Labour supply in Norway

Second report for the project "Welfare Policy and Employment in the Context of Family Change", drafted for the meeting 5-6 June 2003 in Reykjavik, Iceland

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NORWAY

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Introduction

This report presents some key developments in the labour market in Norway in the 1990s. Most emphasis is placed on the labour market behaviour of parents with dependent children, with attention to the differences between mothers and fathers, and between lone parents and parents living as couples. We look at total employment rates, the proportions on temporary leave, working time, work contracts, and unemployment. Also, the report presents some data on poverty rates in different family forms.

Norway in the 1990s has been characterised by a very solid economy. After the recession in the early 1990s – that hit Norway far less than the other Nordic countries – unemployment has fallen to a level that is very low in the international context. Between 1998 and 2001, unemployment rates remained below three per cent. The overall low rate however conceals some important differences between groups: as we shall see, the young, lone parents, and non-western immigrants are far more vulnerable to unemployment than others.

A second important development this report will show is the increased labour market participation of women, and particularly women with children. This is true both for married and cohabiting mothers. Fathers' labour market behaviour has changed much less in this period, but evidence from the time use survey suggest a small increase in the average time fathers spend on work in the home. Still, the labour market is strongly segregated by gender, women on average earn less than men in all sectors of the economy, and the number of women in managerial positions is small – but increasing.

The poverty rate in Norway is low, compared to other countries, and families with children are relatively well protected. It is single persons under 45 who are most vulnerable to poverty. Still, lone parents are also over-represented among the poor, implying that some children are at risk also in Norway.

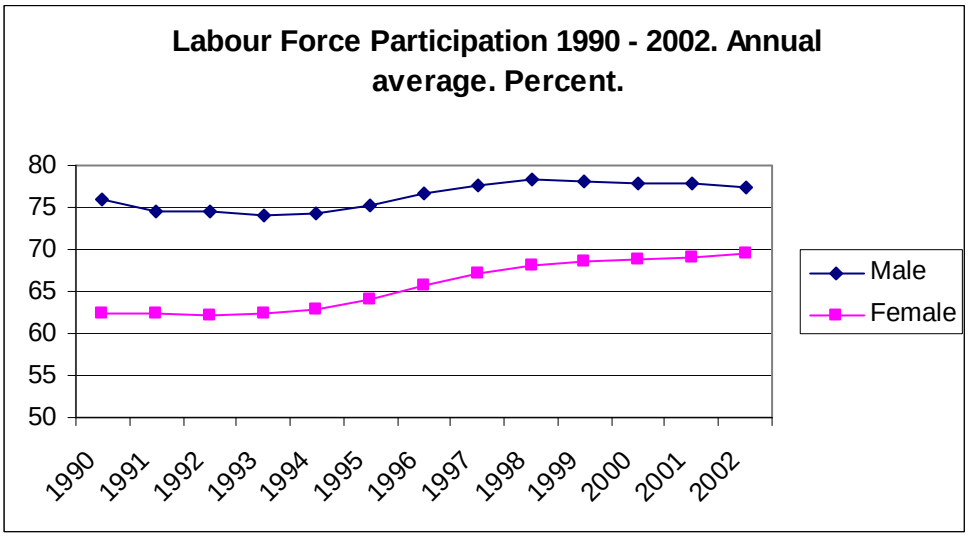
Norwegian employment patterns

Participation rates and employment rates of men and women.

Both unemployed and employed are included in the term labour force. Persons are defined as employed in the Labour Force Survey (LFS) if they are aged 16 – 74 and perform work for

pay or profit for at least one hour in the week of the survey, and if they are temporarily absent from work because of illness, holidays etc. Persons participating in labour market programs are also included if they receive wages, so are conscripts (ssb.no). As unemployed the LFS include persons who were not employed in the survey week, but who had been applying for jobs during the preceding four weeks, and were available for work within the next two weeks.

Figure 1. Persons in the labour force by gender, 1990-2002



Source: Labour Force Survey, Statistics Norway.

Table 1. Labour force participation by age group, 1990-2002

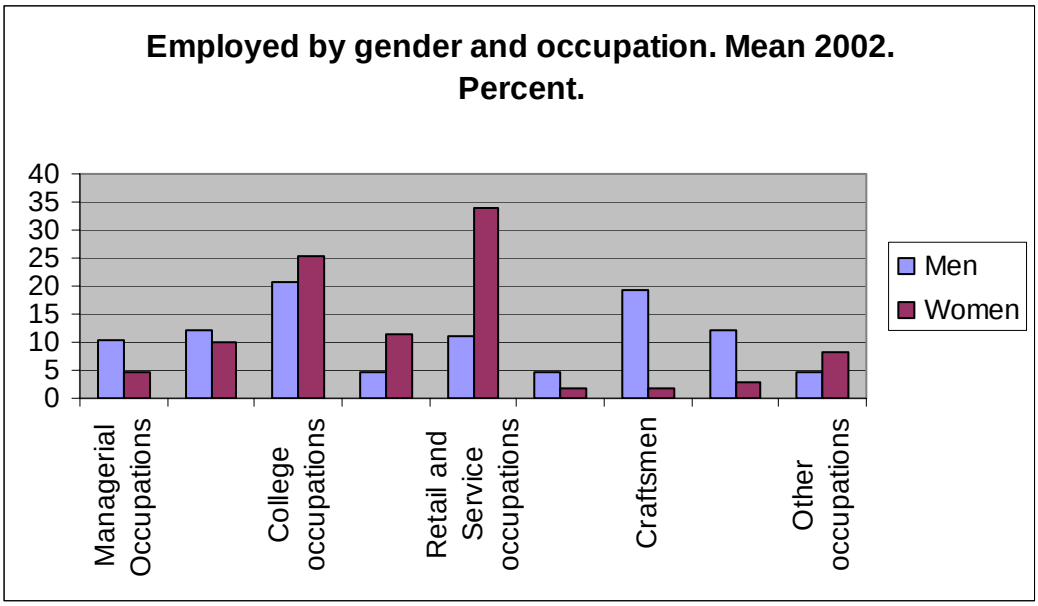
Labour Force Participation, 1990 - 2002. Percent.			
	16 - 24 years	25 - 54 years	55 - 74 years
1990	60,6	85,8	39
1991	57,6	85,4	38,1
1992	56,6	85,2	37,6
1993	55,6	85	37,1
1994	55,6	85,1	37,3
1995	55,8	86	38,4
1996	59,5	86,8	39,4
1997	61,6	87,7	40,5
1998	63,8	87,9	41,9
1999	63,9	87,6	42,6
2000	64,5	87,5	43,4
2001	63,3	87,4	45,6
2002	64,4	87,1	46,8

Source: Labour Force Surveys, Statistics Norway

Labour force participation has increased for all age groups in Norway with the greatest increase found among persons aged 55 – 74 (table 1). According to the labour force survey the proportion of women in the labour force has increased steadily during the 1990s. The proportion of men in the labour force has remained relatively stable. Women have slowly been closing the gender gap in labour force participation, but the labour market in Norway is still quite gender segregated regarding occupations and part- time employment. This is illustrated in figure 2. Men and women choose different occupations and seem to perform different types of work within the same enterprise or firm. The majority of women is found within health and education while the majority of men is found in manufacture and administration. This imbalance has resulted in a considerably higher proportion of women employed in the public, than in the private sector (Ellingsæter & Wiers-Jensen 1997).

The overall direction of changes of the occupational structure in Norway has, during the 1970s to the 1990s, been a shift from private trade and industry to the public sector. After 1996 however the growth in the public sector has stagnated while the proportion of jobs in private trade and services has increased.

Figure 2. Employment in different sectors by gender. Mean 2002. percent.



Source: Labour Force Survey. Statistics Norway.

Participation rates and employment rates for married/ cohabiting mother and fathers

There has been a considerable growth in the proportion of married and cohabiting mothers in the labour force. The most important explanations for this growth are the increased level of education among women followed by a desire to use this education making a career, a desire for independence, gender equity and self fulfilment, a high demand for labour within the public sector, the development of child care opportunities and leave for care arrangements (Halvorsen 2000:13).

Table 2. Employed, working and temporary leave of absence among married/ cohabiting mothers and fathers with children aged 0-15 and youngest child aged 0 - 2 years. 1991 and 2000. Percent

	Mothers		Fathers	
	1991	**2000**	**1991**	**2000**
Children 0 - 15 years				
Employed	74,3	81,2	93,4	94,5
Leave of absence	15	19,5	10,8	12,4
Working	59,3	61,7	82,6	82,1
Children 0-2 years				
Employed	66,1	74,4	92,1	95,3
Leave of absence	25	33,3	10,2	13,3
Working	41,1	41,1	81,9	82

Source: Labour Force Surveys, Statistics Norway

The steady increase in the female labour market participation in the 1990s is also reflected in the growing proportion of mothers in the labour force. This means that a growing number of mothers have obtained employment and a labour contract. We find that the proportion of mothers in the labour force who are not working due to temporary leave has increased from 15 to almost 20 percent from 1991 to 2000. This accounts for most of the increase in the total proportion of employed mothers.

A closer look at married and cohabiting parents with young children (aged 0-2 years) reveal a close relation between the age of the youngest child and role in the labour market. The proportion of mothers of young children in employment has increased at about the same rate as for mothers in general, but there has been *no* increase in the proportion working. The increasing proportion in employment is completely swallowed by the increasing proportions on temporary leave.

There was a small increase in labour force participation for married and cohabiting fathers throughout the 1990s. The proportion of fathers working has remained stable and the proportion of fathers on temporary leave has increased marginally from about 10,8 to 12,4 per cent. Fathers of young children aged 0 - 2 years are no different from the general population of married and cohabiting fathers in this respect.

Family formation frequently coincides with the early stages of a working career that demands considerable effort and focus in the job. At the same time, the costs of setting up a home calls for a steady income, or even two steady incomes. The situation for married and cohabiting parents depicted through media is often that of increasing time- pressure, both for fathers and for mothers.

Evidence from time use surveys

The lives of families with small children have gone through considerable changes the last decades. Both the mother's and the father's roles have changed. Female labour force participation have increased and men are facing increasing expectations of participation around the house and involvement in raising children (Kitterød 2002). Several family policy reforms have been introduced aiming at affecting parents' reconciliation of work and family life. Family policies introduced during the 1970s and the 1980s were mainly directed at increasing the female labour market participation while the main focus of the 1990s have been on fathers' involvement in family life (ibid. See also the policy report).

To further explore the changes in the life of families with small children we will refer to figures from the time-use surveys undertaken by Statistics Norway. The surveys are carried out according to Eurostat's suggestions and are based on respondents "diaries" of time spent

at different activities on selected days throughout a year[1]. The figures only represent married or cohabiting parents with small children (aged 0-6 years).

Table 3. Time use among married/ cohabiting parents with children aged 0-6, 1990 and 2000. Average hours/ minutes per day.

Time spent in education, housework and education among married/ cohabiting fathers and mothers of children aged 0-6 years. 1990 and 2000. Average hours/ minutes per day.

	Employment	Housework	Education	N
Fathers				
1990	5,38	3,26	0.08	514
2000	5,37	3,37	0.14	487
Change 1990-2000	-0.01	+0.11	+0.06	
Mothers				
1990	1,54	6,36	0.14	606
2000	2,37	5,51	0.15	508
Change 1990-2000	+0.43	-0.45	+0.01	

Source: Time use survey

The greatest differences in the use of time among parents of young children from 1990 to 2000 is found among women with a considerable increase in time spent in employment and a corresponding decrease in amount of time spent doing housework[2]. Compared to families in other phases of life parents of small children have less spare time, spending more time in employment and doing housework and care (Kitterød 2002).

As both mothers and fathers of small children have changed the time spent in employment and doing housework in opposite directions, the gender differences have decreased. Even if there are changes in the direction of more gender equality in the division of work within the family, parents of young children still show more traditional patterns than parents with older children or couples without children. However, when adding up time spent in employment with time spent doing housework fathers and mothers spend the same amount of time combined (Kitterød 2002).

[1] For further explanation see ssb.no/timeuse

[2] Housework includes both care for children and chores like shopping and cleaning the house. For more information see ssb.no.

Participation rates and employment rates for lone mothers and fathers

The changes in labour force participation and employment patterns were quite different for lone mothers than for the married and cohabiting during the 1990s (Kitterød & Kjeldstad 2002). There has been a considerable growth in the number of single mothers in employment from 57 per cent in 1993 to 70 per cent by the turn of the century and the proportion on temporary leave only increased from 10 to 12 per cent during the same period. Part of the explanation is linked to the fact that more single mothers have older children than married and cohabiting mothers (Kjeldstad & Rønsen 2001).

Both the age of the mother, the age of the youngest child and the number of children in the family tend to influence lone mothers' labour force participation (cf. Bradshaw et al 1996). Judging from the demographic data, we would expect Norwegian lone mothers to have relatively high labour market participation rates (cf. the demography report). However, in the early 1980s the employment rate of lone mothers fell below that of married and cohabiting mothers, and remained at a lower level throughout the decade (Kjeldstad and Rønsen 2000, figure 4). Only about two-thirds of all lone mothers in Norway were in employment in the early 1990s. Employment rates fell slightly in the early 1990s, but show a steady increase between 1993 and 1998. About half the lone mothers who were in employment worked full time, i.e. more than 35 hours (op. cit., figure 7). Married and cohabiting mothers had higher employment rates than lone mothers throughout the 1990s, but only about 40 per cent of those employed in this group worked more than 35 hours per week. These full-time/ part-time proportions have been relatively stable over time in both groups.

Table 4. Employment rates for lone and married/ cohabiting mothers in Norway, 1990-1998

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
MM	73,7	73,6	73,8	74,5	75,1	76,0	76,8	79,6	81,2	80,7
LM	57,8	58,8	57,0	57,4	58,7	62,5	64,5	63,1	64,7	67,8

Source: Kjeldstad and Rønsen 2002: 83. Figures exclude unemployed mothers.

Table 5. Labour market affiliation for lone mothers, 1991-1999. Percent.

Labour market affiliation for single mothers. 1991 - 1999. Percent.	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Full time (35hours +) [1]	25,7	23,7	23,9	24,8	28,6	27,7	24,9	25,5	28,1
Part time (1-34 hours) [1]	22,7	24,5	24,2	25,5	25,3	26,9	28,1	28,5	27,4
Working	**48,4**	**48,2**	**48**	**50,2**	**53,9**	**54,6**	**52,9**	**54**	**55,5**
Temporary leave [2]	10,4	8,8	9,4	8,5	8,6	9,9	10,2	10,7	12,3
Employed	**58,8**	**57**	**57,4**	**58,7**	**62,5**	**64,5**	**63,1**	**64,7**	**67,8**
Unemployed	5,6	6,8	7,8	7,5	5	5,5	6,5	5,1	4,6
Labour market participation	**64,4**	**63,8**	**65,2**	**66,1**	**67,5**	**70**	**69,6**	**69,7**	**72,3**
Outside the labour force	35,6	36,2	34,8	33,9	32,5	30	30,4	30,3	27,7

Source: LFS, Statistics Norway. Refered in Kjeldstad & Rønsen 2002

[1] Actual working time, temporary leave not included

[2] Share of total temporary on leave during the week of interview

Table 6. Labour market affiliation for lone fathers, 1991-1999. Percent.

Labour market affiliation for single fathers 1991 - 1999. Percent.	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Full time (35hours +) [1]	58,4	61	57,5	61,5	62	64,7	58	67,4	61,4
Part time (1-34 hours) [1]	15,4	11,9	10,5	11,5	11,7	13	15	11,1	16,5
Working	73,8	72,9	68	73	73,7	77,7	73	78,5	77,9
Temporary leave [2]	8,5	8,6	10,3	8,3	8,4	7,3	10,7	11,4	10,9
Employed	82,3	81,5	78,3	81,3	82,1	85	83,7	89,9	88,8
Unemployed	5,4	7,5	8,5	4,7	5,1	5,3	3,2	1,1	2,4
Labour market participation	87,8	89	86,8	86,1	87,2	90,3	86,9	90,9	91,2
Outside the labour force	12,2	11	13,2	13,9	12,8	9,7	13,1	9,1	8,8

Source: LFS, Statistics Norway. Refered in Kjeldstad & Rønsen 2002

[1] Actual working time, temporary leave not included

[2] Share of total temporary on leave during the week of interview

The nature of part-time work

Despite having one of the highest levels of labour market participation in Europe, the actual hours worked is not very high in a comparative perspective. This might to some degree be explained by the widespread use of part-time work and strong regulations on working time.

Table 7. Hours worked per week by employed married/ cohabiting mothers and fathers with children aged 0-15 and youngest child 0-2years. Percent

	Mothers		Fathers	
	1991	**2000**	**1991**	**2000**
Children 0-15 years				
0 (temporary absence)	19,9	23,7	11,8	12,6
1-19 hours	20,2	16,2	2,4	4
20-36 hours	32,3	32,1	12,3	15,2
37-40 hours	19,5	20,1	37	38,4
41-49 hours	5,4	5,1	16,3	14,6
50 hours +	2,7	2,7	20,2	15,2
Children 0-2 years				
0 (temporary absence)	37,8	45,8	11,1	13,1
1-19 hours	17,1	14,6	2,6	4,9
20-36 hours	24,4	22,9	12,8	15,6
37-40 hours	15,9	13,5	39,3	38,5
41-49 hours	3,7	2,1	15,4	13,9
50 hours +	1,2	1	18,8	13,9

Source: Labour Force Surveys, Statistics Norway

Table 8. Actual working* time for employed lone mothers and fathers, 1991 and 1999

	Lone mothers		Lone fathers	
	1991	**1999**	**1991**	**1999**
1-19 hours	18,2	16,7	3	7
20-34 hours	28,7	32,6	17,8	14,4
Full time	53,1	50,6	79,2	78,8

* actual working time, those on temporary leave excluded

Source: LFS, Statistics Norway. Calculations by Kjeldstad and Rønsen (2002)

There has been a decrease in the number of hours worked per person the last decade. Considering the shift from a male breadwinner family model to an adult worker family model - a dual- earner family - the actual number of hours worked at household level has increased (Halvorsen 2000). The total number of hours worked by the Norwegian population has

increased the last decade, but at a much lower rate than the increase in the labour force and the number of people actually working would imply. This is mainly due to shorter working hours on the individual level and the high proportion of women working part time.

Looking at the hours worked for parents with children under 15, we however find very small changes between 1991 and 1999/2000. Both mothers and fathers have become more likely to be on temporary leave in the survey week, but the proportion of mothers working short part-time (less than 19 hours) has decreased. This is also true for lone mothers, while lone fathers were slightly more likely to work short part-time in 1999 than they were in 1991. Also, it seems married and cohabiting fathers have become less likely to work very long hours.

People working part time often have quite a different relation and attachment to the labour market than people working full time other than the difference in hours actually worked. However, in Norway there is a strong tradition for part-time work, especially within the public sector. As a result of this there are a number of rights attached to part- time work and the formal job-protection does not discriminate against part-timers (Bjurstrøm 1992).

Part-time work is widespread in the female-dominated professions like the health care sector. Most of the women who work part- time work between 15 – 29 hours per week while men working part time usually do this for about 1 – 14 hours a week This difference might be explained by the fact that many women work part-time throughout their entire working career while men usually do this for a limited time, as for example while in education (Svalund 2003).

In a European context Norwegian women have a high rate of part time work. We know that the rate of part time work among Norwegian women is decreasing by education and increasing by age, while it is hardly affected by the presence of small children in the household. Employed women aged 20 - 34 with small children work longer hours than women aged 35 - 55. Cohort seems to be more important for working hours than the presence of small children in the household (Torp, H. & Barth, E. 2001:8 - 9).

According to Ellingsæter (1999) we find an increasing gap between the formally regulated employment and the actual practice. This is in line with the general tendencies of a more

"flexible" labour market. Whereas paid overtime is strictly regulated, the increase in unpaid and irregular overtime is significant, especially among persons with high education.

For a great proportion of employees there might be a discrepancy between the actual or contracted working hours and the preferred number of hours spent at work. The European Study of Employment Options of the Future (quoted in Torp & Barth 2001) reveal a general tendency of people wanting shorter working hours. This means that the average preferred working time stated in the survey is shorter than the average actual working time. There is however a difference in preferred working hours between people in full time and part time employment; full- time employees tend to want shorter hours and part timers tend to prefer longer hours. The former can be labelled overemployed while the latter group is underemployed. As table X shows, more women than men consider themselves to be underemployed.

Table 9. Part-time employed and underemployed, by gender and age. Annual average 2001. Percent.

Part-time employed and underemployed, by sex and age. Annual average. 2001. As percent of the labour force.

Age	Part-time employed			Underemployed[1]		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Total	**25**	**11**	**41**	**3**	**1**	**5**
N (x1000)	(587)	(134)	(453)	(68)	(15)	(53)
Age						
16 - 24	42	33	53	6	4	8
25 - 39	20	7	35	3	1	5
40 - 54	21	5	38	3	0	5
55 - 74	31	15	52	2	1	3

[1] The term underemployed includes part-time employed persons who have tried to prolong their working hours, and are able to start with increased working hours within a month.

Source: Labour force surveys, Statistics Norway. Authors own calculations.

Labour market challenges and problems

Unemployment (total and by age)

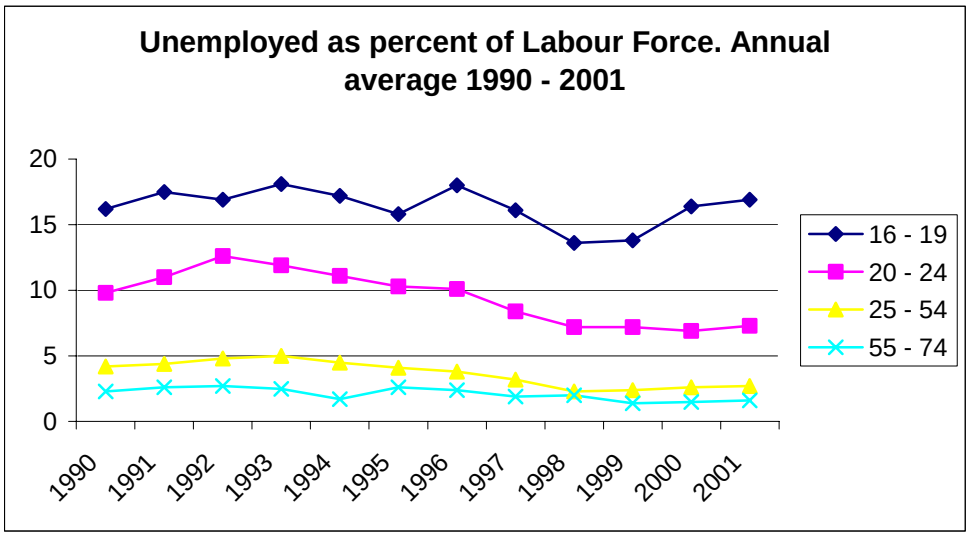
By the beginning of 2003 more than 100.000 people were unemployed in Norway according to the Labour Force Surveys. This accounted for 4,4 per cent of the total work force (1. Quarter 2003, Statistics Norway.) The unemployment rates are rising and the proportion of long term unemployment among these has increased from 15 – 20 per cent during 2002.

There is no single definition nor operationalisation of unemployment (Halvorsen 2000). In Norway, two measures of unemployment are used side by side: the number of people registered as unemployed at the local employment agencies (a-etat), and the ILO definition of unemployment used in the Labour Force Surveys. The figures and statistics used in this report stem mainly from either the Labour Force Survey (LFS) or register-based employment statistics from the local employment agencies and the Directorate of Labour in Norway[3]. The figures on unemployment based on the LFS differ from the figures on unemployed persons registered at the employment offices in several ways. There are several reasons for this: the LFS does to a greater extent include first-timers in the labour market and other persons that do not receive unemployment benefits than the register based statistics, persons participating in active labour market programs (arbeidsmarkedstiltak) are not registered as unemployed but might be classified as unemployed by the LFS, some of the older persons registered as unemployed see themselves as pre-retired and no longer apply for jobs and are thus not classified as unemployed in the LFS. Finally, some of those registered as unemployed report having occasional/ irregular jobs and will be classified as employed or underemployed by the LFS (Næsheim 2002 – ssb.no). A comparison done by statistics Norway between 1993 – 1997 revealed that only about 50 per cent of unemployed persons were classified by both sources at the same time (ibid).

As seen in figure 3, the level of unemployment peaked in 1993. We also find that unemployment is more widespread among the youngest age groups, reflecting young people's less stable position in the labour market. In times of rising unemployment, young people are usually the first to be affected (Furlong & Hammer 2000).

[3] Statistics on unemployed persons at the Employment Offices and government measures to promote employment are compiled by the Directorate of Labour on the basis of registers of unemployed persons and applicants for work.

Figure 3. Unemployment as percentage of the labour force, different age groups, 1990-2001



Source: Labour Force Surveys, Statistics Norway.

Table 10. Unemployment by gender and age. Per cent. 1990-2002.

Unemployed as percent of Labour Force by gender and age. 1990 - 2002.

		1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000	2002
Men	**16 - 74 years**	**5,6**	**6,5**	**6**	**4,8**	**3,1**	**3,6**	**4,1**
	16 - 24 years	12,7	14,7	13,5	12,1	9,1	9,9	12,4
	25 - 54 years	4,5	5,5	5,1	3,8	2,2	2,9	3,2
	55 - 74 years	2,6	3,3	3,1	2,9	2,1	1,8	1,4
Women	**16 - 74 years**	**4,8**	**5,1**	**4,7**	**4,9**	**3,2**	**3,2**	**3,6**
	16 - 24 years	10,7	12,8	11,9	12,9	9,5	10,6	10,3
	25 - 54 years	3,9	4,1	3,8	3,9	2,3	2,2	2,8
	55 - 74 years	1,9	1,9	2	1,8	1,8	1,1	1,4

Source: Labour Force Surveys, Statistics Norway.

Overall the unemployment rates for men have been slightly higher for men than for women in Norway during the 1990s.

As seen in table 11, the proportion of long-term unemployed among all unemployed has fallen in the course of the 1990s. In 2001, as many as 44 per cent of all unemployed were unemployed for less than a month. This mirrors the stable growth in the economy, after more difficult times in the early 1990s.

Table 11. Unemployed by unemployment period. 1990-2002.

	1990	1992	1994	1996*	1998	2000	2001	2002
1-4 weeks	19	18	16	32	44	45	44	
5-13 weeks	19	18	19	22	25	26	26	
14-26 weeks	15	15	14	15	15	12	12	
More than 27 weeks	36	36	38	29	29	16	16	
Unspecified	11	13	12	2	2	1	2	
Average duration (weeks)	30	32,7	36,7	25	17,9	15,3	15,3	17,5

* Starting in 1996 important changes were done that affect statistics on unemployment, especially statistics on duration. Questions in the questionnaire were changed from: "For how many consecutive weeks have you been unemployed" to "For how many consecutive weeks have you been trying to get a job". This explains the marked decrease in long time unemployment statistics in 1996. Other changes affecting the statistics were a change in the "availability" of the unemployed *from* having to be available for a new job in one week *to* two weeks. (NOS LFS 2001)

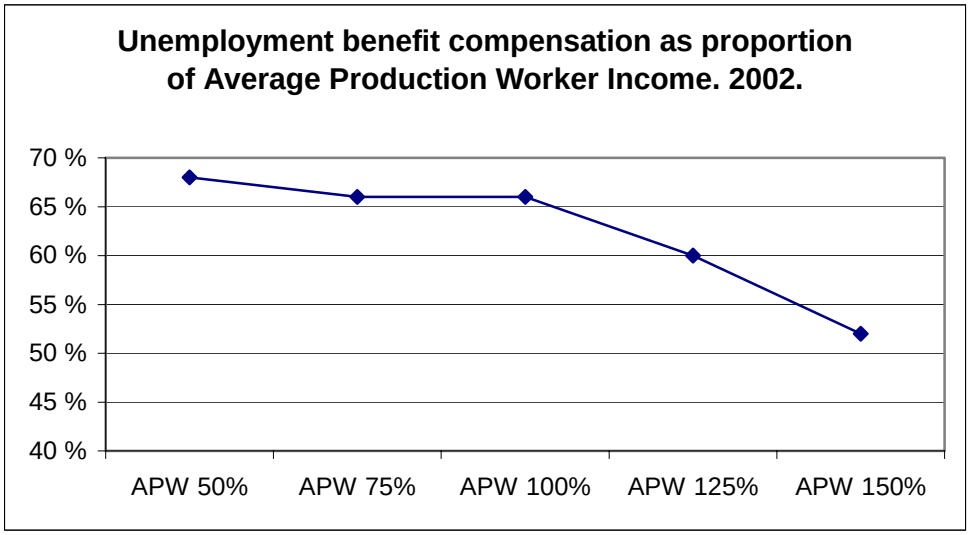
Source: Labour Force Surveys, Statistics Norway

Most Norwegian unemployed have rights to unemployment benefits. The benefits, called *arbeidsledighetstrygd*, are related to previous income and are designed to cover subsistence expenses. However there are some conditions that have to be fulfilled to obtain rights to unemployment benefits. The most important conditions are connected to being registered as unemployed at the local employment office, applying for a new job and able to take any job within two weeks anywhere in the country (that is, being an active job-seeker)[4] and having had previous income above a certain level.

The unemployment benefit system is designed to be a temporary compensation for loss of income from employment, giving the unemployed a chance to be applying for jobs full-time. The maximum duration for receiving unemployment benefits is 104 weeks.

[4] This condition may be modified in the individual case.

Figure 4. Unemployment benefit as proportion of AWP, different wage levels, 2002.



Source: NOSOSCO

Temporary employment: by different age groups, to what extent is it voluntary?

Temporary employment is one of several types of "atypical labour contracts", assumed to be increasingly used as a consequence of the structural changes in the labour market (Longva 2002). The growth in the service, health and retail industry corresponds to some degree to the growth in use of temporary employment contracts (OECD 2002). However, table 12 shows no signs of increase in temporary contracts over the 1990s, but rather a small decline. In 2002, 9,9 per cent of the labour force were on temporary contracts.

Table 12. People on temporary contracts 1996-2002. Percent.

People on temporary employment contracts 1996 - 2002. Percent						
1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
12,7	12	10,9	10,1	9,3	9,2	9,9

Source: Nergaard 2002, Labour Force Survey 2002, Statistics Norway.

Some people are forced into temporary contracts because of a weak position in the labour market in addition to low labour demand, accepting low wages and limited career opportunities, while others enter these types of employment deliberately on a more temporary basis and use them as a chance to combine work and out-of-work activities like education or

family life (Longva 2002). Temporary employment might also be seen as an entrance to the labour market, as the first step into the internal labour market of a company (Ibid), as an opportunity to test out jobs and employees before hiring employees on a regular contract. In Norway temporary employment frequently leads to regular employment. A recent study found that two out of three temporary employed would obtain a regular employment contract within two years. At the same time temporary employed are at higher risk for unemployment and the chances of being in regular employment is lower within the health and care services (Longva 2002).

Table 13. Proportion with temporary contracts, selected industries. 2002.

Employees with temporary jobs, by major industry division (LFS). As per cent of all employees. 2002	
	Annual average
TOTAL	9,9
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	13,7
Mining and quarrying, manufacturing, electricity, gas and water supply	6
Construction	6,3
Wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants	8,4
Retail trade	9,8
Hotels, restaurants	13,5
Transport, storage and communication	7,6
Financial intermediation, real estate and business activities	7,1
Other services	13,7
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	9,9
Education	14,2
Health and social work	15

Source: Labour Force Surveys, Statistics Norway.

Job flexibility, timing/ shifts/ irregular hours

Another feature of the labour market following the increase in the service sector and the increased female labour market participation is the growth in the number of people working irregular hours, that is, outside what is considered as standard working hours. People working outside standard working hours have jobs that require working in the late evening, at night or in the early morning. Working arrangements, including daily and weekly working hours, are

regulated by the Work Environment Act[5]. The act states 40 hours weekly and 9 hours daily as maximum working time for employees in Norway. As an addition and expansion of the Work Environment Act collective agreements in all industries and sectors have decided 37,5 hours per week as standard working time, usually 7,5 hours a day.

About 15 per cent of Norwegian employees work irregular hours, in shift or have atypical working time arrangements (1999). This number is substantially higher than the number by the beginning of the 1990s. Explanations for the growing proportion of people working irregular hours can be found in the growth of the service sector (public and private) relative to the manufacturing sector. Working Saturday and Sunday is not very usual in the manufacturing industries and most business services. Due to local regulations most shops are closed on Sundays. However during the last two decades opening hours of stores has increased, both in late evenings, all night and on Sundays (Torp & Barth 2001). The typical shift worker is a young woman, employed in service industries such as hotels and restaurants or in the public health sector.

Non-employment/ workless households

The proportion of persons outside the labour force has decreased as labour market participation has been increasing. At the same time the composition of persons outside the labour force has changed. The proportion of people in education has been growing and the number of people *working at home* has undergone a "dramatic" decline. There has been a shift from unpaid care to paid care (Halvorsen 2000:9). Another important change regarding persons outside the labour force has been the shift from private to public provision, regarding youth that used to be provided for by their family and housewives. There has also been an increase in the number of people termed disabled, early retirees and old age pensioners.

While there is some information about individuals outside the labour market, we have little information about workless *households*. Some calculations can however be made: in 1999, 27,7 per cent of lone mothers and 8,8 per cent of lone fathers defined themselves as being outside the labour force (Kjeldstad and Rønsen 2000:82). 4,6 per cent of lone mothers and 2,4 per cent of lone fathers were unemployed. These are almost certainly workless households (unless they have one or more children who are in employment). A rough estimate can then be

[5] Arbeidsmiljøloven.

made: in Norway in 1999, there were 1.044.700 children under 16 in Norway. 18 per cent of those were living with lone mothers or fathers, that is, about 167.000. If about 30 per cent of those had parents who were either unemployed or outside the labour force, that accounts for about 50.000 children, or about 4,8 per cent of all children in Norway living with one parent who was outside the labour force. This is however a rough estimate, since age limits for children varies between 16 and 18 in the different figures, and since we have figures for employment status of lone parents and the total number of children living with lone parents, but no estimates for the number of children per lone parent family. The estimate is thus based on the assumption that lone parents in and outside the labour force on average have the same number of children.

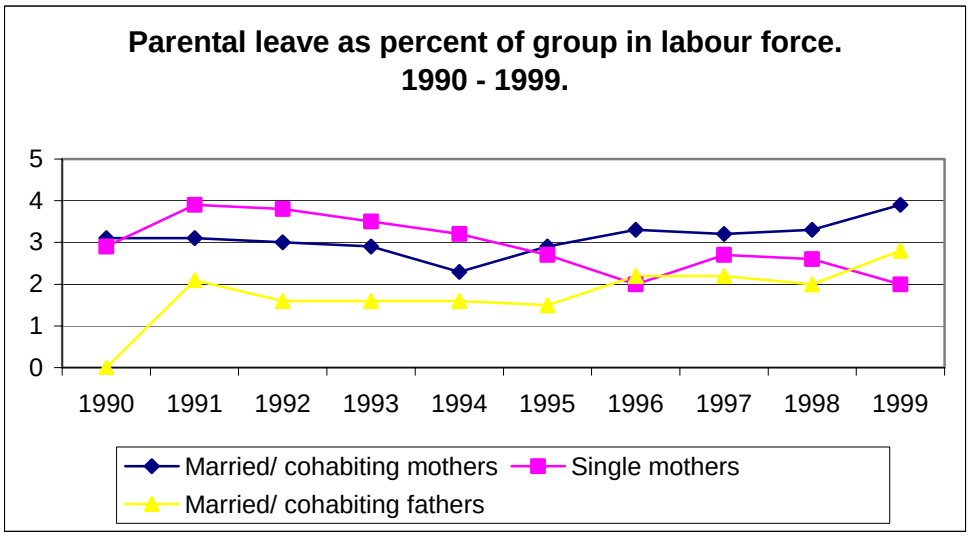
In 1998, it was estimated that 60 per cent of all Norwegian children lived in households where both adults were in employment, 31 per cent lived in households with one employed adult, and 8 per cent lived in households with no employed adults (Epland 2001, tab. 4.1). The risk of living in poverty was over eight times higher for children living in such workless households than it was for other children (using the square root equivalence scale). A high proportion of the workless households – yet it is not stated how high – were households with only one parent (ibid.).

Social security and poverty

Maternal/ parental leave

There has been a broad focus on, and development of, parental leave schemes throughout the 1990s in Norway, especially for fathers. This is a kind of rights attached to the parent's role as employed. The main focus of the public discourse on rights to parental leave during this decade has been the problem of lack of father involvement. One of the most important changes in regard to father's role in the family is the decline of the traditional father role as the sole breadwinner of the family. The shift from a notion of the male breadwinner society to an individual breadwinner or dual earner society has had consequences for policies directed at parents. In Norway policies aiming at parents focus more on individual rights and policies than on the family as a unit (Brandth & Kvande 2003). This accounts both for the social policy and the taxation policies resulting in the so called de-familiarization of the society (Esping- Andersen 1999).

Figure 5. Parental leave as per cent of the labour force, different groups, 1990-1999.



Looking at the development during the 1990s regarding the proportion of employees on parental leave we find a slight increase in the proportion of married and cohabiting mothers and fathers in the latter half of the decade. Looking at the single mothers we find a more fluctuating pattern.

Some rights to leave are directed at the mothers only, some for the fathers and some for both the parents. Mothers are entitled 3 weeks paid leave in advance and 6 weeks following the delivery. Fathers are entitled 4 week paid leave, the "fathers-quota", attached to having a child, in addition to the 2 week welfare leave called "daddy leave". Daddy leave is taken immediately after the child is born, while the father quota is often only taken toward the end of the parental leave, when the mother returns to work. Parental leave can be divided between the two parents and last for a total of 29/39 weeks with full or 80 per cent wage replacement respectively. The arrangement of a so called "time-account" was introduced in 1994 as an attempt to make a flexible parental-leave scheme allowing either of the parents to combine part-time work and part-time paid leave. (For further information on these policies see the Policy report).

Table 14. Parental leave rights in 1992 and 2002. Weeks.

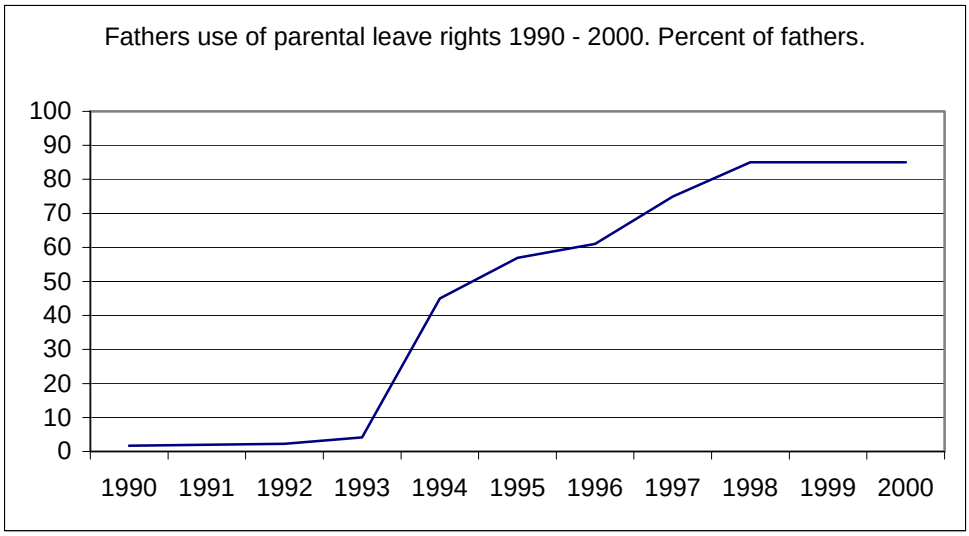
Parental leave rights in 1992 and 2002. Weeks.

	1992	2002
Mothers share	6	3 + 6
Daddy-leave	2	2
Fathers quota	-	4
Parental leave (paid)	12	29/39
Parental leave (Unpaid)	32	104
Sum	52	158

Source: Brandt & Kvande 2003

Overall we find a great increase in the parental leave rights from the beginning of the last decade to the present. The proportion of fathers who actually use their acquired rights to parental leave has exploded during the 1990s as we can see from the figure below.

Figure 6. Use of paternity leave, 1990-2000. Percent of all fathers.



During this period of time we find that the practice of parental leave among fathers has changed from a virtually non-existing practice to be a mainstream phenomenon. By the turn of the century about 85 per cent of all fathers use all or parts of their parental leave. According to a survey carried out in 1995 (Brandth & Kvande 2003) the different leave-arrangements are used to a varying extent by the fathers. The most popular was found to be the Fathers-quota, used by 74 per cent of the fathers followed by the Daddy leave, used by 68 per cent and then Parental leave and time-account, used by 14 per cent and 1,5 per cent respectively. Only 8 per cent of the interviewed fathers had no leave attached to the birth of their child (ibid).

Table 15. Men taking paternity leave, by duration of leave. 2002.

Percent of Men finishing at least one period of paid leave to care and time on leave. 2002.				
1-10 days	11-19 days	20 days	21 - 39 days	more than 40 days
8	6	71	4	11

N=33019

Source: Rikstrygdeverket.

We find that the majority of men spend 20 days in paid leave to care for children (the use-or-lose father quota), while about one in ten fathers spend more than 40 days.

Leave to care for sick children

Parents with children under 12 are entitled to leave to care for a sick child. This applies to both full-time and part-time employees. The right also comes into force if the person taking care of the child at day-time (e.g. nanny) is sick. Every employee is allowed a total leave to care for sick children of 10 days a year, extended to 15 days a year if there are more than two children in the household. Lone parents are granted a total of 20 or 30 days per year respectively.

Income and earnings (male/ female ratio)

Table 16 Average monthly wage[1] by age. Women's wage as percent of Men's. 3. Quarter. Full time employed 1997 - 2001

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
- 24 years	94,1	93,6	85,2	94,6	95
25 - 29 years	93,1	92,7	94,1	93	93,2
30 - 34 years	91,2	91,1	92,6	90,7	91,1
35 - 39 years	85,7	85,7	90,8	87,3	87,7
40 - 44 years	81,9	81,7	86	82,3	83,2
45 - 49 years	81,2	80,8	81,7	81,5	81,6
50 - 54 years	80,3	80,4	81,3	80,8	81,2
55 - 59 years	81,9	80,9	80,3	80,7	80,7
60 - years	83	81,7	80,6	80,8	81,7
Totalt	**85,4**	**85,3**	**81,1**	**85,5**	**85,9**

Source: Statistics Norway

[1] includes wage, irregular bonus, etc. Not including pay for overtime.

As we found in the above section on labour market participation, the labour market in Norway is segregated by gender, this is not only true regarding type of work, but also regarding wages.

Table 16 shows that the so- called "gender pay-gap" is smallest for the youngest employees. Several conditions and factors might help explain the differences in wages, including differences between men and women. Age, seniority and education are of course important such factors. Another mechanism in the labour market leading to differences in wages is the fact that traditionally female dominated positions and jobs tend to have lower overall wages. Adding to this is the fact that women more often work in the public sector, where wages are lower than in the private sector but working conditions are often perceived as more family friendly.

Table 17. Mean annual wage for women as percentage of mean annual wage for men, selected sectors of the economy. 1990-1998

Mean annual wage[1] for women as percentage of mean annual wage for men in some areas of work. Full time employees.

										Annual Wage 1998		
	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	Men NOK	Women NOK	Share of women[2]
Industrial workers (NHO area)	89,7	90,3	90,3	90,5	90,5	90,4	90,6	90,5	90,9	233400	212300	17
Industrial clerical staff (NHO area)	74,2	74,6	75	75,6	75,9	76,3	77,1	77,7	-	-	-	24
Commodity trade businesses(HSH)	79,4	80,5	81,6	82,4	83,4	84	84,4	84,5	84,6	252800	213900	34
Banks. Savings- and Business-	81,4	82,7	83,3	83,7	84	83,8	83,5	83	82,6	302300	249600	48
Government officials[3]	84,8	86	87	88	88,3	88,9	89,7	89,9	89,8	264700	237700	36
Education	89,6	90,2	90,7	91,8	92,5	93	94,4[4)]	94,1	93,8	266000	249500	55
Local government emploee	86,6	87	87,7	87,8	88,4	89,1	89,3	88,2	88	254600	224000	59

1) Annual wage, not including paid overtime, including other increments

2) Based on numbers for income statistics for single groups

3) After 1988 some of the government departments are reorganised as limited companies or foundations, and are thus not included in the statistics.

4) From 1996 regular paid overtime was taken out of the statistics, increasing womens relative wages by about 1% (prosentpoeng).

Source: Statistics Norway and Beregningsutvalget. Referred in NOU 2000:4.

Another common measure of income inequality is a ranking by income divided into ten ally large groups (deciles). Inequality is often measured by the proportion of total income

received by each decile group (in relation to the other groups). During the 1990s there has been a significant increase in the richest decile of the population at the expense of all the other groups (Social trends 2000). The most important factor behind this change is the increase in both share dividends and realised capital gains and the fact that both sources of income are unevenly distributed in the population (ibid: 114-115).

Table 18. Households by gross financial capital, deciles, 1986-2000.

Gross financial capital for household by deciles. 1986-2000. Per cent

	1990	1992	1994	1996	1998	2000
All household	100	100	100	100	100	100
Decil 1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Decil 2	0	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,2
Decil 3	0,7	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,6	0,5
Decil 4	1,7	1,3	1,1	1,1	1,1	1,1
Decil 5	3	2,4	2,1	2	1,9	1,8
Decil 6	4,7	4	3,5	3,4	3	3
Decil 7	7,1	6,7	5,8	5,5	4,8	4,7
Decil 8	10,8	11	9,6	9,1	8	7,7
Decil 9	18,2	18,4	17	16,5	14,2	13,9
Decil 10	53,3	55,3	59,9	61,6	66,2	67,1
Number of obsevations	6 046	8 104	12 799	14 110	14 521	12 919

Source: Income and property statistics. Statistics Norway.

As seen in the above table the richest 10 per cent of Norwegian households controlled 53 per cent of the gross financial capital whereas this proportion had increased to 67 per cent by the turn of the century. The distribution of income in the population is becoming more uneven, but not particularly at the expense of the poorest tenth. The question of what has happened to the poor during the 1990s leads us to…

Poverty rates and poverty gaps

Poverty is generally associated with persons having an unacceptable standard of living because of great economical and material deprivation. In research, the term poverty is often used when looking at economical deprivation in relation to its impact on living conditions or social exclusion. Poverty in this respect can be understood as a situation where a person during a longer period of time has a considerably low income, often combined with a high level of expenses attached to disease, disability etc., causing insufficient basic welfare (St. meld. 6 (2002-2003)). In Norway there is no single official definition of poverty or a single

definition at which poverty is measured. Instead we can find a widespread use of the term "low-income" used to describe a somewhat similar situation as low income over a period of time is believed to increase the risk of poor living conditions (ECON 2001). Individuals having an income of less than 50 per cent of the median income in the general population are defined as having low income. If this situation is of temporary character, a period of low income might not be of any great risk for the individual's standard of living. Quite a few people experience periods of low income in relation to different stages of life or different transitions like the school to work transition, temporary unemployment, divorce etc. For most of these persons poverty is not a persisting problem. This is the argument when the government in the recent white paper on poverty (the first white paper ever on this issue in Norway) defines poverty as persistent poverty, that is, incomes below half the median for at least three consecutive years (St. meld. Nr. 6 (2002-2003)).

Table 19. Persons with after-tax income below half the median, by type of household. Two equivalence scales.

Percentage of persons with an after-tax income per unit of consumption below half of median, in different kinds of household. Two different equivalence scales. 1992 and 1997.

	OECD-scale		Statistics Norway Scale	
	1992	**1997**	**1992**	**1997**
All households	**4,1**	**4,7**	**7,6**	**7,4**
Single				
Below 45 years	19,2	22,3	24,9	28,9
45-64 years	1,7	4	12,2	9,6
65 years and over	2,8	2,3	33,6	33,6
Couples without children by age of the eldest person				
Under 45 years	6,5	4,9	6,6	5,3
45-64 years	1,3	1	1,6	1,4
65 years and over	1,3	1,3	3,4	2,6
Couples with children youngest child aged				
0-6 years	3,8	4,2	3,2	2,6
7-17 years	2,6	1,8	1,8	1
Mother/ father with children				
0-17 years	3,8	7,3	14,5	11,9

Source: Social trends 2000. Statistics Norway.

According to the OECD scale[6] 4,7 per cent of the Norwegian population was found to be below the low income line in 1997. There has been an increase in the proportion of households with an after-tax income below 50 per cent of the median income in Norway from 1992. Compared to couples, a higher proportion of young singles and single parents belong to the low income group.

Table 20. Persons with after-tax income per consumption unit below half the medial, 1990-1997.

Percentage of persons with after tax income per consumption unit under half of median income

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
All	6,2	6,4	6,7	6,8	7,6	6,6	6,9	6,5
Women	7,8	8,1	8,2	8,7	9,4	8,4	8,3	7,7
Men	4,5	4,7	5,2	5	5,7	4,8	5,4	5,2

Source: Social indicators. Statistics Norway 2000.

Women more often than men have low incomes. In 1997 we find that nearly 8 per cent of women where below the low-income line compared to 5 per cent of the men.

Research on poverty and low-income households find that there is a high turnover in the low-income group. About half of those defined as having low-income one year have left this category the following year (Social trends 2000:117). The below table shows a comparison of persons categorised as having low-income during a three year period from 1997-1999 and the total population.

Looking at households with low-income over a period of 3 years we find that the proportion of singles below 45 and single parents of children below 17 are overrepresented in the low-income group.

[6] Equivalence scales are used to estimate the income pre unit of consumption. The two scales used in this report are based on different assumptions on the economy of scale of more people living together under the same roof. The OECD scale weighs household income giving adult number one weight 1, other adults in the household are given the weight of 0,7 and the consumption weight of 0,5 is given each child below 16 years. The Statistics Norway Scale divide the income in the household by the square root of the number of persons belonging to the household, thus counting children and grown-ups equally, only taking into account the number of people in the household.

Table 21. Percentage of persons with after-tax income per consumption unit below half the median, in different households. Proportion 1997-1999.

Percentage of persons with an after-tax income per unit of consumption below half of median, in different kinds of household. Proportion 1997 - 1999

	Persons with low-income	The total population
Single		
Below 45 years	38,3	9
45-64 years	5,4	4,5
65 years and over	3	7,2
Couples without children by age of the eldest person		
Under 45 years	5,8	3,2
45-64 years	2,8	9,8
65 years and over	3,3	9,4
Couples with children youngest child aged		
0-6 years	20	22,2
7-17 years	5,8	17,5
Mother/ father with children		
0-17 years	10,4	6,1
Other households	5,3	4,2
All households	100	100

Source: St. Meld. Nr. 6 (2002-2003), p. 15

Proportion living in poverty by age of children

Compared to other industrialised countries Norway displays the lowest proportion of child poverty (st. meld. Nr 6. 2002-2003). Estimates of children living in low-income households show that there are somewhere between 2,6 and 3,1 per cent of all children living in low-income families, accounting for about 30 000 children[7]. Between 1,7 and 2,4 percent of all Norwegian children were estimated to live in households having low-income over a three year period from 1996-1998 (Epland 2001). About 60-70 percent of these children lived in families where none of the grown-ups are employed. About the same proportion of children are estimated to live in a single-parent household. Every second child living in households with

[7] The actual numbers are debated (se for eksempel Redd Barna).

longer-term low income problems are either first or second generation immigrant (St. meld. Nr 6 2002-2003).

Studies find strong correlation between a weak labour market affiliation and longer-term problems with low income (Galloway 2002, Aaberge, Andersen & Wennemo 1999). The changing proportions of persons experiencing problems with low income is closely related to the development in the labour market (Ibid).

Labour market resources and vulnerable groups

Skills and education

The demand for education and employment fluctuates, and depends on a number of more or less concrete factors. Some of these are known: the size of the youth cohorts have decreased since the early 1990s, but the number of 16 year olds increased again from 2001. In 1994, all 16 year olds gained the right to secondary education, while at the same time both structure and contents of this education underwent a large reform (Reform 94). The number of applicants to higher education decreased noticeably between 1994 and 2000, but increased again in the period 2000-2002. The capacity to take on new students in higher secondary education has been stable, and trends suggest that this should be sustained for a few more years. It is estimated that the demand for education will continue to increase, because young people express more interest in higher education. Moreover, more students are recruited from older age groups than before, and they stay in education for longer (Næss 2000). Another key concern is the increasing unemployment: Statistics Norway estimates that unemployment will rise from 3,9 per cent in 2002 to 4,8 per cent in 2004, thereby being back at the 1990-level (SSB 2002). (Arnesen & Sandberg 2002).

The Norwegian society has commonly been characterised as an “education society” during the 1990. By 1998 1170000 persons were registered as being in kindergarten or in school in Norway. The formal educational system is playing an ever more important role in the life of young people and consequently most children and young people will spend about one fourth of their lives in the educational system (Einarsen 2001 - social trends 2000). As can be seen from table 22, the education level in the population increased even in the 1990s. This

illustrates how the low-educated older cohorts are replaced by the better-educated younger cohorts.

Table 22. Persons 16 years and over, by highest completed education. 1990 and 2000.

Highest education completed for persons 16 years and over

Per cent[1]

	Total	Primary and lower secondary education	Upper secondary education[2]	Tertiary education,short[3]	Tertiary education, long[4]
1990	100,0	33,6	51,3	12,1	3,1
2000	100,0	22,0	56,3	17,2	4,7

[1] Not included persons with unknown or no completed education.

[2] Including the level "Intermediate level" which comprises education based on completed upper secondary level, but which are not accredited as tertiary education.

[3] Tertiary education, short, comprises higher education four years or shorter.

[4] Tertiary education, long, comprises higher education more than four years.

Source: Education-level in the population, Statistics Norway.

More information: http://www.ssb.no/utniv_en/ and http://www.ssb.no/utelstud_en/ .

Two important reforms regarding the educational system were carried out in the 1990s for the compulsory school in 1997 (reform 97) and for the upper secondary school in 1994 (Reform 94). Reform 94 guaranteed all youth aged 16 - 19 the right to a minimum of three years of upper secondary education. This upper secondary education aim at giving youth qualifications needed to apply for admissions to colleges and universities and for some, at the same time giving vocational training. College reform is in progress aiming at changing the content and structure of all levels of the Norwegian educational system, including higher education. Partly, this must be seen as s a response to the ever increasing demand for international educational standards. The state colleges and universities are changing towards a British/American model with degrees consisting of bachelor and master degrees.

The level of labour force participation is found to increase with the level of education, both for men and women. The biggest gap is found among the women with a low education and women with a high education. Highly educated women have almost as high degree of labour force participation as well educated men (Halvorsen 2000).

Table 23. Persons 16-74 in employment, by gender and education level.

Persons 16-74 years, level of education, employed 100 hours or more per year, by gender. 2001. Per cent			
	Per cent		
	Total	Males	Females
Total	76.1	80.1	71.9
Education level			
Below upper secondary education	51.2	59.3	43.9
Upper secondary education1	79.3	83.0	75.3
Tertiary education, short2	88.3	89.3	87.5
Tertiary education, long3	91.7	91.9	91.2
Unknown	49.6	57.1	42.0

[1]Including 'Intermediate level' which comprises education

[2]Tertiary education short, comprises higher education 4 years

[3]Tertiary education long, comprises higher education more

Source: Statistics Norway. Labour Force Surveys.

Age when entering the labour market

The Work Environment Act limits the kind of jobs that are available to young people. Only after turning 18 is a young person considered fully adult and can take any job he or she wishes.

The “education revolution” is also mirrored in the employment patters of young adults. It is increasingly common to combine education with part-time employment. In 1998, 81 per cent of 16-19-year olds listed school as their main activity. One-third of these reported having a part-time job in addition. Only 13 per cent of this age group were employed full-time. In the age group 20-14, 46 per cent had a full-time job, while 36 per cent were in school. Among the latter, about one-third had a part-time job. From the mid-1970s to the mid 1980s, the labour force participation of teenagers (16-19 years) was by and large between 40 and 45 per cent. It rose to 53 per cent in 1987, mainly as a result of the growth in the number of part-time jobs combined with education. A similar development occurred for the 20-24 year olds, but in this age group the increase came mainly as full-time work. In 1987-1993 – a period of rising unemployment – there was a sharp decline in the labour force participation of young people, as many left full-time jobs to attend education (or enrol in training programs) full-time. The

labour force participation of the young increased strongly between 1995 and 1998, concurrently with the growth in overall employment (Social Trends 2000:86ff).

Education, employment and unemployment in different ethnic groups

Since 1975 immigration to Norway has been strictly regulated limiting immigration from countries outside Scandinavia, Western Europe and USA. The only immigrants granted a permanent permission to stay, in addition to refugees and those granted political asylum, get this on the basis of "humanitarian reasons" or family reunification. Both social and economical integration of immigrants have to some degree proven to be difficult (Djuve 1999). Attempts to explain the poor integration have highlighted characteristics of the immigrant population (e.g. lack of relevant resources like education, language, health and cultural skills, characteristics of the ethnic Norwegian population (e.g. attitudes among employers) or institutional factors. Most often explanations will stress how the interplay of the above factors contributes to a difficult labour market situation for the immigrants (ibid.).

Discrimination in the Norwegian labour market has been a focus of several studies. The most widespread and recognised type of discrimination is the so-called “statistical discrimination”. Statistical discrimination in this context implies that employers see all immigrants as lacking the necessary resources and social skills to needed to perform a job, even if this is not the case. Other problems facing the immigrants in the Norwegian labour market setting might be lack of adequate social networks that lead into the labour market, and that the Norwegian system of qualification and labour market programs aimed at refugees and immigrants might be insufficient (Djuve 1999).

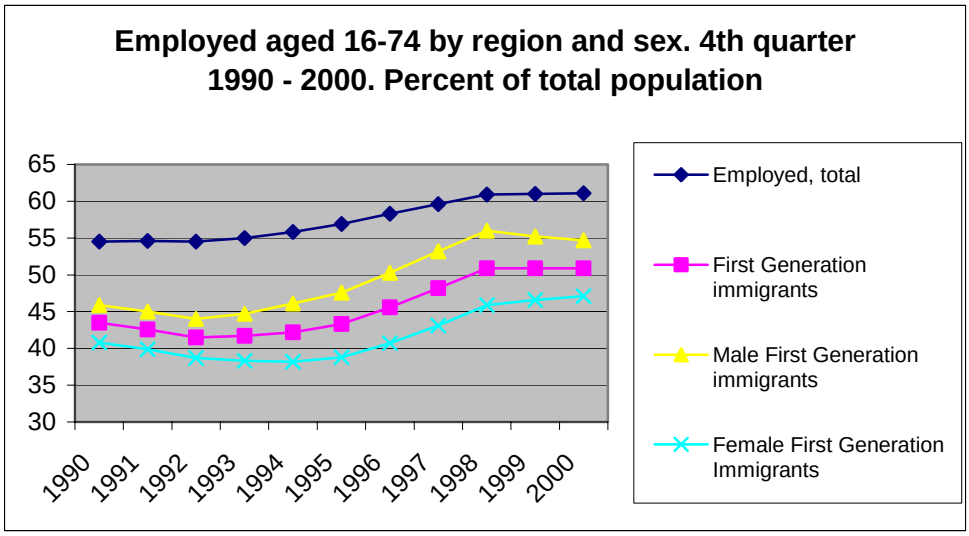
Persons 30-44 years, by level of education, gender, immigrant category and country background[1]. 2001. Percentages

Gender, immigration category and country background	Total	Unknown	No completed education	Below upper secondary level	Upper secondary education[2]	Tertiary education, short[3]	Tertiary education, long[4]
Both genders							
All Norway	1 009 966	2,8	0,1	8,7	58,3	23,1	6,9
Of which							
Immigrant population	89 302	20,9	1,6	10,9	39,7	18,8	8,1
Population else	920 664	1	0	8,5	60,1	23,5	6,8
Of immigrant population[1]							
Western countries	27 665	22	0,5	7	31,2	26,4	12,9
Non-western countries	61 637	20,4	2,1	12,7	43,5	15,4	5,9
Females							
Of which		20,1	2,1	12,1	37,5	20,7	7,6
Immigrant population	43 016	20,1	2,1	12,1	37,5	20,7	7,6
Population else	451 393	0,9	0	7,8	57,9	28	5,4
Of immigrant population[1]							
Western countries	13 263	19,5	0,4	5,5	30,2	32	12,3
Non-western countries	29 753	20,3	2,9	15	40,7	15,7	5,5
Males							
Of which							
Immigrant population	46 286	21,7	1,2	9,8	41,8	17	8,5
Population else	469 271	1,2	0	9,2	62,2	19,2	8,2
Of immigrant population[1]							
Western countries	14 402	24,3	0,6	8,3	32,2	21,3	13,4
Non-western countries	31 884	20,5	1,4	10,5	46,1	15,1	6,3

[1]Country background concerns first generation immigrants and persons born in Norway of two foreign-born
[2]Including the level 'Intermediate level' which comprises education based on completed upper secondary level, but
[3]Tertiary education, short, comprises higher education 4 years or shorter.
[4]Tertiary education, long, comprises higher education more than 4 years.

During the last half of the 1990s there was an increase in the labour market participation among most groups of first generation immigrants[8]. A crucial factor explaining labour market participation is the number of years the person has been in the country. The employment and unemployment numbers are also to some degree influenced by different flows of refugees to Norway during the 1990s, particularly from former Yugoslavia, Iraq, Iran, Vietnam and Somalia.

Figure 7. Employed persons as percentage of total population, 16-74 years. Total population and immigrants.



Source: Labour market statistics. Statistics Norway.

First generation immigrants are overrepresented in certain sectors and industries. This is particularly true for non-western immigrants[9]. Non western first generation immigrants are often found within the work-intensive industries that demand low-skilled or unskilled workers, such as service industries within hotels, restaurants and cleaning. Within the hotel and restaurant industry the proportion of non-western immigrant groups are 3 to 4 times higher than the proportion of the general population. The differences are even greater within the "cleaning" industry where a total of 0.9 per cent of the labour force is employed while the proportions for Africans, South- and Latin Americans and Asians are 11 per cent, 8,7 per cent and 6,8 per cent respectively. W*estern* first generation immigrants are overrepresented within services that demand a highly qualified and specialised labour force, such as the oil/ gas

[8] First generation immigrants are foreign born persons with foreign born parents.
[9] Non western immigrants are immigrants born in Eastern Europe, Asia (including Turkey), Africa and South- and Latin America.

industry, computer business and other types of research and development (Lie 2002). Quite a large proportion of the immigrants, both western and non-western, are also found within Health and Social services. 17 per cent of the labour force is employed in these industries, compared to 26 per cent of the Nordic immigrants, 24 per cent of the African and 23 per cent of the South American first generation immigrants.

Unemployment is more widespread among first generation immigrants in Norway, and particularly among non-western immigrants, than for the non-immigrant population (table 25). The highest proportion of unemployed are found among immigrants from Africa, Asia and Eastern Europe with numbers reaching 16 per cent, 11,5 per cent and 9,8 per cent respectively (November 2002). First generation female immigrants are less likely to register as unemployed than are males.

Table 25. Registered unemployment among first generation immigrants, by region of origin. 2001 and 2002.

gistered unemployed First Generation Immigrants by Region of origin.

Country of Origin	November 2001	November 2002
Registered unemployed in Norway.	2,7	3,3
Av dette First generation immigrants.	7,2	8,6
Nordic countries	2,9	3,7
Western Europe	3,4	4,3
Eastern Europe	8,9	9,8
North America & Oceania	3,9	4,4
Asia	9,8	11,5
Africa	13,5	15,9
South & Latin America	7,5	9,1

Looking at the development of unemployment among immigrants throughout the 1990s we find that the pattern resembles that of the general labour force. However the changes in the economic cycles seem to have an even greater effect on first generation immigrants and the effect of the economic boom in the beginning of the decade did not affect immigrant unemployment rates until 1996.

Gender equality policies relevant for the labour market

The Gender Equality Act was introduced in Norway in 1978 and is designed to promote gender equality and aims in particular at improving the position of women. The most recent revision of the act was done in 2002. The act states that women and men shall have equal opportunities in education, employment and cultural as well as professional attainment (Gender equality act §2). In particular the act covers the area of employment and prohibits direct or indirect differential treatment of men and women. It is thus not permitted to discriminate between women and men because they are of different sexes, place a woman in a worse situation than she would otherwise have been because of pregnancy or childbirth, or place anybody in a worse position because of her or his exercise of rights to take leave of absence (ibid §3). However, different treatment that promotes gender equality in conformity with the purpose of the act is allowed (e.g. affirmative action to increase the proportion of the under-represented sex in the workplace).

As shown in previous paragraphs, the Norwegian labour market is highly segregated by gender, and men seem to be most reluctant to make different education and career choices. Recent changes in the act stress the possibilities for preferential treatment of both men and women within certain sectors of the labour market dominated by one of the sexes, so called affirmative action. A job vacancy must, however, not be advertised as being restricted to one sex only, unless there is an obvious reason for doing so. Nor must the advertisement give the impression that the employer expects or prefers one of the sexes for the position (ibid §4), but it might encourage either men or women to apply. The act also stresses that women and men in the same enterprise shall have equal pay for the same work or work of equal value. This right shall apply regardless of whether such work is connected with different trades or professions or whether the pay is regulated by different collective wage agreements. Whether the work is of equal value shall be determined after an overall assessment emphasising the expertise that is necessary to perform the work as well as other relevant factors, such as effort,

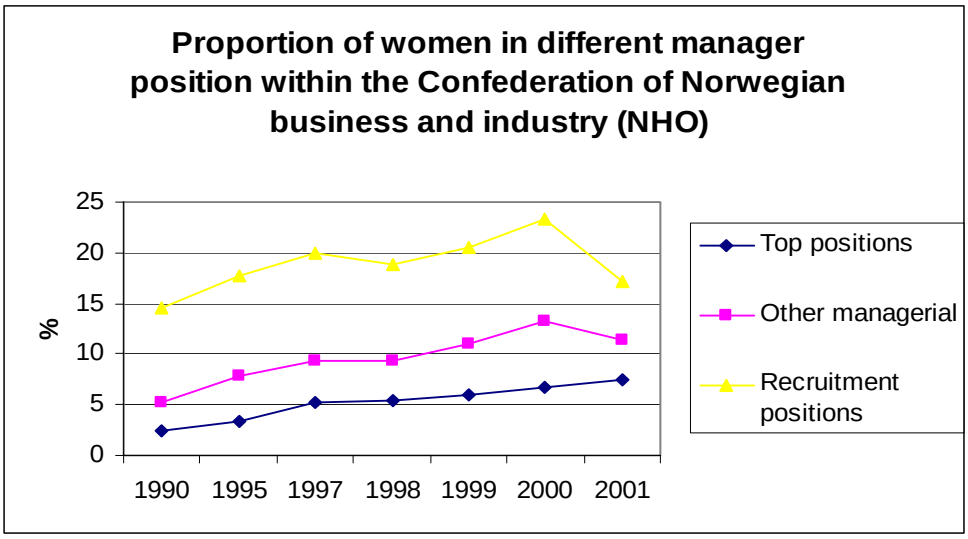
responsibility and working conditions (ibid §5). There have been several changes and amendments to the act during the 1990s. The most recent changes regarding employees focus on underpinning rights to pregnant women on the workplace and on both women and men exercising their rights to leave to care for children.

Table 26. Women in managerial positions (by public/ private sector)

	Men	Women
Public administration (national level)	72	28
Public administration (municipal/ county level)	43	57
Public business	86	14
Corporations (A/S) with partly private ownership	84	16
Other private business	71	29

Source: AFF survey of leadership 1999. (Colbjørnsen, Drake & Haukedal, 2001)

ure 8. Proportion of women in different managerial positions within the NHO, 1990-2001



Source: NHO, Statistics Norway.

The overall proportion of women in different managerial positions in Norway has increased slowly during the 1990s. From 2000 to 2001 the proportion of women in lower managerial and recruitment positions dropped whereas the proportion of women in top positions still seem to be increasing slowly.

Job satisfaction

Norwegian employees are generally satisfied with their work situation. 90 per cent of the total work force report that they are satisfied with their jobs. Most discontent is found among public-sector employees. Employees who experience little autonomy in their everyday work express more discontent than employees with more autonomous positions. Also, employees who feel that they are not listened to in meetings and in their everyday working life, are more dissatisfied than others.

Table 27. Persons stating they are satisfied with their job by age and gender. 2000. Percent.

Persons stating they are satisfied with their job by age and gender. 2000. Percent.

	Total	16-24 years	25-44 years	45-66 years
All	89	82	90	91
Men	90	83	90	92
Women	89	81	90	90

Source: Survey of Level of Living 2000

Norwegian employees tend to emphasise opportunities for personal and professional growth when reporting their overall satisfaction. The level of pay, physical work environment etc. is less important in this respect. Overall, employees' evaluation of their work environment is strongly connected to the degree to which they can influence their working conditions. The more influence employees have, the more satisfied they tend to be.

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