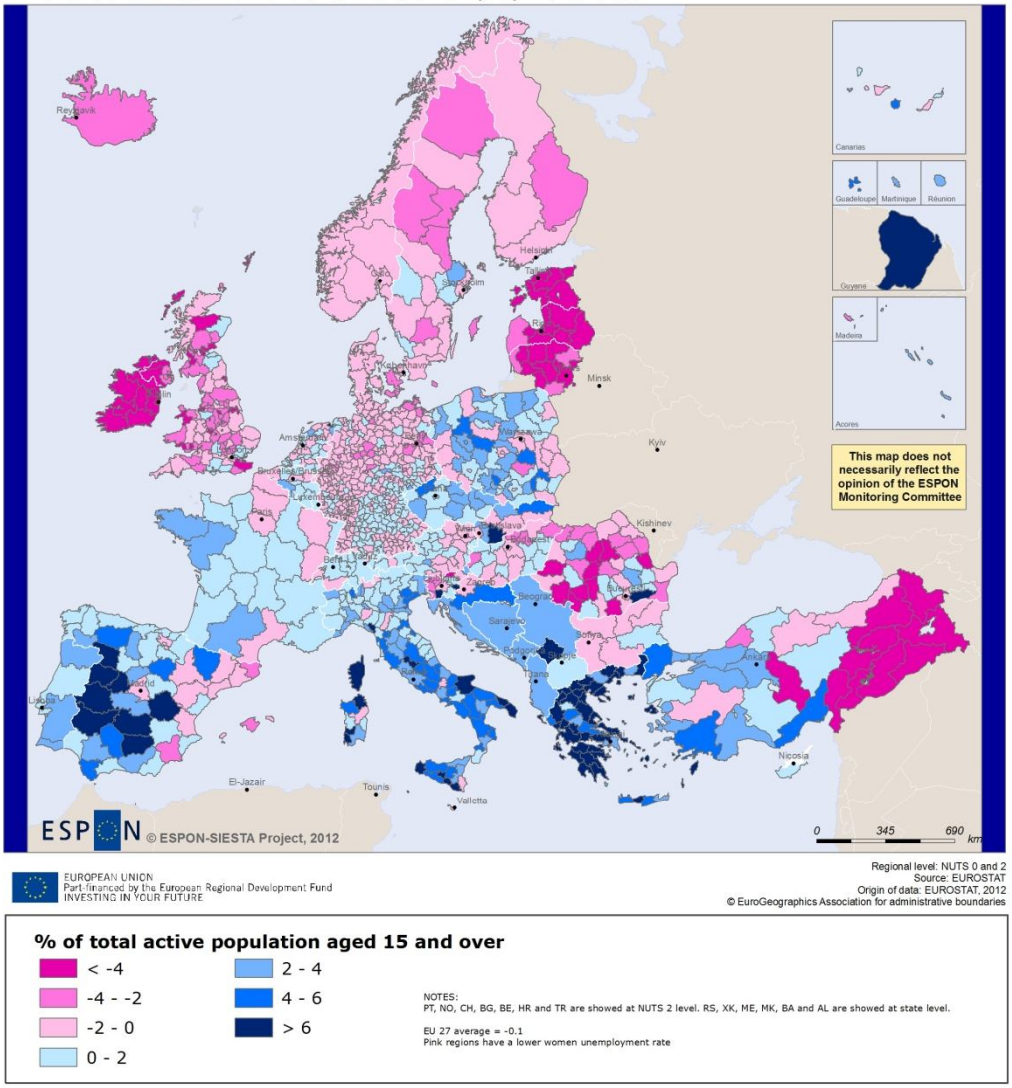
Policy recommendations:

There is a good connection between politics for increasing of the female population employability and politics to diminish the female population unemployment rate. National and regional politics in the southern part of

Europe must to be focused on economic branches using especially female population resources.

Gender balance in unemployment (age group 15 and over), 2009

Difference between female and male unemployment rates



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Regional level: NUTS 0 and 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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% of total active population aged 15 and over

- < -4
- -4 - -2
- -2 - 0
- 0 - 2
- 2 - 4
- 4 - 6
- > 6

NOTES:
PT, NO, CH, BG, BE, HR and TR are showed at NUTS 2 level. RS, XK, ME, MK, BA and AL are showed at state level.

EU 27 average = -0.1
Pink regions have a lower women unemployment rate

2.8. Map 60: Gender balance unemployment in Urban Audit cities, 2007-2009

Definition:

Taking in consideration that the greater part of the population World Wide and especially in Europe is living in cities and towns, Urban Audit was born. Since 1998 thanks to a joint effort by the Directorate-General for Regional Policy (DG REGIO) and Eurostat statistical data from over 250 cities across the 27 EU Member States were collected, presenting information from different fields as demography, economic activities, society and environment, transport or communication. (Urban Audit Handbook, 2004; EUROSTAT) Urban Audit aims to provide reliable and comparative information by using European urban statistics considering the "growing demand for an assessment of the quality of life in European towns/cities" (Urban Audit Handbook, 2004, page 5). Over the years Urban Audit became an important tool for decision-making and polices at different levels: local, regional, national and supranational.

The cities included in the Urban Audit follows rigorous criteria. Selected were foremost all capital cities across the Member States. Second, where possible, regional capitals were included. To ensure an equal representation of large and medium sized cities in Urban Audit only some of them were included. Finally about 20% of the national population should be covered by the Urban Audit.

Relevance:

Urban regions represent an on-going concern in finding an adaptable and diverse economic structure to ensure a sustainable development in socio-economic areas. In the States of European Cities Report (2007) a paradox is highlighted as in most Urban Audit cities[3] a higher unemployment rate is registered considering the higher concentration of job opportunities as in the rural area. The importance of analysing urban regions in terms of unemployment rate is highly important considering that those regions are the "engines of economic growth across Europe" (States of European Cities Report, 2007, page V). Cities and urban agglomerations are the lead regions in knowledge and innovation production, boosting the local and national economy, clearly recognisable in the GDP level of the cities. As stated in the States of European Cities Report (2007) female participation has a strong influence on employment rates, considered to be a supplement in the labour force, rather than a replacement.

[3] 2001 Urban Audit data is taken into consideration

MS	*City*	*Gender balance unemployment in Urban Audit cities, 2007-2009*
SK	Trenčín	-3,6
UK	Stoke-on-Trent	-3,4
FI	Oulu	-3,1
DE	Frankfurt (Oder)	-3,0
SE	Umeå	-2,8
UK	Sheffield	-2,8
UK	201???	-2,7
EE	Cork	-2,6
DE	Berlin	-2,5
UK	Exeter	-2,5

Table 25. This table shows the ten regions with the lowest difference between female and male unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities, 2007 – 2009

MS	*City*	*Gender balance unemployment in Urban Audit cities, 2007-2009*
DK	Aalborg	1,1
DE	Stuttgart	1,1
FR	Strasbourg	1,4
FR	Rennes	1,4
UK	London	1,4
FR	Rouen	1,5
FR	Orléans	1,5
FR	Reims	1,6
FR	Poitiers	1,6
FR	Caen	1,6

Table 26. This table shows the ten regions with average difference between female and male unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities, 2007 – 2009

MS	*City*	*Gender balance unemployment in Urban Audit cities, 2007-2009*
GR	Kavala	17,7
HR	Slavonski Brod	17,4
GR	Volos	15,8
GR	Larisa	15,6
HR	Split	11,9
SK	Nitra	11,6
GR	Thessaloniki	11,1
GR	Ioannina	10,6
GR	Kalamata	10,3
HR	Osijek	9,8

Table 27. This table shows the ten regions with the highest difference between female and male unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities, 2007 - 2009

In general cities represent an economic engine for the region and the country. But a high value of the GDP doesn't always mean a high employment rate. According to the States of European Cities Report (2007) only 28% of Urban Audit core cities register employment rate higher than the average of the country. It is also known that the participation of women in the labour market brings an important contribution to the overall employment rate. This fact and the target of the EU2020S to achieve 75% of employment rate of the population aged 20-64 is justifying the need to take a closer look to the gender balance in unemployment rate in the most important European cities.

Women participation in the labour market is not only an important economic measure, but also a social action considering that women are more at risk of poverty than men.

As shown in Map 60 a clear pattern in the distribution of gender inequality in the unemployment rate is to be noticed. In general the southern countries register a huge difference in gender unemployment rate in Urban Audit cites as in Croatia and Greece. According to the State of Europe Cities Report 2007 in this category is also Italy included with a rather low overall female employment rate, where in some Italian cities fewer than 30% of women have a job (page XI). In the same time the northern countries stand out with a negative balance showing a higher unemployment rate among men than among women. Included in this category are countries like Finland, Sweden, Ireland, Latvia, Norway, Estonia, and Lithuania. An interesting exception at country level is showing Romania with a difference of -2% between the female and male unemployment rate at Urban Audit level. This anomaly could be explained by the reorganization of the heavy industry sector, where the labour

market was occupied predominantly by men. Slovenia, Luxembourg, Belgium, Austria and Malta are among those countries with average disparities in unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities.

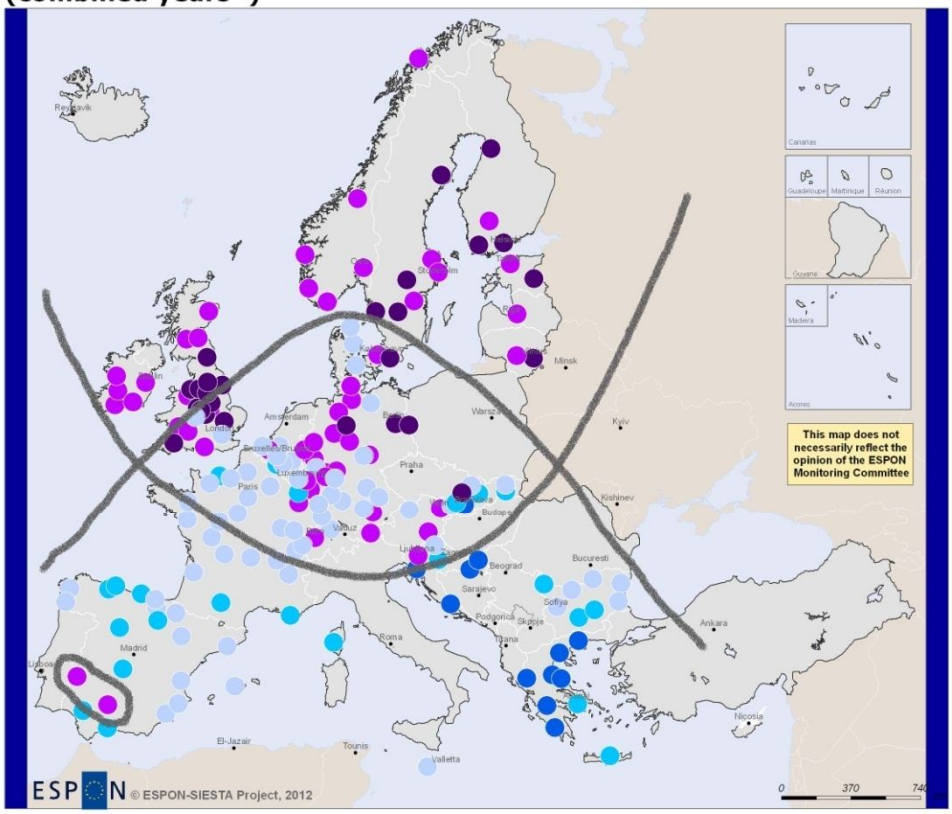
Country level disparities are visible in some cases, among which the most outstanding are German, Spain, and the United Kingdom. In Germany the balance of female and male unemployment rate lies between 2,1% and -3%. Scattered and varied are also the values registered in the case of Urban Audit cities in Spain. The range of values shows a considerable difference between the analysed cities. The Urban Audit cities analysed for UK reveal a predominant negative balance of the gender unemployment rate, ranking with -3,4.

In several countries we are witnessing a homogenous participation of women in the labour market. In France it is stabilized at around 0.01 – 2,90%.

Policy recommendations:

The rate differences between female and male unemployment for the European cities demonstrate necessity to define four regional specific policies, connected with the previous map: a policy for the Balkan cities, oriented to a rapid increasing of the female employment rate, a policy focused on the increasing of the female employment rate for the Iberian cities, another for the Northern European cities attracting the male population to the economic activities, and the fourth characterised by compensatory measures connected with the particularities of the cities for the Central Europe.

Gender Balance in unemployment rate in Urban Audit cities (combined years*)



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Regional level: LUZ
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, URBAN AUDIT, 2012
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% of female unemployemt - male unemployment

- -3,60 - -1,40
- -1,39 - 0,00
- 0,01 - 2,90
- 2,91 - 7,30
- 7,31 - 17,70
- Large urban areas

NOTES:
Data are not available for the following countries: CZ, IT, HU, NL, PL, PT, RO
* Data for AT, BE, BG, DE, ES, LV, LT, LU, MT, FI, SE, NO, CH, UK are showed for 2008. Data for FR are shown for 2006. Data for HR, DK, IE, EL, SI, SK are shown for 2004.

2.9. Map 61: Youth unemployment rate

Definition:

Youth unemployment rate is the percentage of the unemployed in the age group 15-24 years old compared to the total labour force (both employed and unemployed) in that age group. However, it should be mentioned that a large share of people between these ages are outside the labour market (since many youths are studying full time and those are not available for work), which explains why youth unemployment rates are generally higher than overall unemployment rates or those of other age groups.

Relevance:

The reduction of the unemployment rate represents a priority of European level especially as this is generally much higher than unemployment rates for all ages. Youth are three times more likely to be unemployed than adults, even in economies with strong economic growth (ILO, 2008 quoted by World Bank report, 2010, p. 1).

EU institutions have been active in initiating a range of activities and programs designed to enhance skills development, including targeting policy at young people and focusing on specific sectors (Commission Staff Working Document “Restructuring in Europe” p. 80, 2012).

A special attention was paid to reduce unemployment among young people which have been severely hit by the crisis, with an unemployment rate over 21% (EU Strategy 2020, p. 16). Limited experience and opportunity to acquire workplace skills mean that their labour market attachment is often more tenuous than that of older workers – they are more likely to be in nonpermanent work – and this can leave them more vulnerable to job loss than their older counterparts (Hurley, Mandl, 2011, p. 75).

There is a direct relation between the level of education and the labour market insertion, considering that people with higher education can easier find a job. In this regard there are concerns at EU level to increase the number of people choosing higher level of training and qualification. This means empowering people through the acquisition of new skills to enable current and future workforce to adapt to new conditions and potential career shifts, reduce unemployment and raise labour productivity (An Agenda for new skills and jobs). Also, “Youth on the Move”’ initiative aims to remove obstacles to reaching greater educational attainment and higher employment rates for young people.

Youth unemployment is one of the most pressing economic and social problems confronting those countries whose labor markets have

weakened substantially since 2008, following the near-collapse of worldwide financial markets (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011, p. 1).

In the "Youth on the move", one of the seven flagship initiatives of the EU Strategy 2020, it is specified the importance of enhancing the performance of education systems and to facilitate the insertion of young people to the labour market.

MS	*Region*	*Youth unemployed rate*
DE	Chemnitz	4.0
DE	Dresden	4.1
CZ	Prague	4.2
DE	Thüringen	5.0
DE	Leipzig	5.2
SK	Bratislava	5.8
DE	Brandenburg-Südwest	5.9
DE	Sachsen-Anhalt	6.8
CZ	Jihovýchod (Southeast)	7.3
CZ	Střední Morava (Central Moravia)	7.8

Table 28. "The top regions"

MS	*Region*	*Youth unemployed rate*
GR	Voreia Ellada	42,9
IT	Marche	42,7
IT	Fiuli-Venezia Giulia	42,2
ES	Aragon	42,0
GR	Thessalia	40,9
IT	Emilia-Romagna	40,8
GR	Kentriki Makedonia	40,7
ES	Navarre	40,3
FR	Haute Normandie	37,5
IT	Umbria	37,5

Table 29. The "median regions"

MS	*Region*	*Youth unemployed rate*
TR	Erzurum	84.9
TR	Gaziantep	84.2
TR	Sanliurfa	84.0
TR	Mardin	82.9
TR	Hatay	81,5
TR	Van	81,1
TR	Manisa	80,1
PT	Região Autónoma dos AÇORES	79,6
TR	Zonguldak	77,8
TR	Bati Marmara	77,2

Table 30. "The bottom regions"

The analysis of the youth unemployment rate reflects variations at the level of European regions, which are the result as well of economic factors, as of social-cultural one (national educational policies, cultural context)

There are several European countries that managed to maintain a low level of the unemployment rate among young people, and they do constant efforts to reduce furthermore the unemployment rate of the youth, as for example Germany.

The lowest values of this indicator are present in parts of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Northern Europe, countries registering values under the European average. Although at regional level in the Scandinavians are registered predominantly low and medium values of this indicator, it is easy to notice a series of differences, namely: predominantly low scores in regions of Norway and higher values in regions of Sweden and Finland.

Inferior average values are to be found in regions from Germany, Austria, and superior average values are characteristic for regions in France, Italy and the Czech Republic.

A special group of countries consists of Central and Eastern Europe states, classified as countries in economic transition. There are several differences between them consisting in low values of the youth unemployment rate, under the European average, like Czech Republic, partially Poland and those countries registering higher values as Hungary and Romania.

The highest values of this indicator are to be found in some regions of Spain, especially in south and south-east, Greece, Portugal, Turkey, and the Baltic countries.

Although there are examples of countries where youth unemployment rate is equable represented, most of the countries show large variations nationwide. If in most of the cases the variation of the values is due to economic differentiation between north and south regions, in Romania this pattern is no longer followed, high values being registered in the central regions, with a higher economic development, unlike the south, that whit the exception of the capital city, is characterized by low values of the economic indicators. It is also to be noticed the elevated values of the youth unemployment rate in regions where the economy was dominated by industry and which are currently affected by industrial restructuring.

Industrial areas which previously passed through the economic restructuring in Europe managed, by coherent conversion to support the economic vitality, reflected by a low unemployment rate. An example can be mention: the north region of Portugal (Norte) where a multi-actor

‘bottom-up’ regional competitiveness pact was launched in 2007, covering areas such as innovation, internationalisation, employment, mobility, social inclusion and support for enterprises. The region is highly reliant on industry, especially textiles, and the pact focuses on innovating the industrial base and making it more hi-tech. This includes linking sectors through ‘competitiveness poles’, retraining and upskilling (eg in ICT skills), and attracting young people into industry (Commission Staff Working Document “Restructuring in Europe” p. 300, 2012).

Central and Eastern European countries have registered as main changes in the labor market since the collapse of socialism: the relocation of labour (Grainca, 2012, p. 28).

After the fall of the communist the shift in the social order of Central and Eastern European countries replaced the forced homogenization of communist rule and various constellations of disadvantaged marked the employment and family trajectories of young people (Ule, 2005, Mitev, 2005, Tomanovic and Ignjatovic, 2006 quoted by Chisholm, Kovacheva, Merico, 2011, p. 22). Contrasting patterns were detected between the early passage to adulthood in the North of Europe influenced by the comprehensive support from universalistic state (Helve, 1993, Brannen et al., 2002 quoted by Chisholm, Kovacheva, Merico, 2011, p. 22) and the deplayed transition of young people in the South of the continent supported by the “long family” (Donati & Scabini, 1988, Leccardi, 1995 quoted by Chisholm, Kovacheva, Merico, 2011, p. 22).

Changes generated in the labour market and the shift of active population to other fields is a direct consequence of political and economic factors. If in the communist period, the administration at regional and national level emphases the development of industry, in the post-communist period it is to be noticed an alignment of the countries in Central and Eastern Europe to the new economic trends: reduction of industrial activities, development of services and technology. The latter is mainly taken by youth people with higher education. This was favored, by the adjustment of the higher education system to the new trends, as well as by the specialization of young people in educational, professional and vocational programs in the Western European countries. These programs provided the young people with a series of technical skills that allowed an easier enrolment in the labour market. This may explain the low rate of youth unemployment in some Central and Eastern European countries (Czech Republic, Slovenia and Slovakia).

Also, a low percentage of proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24, in Central and Ester Europe countries is also due to the large share of young people, who after graduation, headed to a higher form of education, favoured by the existence of a free higher educational system.

On the other hand, in countries of Western Europe the educational policies are oriented to attract an important number of foreign students, being developed mobility programs for education or training programs for young people. Some programs are organized in partnership with the private sector and designed to ensure the acquisition of professional skills to support the insertion of youth people in the labour market

Analysing the indicator youth unemployment by the ESPON type of regions some differences can be highlighted. The coastal regions in North and West Europe register low values. Coastal regions in the Baltic's or the Sothern continent register higher values.

Likewise, high scores are registered in the profound or predominant rural areas (western Spain), on island (Sardinia and Corsica) or in sparsely and mountain regions (regions in Sweden and Finland, North-Eastern Scotland).

In urban regions are isolated high values registered: Andalusia in Spain. But most regions dominated by capital cities register lower values of the youth unemployment rate.

At European level, special attention is given to stimulate the economy in predominantly rural areas and to increase in the same time the quality of living conditions. Usually, migration to urban centres to find a better job is an option frequently taken into consideration by the young people. Some countries developed policies that have the explicit objective to increase employment and development opportunities in rural regions, often by designating certain urban centres within rural regions in which development, services (such as education or the relocation of certain government agencies) and amenities will be concentrated. Countries in which this rationale is applied in polycentric policies include Greece, Ireland, Norway and Sweden (Espon 1.1.1. project, p. 17-18).

Increasing the flexibility of the labor market and its transitional security is of relevance in the face of the challenges of tackling unemployment created by the recession, especially of young people, in the context of segmented labour markets, and to ease the necessary sectoral reallocation and smooth its impact on the workers concerned (Commission Staff Working Document "Restructuring in Europe", p. 50, 2012).

The analysis of youth unemployment rate by sex reflects that most countries were showing lower values among men (Czech Republic, Denmark, Hungary, The Netherlands, Austria, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, United Kingdom and France). Three countries presents lower unemployment rate for females, respectively Portugal, Belgium, Ireland, Finland and Turkey.

The analysis on the indicator youth unemployment rate for the last three years (2009-2011) reflects for most of the European countries a decrease of this indicator as well at national as at regional level (Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Hungary) low increases (Switzerland, The Netherlands, Romania) or stagnation as in Slovakia.

One of the goals of “Youth on the move” is to unleash the potential of young people to achieve smart, sustainable and inclusive growth in the European Union.

There is a direct connection between de level of education and the access to the labour market, as the people with higher education can easier find a job.

Also, the more and more young people are staying later in education. In 2008 nearly 60% of the age group 15-24 participated in formal education, 5 percentage points more than in 2000 (European Commission, Directorate-General Regional Policy, 2007, p. 33).

Of particular concern is the rising number of young people disconnected from both education and the labour market (Bel & Blanchflower, 2011, p. 1). On average in the OECD, almost 11% of all young people aged 15-24 were NEET (neither in Education nor in Employment or Training) in 2008. Of these, 33% had been unemployed for less than a year, 7% were unemployed for more than a year, and 60% were inactive without studying (OCDE report).

The rate of the unemployment youth is higher between younger least educated (Jackson & Cameron, 2010, Bell & Blanchflower, 2011). In the EU Strategy 2020 it is specified that for instance, better educational levels help employability and progress in increasing the employment rate helps to reduce poverty (p.9).

The focus should be on acquiring skills that the job markets of today need such as proficiency with computer and basic technical qualifications (OCDE report, p.5).

"An agenda for new skills and jobs" has the target to increase labour participation and better match labour supply and demand, including through labour mobility. The last one specification can be easily done by the young people comparing with other age groups.

High youth unemployment rates do reflect the difficulties faced by young people in finding jobs. However, this does not necessarily mean that the group of unemployed persons aged between 15 and 24 is large because many young people are studying full-time and are therefore neither

working nor looking for a job (so they are not part of the labour force which is used as the denominator for calculating the unemployment rate).

Young people represent one of the most vulnerable groups in society, especially in the current economic and financial crisis (EU Strategy for Youth, 2009). Authors like Esping Andersen (1990) and Pohl and Walther (2007), both quoted by Chisholm, Kovacheva, Merico, 2011, p. 31, consider to implement the concept of "activation" in addressing the needs of disadvantaged young people. The same authors consider that are major regional differences in the European space. They identify the "universalistic" countries in the North of Europe with a comprehensive school system and an emphasis on education as the focus of transition policies; liberal (UK) where individual rights and responsibilities are valued above collective provisions, employment–centred (Austria-Germany) in which schooling is more selectively organised, allocating young people into occupations and social positions; "sub-protective" (Southern European countries) in which the relative scarcity of "standard" works opportunities means a significant role is played by the family and by informal work arrangements; and the "post-communist" countries where the restructuring of the economy and labour market has presented people with the "de-standardisation, uncertainty and risk" to which different countries were adopting policy responses (Pohl and Walther, 2007 quoted by Chisholm, Kovacheva, Merico, 2011, p. 31).

Policy recommendations:

One of the proposals is related with the efforts of member states in the process of highlighting the importance of education in the development of young people careers. Some tools that can be used to recognize skills and competences gained are the non–formal education and vocational training.

According to the Council Resolution from November 2009 (on a renewed framework for European cooperation in the youth field: 2010-2018, p. 3) some recommendations related to the youth unemployment could be mentioned:

- create more and equal opportunities for all young people for education and in the labour market;
- promote the active citizen, social inclusion and solidarity of all young people.

In the EU Strategy 2020 it is mentioned to be launched a Youth employment framework outlining policies aimed at reducing youth unemployment rates: this should promote, with Member States and social

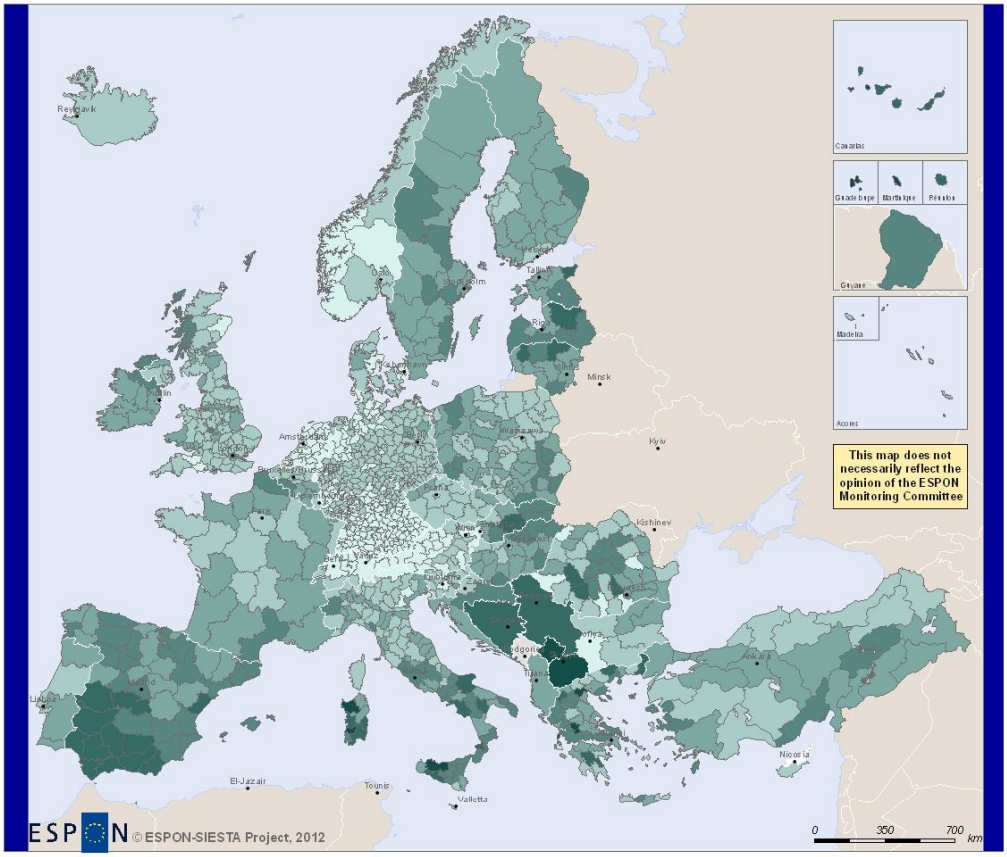
partners, young people's entry into the labour market through apprenticeships, stages or other work experiences, including a scheme ("Your first EURES job") aimed at increasing job opportunities for young people by favouring mobility across the EU (p. 11).

Related to this could be mentioned a series of programmes launched by the EU in the Lifelong Learning domain related to the professional programmes addressed to the young people : Leonardo da Vinci to ensure the professional skills for this age group.

One of the targets of EU Strategy 2020 is to improved young people's entry into the labour market through integrated action covering.

Youth unemployment rate, 2009

Percentage of the unemployed in the age group 15 to 24 years old compared to the total labour force (both employed and unemployed).



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Regional level: NUTS 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2011
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Youth unemployment rate (%)

- < 10
- 10 - 20
- 20 - 30
- 30 - 40
- 40 - 50
- > 50
- No data

NOTES:
BG, FR, HR, TR and PT are showed at NUTS 2 level. AL, BA, RS, XK and MK are showed at state level.
Youth unemployment includes all the youth (i.e people between the ages of 15 and 24, inclusive) who are unemployed.

Youth unemployment rate is the percentage of the unemployed in the age group 15 to 24 years old compared to the total labour force (both employed and unemployed) in that age group. However, it should be remembered that a large share of people between these ages are outside the labour market (since many youths are studying full time and thus are not available for work), which explains why youth unemployment rates are generally higher than overall unemployment rates, or those of other age groups.

2.10. Map 62: Proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24 in Urban Audit cities (combined years*)

Definition:

This indicator refers to the youth labour force that is unemployed. The indicator is known also as youth unemployment rates (young people are defined as persons aged between 15 and 24).

Relevance:

The relevance of this indicator results out of its close connection to the third priority specified in the EU2020S, respectively the *Inclusive growth fostering a high-employment economy delivering social and territorial cohesion* (p. 3). Since the unemployment rate among the youth people is higher by comparison with the other age groups (young people have been severely hit by the crisis, with an unemployment rate over 21%, EU Strategy 2020, p. 16), this indicator represents a priority among the strategic actions that will be implemented in the European space until 2020. This means empowering people through the acquisition of new skills to enable current and future workforce to adapt to new conditions and potential career shifts, reduce unemployment and raise labour productivity (An Agenda for new skills and jobs). Youth unemployment is one of the most pressing economic and social problems confronting those countries whose labor markets have weakened substantially since 2008, following the near-collapse of worldwide financial markets (Bell & Blanchflower, 2011, p. 1).

In the "Youth on the move" Flagship Initiative it is specified the importance of enhancing the performance of education systems and to facilitate the entry of young people to the labour market.

MS	*City*	*Proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24 in Urban Audit cities*			
		2004	*2005*	*2006*	*2008/2009*
UK	Worcester				0.00
NO	Stavanger				2.10
CH	Bern				2.40
CH	St. Gallen				2.50
NO	Bergen				2.60
DK	Aalborg	2.60			
NO	Oslo				2.80
DK	Aarhus	3.50			
CH	Zürich				2.80
CH	Basel				3.10

Table 31. "The top Urban Audit cities"

MS	*City*	*Proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24 in Urban Audit cities*			
		2004	*2005*	*2006*	*2008/2009*
FR	Orléan			16.80	
FR	Dijon			16.90	
FR	Grenoble			17.00	
FR	Poitiers			17.10	
FR	Toulouse			17.50	
FR	Lyon			17.50	
ES	Logroño	17.70			
DE	Frankfurt (Oder)				17.70
FR	Nantes			18.10	
FR	Tours			18.10	

Table 32. The "median Urban Audit cities"

MS	*City*	*Proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24 in Urban Audit cities*			
		2004	*2005*	*2006*	*2008*
RO	Târgu Mureş	66.30			
CZ	Usti nad Labem	43.60			
LV	Liepaja	42.70			
RO	Brăila	38.20			
GR	Volos	34.90			
GR	Kavala	33.90			
GR	Larisa	33.80			
HU	Miskolc		32.20		
BE	Charleroi				32.10
CZ	Ostrava	31.40			

Table 33. "The bottom Urban Audit cities"

The concentration of jobs in cities is even stronger than that of residents, many of Europe's main employment centers are within cities and its largest cities are truly economic powerhouses (State of European Cities, Executive report, 2007, p.7). Also, there is a paradox in European cities: unemployment rates tend to be higher in cities than the national rate. Unemployment rates also differ between the core cities and the wider urban area, as well as between neighborhoods, but there is no clear pattern. High unemployment rates can be found both in inner city neighborhoods and in specific outlying neighborhoods, depending on the city's morphology and its broader socio-economic structure (State of European Cities, Executive report, 2007, p. 12).

The analyses on "proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24 in Urban Audit cities" reflect a high variation at the level of the European cities.

It is to be noticed that the lowest values are to be found among the Urban Audit cities whatever of their location and dynamic. At European level important differences have been registered among youth unemployment in Urban Audit cities. Thus, low scores (between 0 – 8 and 8 – 16) are registered on the western cost of Norway, in Denmark, Switzerland, Austria, some cities in the United Kingdom, but also Germany, The Netherlands and Finland, and predominantly in Poland, Croatia, Bulgaria, partially in Slovakia, Czech, and Romania. Average values are registered among other also in island regions of Europe, as Cyprus, Sardinia and Malta. On the other hand high scores can be found mostly in Southern Europe, partially in Hungarian and Romania and isolated in France, United Kingdom, The Netherlands and Corsica.

The variation of the unemployment rate among the residence of the age group 15-24 can be justified on the bases of differentiations between cities. These are classified into several categories: established capitals, reinvented capitals, knowledge hubs, research centers, modern industrial centers, de-industrialized cities, transformation centers, gateways, visitor centers, national service hubs, regional market centers, regional public service centers, satellite towns. The typology of cities provides a better insight into urban development and serves as a basis for city comparisons (State of European Cities, Executive report, 2007, p.8).

In more detail, the capital cities are characterized by high values of the indicator: proportion of residents unemployed aged to 15-24 in Urban Audit cities, even though these cities are more developed than the others, being in the top of the national urban hierarchy. As an exception some capital cities register lower values as for example in North Europe (Oslo),

in Western Europe (London, Berna, Berlin, Copenhaga, Vaduz), as well as in some Central and Eastern Europe cities (Warsaw, Ljubljana, Sofia).

In all countries, the capital city is also the most important node in research, concentrating (Espon Project 1.1.1.Potentials for polycentric development in Europe, p. 99). Taking into consideration the above statement and therefore the high number of young people attending the higher education institution it is clear why in some capital cities the proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24 show lower values.

Low values of proportion of residents unemployed aged to 15-24 in Urban Audit cities are characteristic for the mostly visitor centers.

High values of this indicator are representative as well in case of the de-industrialized cities located in: mining areas of Belgium and Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, or Greece; and in cities where the economic restructuring has affected industrial branches, as in Spain and Romania. An exception to are cities like Vidin in Bulgaria and Lodz in Poland showing low youth unemployment rate despite de process of deindustrialization.

Modern industrial cities register low levels of proportion of residents unemployed aged to 15-24 in Urban Audit cities: UK (Aberdeen-Scotland), Irland (Cork), Sweden (Göteborg), Spain (Zaragoza), Romania (Arad, Oradea), etc.

Among another Urban Audit category, transformation cities (with an strong industrial past, but well on their way to reinventing themselves, managing change and developing new economic activities-Urban Data cities report, 2007, p. 10) it is to be noticed that the low values are predominantly. Included in this category are the northern and north-eastern cities of France and other cities spread all over Europe. Manufacturing industrial regions have been in decline for some time, and certainly since the emergence of structural change in the service industries. Nevertheless, they continue to act as strong backbones of the economy in many countries (Espon Project 1.1.1.Potentials for polycentric development in Europe, p. 96).

In the majority of cases, transformation centers were able to overcome the economic decline by implementing of reconversion projects, fact that has contributed to an economic and social revitalization of former industrial areas (for example the Ruhr region in Germany). Some other Central European cities implemented in recent years conversion project registering good results (Poland, Hungary, Czech Republic) being a tendency also for the Eastern European countries. Thus, the economic revitalization has generated a growth in jobs supply, most of them in the tertiary sector, attracting a high percentage of young people.

Central and Eastern European countries have registered as main changes in the labour market since the collapse of socialism: the relocation of labour (Grainca, 2012, p. 28). Reallocation of employment in these countries from the old sectors where employment was concentrated in socialism and the move to new sectors took place at different speeds in different countries (Grainca, 2012, p.30). Relocation has facilitated the economic opening to other economic activities, especially in services, a branch more attractive for the young people. This may explain in the case of some Central and Eastern European countries a lower rate of youth unemployment, mostly in Poland, Bulgaria and Romania.

Also, a low percentage of proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24, in the Central and Eastern European countries is due to a large share of young people, who after graduation, headed to a higher form of education, also favored by the existence of a free higher education system.

On the other hand, in the more developed countries are educational policies implemented, focused on attracting a large number of foreign students. The most attractive cities with a positive perception for Erasmus students are predominantly in Western and Southern Europe (Paris, Madrid, Barcelona, London, Berlin, Dublin, Brussels), or in the Northern Europe (Stockholm) (Espon Project 1.1.1.Potentials for polycentric development in Europe, p. 171).

Also, the more and more young people are staying later in education. In 2008 nearly 60% of the age group 15-24 participated in formal education, 5 percentage points more than in 2000 (European Commission, Directorate-General Regional Policy, 2007, p. 33).

Youth unemployment rates are generally much higher than unemployment rates for all ages. High youth unemployment rates do reflect the difficulties faced by young people in finding jobs. However, this does not necessarily mean that the group of unemployed persons aged between 15 and 24 is large because many young people are studying full-time and are therefore neither working nor looking for a job (so they are not part of the labour force which is used as the denominator for calculating the unemployment rate).

Young people represent one of the most vulnerable groups in society, especially in the current economic and financial crisis (EU Strategy for Youth, 2009).

When analysing the low level of youth employment and unemployment along with the economic framework the demographic context has to be analysed. This is why low birth rate will cause in time a smaller number of young people able to replace retirees). In the Executive report of State of

European Cities, 2007, according to Urban Audit data, it is suggest that, in general, the cities with the fastest population growth are those with the lowest share of elderly people and, correspondingly, the highest the share of children and young people. Examples of fast growing and young cities are London, Dublin and Madrid. However, in Central and Eastern European cities, no direct relation between population growth and age structure appears to exist in Urban Audit cities (p. 6).

In the context of a weak recovery, a significant and growing proportion of youth, even among those who would have performed well in good times, are at risk of prolonged unemployment, with potentially long-term negative consequences for their careers, or so-called “scarring effects” (OCDE report).

The political education and cultural context may generate different rate of educational participation and also acquisition of skill reflected in the different levels of youth unemployment.

Of particular concern is the rising number of young people disconnected from both education and the labour market (Bel &Blanchflower, 2011, p. 1).

The rate of the unemployment youth is higher between younger least educated (Jackson & Cameron, 2010, Bell & Blanchflower, 2011). In the EU Strategy 2020 it is specified that for instance, better educational levels help employability and progress in increasing the employment rate helps to reduce poverty (p.9).

It should commence with pre-school education followed by sustained support throughout compulsory education and beyond to encourage them to obtain an upper secondary qualification. This qualification is considered as the minimum requirement to be able to succeed in finding and keeping a job as well as to learn on and off the job (OCDE report, p.4)

The focus should be on acquiring skills that the job markets of today need such as proficiency with computer and basic technical qualifications (OCDE report, p.5).

"An agenda for new skills and jobs" has the target to increase labour participation and better match labour supply and demand, including through labour mobility. The last one specification can be easily done by the young people comparing with other age groups.

In the EU2020S it is mentioned to be launched a Youth employment framework outlining policies aimed at reducing youth unemployment rates: this should promote, with Member States and social partners, young people’s entry into the labour market through apprenticeships, stages or other work experiences, including a scheme (“Your first EURES

job") aimed at increasing job opportunities for young people by favouring mobility across the EU (p. 11).

Related to this could be mentioned a series of programmes launched by the EU in the Lifelong Learning domain related to the professional programmes addressed to the young people : Leonardo da Vinci to ensure the professional skills for this age group.

One of the targets of EU2020S is to improved young people's entry into the labour market through integrated action covering i.a. guidance, counselling and apprenticeships.

At the beginning of the current century, characteristics of the urban and regional development models are resulted from the radical change of the territorial policies and planning. Fundamental restructuring of the regions and human settlements requires many territorial actors to be involved. Among these actors the universities could play an important role due to its research and education potential (Ianoş, 2008, p. 17).

Policy recommendations:

Taking into account that the main cause of the poverty is joblessness, an important target should be to prevent job losers. Also it is important that the measures taken to reduce the unemployment rate to be addressed to the most vulnerable groups.

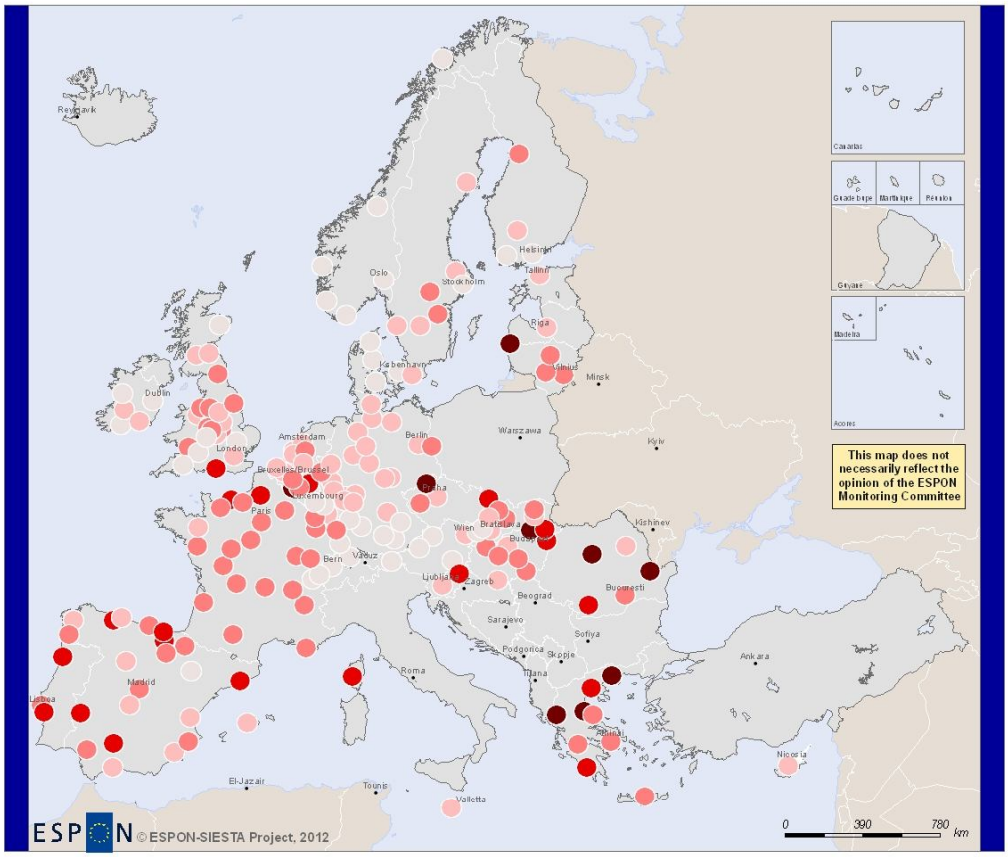
Another important measure is to create at the European level the opportunities for new entries in the labour market, mostly in the economic domains which registered a growth rate. In order to implement this measure is needed a collaboration with the employers groups.

Another ameliorative measure is to highlight the capacity of job seekers through skills building, education, training and work experience to facilitate their insertion on the labor market.

An attention has to be paid on measures related to reducing the number of 'NEETs' (young people 'not in employment, education or training'), to facilitate the transition from education to work, etc.

The urban policies, as components of Regional policies, will be focused on the measures to reduce the discrimination between unemployment young residents and non-residents. A policy rethinking is urgently asked for an increasing of social cohesion.

Proportion of residents unemployed aged15-24 in Urban Audit cities (combined years*)



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Regional level: LUZ
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, URBAN AUDIT, 2012
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Proportion of residents unemployed aged 15-24

- < 8,00
- 8,00 - 16,00
- 16,00 - 24,00
- 24,00 - 32,00
- 32,00 - 72,00

NOTES:
Data are not available for the following countries: BG, IT, NL, PL, HR.
* Data for AT, BE, CZ, DE, MT, SK, FI, UK and CHare shown for 2008. Data for FR are shown for 2006. Data for HU are shown for 2005. Data for DK, IE, GR, ES, CY, LT, LU, LV, NL, PT, RO, SI and SE are shown for 2004.

2.11. Map 63: Participating of adults in education and training, 2010 (Percentage of the adult population aged 25 to 64)

Definition:

This indicator refers to persons aged 25-64 who received education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey (numerator). The denominator consists of question “participation to education and training”. Both the numerator and the denominator come from the EU Labour Force Survey.

Relevance:

Lifelong Learning system is useful especially for adult population to achieve higher qualifications. The level of education influences labour market insertion and consequently the acquisition of a qualified job. According to EU Strategy 2020, around 50% reach medium qualifications level but this often fails to match labour market needs” (p. 8).

Also, in the EU Strategy 2020 it is specified that “about 80 million people have low or basic skills, but lifelong learning benefits mostly the more educated” (p. 16). It is also mentioned, that achieving longer working lives will also require the possibility to acquire and develop new skills throughout the lifetime (p. 16). From this point of view the relevance of lifelong learning system is quite important.

Also, the general objective of Lifelong Learning Programme is to contribute to the development of the Community as an advanced knowledge society, with sustainable economic development, more and better jobs and greater social cohesion, while insuring good protection of the environment for future generations. These actions could be seen as important tools of implementing of some objectives of EU Strategy 2020.

The objective of the European Council is that by 2020 an average of at least 15% of adults should participate in programs of lifelong learning (European Commission document no. 9845/09, p. 14).

Lifelong learning is designed to cover learning in all contexts (formal, non-formal or informal) and at all levels: from early childhood education and schools through to higher education, vocational education and training and adult learning (VET) (European Commission document no. 9845/09, p. 4).

MS	*Region*	*Participation of adults in educating and training, 2010*
DK	Hovedstaden	36.1
CH	Zurich	34.4
CH	Northwestern Switzerland	33.2
DK	Midtjylland	32.6
DK	Nordjylland	31.0
DK	Sjælland	30.8
DK	Southern Denmark	30.2
CH	Espace Mittelland	29.8
CH	Lake Geneva region	27.9
FI	Åland	27.1

Table 34. The "top regions"

MS	*Region*	*Participation of adults in educating and training, 2010*
NL	Limburg	15.2
NL	Drenthe	15.1
NL	North Brabant	15.1
SI	Western Slovenia (Zahodna Slovenija)	14.6
NL	Zeeland	14.5
AT	Burgenland	14.5
NL	Friesland	14.4
AT	Western Austria (*Westösterreich*)	13.3
ES	Nordeste	12.5

Table 35. "Medium Regions"

MS	*Region*	*Participation of adults in educating and training, 2010*
BG	Yugoiztochen	0.9
RO	South-East Oltenia	0.8
RO	South Muntenia	1.0
BG	Yuzhen tsentralen	1.1
TR	Manissa	1.1
GR	Peloponnisos	1.1
TR	Bati Marmara	1.2
RO	Center	1.3
TR	Kayseri	1.4
GR	Thessalia	1.7

Table 36. The "bottom regions"

The concept of lifelong learning shifts responsibility for education and learning to the individual, focusing on the development of individual capabilities and the capacity to learn; it implies a shift from traditional education institutions to diverse learning opportunities that are more process and outcome oriented.

Analysis of the statistic reflects big disparities between the European countries. These disparities are due to the type of reforms and policy implemented in the education and training sector, but also to the historical, political, social, economic and cultural context of each country.

Several states/regions categories can be distinguished:

-the first group, represented by the Nordic countries and several states from the west area of the continent, with the highest number of values over 20 (SE, FI, UK, DK, Switzerland, The Netherlands, IS) and between 16 and 20 (NO, AT, DE).

-the second group of countries records mean values between 12 and 16 (ES, LU, BE) and between 10 and 12 (IT, FR, CZ, PL, HU, CY).

-the third group generally the most recent accepted in the EU, present the lowest values of adult population participation to the education and instruction (EL, RO, BG, HR).

Countries like Norway and Iceland have progressed notably and faster than the EU average. For Finland, France, Austria, Belgium, Netherlands, Spain, Slovenia participation is above the European average.On current trends, some of these countries will catch up on the best performing countries in the near future.

Slovenia is one of the EU members that encountered a high increase of the ratio of adult population involvement in education and training programs.

It is observed that urban agglomerations register the highest participation rates of adults in education and training.

A future increase could be estimated as regards the participation of the new EU country members, due to the support given by the European Social Fund in the development of some education and training programs.

Giving these disparities, the new average of adult population participation in education and training (15%) presents sever challenges for policy makers to reach this average in 2020 (Broek, Buiskool, Hake, 2010).

Authors Broek and Buiskool, Hake (2010) explain these disparities as a consequences of the barriers ranging from institutional (e.g. lack of transparency of the sector), situational (e.g. the inability to pay course

fees) and dispositional barriers (bad experiences of previous education). Barriers differ giving the goal of learning and target groups.

Regarding learning for the purpose of social inclusion the most important barriers are situational and dispositional, such as bad experience with previous education, language difficulties, costs, distance to learning opportunities and the idea that education is 'not for our kind of people'.

Barriers for learning activities aiming at increasing employability are mostly related to the lack of time due to family responsibilities and work schedule, lack of employer support, age and finally costs can be regarded as important barriers for individuals to take up learning activities.

Learning for innovation and creativity are mostly hampered by institutional barriers such as the lack of flexible provision, distances of educational provision, costs and not having the right prerequisites. Other barriers can include lack of information, time and employers support. As system weaknesses it can be mentioned that traditional institutions are not always adjusted to receiving adults and therefore, the lack of flexible provision for adults. At last, learning activities for establishing a learning society face individual barriers as well, such as costs, distances, lack of time due to family responsibilities and work schedule and the lack of information. As system weaknesses it can be mentioned that countries often lack a proper learning culture advocating the importance of self-development, furthermore, the lack of policies in this field is seen as a weakness to develop effective provision (Broek, Buiskool, Hake, 2010, p. 13).

In particularly, analyzing the barriers in different EU countries, the authors Broek, Buiskool, Hake (2010) identified 3 categories:

-a first group of countries (DK, FI, NO, LU, SE) that present minor barriers in the process of increasing adult participation in education and training (e.g. costs for individuals), but in general, the adults can access education fairly easily. These countries have both a long-standing tradition and a favorable socio-economic context for developing the adult learning sector

- a second group of countries that face medium barriers (AT, BE, EE, FR, DE, IS, IE, LI, NL,PT,SI and UK): e.g. barriers that can be overcome by targeted programs. These countries have a good infrastructure for adult learning in these countries, but for certain domains of the sector, there is a lack of policy attention. There are certain disadvantaged domains of the sector and there is a lack of policy attention. There are certain disadvantaged groups and target groups that are in danger of exclusion because of the lack of possibilities to combining learning, work and family-duties. These countries lack a well-developed tradition in adult learning,

but the socio-economic context does not impose great difficulties in developing the sector.

-the third group of countries has severe barriers in increasing the participation of adults in learning (BG, HR, CY, CZ, EL, HU, IT, LV, LT, MT, PL, RO, SK, ES and TR). These countries are characterized by the fact that extensive programs need to be developed to overcome these barriers. The severe barriers can be of different nature and include barriers such as the lack of good structures for adult learning, lack of finances to boost participation, large share of illiterate people, lack of a learning culture etc. Also, this category of countries has a well-established tradition in adult education, but is struck by the crisis.

The analysis of the statistic data regarding the participation of the adult population to education and training programs reflects the fact that all the countries show strong points as well as deficiencies. Nevertheless, the progresses recorded by the western and northern European countries should be taken as models of good practice for the countries with a lower participation of the adults in education and training programs.

In Romania particularly, lifelong learning is not approached in a coherent and comprehensive manner within the educational system and politics. This fact limits the lifelong learning coherence and individual flexibility. Despite the progress made with the settlement of previous learning, the insufficient usage of the current legal framework (with the exception of the basic professional formation) remains one of the weak points of the process of “long-life learning” approach insertion in education and formation.

The insufficient development of the transfer mechanisms of learning/learning acquisitions obtained in different learning contexts limits the possibilities of the population, especially the adult population, to obtain formal accreditation of the competences accumulated on the labor market and to re-enter into the formal education system. Also, in what concerns the elaboration of the politics, it is necessary that a higher coherence exists between the educational politics, the politics regarding the initial formation and the politic in the field of continuous professional formation.

One of the education reform objectives, stated in the Romania’s accession strategy to the European Union, was the reorganization of the professional learning level. Its fulfillment depends on creating some mechanisms of professional formation and evaluation substantiation, in agreement with the economical requests.

As a consequence of admission in the European Union, Romania benefits, at the present, of the implementation of the projects financed by the

European Social Fund, the Operational Sectorial Program Human Resources Development (2007-2013), respectively, focusing on several priority axes: Professional education and formation for the support of the economy growth and social development based on knowledge, the correlation of long-life learning with the labor market, the rise of employees and enterprises adaptability, the modernization of the public employment service, promotion of active employment measures, promotion of social inclusion, technical assistance. These aspects reflect coherence and complementarity with the community politics, and on the other hand, are meant to ensure a series of solutions for the problems Romania confronts to: the high unemployment rate, the increase of professional competencies and abilities, facilitation of labor force adaptability to new trends in labor market, the superior qualification of the human resource in research (PhDs and postdocs) their training and facilitation of research career development opportunities.

As the program is still running, there are not yet data to elaborate the picture of the initial objectives accomplishment. The general objective can be noted, that is the development of the human capital and the increase in competiveness by connecting long-life learning and education with the labour market and assuring larger opportunities for the future participation of 1.650.000 people on a modern, flexible and inclusive labor market. It is expected as well that the intervention of the European Social Fund in Romania would contribute to the implementation of the European Employment Strategy.

The analysis of statistic data reflect a perfect correlation between the countries development level and the degree of adult population participation to the education and training process, the economic factor being the favorable parameter for the implementation of this process, depending on the financial availability of the governmental structures. Within this economical context, the European Social Fund could reduce the imbalances between EU countries by ensuring the requested financial support for the education and training process. At the same time, although it mainly presents the objectives stated in the documents issued by the European Commission, the application of the European Social Fund is also set on fixing the problems identified in the education and training systems of the member countries. The ESF significantly supports the reforms of Member States' education and training systems and participation in lifelong learning, contributing 20.7 billion Euros.

Most European countries have made progress in the education and training sector. 16 Member States have developed comprehensive and coherent lifelong learning strategies that set out national policy priorities, covering all types and levels of education and training throughout life.

Even in some countries like Greece, Bulgaria, Romania are the lowest participation rates, it is consider that the performance in these countries is tending to improve (Progress towards the Common European Objectives in Education and Training, 2011).

Lately, there have been major modifications in organizing and implementing the education and training processes in most of the countries with developed economy. The western European countries consider that a competitive and competent labor force and an educational system sensitive to the changes occurred on labor market are decisive factors in ensuring economic performance. In the last years, there are noticed that many European countries follow the trend of establishing connections between the education field and the economic requests through professional education and formation programs.

Unlike the group of countries recently accepted into the EU, in which the investments in national and private education and training programs are low, in the western and northern European states the organization of this type of training programs are made within partnerships between universities and the private (economic) sector, the later assuring the financial support as well as the possibility of following professional training stages within the corporations in question, the university ensuring the continuity of the scientific training in the field.

The new Lifelong Learning European Programme 2007-2013 replaces the former Socrates, Leonardo da Vinci and e Learning programme, covering school education, higher education, vocational training and also adult education through sectorial programme sectorial GRUNDTVIG. The aim of the new sectorial programmes is to contribute, by emphasising the need for lifelong learning, to the development of the Community as an advanced knowledge society, with sustainable economic development, more and better jobs and greater social cohesion.

Launched in 2000, Grundtvig aims to provide adults with more ways to improve their knowledge and skills facilitate their personal development and boost their employment prospects. It also helps to tackle problems associated with Europe's ageing population.

Increasing the participation by adults in lifelong learning is a highly important policy objective, the importance of which is underlined by the focus on constantly updating and renewing skills in the New Skills and Jobs flagship action of the Europe 2020 strategy.

A lifelong learning strategy should provide a strategic overview and a coherent set of priorities while identifying the resources needed for different measures. An important aspect is to provide flexible learning pathways and effective transition points between systems and levels of

education and training that avoid dead ends. It must also include a transparent system for recognition of prior learning (Progress Towards the Common European Objectives in Education and Training, 2011).

Nevertheless, it should follow an increase of creativity and innovation, including entrepreneurship, with a higher frequency for the adult level of education and training, given a series of restraining factors for the latter category (lack of time, money, confidence or interest, lack of information about opportunities to learn, scheduling problems, and problems with child care, etc.) which can limit their access to this type of programs.

In 2009 the European Council stressed the importance of a better anticipating and matching tendencies of labour market and skills needs, in particular in times of economic crisis (European Council 2008, Presidency Conclusions, 7652/1/08 REV 1).

Policy recommendations:

Regarding adults' participation on education and training programs, The European Council urges Member States to take concrete action to attract more adults, particularly low-skilled and older workers, into education and training and further facilitate geographic and occupational mobility (Progress towards the Lisbon objectives in Education and Training Report, 2009, p. 10).

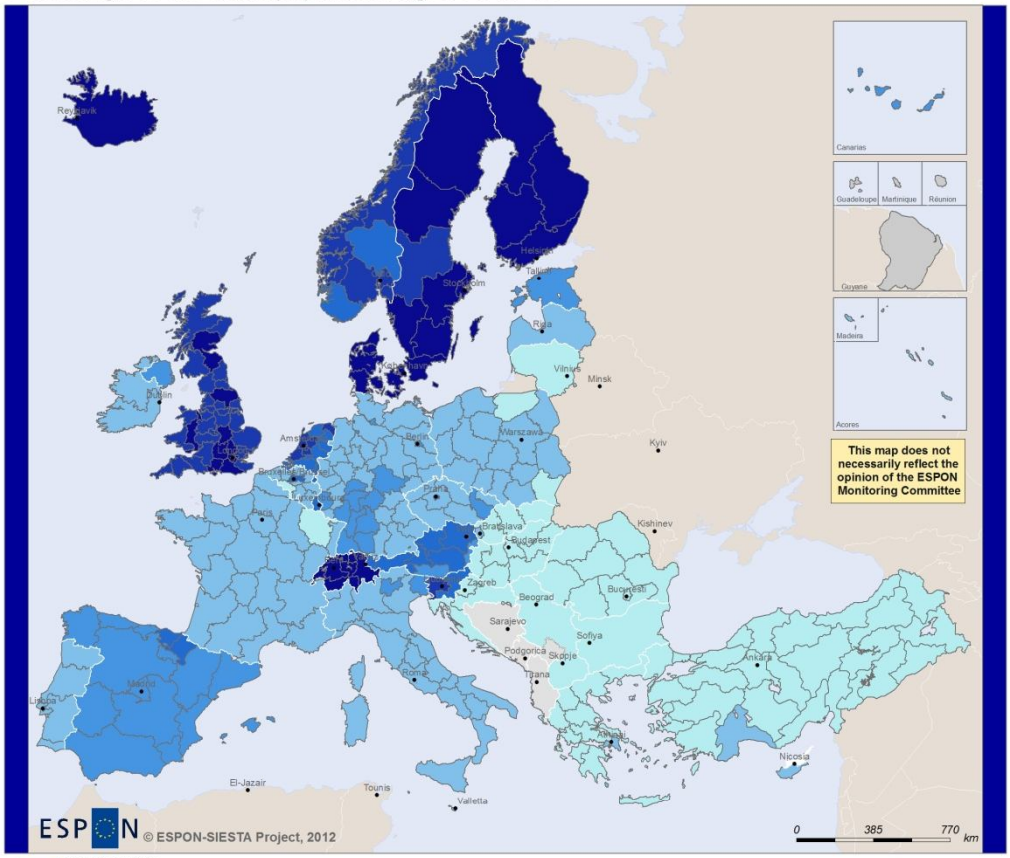
The development of measures to support key competences for adults is widespread and includes new and revised legislation and strategies, improved delivery and governance of the sector, and specific funding measures (Progress towards the Lisbon objectives in Education and Training Report, 2009, p. 102).

Growing lifelong learning opportunities in higher education can be orientated also for the access for non-traditional learners (including adults and older learners). Lifelong learning participation it represents of the main objectives of present and future EU polices ("Preparatory Study on Social Aspects of EU Territorial Development" Espon Project, p. 238).

For the Eastern Europe national and European policies are necessary to implement a culture of education and training for adults. The decay between this area and the rest of Europe is explained just by the former behavior of worker, meaning the stability, entire active life, of the same work place.

Participating of adults in education and training, 2010

Percentage of the adult population aged 25 to 64



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Regional level: NUTS 2
Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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Percentage of persons aged 24-64

- < 4
- 4 - 8
- 8 - 12
- 12 - 16
- 16 - 20
- > 20
- No data

NOTE:
BG is showed at state level.

This indicator refers to persons aged 25 to 64 who stated that they received education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey (numerator). The denominator consists of the total population of the same age group, excluding those who did not answer to the question 'participation to education and training'. Both the numerator and the denominator come from the EU Labour Force Survey. The information collected relates to all education or training whether or not relevant to the respondent's current or possible future job. For countries where data exists, the participation figures based on the Adult Education Survey (AES) results are in general higher than the LFS results due to differences in the reference period (one year in the AES as opposed to four weeks each quarter in the LFS) and in the coverage of lifelong learning activities in each survey.

2.12. Map 64: Persons with low secondary education attainment, 2010 (percentage of people aged 25-64)

Definition:

The indicator, persons with low secondary education attainment, is defined as “the percentage of people aged 25 to 64 with an education level ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education) of 2. ISCED levels 2 begins after 4-7 years of ISCED level 1 education, with 6 years of ISCED level 1 being the most common duration. Student enters ISCED level 2 typically between age 10 and 13 (age 12 being the most common)" (Revision of the International Standard Classification of Education-ISCED, 2011, p.29).

Relevance:

This indicator is strongly related to the fulfillment of some of the targets of the 2020 European Strategy, respectively to improve the population involvement on educational levels, to reduce the rate of school dropout with at least 10% and to increase the number of young people with higher education.

Also, the aim to raise the overall quality of all levels of education and training in the EU, is mentioned even in the Flagship Initiative: “Youth on the move”.

In the Innovation Union report it is specified to promote education and skills development in order to create an excellent, modern education system in all Member States (p.8).

Several existing Lifelong Learning programmes support the education and training of young people. Also, The European Social Fund (ESF) provides considerable help to young people.

Low educational attainment is regarded as an obstacle to both personal and professional development and is also a disadvantage for society’s purpose of dropping the disparities and inequities between individuals or groups.

Low educational attainment is one of the main determinants of personal income and employment status.

Secondary education plays a dual role in today’s education systems. On one hand, it serves as an extended platform for all young people to further develop the knowledge and skills that are needed in civic society

and the knowledge economy (Sahlberg, 2007, Secondary Education in OECD countries report, p. 3).

MS	*Region*	*Persons with low secondary education attainment, 2010*
TR	Agri	81.9
TR	Van	81.6
TR	Sanliurfa	80.9
TR	Gaziantep	80.5
TR	Mardin	80.5
TR	Hatay	80.4
PT	Região Autónoma dos Açores	78.4
TR	Aydin	77.6
TR	Konya	77

Table 37. The "top regions"

MS	*Region*	*Persons with low secondary education attainment, 2010*
BE	Liège	34.8
IT	Trento	34.6
FR	Champagne-Ardenne	34.6
FR	Picardie	34.6
FR	Languedoc-Roussillon	33.7
ES	Basque Community	33.5
BE	Brussel	33.2
		33.0
ES	Madrid	32.6
BE	Luxembourg	31.4

Table 38. The "median regions"

MS	*Region*	*Persons with low secondary education attainment, 2010*
CZ	Prague	3.3
DE	Chemnizt	3.7
DE	Desdren	4.0
DE	Leipzig	4.4
CZ	Jihovýchod	7.1
CZ	Střední Čechy	7.3
CZ	Jihozápad	7.5
CZ	Střední Morava	8.1
PL	Śląskie	8.9
CZ	Moravskoslezsko	9.2

Table 39. The "bottom regions"

The map of the indicator for persons with low secondary education attainment shows large differences in the European space.

There are three categories of countries with minimum values of the indicator, in the range 4-15: Germany, Austria, Poland, The Baltic Countries, Slovakia, and Switzerland. From the category with medium-low values of the indicator (15-25) we could mention: the Nordic countries, regions of the United Kingdom, Austria, Croatia, or, with medium-high values (25-35): Cyprus, most of Romania's regions, France, the Netherlands, Ireland, and Iceland. In the range of the countries with high values (between 35 and 60) are to be mentioned: Spain, Italy, Greece, and the states with very high values are Portugal, Malta and Turkey. The differences between the European countries and regions can be explained based on the high variety of educational and instruction systems.

Northern European countries, for instance, have a quite consolidated education system and the education levels are reflected in their living standard patterns. The Eastern European countries, on the other hand, despite having fairly high levels of education, do not always provide education that is adequate to the present needs and demands (Third report on social and economic cohesion, 2004 quoted by "Preparatory Study on Social Aspects of EU Territorial Development" Espon Project, p. 212).

In this context, the balance between prosperous countries with a strong human potential and the less prosperous ones also having human potential causes two distinct flows with different impacts: on the one hand, migratory movements and, on the other one, the loss or decline of productive activities ("Preparatory Study on Social Aspects of EU Territorial Development" Espon Project, p. 212).

The analysis of the values obtained for the index of persons with low secondary attainment shows differences between the countries members in the EU, with a specific different pattern in the regions dominated by the cities capital-of-the-country which in almost every country, with a few exception, have lower values. This could be explained on one hand due to the economical dynamics of the region as a consequence of the capital-city which has a very well developed tertiary sector (financial, services, banking) and on the other hand due to the high concentration of public institutions, university and research centers. This situation explains the presence in these regions of a highly qualified labor force that also has a superior training.

Nevertheless, the values of this indicator are higher in the highly rural regions close to a city (France, Turkey, Romania, Portugal, Greece, and

Italy). At the same time, it is noticeable that in the European states with a very good education politic the indicator of the population ratio with low secondary education is uniform at national scale; thus, the indicator shows low values even in the rural regions (the Northern states).

Low values are noticed for the indicator of population with low secondary education in some predominant mountain areas as well, especially in the mountain areas in the Alps under urban influence. These values are determined by the economical nature of the European alpine mountain region where the services, especially the touristic ones, are well developed and require qualified labor force with medium and high instruction levels.

Low values of the population with low secondary education are noticed as well in the predominant mountain regions under the influence of the urban areas in the North of the continent, especially in the area of the Scandinavian Alps. The low values of this indicator are due to the well-developed educational politic.

In comparison, other European predominant mountain areas or moderately mountain areas are not characterized by such low values of the percentage of population with low secondary instruction. This is partially due to the fact that in some mountain areas (Carpathian, Balcanic) important projects have been recently developed to improve tourism, especially mountain tourism, and the economic results, particularly the qualification of human resources will reflect with higher values in the future. On the other hand, these European mountain regions are part mostly of the primary sector as a direct consequence of the physical-geographic conditions, and the low educational instruction of the population in these areas is high.

Comparing the indicator of adult population participation to educational and training programs, it is noticeable that the categories of countries partially change, meaning that some states that show high values of the adult population participation to education programs also show high values of the population with low education (Spain). On the other hand, there is also a direct correspondence between the values of the two indicators in the case of developed countries with a well-organized education politic, so these countries are present with high values of the adult population percentage involved in education and training programs and with low values of the population with reduced education (the Northern countries, Germany, Austria, Switzerland). The comparison allows, as well, to highlight some countries that, even with medium or low values of the adult population involved in education and training, have relatively small values of the population ratio with low secondary training (Poland, Romania, the Baltic countries).

The reasons behind the variations in the European space of the indicator of the population ratio with low secondary training are connected with the differences in the educational politic of the developed sates comparing to those in economic transition. Although the developed countries have well based educational politics with visible results, not all of them reach the lowest values of the ratio of population with low medium education. This could be explained by the fact that some European states have given a greater attention to the development of medium and superior education levels.

In what concerns the transition countries, the social-economic problems have determined the orientation of many young people to the superior learning level, with the purpose to achieve a series of competences that would allow them an easier insertion to the labor market. Graduating the mean instruction level and obtaining the certificate of maturity is a condition that allows one to follow higher education.

Nevertheless, the ratio of the population with low secondary education is connected to the completion of high secondary studies, one of the five benchmarks for the Lisbon strategy in the field of education. The analyzed indicator it is also related to another goal: 85% of 22 year olds should have completed upper secondary education. Increasing of participation of adults in education has also the aim to reduce the percentage of persons with low educational attainment.

Low level education decreases people's employability reduces the quality of their employment and leads to poverty and social exclusion. In addition investments in human capital are among the prerequisites for long-term economic prosperity. Since it measures the proportion of low qualified persons (in terms of formal educational degrees), it gives a rough picture of the composition and the quality of human capital available in a country.

Because of the fact that the education level is more and more related to the labor market insertion process, it is considered that a superior training level is equivalent to a higher employment chance. More and more measures are being taken in this respect in the EU space, applying from the inferior education levels, in order to ensure a solid instruction: in lower secondary education, learning at least one foreign language is compulsory in every country (Mejer, Boateng, Turchetti, 2010, p.2). This tendency correlates with one of the targets proposed by the EU that is teenagers to know at least two foreign languages. Nevertheless, this objective is considered to be a useful quality for the young people in obtaining a job, because it is considered that the risk of unemployment for young people is much higher for those with poor educational qualifications (Reich et al., 2008, p. 8). Also, the same authors consider that the high-level qualifications are not necessarily a good protection against

unemployment – it also depends on where one lives and the kinds of qualifications one has achieved.

Within the EU, efforts are made to standardize the learning system of the member countries, by introducing the learning of a foreign language as early as possible, even from nursery school. In 2002, the Barcelona European Council recommended that at least two foreign languages should be learnt from a very early age by each pupil. This recommendation has been implemented to varying extents, e.g. in lower secondary education pupils each learn on average 1.4 foreign languages; this value rises to 1.6 in upper secondary general education (Reich et al., 2008, p.7).

However, although it is specifies that in general, people with higher levels of education have better job prospects; the difference is particularly marked between those who have attained upper secondary education and those who have not.

Low educational attainment in a population signifies labor force with restricted skills and subsequently constitutes a hindrance in long term economic growth. The document “New Skills for new Jobs” certifies the importance of acquiring multiple skills for the opportunity to have a new job. This is related to a higher education attainment. According to recent projections, in 2015, around 30% of jobs are expected to require qualifications on the level of higher education and almost half will require at least medium level qualifications at upper secondary education levels.
In the document “An Agenda for New Skills for new Jobs” it is specified that the assessment of future skill requirements and the matching of labor market needs are adequately taken on board in education and training planning processes.
The EU Strategy 2020 stipulates to improve educational outcomes, addressing each segment (pre-school, primary, secondary, vocational and tertiary) within an integrated approach, encompassing key competences and aiming at reducing early school leaving (p.11).
At the same time, a low level of education is frequently associated with a high poverty level, generating vulnerable social groups. In the Flagship Initiative: “European Platform against Poverty” stipulates to design and implement programs to promote social innovation for the most vulnerable, in particular by providing innovative education, training, and employment opportunities for the deprived communities”.
The traditional structure of secondary education as a parallel bridge between primary education on one side, and higher education and world of work on the other, is changing. Workforce in this millennium is less involved in industrial production and isolated professions, and increasingly involved in knowledge work, services, communication and innovation.

Policy recommendations:

Economies and societies are therefore looking for ways to have their education systems more concentrated in building meta-cognitive and creative capitals that both are necessary resources for both individuals and nations to succeed in competitive knowledge-based and innovation-intensive world. The need to redesign education systems, including secondary education, comes from the notion that changing economic, social and ecological circumstances have created the need for individuals who are flexible, able to adjust to changing situations, to learn effectively and creatively and to create ideas productively (Sahlberg, 2007, Secondary Education in OECD countries report, p. 4).A major preoccupation of policy makers is those who lack educational qualifications and the main focus is on those who enter the labour market directly from secondary school.
Policy options are recommended for access and equity of people in the secondary attainment and further to the higher education. Better people preparation in basic and secondary education would also help their insertion on the labour force. Also, a superior preparation support more opportunities for jobs. A vocational/technical subsector of higher education is recommended. Different vocational programs elaborated on the European level can support the enrichment of qualifications.

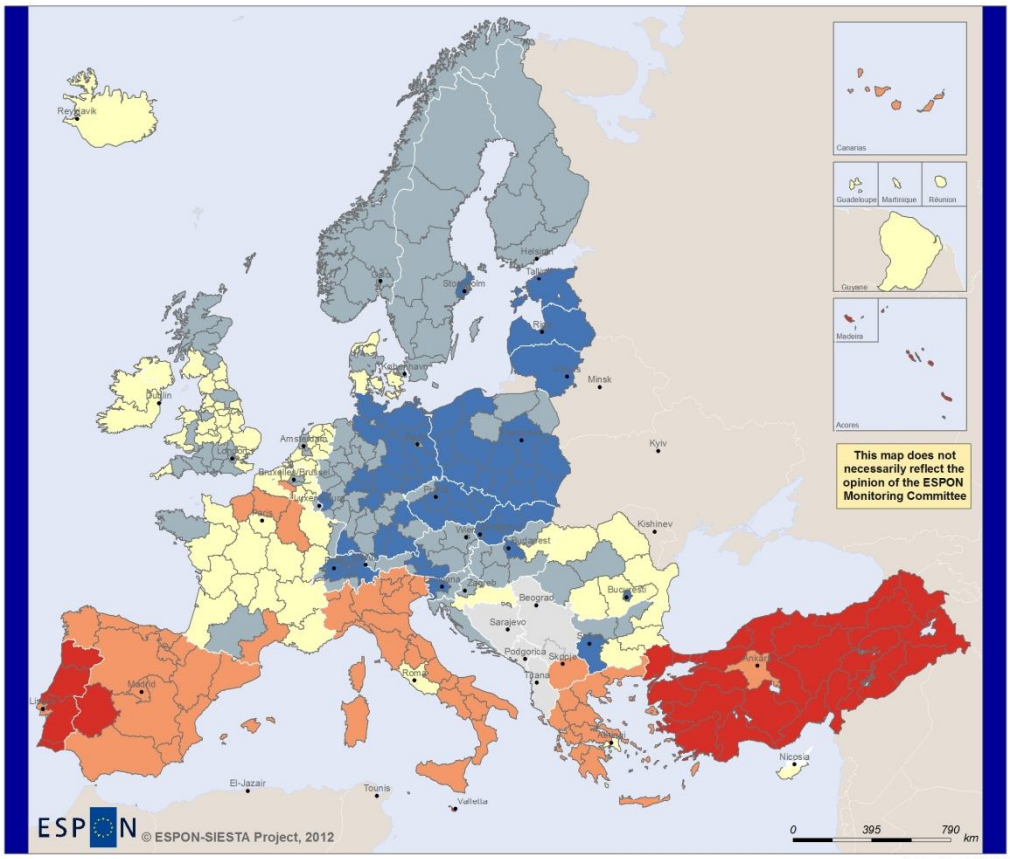
Secondary education represents a critical stage of the system that not only links initial education to higher education, but also connects the school system to the labor market (Global Education Digest, UNESCO report, p. 7).

More often the concept of second chance education is related to the initiative of reducing the early school leaving.

The analysis of the territorial distribution of the persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment relieve the necessity to define some politics for the main classes of population. A special policy is urgently defined for the southern part of Europe, including Spain Italy and Greece, to reduce the percentage of people less educated. A similar policy, but selective one, could be applied for some countries to Eastern (Romania, Bulgaria) and Western (France, Netherlands, Ireland and United Kingdom) parts of Central Europe.

Persons aged 25-64 with lower secondary education attainment

Pertange of people aged 25-64



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Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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Pertange of people aged 25-64

- 4 - 15
- 15 - 25
- 25 - 35
- 35 - 60
- > 60
- No data

2.13. Map 65: Proportion of working age population qualified at level 1 or 2 ISCED in Urban Audit cities (combined years)

Definition:

The indicator is defined as employed persons (aged between) with secondary education attainment and minimum qualification.

Relevance:

In the past decades it was paid more attention to the initial qualification in order to reduce early school leaving persons, to raise the rate of return from secondary vocational education.

Low educational attainment is regarded as offering the minimum qualification for obtaining a job. This indicator is related to the some targets of EU Strategy 2020: to improve population participation on education levels, to reduce the school dropout rate up to 10% in order to facilitate the insertion of people with minimum professional skills to the labour market. Also, another important target of EU Strategy 2020 is to increase the employment rate of population aged 20-64 (p. 8).However, although it is specifies that in general, people with higher levels of education have better job prospects, the difference is particularly marked between those who have attained upper secondary education and those who have not.

Also in the report "An agenda for new skills and jobs" it is certified the importance of acquiring multiple skills for the opportunity to have a new job. This is related to a higher education attainment. According to recent projections, in 2015, around 30% of jobs are expected to require qualifications on the level of higher education and almost half will require at least medium level qualifications at upper secondary education levels.

Educational attainment indicates the quality of existing human resources and, hence, the productivity of the labour force (Employment and labour market in CECs, European Commission report, p.36).

In EU Strategy 2020 it is mentioned “about 80 million people have low or basic skills” (p. 16). Till 2015, around 30% of jobs are expected to require qualifications on the level of higher education and almost half will require at least medium level qualifications at upper secondary education levels.

MS	*City*	*Proportion of working aged population qualified at level 1 and 2 ISCED in Urban Audit cities (combined years)*			
		2004	*2005*	*2006*	*2008/2009*
BG	Sofia				11.40
DE	Weimar				12.20
UK	Edinburgh				12.30
UK	Aberdeen				12.60
LT	Kaunas				12.60
UK	Cardiff				13.20
UK	Glasgow				14.10
DE	Rostok				14.20
EE	Tallin				14.20
LT	Vilnius				14.50

Table 40. "The top Urban Audit cities"

MS	*City*	*Proportion of working aged population qualified at level 1 and 2 ISCED in Urban Audit cities (combined years)*			
		2004	*2005*	*2006*	*2008/2009*
IE	Dublin	32.90			
NL	Leeuwarden	32.30			
NL	Breda	31.40			
CY	Nicosia	31.20			
NL	Enschede	31.10			
UK	Birmingham				30.90
HU	Debrecen		30.80		
NL	Gravenhage	30.40			
GR	Thessaloniki	30.30			
NL	Eindhoven	30.00			

Table 41. "The median Urban Audit cities"

MS	*City*	*Proportion of working aged population qualified at level 1 and 2 ISCED in Urban Audit cities (combined years)*			
		2004	*2005*	*2006*	*2008/2009*
ES	Pamplona/Iruña	73.80			
ES	Santiago de Compostela	56			
HU	Nyíregyháza		54.30		
ES	Badajoz	54.0			
ES	Málaga	52.40			
ES	Palma di Mallorca	51.80			
ES	Córdoba	51.80			
ES	Murcia	50.50			
ES	Toledo	50.10			
ES	Las Palmas	49.50			
ES	Sevilla	46.80			
ES	Alicante	46.40			

Table 42. "The bottom Urban Audit cities"

Analysis of proportion of working age population qualified at level 1 or 2 ISCED in Urban Audit cities reflect differences in the European continent.

For analyzing the values of the proportion of working age population qualified at level 1 or 2 ISCED it was used the typology used in Urban Audit cities and presented in State of European Cities, Executive report, 2007, p. 8-11.

It is clear that most of the low values of this indicator are registered in Sweden (Umea - a regional public service center), some established capitals: ex. Baltic Countries (Tallinn, Vilnius), Bulgaria (Sofia), in modern industrial cities or transformed centers: Great Britain (Aberdeen, Glasgow-Scotland) or in knowledge hubs (Edinburgh-Scotland).

In the same time, low scores (among 8.01–16.00) are to be found predominantly in Urban Audit cities in all Europe.

For the Central European countries it is known that their population and employed as a rule have a qualified education. However, compared to international standards, the share of persons with high qualifications on the average still is relatively low. Conversely, the share of persons with low qualifications also is low (Employment and labour market in central European countries European Commission report, p. 7).

Analyzing the problem of employment in Central and Eastern European countries is not only quantitative, but also qualitative. It is not only necessary to create jobs in sufficient number, but to create “good” jobs insuring a certain level of resources and quality of life for the persons who hold them (Employment and labour market in central European countries European Commission report, p. 13).

The average values of the indicator are registered in the Netherlands, Baltic, isolated in Austria, France and Greece, as well as in island capital cities. High values of this indicator are to be found in modern industrial cities (Stuttgart-Germany, Gotheborg-Sweden, Rennes-France), transformed centers (Cardiff-UK, Lille, Metz, Nantes-France, Kaunas-Lithuania) or research centers (Bristol-UK, Grenoble-France).

In Southern Europe are registered Urban Audit cities with the highest value on working aged population qualified at level 1 and 2 ISCED (Spain and Greece).

A reason for which low values of the working age population qualified at level 1 or 2 ISCED in Urban Audit cities belonging to the modern industrial cities, transformation centers, established capitals, research centers and knowledge hubs are registered is because of a better development of the tertiary economic sector that is concentrating a high number of trained and highly professional qualified workforce.

The general picture of knowledge-based Europe is very balanced. Important knowledge centers are evenly distributed to all parts of Europe, and within most of the countries as well. The density of higher-level education institutes is naturally higher in more densely populated areas (Espon Project 1.1.1 Potentials for polycentric development in Europe, p. 99).

To find a suitable definition of a low skilled worker that can be applied in a consistent way across the various countries of the European Union is a preoccupation of researchers. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is identified as the most suitable means of measuring skills over time and space (Steedman & McIntosh, 2001).

The issue of the training motivation of lower qualified employees is not simply a matter of the attitudes or states of mind of those concerned. This issue has also to be located in the context of the labour market and especially the economic question of the challenges of the global market and the political question of how national governments respond. In European law, the role of the European Commission is defined as supporting the responsibilities of Member States and developing a Vocational Training Policy that will enable mutual learning and facilitate benchmarking (Konrad, 2005).

The most commonly used indicator of low skills for international comparisons is the highest stage of education or education and training completed (Murray& Seedman, 2001).

A person is described as "lower qualified" if their highest qualification does not exceed a certain level. It depends on the indicator used as to the level it is and where the borders between lower and higher qualification are situated. The operationalisation of lower qualified over the employment status comes nearest in our opinion, because the employment status is typically an expression of formal and non-formal education and includes the professional qualification. At this time, the term employment status is not standardised throughout Europe. The use of *lower qualified* instead of the indicator "highest (level of) formal education", is not without problems, because the formal graduation does not have to correlate with the status in the company. Formal education can be classified, contrary to the employment status, internationally. Following the ISCED classification and the lack of international comparability of the employment status, a person has to be classified as lower qualified when two assumptions are fulfilled (Konrad, 2005):

-the highest completed formal education according to the ISCED Levels 0 until 2;and

-the pursuit of a professional activity in a company for which no more than the ISCED level 0 until 2 is necessary.

Level 2 of secondary education has a qualification structure for vocational education which is used in principle as a point of reference. In essence, it is a matter of as many people as possible acquiring competences which are the minimum requirement to enable them to enter the labour market and hold their own there (Hövels, 2001, p. 33).

Also, a low level of education is often associated with high level of poverty. Young people who abandon education and training with only lower secondary education or less are more often unemployed or in precarious employment. They generally earn less, are more dependent on social support throughout their lives and face a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion (European Commission, Directorate-General Regional Policy, 2007, p.85).

Research on returns to education has over the past decades produced ample evidence that the monetary and non-monetary prosperity of individuals is related to their level of education and training. Education yields substantial returns to the individual in terms of earnings and employability and significant gains to society in terms of economic growth and wider social benefits (European Commission, Directorate-General Regional Policy, 2007, p.76).

The economic crisis has affected people differently depending on their level of education, with a stronger impact on those with low educational attainment (European Commission, Directorate-General Regional Policy, 2007, p. 7).

Increasing the participation by adults in lifelong learning is a highly important target, the importance of which is underlined by the focus on constantly updating and renewing skills in the New Skills and Jobs flagship action of the Europe 2020 strategy. The 2015 benchmark on Adult Lifelong Learning Participation envisages that 15% of the adult population should participate in lifelong learning (EU Strategy 2020).

In the document “An Agenda for New Skills for new Jobs” it is specified that the assessment of future skill requirements and the matching of labour market needs are adequately taken on board in education and training planning processes.

The EU Strategy 2020 stipulates to improve educational outcomes, addressing each segment (pre-school, primary, secondary, vocational and tertiary) within an integrated approach, encompassing key competences and aiming at reducing early school leaving (p.11).

Maintaining and upgrading the skills of the workforce determines the ability of regions to keep up with new developments and create more productive and better jobs (Employment and labour market in Central European countries European Commission report, p. 36).

The demographic criterion also corresponds to human resources, i.e. being able to tap into a labour force that is large enough to offer sufficiently diversified skills (Espon Project 1.1.1 Potentials for polycentric development in Europe, p.85).

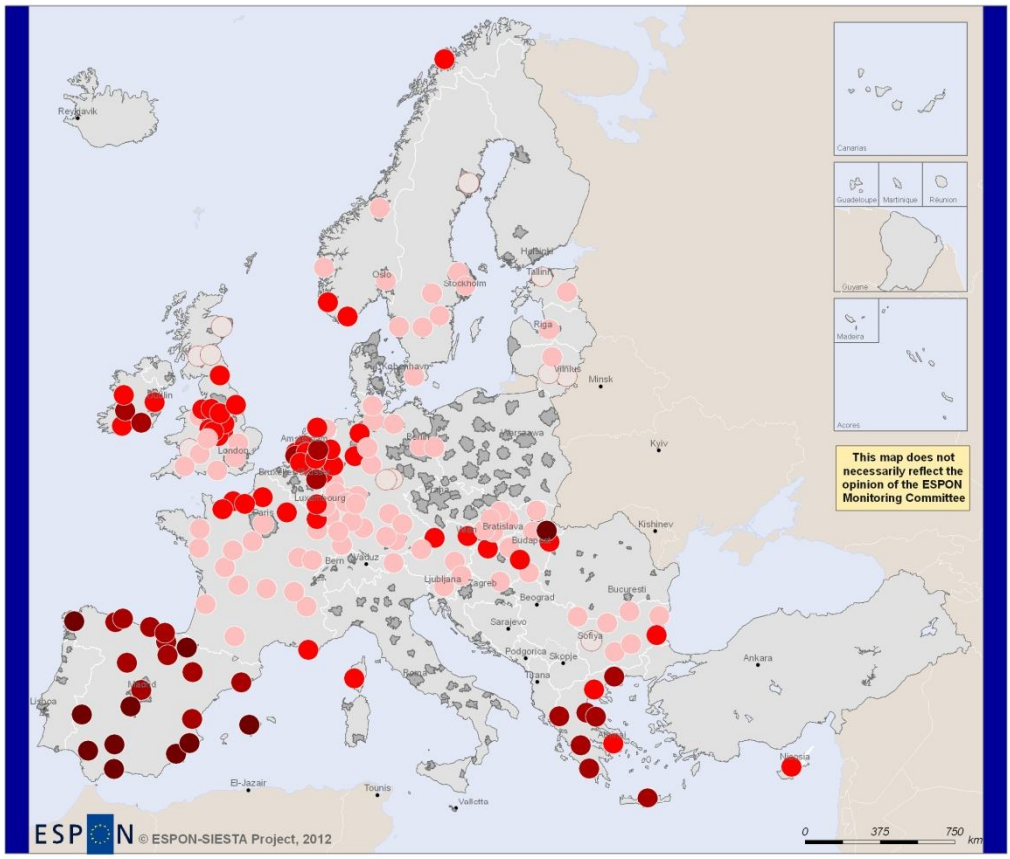
Policy recommendations:

In "An agenda for new skills and jobs" it is specified to modernise labour markets and empower people by developing their of skills throughout the lifecycle with a view to increase labour participation and better match labour supply and demand, including through labour mobility.

Vocational programs play an important role in reducing the share of young people who are not employed nor participating in education and training (NEETs), and vocational programs have been successful in some member states to reduce early school leaving (European Commission, Directorate-General Regional Policy, 2007, p. 7).

Urban policies in the field are components of the regional and national policies on reducing the proportion of the working age population qualified at level 1 and 2. These policies are necessary to be defined, especially for the southern part of EU (Spain and Greece). Unfortunately, non-existing data represent a barrier for a better defining of the appropriate policies at the continental scale.

Proportion of working age population qualified at level 1 or 2 ISCED in Urban Audit cities (combined years*)



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Source: EUROSTAT
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, URBAN AUDIT, 2012
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Proportion of working age residents

- < 15
- 15 - 25
- 25- 35
- 35 - 45
- > 45
- Large Urban Zones

NOTES:
Data are not available for the following countries: BE, CZ, DK, IT, MT, PL, PT, RO, HR, TR, CH and FI.
* Data for NO, UK, SE, LT, LV, LT, LU, EE, DE, BG and AT are shown for 2008. Data for FR are shown for 2006. Data for HU are shown for 2005. Data for SK, SI, NL, CY, ES, GR and IE are shown for 2004.

2.14. Map 66: Professionals in health sector – Doctors and physicians per 100.000 inhabitants

Definition:

Data on physicians should refer to those "immediately serving patients", i.e. physicians who have direct contact with patients as consumers of health care services. In the context of comparing health care services across Member States, Eurostat considers that this is the concept which best describes the availability of health care resources. However, Member States use different concepts when they report the number of health care professionals. Therefore, for some countries, the data might include physicians who work in their profession but do not see patients (i.e. they work in research, administration etc.) or refer to physicians "licensed to practice" (i.e. successfully graduated physicians irrespective whether they see patients or not).

Relevance:

The provision of universal access to social health protection is an overarching goal stipulated by most countries in the European region.The global shortage of health professionals is most severe in low- and middle income countries. The transformative scale-up of health professional education aims to support and advance the performance of country health systems so as to meet the needs of individuals and populations in an equitable and efficient manner. Driven by population health needs, transformative scale-up consists in a process of education and health systems reforms that address the quantity, quality and relevance of health care providers in order to contribute to universal access and improve population health outcomes. At the root of today's crisis is the gap between the education system and the health system in many countries. Educational planning often takes place in the limited sphere of the educational institutions and the Ministry of Education.

	Region	*Doctors and physicians per 100.000 inhabitants*
GR	Attiki	710.3
ES	La Rioja	685.7
SK	Bratislava	683.6
CZ	Praha	670.2
AT	Wien	641.3
IT	Liguria	604.2
GR	Ipeiros	585.6
GR	Kentriki Makedonia	560.7
GR	Kriti	552.7
IT	Lazio	539.3

Table 43. The ten regions with the highest number of doctors and physicians per 100.000 inhabitants.

MS	*Region*	*Doctors and physicians per 100.000 inhabitants*
NO	Hedmark og Oppland	310.0
CZ	Moravskoslezsko	308.3
IT	Abruzzo	305.2
PT	Centro	305.1
FR	Bretagne	304.5
SE	Smaland and the islands	304.2
FR	Lorraine	303.0
SK	Eastern Slovakia	302.6
FI	North Finland	301.8
FR	Nord – Pas-de-Callais	301.4

Table 44. The ten regions with the median number of doctors and physicians per 100.000 inhabitants

MS	*Region*	*Doctors and physicians per 100.000 inhabitants*
AL	Albania	115.0
TR	Kirikkale	111.3
TR	Gaziantep	101.3
TR	Kastamonu	100.4
TR	Balikesir	96.9
TR	Sanliurfa	92.3
TR	Van	90.9
TR	Hatay	90.3
TR	Agri	75.3
TR	Mardin	70.4

Table 45. The ten regions with the lowest number of doctors and physicians per 100.000 inhabitants.

European countries face common challenges in ensuring a well-performing health workforce in times of existing and projected shortages. One of their most complex challenges is ensuring people living in rural and remote locations have access to trained health workers. Even high-income countries have shortages of health workers in remote and rural areas. France has large inequalities in the density of general practitioners, with higher densities in the south and the capital compared with the centre and north of the country (Cash, R. and P. Ulmann, 2008).

Geographical accessibility of health care is strongly determined by the availability of health staff. The density of health professionals can thus serve as a useful indicator to determine accessibility to different levels of care. Tables show the numbers of practising physicians (excluding nursing and caring professionals) per 100,000 population in selected European countries. While this number is highest in Austria, at 459 per 100,000 population, it is lowest in Poland at 216 per 100,000. The density of practising physicians is also high in Iceland, Norway, and Switzerland, while countries such as Romania or Slovenia display a lower density. A comparably low number of physicians is also recorded in the United Kingdom at 258 per 100,000 population (Scheil-Adlung and Kuhl, 2011).

In Spain, where the average number of doctors and physicians per 100,000 population amounts to 348, this figure reaches 601.3 in Aragón, but merely 240.6 in Extremadura. In the Czech Republic, Prague has a high density of doctors and physicians at 656 per 100,000 inhabitants, roughly 2.5 times as many doctors as in Střední Cechy. The differences in Turkey, which averages 158.2 doctors per 100,000, are particularly striking, with fewer than 80 doctors in Mardin compared to 386 in Ankara (Scheil-Adlung and Kuhl, 2011).

It is worth noting that the highest number of licensed physicians/doctors per100 000 inhabitants is found mainly in Italy, which probably can be explained by the fact that every drugstore has to have a doctor on staff. It can also be noted that the northern parts of Sweden and Norway have a relatively high number of licensed physicians/doctors per 100 000 inhabitants compared to the rest of their countries. This can be explained by the large distances between villages and towns in these areas.

Shortages in the health workforce induced research into the determinants of early exits from the health professions and the reasons why young people do not choose a health career. While dissatisfaction with pay levels is particularly pronounced in the nursing professions (58–90% in several European countries), other factors such as low esteem, limited work control and dissatisfaction with working conditions appear to be even more-decisive reasons for leaving the profession. With regard to physicians, a study from Germany found that decision-making,

recognition, job security, continuous education and collegial relationships directly affected the level of job satisfaction (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2008).

Protecting the health of workers at work is a legal, if not moral, responsibility of employers. Workers, too, have their own responsibilities here in complying with safety regulations and taking care of their health in their own scope of influence. There is a consensus that comprehensive occupational safety and health management systems are a solid way of establishing sustainable health protection at organizational level. Central to this system is the prevention or control of health risks using a widely applied hierarchy of priorities: elimination of the risk; control of the risk; minimization of the risk; and provision of protective equipment.

Policy recommendations:

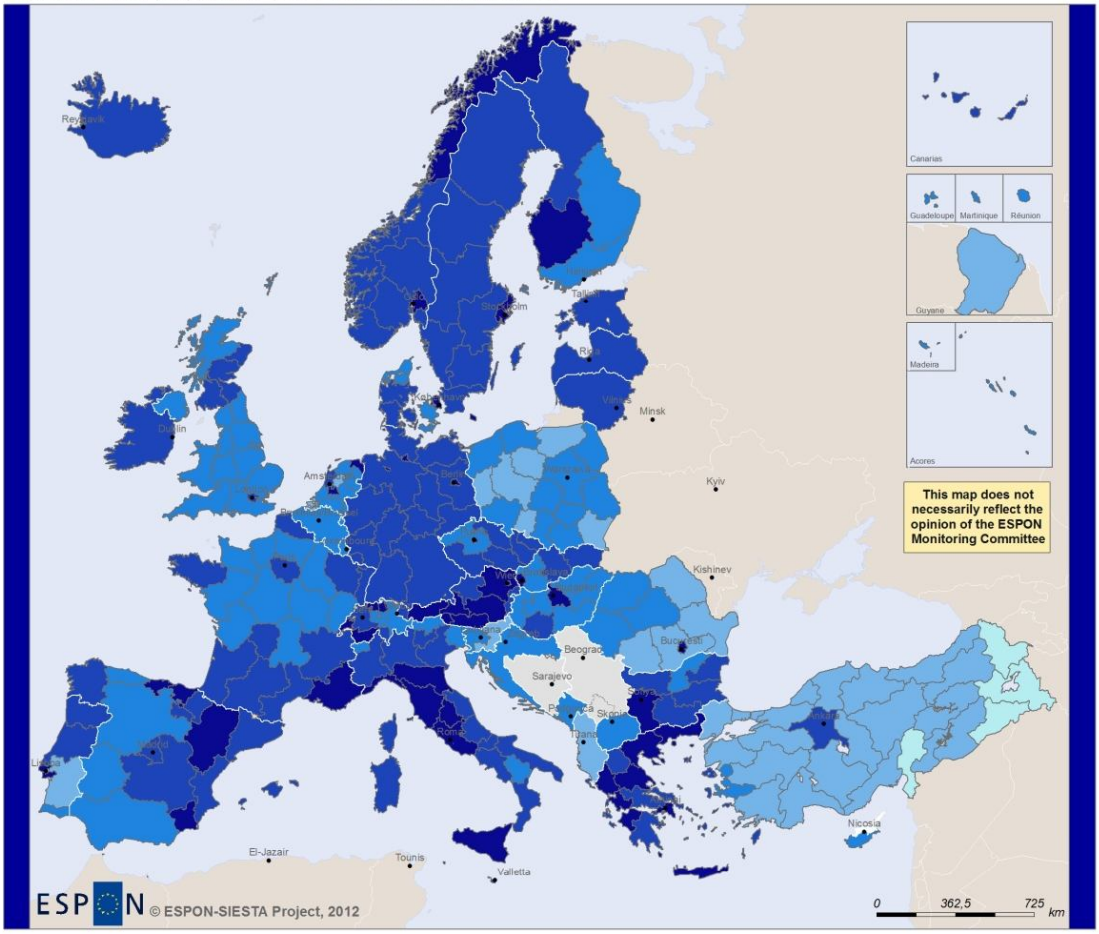
A detailed analysis of the factors that influence the decisions of health workers to relocate to, stay in or leave rural and remote areas is a key step in understanding the extent of the problem and in guiding the appropriate choice of interventions. These factors are very complex, as they tend to be related to personal aspects, health system characteristics and the overall social, economic and political environment. The interplay of these factors is also complex and strongly influenced by the underlying motivation, be this economic, social, cultural, religious, etc (Couper, I. et al., 2007, Dieleman, M. et al., 2003, Iipinge, SN. et al., 2006).

Some national policies are needed to improve the recruitment of health workers: according to the principle of health equity, all citizens should have an equal opportunity to be healthy. Adhering to this principle will help in the selection of the most effective retention strategies and in allocating available resources in a way that contributes to the reduction of avoidable inequalities in health and the understanding of health workforce is necessary, by gender, geographical region, sector and speciality.

From political point of view it's important to promote a correlation between the real accessibility and the territorial distribution of health centers. The new reforms in the field must to diminish the unequal access of population to the health care system.

Profesionals in health sector, 2008

Doctors and physicias per 100.000 inhabitants



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Regional level: NUTS 2
Source: SIESTA project compilation of data
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, Monstat, Mak stat and Word Bank, 2011
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Profesionals per 100.000 inhabitats

- < 100,00
- 10, - 200
- 200 - 300
- 300 - 400
- > 400
- No data

IE, HR, AL, ME, MK and BE are showed at state level.
AL is showed for 2007 and MK for 2009

2.15. Map 67: People working in public sector

Definition:

The public sector is considered to be an economic component, providing basic government services. It differs from one country to another but it includes generally services as the police, military, public roads and transport, primary education and healthcare for the financially challenged people. As a consequence people working in public sector are mainly considered those how are working for any governmental agency and directly paid by the government (an official definition of the people working in public sector is not to be found in Eurostat database)

Relevance:

This analysis, synthetically, expresses a high positive correlation between the development degree and the proportion of the people working in public sector. An optimum for this proportion shows the high satisfaction of the people concerning the public services, the prompt reaction of the people working in this sector solving the citizen's problems.

MS	*Region*	*% of total employment*
ES	Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	47,36
NO	Nord-Norge	44,09
ES	Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	41,17
BE	Prov. Namur	39,85
NO	Hedmark og Oppland	39,58
BE	Prov. Hainaut	39,32
SE	Övre Norrland	38,41
SE	Mellersta Norrland	37,05
FR	Réunion	36,74
NO	Trøndelag	36,60

Table 46. This table shows the ten regions with the highest % of people working in public sector, 2010

MS	*Region*	*% of total employment*
TR	Istanbul	8,92
TR	Tekirdağ	9,13
TR	Trabzon	9,34
TR	Bursa	9,63
TR	Zonguldak	10,31
TR	Manisa	10,32
RO	Sud-Vest Oltenia	10,40
TR	Hatay	10,73
TR	Aydın	10,79
TR	Balıkesir	11,18

Table 47. This table shows the ten regions with the lowest % of people working in public sector, 2010

MS	*Region*	*% of total employment*
EE	Eesti	22,94
CH	Nordwestschweiz	22,89
PT	Algarve	22,73
DE	Mittelfranken	22,73
ES	omunidad de Madrid	22,70
DE	Darmstadt	22,57
DE	Oberbayern	22,41
AT	Salzburg	22,25
IT	Liguria	22,25
BG	Severozapaden	22,21

Table 48. This table shows the ten regions with the average % of people working in public sector, 2010

This map shows the distribution of the rate of people employed in the public sector. An overall look over the map highlights a clear, strong, and almost homogeneous divide between the North and North-West on one hand and South and South-East and East on the other hand. This strong divide coagulates around the threshold value of 25% of people employed in the public sector.

Also, another aspect that is easily observed is the fact that the wealthiest countries have the highest rates of people working in the public sector (Norway, Sweden, The Netherlands), while the poorest countries have a low percentage of employment in public sector (Turkey, Romania, Bulgaria).

Countries and regions from the first group (Finland, Sweden, Norway, Iceland, Denmark, northern Germany, The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, France, United Kingdom and Ireland) all have a percentage higher than 25% of people employed in the public sector (with very rare exceptions, some regions in NW Germany and regions in Scotland under this threshold). On the other hand all the other countries and regions from the rest of the countries remained register a percentage of people employed in the public sector lower the 25%. There are however some exceptions, like regions in Spain and Portugal, Sardinia and Sicily in Italy and the regions from eastern Hungary.

Iceland, Norway, Sweden and Finland all have an employment rate in the public sector above 25%. Regions in northern Norway and Sweden actually register one of the highest rates of employment in the public sector, above 35%. Only two regions in northern Denmark, tree regions in central Belgium and one region in northern Netherlands can match this value. It is well known the concern of the governments of these northern countries towards establishing a well-organized system of well care. The special attention that these countries give to social welfare through a finely tuned educational, health and social protection system creates the conditions for high rates of employment in the public sector.

The Baltic states of Lithuania, Estonia and Latvia are all characterized by a percentage of employment in the public sector below the threshold of 25%. All of these countries find themselves belonging to the category 20-25% employment in the public sector.

This trend continues also in Poland. The northern and western regions of Poland have an employment rate in public sector between 20 and 25%, while central and southern regions belong to the category of 15 to 20% of the employed people working in public sector.

Slovakia was tree regions with 20-25% employment in the public sector and one region within the category 15-20%. The western neighbouring country, the Czech Republic, registers only one region in the category 20-25%, while all the other regions have an employment rate in public sector between 15 and 20%.

Hungary represents an example of heterogeneous distribution of regions regarding the percentage of people working in public sector. While all the other countries analysed so far had regions with values belonging to only two categories, Hungary has regions with values covering tree categories. Eastern and southern regions register rates that make the exception regarding the N, NW and S, SE, E divide. These regions register a rate above the threshold of 25%. The region of capital city has an employment

rate in public sector between 20 and 25%, while two regions in western Hungary have this rate comprised between 15 and 20% category.

If Hungary represents a typical case of heterogeneity regarding the spatial distribution of this indicator, then Romania is the typical case of homogeneity. Excepting the small region of Bucureşti-Ilfov, all the other seven regions find themselves belonging to the 10-15% category. Together with regions of Turkey, Romania has the lowest rate of people employed in public sector. Despite this fact, the IMF exerts strong pressures to reduce the number of people employed in the public sector. In recent years, in order to meet the expectations of the IMF, a strong trend in reducing this rate is undergoing. This trend is expected to last for another couple of years (see the IMF agreement with Romania). Although the numbers show that this rate of people working in the public sector is one of the lowest in the Espon space (it certainly is the lowest in the European Union), the public belief is that the public sector is too large. In the last three years many people, especially from public administration, lost their jobs. This trend is also found in the health and educational systems. Many doctors left their jobs in order to work on a better salary in other hospitals from western countries. The Romanian hospitals remained without specialized doctors on certain positions and they are allowed to employ only one doctor at seven doctors how left the public system. This ratio of one to seven is applied in all the other public sectors (one new-comer at seven departures).

Bulgaria registers a slightly better position than Romania. All its regions are situated in the third category of over 15% of people working in the public sector, with one region in the fourth category (20-25%).

Greece shows almost the opposite of the Bulgarian case. In this country most of the regions belong to the 20-25% category, while southern and insular regions of Greece belong to the 15-20% category. Some exceptions are registered however; the northern insular regions near the Turkish coast have an employment rate in public sector above the 25% threshold. Cyprus belongs to the same category with southern and insular Greece (15-20% employment rate in the public sector).

Turkey holds the regions with the lowest rate of people working in the public sector. Two European regions of Turkey and two Asian regions register under 10% of the employed people working in the public sector. The rest of the countries regions divide between the categories of 15-20% (the western half of Turkey) and the third category of 15-20% (the eastern half of the country). The Ankara region represents the exception, being the only region that registers a rate of over 25% of people employed in the public sector.

In Italy further you go south the bigger will be the rate of people employed in the public sector. With only two regions which do not apply to this rule, the hole north, from the Alps to Rome registers a rate of employment in the public sector ranging between 15-20%. The middle and southern regions have a rate of 20 to 25% of employment in the public sector, while southern tip of the peninsula and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia register rates of up to 35%. The explanations in this case would be the fact that big and numerous private companies are less present than in the northern regions, so that the share of public employment has more weight in the public/private balance.

Excepting the eastern Mediterranean regions the majority of Spanish regions belong to the category comprising the range of 20-25% employment rate in public sector. This pattern is disrupted by Extremadura region and La Rioja region. The northern regions of Portugal have an employment rate between 15 and 20%, while the regions south of Lisbon register a higher rate of employment in the public sector (20-25% and even 30-35%).

Iceland fits well in the pattern of northern countries, registering a rate of employment in the public sector of over 30%. The two regions of Ireland also come close to this pattern having a rate of public employment between 25 and 30%.

All regions in the United Kingdom, excepting one region in eastern Scotland, have rates of public employment higher than 25%. Northern Ireland, the north and west of Scotland, Wales, Merseyside, and Cornwell register rates between 30-35%, while the other regions find themselves in the category corresponding to the values between 25-30%.

Belgium hosts a strange case. The region of the capital city of Brussels would be expected to have a very high rate of employment in public sector. But this hypothesis is not confirmed by the existing data. There are three regions at the SE, S and SW of Brussels region that register one of the highest rates of public employment from regions analysed in this map. The whole country registers rates higher than the threshold of 25% employment in public sector. The Netherlands is in the same situation as its southern neighbour Belgium. The regions of The Netherlands register rates higher the 25% employment in the public sector. But one northern region (Groningen) stands out having more the 35% employment rate in public sector. The Swiss regions divide themselves in two halves. The regions from the eastern half have a rate of employment in public sector up to 25%, while the regions from the western part have a rate comprised between 25-30%.

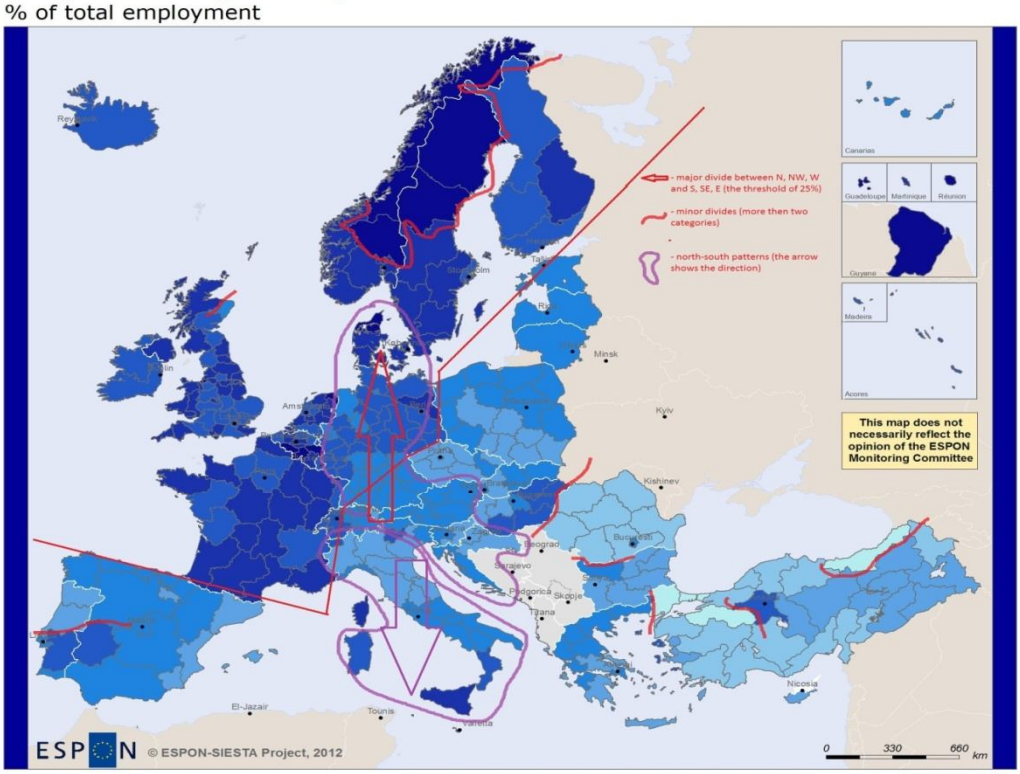
The regions of Germany follow an opposite pattern in comparison to Italian regions. If in Italy the pattern of public employment showed an increase from north to south, in Germany this pattern of higher employment rates increases from south to north. The southern half regions all have an employment rate of up to 25%, while the northern halves of the regions (with few exceptions) register an employment rate over the threshold of 25%. Denmark continues this German pattern, the northern regions registering the highest rates, over 35%. Austrian regions as well continue the pattern of the regions of southern Germany, having an employment rate in public sector between 20 and 25%. This pattern continues to the further south with the regions of Slovenia and Croatia, averaging between 15 and 20% people working in the public sector (with some coastal regions not conforming to this pattern).

Policy recommendations:

The contradictories policies regarding the volume of people working in the public sector put a serious question on the strategy against the present-day crisis. The comparative maps show very clear that the most developed countries from EU have high values of the people working in this sector. So a policy applying an excessive reduction of the people working in the public sector hasn't good results. If we look to the map, easily, we observe that the most affected countries by existing crisis are with the low proportion of the people working in the public sector ones.

People working in the public sector

% of total employment



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Regional level: NUTS 2
Source: SIESTA calculations using EUROSTAT NACE Rev 2. employment data
Origin of data: EUROSTAT, 2012
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% of total employment

< 10,0	25 - 30
10 - 15	30 - 35
15 - 20	> 35
20 - 25	No data

NOTES:
Public sector is asimilated to NACE Rev. 2 codes O-Q: Public adminstration, defence, education, human health and social work activities.

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