

Long-Term Unemployment in a Semi-Rural County

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Unemployment had been an almost unknown phenomenon in Czechoslovakia until 1989. Full employment and equitable wage policies were an integral part of radical redistribution schemes implemented by postwar communist governments. From 1990 on, the initial introduction of market principles into the economy, the privatization of previously confiscated businesses, development of new private businesses and the collapse of the Comecon international trade changed the situation of the Czech and Slovak labor markets. By the end of 1991, the official unemployment rate in the Czech Republic stood at 4.1 percent. However, during 1992 it fell to a mere 2.5 percent.

This was noticeably out of pace with the 1991–1992 decline of production by 10 percent. Low unemployment was due to an artificial preservation of jobs by as yet unprivatized state enterprises and to a relatively generous active employment policy (governmental job subsidies and job creation schemes). The overemployment was expected to substantially decrease in the second half of 1993 when the negative economic consequences of the division of the Czech and Slovak federation would begin to be felt, the first privatization wave would have run its course, and the law on bankruptcy and compensation would have been put into effect. (*Note:* Against our expectations in June 1993, unemployment in the Czech Republic has remained low and overemployment continues as bankruptcies have been rare and indebtedness of enterprises rose unabated.)

In the period between 1990 and 1992, however, the structure of the employment market has changed. On the one hand, private businesses have offered new opportunities to the most qualified and strongly motivated. On the other hand, in some regions with heavy industry or noncompetitive consumer goods industries, employment has begun to decline. Moreover, certain groups of workers have been increasingly put at risk of losing their jobs. These were, in particular, persons with disabilities or health problems (whose proportion among the unemployed in Czechoslovakia grew from 7.7 to 11 percent between 1991

and 1992) and the long-term unemployed (the proportion of those who were without a job 6 months or longer had escalated from 18 to 36 percent in the same period). The official unemployment rate, however, does not include persons who have been taken out of the Labor Office registration files for non-compliance or uncooperation or who have never registered as applicants for jobs. In the middle of 1993, the true unemployment was estimated to be about one-third higher than the official figure.

5.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

As of the end of 1992, only two analyses existed about local or regional unemployment in Czechoslovakia, one from a heavily depressed industrial (Ostrava) region and one from a borderland area with a lively tourist trade (Jindřichův Hradec). There was only limited available information about areas with the highest unemployment from county Labor Offices and no systematic data were available about the long-term unemployed. This study was therefore conceived and designed so as to partially cover the information gap by focusing on a "typical" impacted locality.

Because long-term unemployment is a relatively new phenomenon in the Czech Republic and its nature is not well known, the primary purpose of the study was to explore its characteristics. While the Labor Offices collect basic demographic and employment history data about the unemployed, personal and psychological aspects of unemployment remain hidden from them. Therefore, the study was oriented toward providing information about the coping of the long-term unemployed with their situation: how they perceived their plight, how they handled finances, how they spent their time, whether and how they searched for new employment. In addition, we also wanted to know what impact the active employment program of the Labor Office had on the respondents.

This detailed inquiry was designed in a way that would allow comparison of the findings with results of other studies from the Great Depression and from the post-oil-crisis stagnation. An important aspect of the comparative approach was a typological analysis of family strategies used by the long-term unemployed.

5.2 PROFILE OF THE COUNTY AND ITS LABOR MARKET

The county of "HIGHLAND" was selected for the study for four reasons. 1) It is the county where *DOMUS FACTORY* is located. 2) In the Fall of 1992, it had one of the highest unemployment rates in Southern Moravia (14 counties altogether) and one of the ten highest in the Czech Republic of which Moravia

is a constituent part (total of 71 counties plus the city of Prague). 3) Its workforce was roughly evenly employed in industry, agriculture, and services. 4) One sixth of all county workers commuted to employment in the nearby metropolis.

Apart from 4 large city-counties, 19 other industrialized and semi-urbanized counties in Northwestern and Eastern Bohemia, and Northern and Central Moravia, and 14 agricultural counties without mid-sized towns, most other counties in the Czech Republic resembled *HIGHLAND* in their labor market composition and in the dependence of their commuting workers on opportunities in urban environments.

The *HIGHLAND COUNTY* had over 85 thousand inhabitants in 1991 and women outnumbered men by approximately two thousand. Nearly 46 thousand inhabitants (or over 60 percent) lived in communities with less than 2 thousand citizens. It is important to note that these towns and large villages are all situated on the two main road and railroad transportation arteries running through the county while the smaller communities lie outside of them. Industry, trade and services are concentrated in the towns while villages offer mainly agricultural employment.

The 23 thousand male workers represented 55 percent of all men and 19 thousand female workers amounted to 51 percent of all women living in the county. Unemployment in the county has been relatively high from the beginning of the reforms but accelerated relative to the rest of the Czech Republic only in the second half of 1992 when the largest machinery, furniture, food and agricultural businesses were effected by loss of demand for their goods and growing production costs. By October 1992, more than 5 percent of workers were registered as applicants for employment in the county.

It should be noted, nevertheless, that some of the 4,800 jobs that were lost in the state industrial and agricultural sector were partially supplanted by some 2,500 newly created employment opportunities in the private sector, partially in small manufacturing and partially in services. Approximately 1,500 of them were subsidized by the Labor Office through one of its active employment policy programs. It was mostly the short-term unemployed who have taken advantage of these new opportunities. Available statistics about small private businesses are incomplete and unreliable to draw conclusions about their vitality and their impact on the labor market.

Layoffs had been most extensive among women, particularly married ones, mid-level managerial and technical workers, young males, unattached males and persons with disability. In comparison with the rest of the republic, persons with basic qualifications (2 years or more of training in trades) suffered more joblessness than persons with no or advanced qualifications.

For the purpose of our study, long-term unemployment was defined as lasting 6 months or longer (at 6 months, unemployment benefits cease to be paid

and are replaced by guaranteed minimum income benefits for registered persons). Comparatively speaking, long-term unemployment was also higher in the *HIGHLAND COUNTY* than in the republic as a whole (44 versus 36 percent of all unemployed).

5.3 METHOD

The study was designed as a first-time exploration of the long-term unemployed in the *HIGHLAND COUNTY*. Random selection of subjects was used to facilitate a representative analysis of their demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, work history, job search behavior, psychological and social coping, economic situation and family survival strategies.

A total of 74 questions was asked in structured interviews with the long-term unemployed persons selected randomly from the intake Labor Office files (866) who responded positively to our solicitation (159).

Because nothing was known of the unregistered unemployed, the study attempted to cover them as well. 24 respondents, or 15 percent of the study sample, were found randomly from among those who lost their registration at the Labor Office or by informal canvassing. This corresponds with the informed judgment of the *HIGHLAND* Labor Office personnel that their statistics do not include 15 to 20 percent of the unemployed.

The study sample was compared to the total of Labor Office clientele. Differences were smaller than 5 percent in terms of gender, education, family status, and community size. In terms of age, however, the youngest respondents (under 18) were somewhat underrepresented and those over 51 were slightly overrepresented in the study sample.

The analysis was prepared on the basis of similar well-known studies conducted in Austria, the United States, Great Britain and the Netherlands (see References 5).

5.4 FINDINGS

5.4.1 Structure of long-term unemployment

Perhaps the most important finding of the study was that in the county of *HIGHLAND*, the long-term unemployed (6 months or longer) did not significantly differ from all the unemployed registered in the Czech Republic by the Fall 1992 in regard to age, education, gender, and family status. Therefore, we cannot conclude that long-term joblessness affects the so-called marginal persons (those without qualification and stable family ties) any more than the average person.

Regardless of length of unemployment, persons without work did differ from the overall population in the county in several respects. First, women suffer from joblessness almost twice as much as men (63 vs. 37 percent of the unemployed). However, married women tend to be unemployed three times as likely (45 percent) as married men (15 percent). Second, persons with health problems (of whom there are about 10 percent in the population) are greatly overrepresented among the unemployed (persons with complete disability amounted to 11 percent and persons with partial disability or self-reported health problems to 41 percent of the long-term unemployed). Third, persons from more distant villages showed relatively more job losses than persons from communities on or near the two major communications. Fourth, the ethnic Romany (Gypsies) were five times more likely among the jobless (10 percent) than their estimated proportion in the county population (2 percent) and twice more likely than their current participation in the labor force. Fifth, unemployment lasting 6 to 12 months was concentrated among younger workers (50 percent of it affected persons younger than 30 years) while unemployment exceeding 12 months was spread more evenly among all age cohorts.

The second important finding is that long-term unemployment in the county seems to affect persons with basic skills (trade schools under secondary educational level) more (43.7 percent) than their proportion in the Czech workforce (39.8 percent), particularly men. Among women, in contrast, the most represented among the long-term unemployed were the unskilled workers (38 percent, related to lesser education of women overall in comparison with men). This corresponds with the structure of layoffs (machine factories and shops letting go men, furniture factories and agricultural cooperatives laying off women). However, the agricultural cooperatives contributed only to 10 percent of all unemployed and are expected to reduce their workforce further, perhaps by as much as one-third. The reasons are that previous subsidies for agriculture are being abolished and because employment is being kept stable despite of decrease in production and demand.

Only 23 percent of the jobless left work on their own initiative. Over two-thirds lost work as a result of privatization or reorganizations. Persons who had worked consecutively 24 months or less represented 40.7 percent of long-term unemployed and persons who have not worked in the last 2 years (mothers, students, homemakers), 11.3 percent. 48 percent of our respondents included people with stable work histories lasting more than 2 years, including 36.7 percent of those with 5 years of uninterrupted job histories.

5.4.2 Financial situation of the unemployed

In terms of earnings, the long-term unemployed belonged to the low- rather than the middle-income strata. At the time when average after-tax income in the

Czech Republic was above 3,200 Kčs, only 14 percent of our respondents earned more than 2,700 Kčs in their last jobs. Most of them were obviously poor even while they worked, and the financial impact of the subsequent long-term unemployment was substantial for them. Fully 36 percent of respondents reported a worsening of their economic situation due to unemployment and an additional 31 percent severe worsening.

To put it in terms of minimum living standards, 33 percent of the long-term unemployed participating in our study had a monthly per capita income under 1,200 Kčs (clearly below the standard) and 10 percent between 1,201 and 1,300 Kčs (probably below the standard). Apparently, the social safety net was not fully extended to the unemployed. This was in part because of a lack of information provided to them and in part because of a lack of interest on their part. As many as 13 percent of the long-term unemployed said they never received benefits to which they were legally entitled. The reliability of these findings has to be taken carefully, however, as some respondents were not able to clearly identify various sources of income and some neglected certain items (such as loan payments and child support deducted from pay).

Only 35 percent of persons who were without work for more than 6 months reported the social minimum benefits as their only source of income. 15 percent accepted financial assistance from members of their families, 20 percent suggested that they had an opportunity to participate in the unofficial economy, and 46 percent listed debts or loans. In the Moravian countryside, self-production of food and household items is widespread and about a third of our respondents reported participation in the family economy (gardens, small plots of land, live-stock animals). Yet, all this supplementary income may not be sufficient because 64 percent of respondents reported reduced spending on clothing, 53 percent on free-time activities, 40 percent on food, and 15 percent on household maintenance.

5.4.3 Personal experience of the unemployed

It is of note that 7 percent of respondents perceived their situation as good or advantageous (allowing them to prepare for their future employment) and 15 percent as bearable or not difficult. For the rest, the psychosocial experience of long-term unemployment was mostly negative but not as extensively as could be expected from comparable Western experience. While 58 percent of respondents reported a general worsening of their situation, 42 percent admitted nervousness, 31 percent anxiety and/or insecurity, 23 percent depression or irritation, 20 percent headaches and fatigue, and 17 percent loss of appetite and sleep disturbance. Cumulatively, however, 31 percent of our respondents observed no noticeable changes and 25 percent only one of the above symptoms attributable by them to unemployment.

In terms of social status and social relations, 24 percent of respondents mentioned reduced self-esteem, 13 percent feelings of uselessness, 13 percent feelings of loss of respect in their family, 13 percent loss of respect from neighbors, 11 percent loss of respect from acquaintances, and only 5 percent diminished respect of friends.

Negative perception of joblessness was not correlated with any single demographic characteristic of the long-term unemployed. There was, however, a clear relationship to their family composition and type and to their health status. In families with children, families of older partners and families of unemployed who received disability pensions, joblessness was seen as a particularly heavy burden.

5.4.4 Job search strategies and future plans

In our sample, interest in reemployment was high and job search was relatively intensive. Interestingly, 11 percent of persons registered as job applicants were already working at the time of interviewing (within four weeks of our identification of them as unemployed), and another 15 percent said that a placement was promised to them by prospective employers. At the same time, the propensity to search for jobs had a diminishing tendency with the passage of time. The long-term unemployed are keenly aware of their declining chances of finding a job, particularly if the local job market or their own disadvantages (health, children, distance) present themselves as obstacles. These discouraged workers often employ substitute strategies for job search: work on family plots or animal husbandry, pregnancy, care for relatives, disability pension, participation in the informal economy.

A personal approach is the preferable way of looking for employment: 52 percent of respondents quoted direct contact with the employer and 25 percent contact with friends and acquaintances as the most effective methods. Labor Office assistance was mentioned by 24 percent of respondents. The most cited obstacles to finding jobs were lack of local employment opportunities (37 percent), personal qualifications (32 percent), shift work (16 percent) and health problems (15 percent).

The future plans of our respondents are most frequently oriented toward employment (55 percent, particularly in the age group 41–50). Without any plans for work or substitute solutions were 14 percent (especially the age group 31–40), disability pension or caretaking for relatives was envisioned by 8 percent, childbearing and childcare by 8 percent (age groups 26–30 and 21–25), and temporary employment by 5 percent of the respondents. Most are, however, pessimistic about their prospects for reemployment. Only 15 percent think that they have a good chance to find a job. 25 percent judge their chances as weak, 40 percent as poor, 16 percent as nonexistent.

Studies of the unemployed conducted in the 1930s show resignation to befall as many as 70 percent of them after long-term joblessness and data from the 1970s sometimes put the proportion close to 50 percent. Our respondents have been comparatively more hopeful. This may be explained partly by their rural background in which the loss of a salaried job means neither the loss of work and destruction of daily routines nor the loss of social connections. Guarantees of minimum income may also cushion the impact of joblessness. This, however, does not apply to the disabled who typically lose connections and have to change their daily habits and schedules.

5.4.5 Perception of and experience with active employment policy

On the whole, the Labor Office is not seen as a very effective institution by the respondents. Only 32 percent expressed satisfaction or absence of problems in their contacts with the office. As many as 21 percent criticized it strongly (for stigmatization and favoritism) and 35 percent said that job offerings were either wholly inappropriate (distance, heavy work for women, unskilled jobs for men of trades) or erroneous (openings did not exist). About a tenth of respondents said that they collaborated with the Labor Office only formally.

The active employment policy of the Ministry was conceived both as a support for emerging small and medium businesses and as an assistance to the vulnerable individuals and social groups. The first goal was met relatively successfully: In 1992, the *HIGHLAND* Labor Office subsidized creation and maintenance of about 1,000 new jobs, mostly in the new, private small businesses, some 350 placements in temporary public works, and approximately 130 individual retraining courses. Assistance to the long-term unemployed, on the other hand, was limited. Only 12 percent of our respondents had some personal experience with any of these job creation schemes. The majority of them were in public works, such as demolition and unskilled construction work. About half of their participants judged them positively (something to do, income), and half negatively (poor hygienic conditions, makeshift work).

5.4.6 Typology of personal and family strategies

In terms of coping strategies, participants in the study and their families can be roughly divided into 7 types. About 33 percent actively sought or have found employment while 24 percent (women seven times more often than men) focused on childrearing, support of family members and family self-production. Some 11 percent received disability pensions or intended to obtain them. Approximately 5 percent showed interest in or were preparing themselves for entrepreneurship and another 5 percent were involved in or were preparing themselves for work in a family business. A mere 3 percent depended on and showed

interest in remaining dependent on social assistance. The rest of respondents combined strategies.

We have also analyzed the structure and nature of our respondents' daily activities and medium-term orientation from the perspective of Merton's classification of adaptation strategies of the unemployed as adapted in the Leiden study. The "calculating" approach (using available free time as a means for increasing one's competitive capital) was the most frequent (25 percent). Almost equally represented was "ritualism" at 24 percent (job search but no belief in success and/or no clear idea of the goal) and "escapism" at 23 percent (completely resigned to their fate). "Conformism" was represented by 19 percent (genuine job search and cooperation with the Labor Office). "Entrepreneurship" (participation in underground economy and exploitation of social welfare) was detected among 7 percent of respondents and "autonomy" (refusal of substandard work, cultivation of interests, active adaptation) characterized 4 percent among our respondents.

Factor analysis was undertaken to isolate the most important aspects of the predicament that our study participants were affected by. Out of 11 variables that were statistically strongly related to joblessness, the analysis isolated 5 factors. We named them "position in the family" (combination of gender, structure of daily activities, ways of coping), "ethnicity" (combination of nationality, financial situation, length of unemployment and presence of minors), "family strategy" (work plans, family status, financial situation), "health and caring impediment" (health status, presence of minors), and "mobility" (place of residence, structure of daily activities, presence of minors).

These findings suggest that the adaptation of the long-term unemployed is a complex phenomenon in which the "objective" individual barriers to reemployment (particularly poor health and caring responsibilities) combine with the "subjective" aspects of family functioning (family strategy, ethnicity). This analysis confirms a particular vulnerability to the permanent loss of job among persons without family connections (most of them single men).

5.5 CONCLUSIONS

The findings from the *HIGHLAND COUNTY* can be generalized only to a certain extent. As can be seen from the studies of long-term unemployment in industrial countries, its pathological effects are particularly concentrated in the urban environment. Because our respondents came from small towns or villages, we cannot say much about unemployment in cities. In the Czech Republic, urban areas with the exception of the Ostrava area have experienced relatively low joblessness. However, the semirural counties of the Czech Republic with dependence on and commute to employment in urban centers comprise almost half

the population. Our study therefore illustrates an important part of the long-term unemployment phenomenon in the Czech Republic.

In our opinion, the structure of unemployment in the Czech Republic toward the end of 1992 was anomalous because of the relative absence of truly competitive conditions on the labor market. Our analysis therefore has a temporal dimension that will gradually change. The structure of unemployment in general and long-term unemployment in particular will be undoubtedly transformed with extensive privatization, onset of bankruptcies and small business failures, and exposure of the Czech economy to competition from abroad.

Nevertheless, this study provides information about a geographic area which in itself does not and for the near future will not provide enough employment opportunities for all its inhabitants interested in working. Long-term unemployment will probably grow in the Highland county and remain high because of losses of agricultural and related jobs.

The study indicates that the long-term unemployment as we found it in the county of *HIGHLAND* does not imply a culture of the "underclass" or clear marginality of persons affected by it. It may be so because chronic joblessness is a relatively new and rare phenomenon, affecting perhaps 2 percent of the working population for a comparatively short time. In all probability, the social safety net, while thin, provides a modicum of security and respectability, distancing the unemployed only a little if at all from the working poor. Psychological and social effects of the long-term unemployment do not yet appear to be devastating, although they give discomfort to half or less of those affected. In the semirural society, household work, care of children and family members, and small-scale farming and husbandry provide meaning to life and sometimes adequate compensation for the loss of regular paid work.

Another important reason for the absence of an underclass in *HIGHLAND COUNTY* is that the economy in the county is not segmented in the manner known in the Western industrialized counties. If it is divided at all, then it is into the worlds of the state and private sectors rather than the segments of steady, well-paid employment, and impermanent, poorly paid jobs. Most new employment in *HIGHLAND COUNTY* has arisen in the services, such as trade and transport, but they actually offer better income than the jobs in industry and agriculture. Besides that, the unofficial economy (smuggling, cash-based business, theft, extortion, drug trade, prostitution, moonlighting) offer excellent income opportunities for a small proportion of the unemployed. Another distinction of a semirural world is the possibility of self-provision of food and clothing from family production, a small supplementary income in itself.

The most important factors that can prevent marginalization of the long-term unemployed may be the guaranteed minimum income and the family networks with their more or less traditional values. Simply said, in the semirural Czech world, married men work and married women take care of their families.

However, there are certain groups of people who are particularly vulnerable to unemployment, no matter how long it may last. They represent about one-fourth of the jobless. Most often, they are the people with disabilities or health problems who suffer from long-term unemployment far more than their proportion in the population. The next largest group are women, particularly those without marketable skills and those with smaller children. Married men rarely remain without work but single men, namely the younger ones, often do. Then, people from small villages situated outside the major transportation lines also appear overrepresented among the jobless. Finally, the Romanians, of whom there are not many in the county, are particularly disadvantaged on the labor market because of their low skills and poor work ethic, as well as discriminatory practices of employers.

This suggests a “pre-modern” setup typical of earlier times before the war when motherhood, household responsibilities, travel expenses and cultural differences presented obstacles to employment in the industrial economy for people from outlying rural areas. This situation may continue in semirural counties of the Czech Republic, particularly in eastern and northern Moravia where mobility is limited by an almost nonexistent housing market and the high cost of commuting to distant labor markets. The long-term unemployed are vulnerable also because they are resigned to political organizing and rely on themselves and their families for support.

APPENDIX 5.1

Portraits of the long-term unemployed

STEPHEN

Stephen is an ethnic Romany, 34 years old, married, with two children in his family and one that he pays child support for. He is healthy and lives surrounded by ethnic Czechs in a small town. Before he was laid off, he had worked as an unskilled laborer for a minimum wage but was laid off because of absenteeism. He has been unemployed for more than a year and a half, is on public support, and his wife is on paid maternity leave. Their financial situation is critical. They have to limit their purchases and frequently borrow small amounts from other family members.

Stephen cites nervousness, tendency to drink and smoke, lessened self-confidence and loss of respect. Most of all, he dislikes not having money, while unemployment in itself he could take. He spends his time by getting wood from the forest, doing other household work, watching TV, visits in a pub, playing with children.

He would like to find a well-paid job so that he would earn more than a combination of all benefits that his family gets. He has tried to find jobs but feels discriminated against because of his ethnicity. Not knowing how to overcome it, he thinks that he will stay on welfare because he does not want to work for low wages.

FRANK

Frank is 38, divorced, but living with a partner and her child. He also supports a child from his first marriage. Healthy, he lives in a small village close to the county town. As a skilled plumber, he used to work for a medium-sized firm in a large city one hour away. He left the job because of shift work and hoped to find regular work close by. For ten months, he could not find it. He likes training dogs as a hobby, has dogs of his own, and thinks of working as a guard with a dog.

He cites financial problems, seeing his situation as difficult but solvable. He and his partner who works as a teacher have to limit their spending but handle the situation reasonably well. Frank is sometimes depressive.

Spends his time in housework, tending animals, training dogs, looking for job.

PHILIP

Philip, 33, is married, father of two children, healthy. He is a licensed electrician, speaks some German. Lives in a large village. Previously he had worked in a hotel as a maintenance man. He left the job because of an unofficial job in Germany that his friends had set up for him. At the same time, he was registered at the Labor Office for 3 months but then was taken off the rolls because of failing to report regularly. He has been without regular work for 20 months but after his return from Germany, he was able to do a lot of short-term work for cash, helping neighbors with construction.

He is rebuilding his house, has ready cash, some savings, and also makes money from his field and animals. He is not looking for a job because he does not need it, convinced that it will be easy for him to find one if he wants it. He values freedom, unemployment is advantageous for him. First he wants to finish his house, then he will help his friends, and later he will go and register at the Labor Office. So far, he has had enough work and money and does not want to cheat the state.

ANTHONY

Anthony is married for a second time. At 46, he pays child support for a child from his first marriage. He lives in a medium-sized village rather distant from the county seat. Without skills, after only 8 years of schooling, he had work as a truck driver. Two years ago, he returned from prison and could not find work. After four months, he lost his Labor Office registration because of

missed appointments. In his words, he stopped going to the office because it led to no jobs, and also had to take care of his ill parents besides. He needs an easier job nearby but cannot find one. Nobody wants to hire him because of his crime record. Regardless of it, he keeps contacting potential employers, mostly directly, in person. His wife is also jobless.

They have serious financial problems and neighbors disrespect them. He and his wife eat only basic food, heat their house with wood from the forest, buy no clothing. He does not get the minimum income benefit because he lost his registration at the Labor Office. A local entrepreneur gives him and his wife some piece work (taking apart appliances), but it is too much work and too little pay, below minimum wage. They can find nothing better. Anthony began proceedings to get disability benefits. He is of poor health (spine problems) and hopes to get at least partial pension.

HELEN

Helen is 47, divorced, without children, living with a friend in a small village. She has health problems and lost her previous job because of that. Because she failed to cooperate with the Labor Office, she lost her registration and gets neither minimum benefits nor pension. The financial situation is critical, but with a little help from her family, she and her boyfriend can just about get by. She takes unemployment poorly, feels insecure, has conflicts with her parents. She says bitterly that her neighbors take her "for a cripple".

She spends time doing household work and sometimes takes care of the sick as a Christian volunteer, without pay. She stopped looking for work, has resigned herself to the situation. Feeling uncomfortable with "begging around" at the Labor Office, she gave up her registration. Her consolation is in her faith and in the care of the needy.

JANE

Jane is 21, married, has a child 6 months old, lives in a small village where her husband works for the local agricultural cooperative. She has small health problems. She is skilled in raising dogs and rabbits which was also her last work. Because she had to commute long distance by bus, she gave up the job. It was temporary anyway but subsequently, she could find nothing else. Although she looked frequently, nobody needed her profession. She decided to have a child. Although she has been unemployed for over 18 months, she keeps her registration at the Labor Office.

They have financial problems (debts) but she does not see their situation as any worse than before. There are possible alternative solutions as she sees it. At least she has had the time to prepare for motherhood. After three years, she will look for a job again, preferably in or near the village where they live.

APPENDIX 5.2

TAB. 5.1

Comparison of the employment structure in Highland County with that in the Czech Republic, 31.12.1991

Branch	Highland	Czech Rep.
farmers' co-op agriculture, forestry water system	17.2 %	7.1 %
industry	32.5 %	40.4 %
viz.: mech. engineering	10.1 %	11.4 %
fuels		3.7 %
textile industry	0.1 %	2.8 %
metallurgy of iron		2.4 %
electrical industry	1.0 %	2.4 %
wood working industry	9.1 %	1.4 %
food industry	3.3 %	2.9 %
metal-working industry	4.7 %	2.0 %
etc.		
building industry	5.3 %	5.7 %
transportation	3.9 %	6.5 %
communications	2.0 %	2.1 %
domestic trade	5.2 %	5.3 %
"non-productive branches"	24.5 %	25.0 %
viz.: education	9.7 %	7.0 %
health services	5.7 %	5.9 %
state admin., judiciary	2.7 %	3.7 %
etc.		
Total	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.2

The development of unemployment in Highland County in 1991 and 1992 in comparison with its development in the Czech Republic

	30.6.91	31.12.91	31.3.92	30.6.92	30.11.92
unempl.rate CR	2.70%	4.13%	3.72%	2.70%	2.45%
unempl.rate HC	4.25%	7.03%	7.93%	5.26%	4.70%
actual no. unempl. Highland	1,440	2,381	2,383	1,754	1,567
ratio of women	52 %	57 %	58 %	57 %	57 %
workers	74 %	74 %	76 %	61 %	60 %
tech.-ec.staff	21 %	17 %	16 %	31 %	31 %
school-leavers	5 %	9 %	8 %	8 %	9 %
handicapped		7 %	11 %	11 %	10 %
number of unemployed for one vacancy	7.7	11.5	11	7.2	4.7

(Source: monthly unemployment statistics, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare of the CR)

TAB. 5.3

Comparison of unemployment structure in Highland County with that in the CR, according to education level

Education	23.11.90 unemployed Highland	30.09.90 Czech R.	March 91 employed Czech R.
primary	31.7 %	32.4 %	18.9 %
vocational	43.7 %	35.7 %	39.8 %
sec. without GCE A level	1.4 %	2.7 %	3.7 %
sec. voc. GCE A level	4.9 %	3.7 %	1.7 %
sec.school GCE A level	16.1 %	22.4 %	26.4 %
university	2.2 %	3.1 %	9.5 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.4

Comparison of the age-structure of the unemployed in Highland County with that in the CR

Age	23.11.90 unemployed Highland	30.9.90 Czech R.	March 91 employed Czech R.
19 and younger	19.3 %	22.4 %	5.6 %
20-29	33.3 %	28.0 %	23.3 %
30-39	23.6 %	22.8 %	26.5 %
40-49	18.0 %	19.1 %	26.9 %
50-59	5.7 %	7.6 %	13.8%
60 and older	0.1 %	0.1 %	3.9 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.5

Comparison of the unemployment structure in Highland County with that in the CR, according to the period of duration of unemployment

period of registration	23.11.90 Highland	30.9.90 Czech R.
up to 3 months	42.0 %	47.4 %
3-6 months	14.4 %	16.5 %
6-9 months	10.3 %	10.2 %
9-12 months	9.6 %	8.1 %
more than 12 months	23.7 %	17.8 %

(Source: Information on the development of unemployment, 1992, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare of the CR, longitudinal unemployment statistics, Employment Agency Highland)

TAB. 5.6

Active employment policy in 1992 (by 31.10.), comparison of Highland County with South Moravian Region and with the CR

Area	placed in newly created "socially useful positions"		placed in "publically beneficial job placements"	
	act.no.	rel.to number of unem- ployed	act.no.	rel.
CR	74,214	57.6 %	23,602	18.3 %
SM region	21,293	73.2 %	6,361	21.8 %
Highland C.	975	56.7 %	254	14.8 %

(Source: monthly survey of active employment policy, Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare CR).

TAB. 5.7

Comparison of the basic sample with the selected sample of the long-term unemployed according to age structure

Highland Co.	basic sample		selected sample
	unemployed	long-term unemployed	long-term unemployed
men	42.2 %	38.2 %	37.6 %
women	57.7 %	61.8 %	62.4 %
18 and younger	9.1 %	7.4 %	3.4 %
19-30	41.4 %	43.6 %	36.9 %
31-40	21.7 %	23.9 %	24.2 %
41-50	20.6 %	20.2 %	25.5 %
51 and older	7.3 %	5.9 %	10.0 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.8

Comparison of the qualification structure of the long-term unemployed with the structure of the unemployed in Highland County and in the CR

Education	unemployed CR total	Highland county total	more than 6 months
incomplete, primary	31.6 %	31.5 %	33 %
vocational	45.1 %	43.7 %	39 %
sec.without GCE A level	1.8 %	1.4 %	8 %
trained with GCE A level	4.3 %	4.9 %	3 %
grammar school	3.8 %	4.2 %	3 %
sec.tech.school	10.8 %	12.1 %	13 %
graduated	2.4 %	2.2 %	1 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

(Source: Information on situation ...by 30.09.1992, longitudinal unemployment statistics in Highland Co. – Nov.1993)

TAB. 5.9

Comparison of the sample of the long-term unemployed with the sample of the unemployed in Highland County and in the CR according to marital status

Marital status	unempl. CR 1991	unempl. Highland	long-term unempl. Highland
single	30 %	34 %	25 %
married and com- mon-law	58 %	56 %	61 %
divorced	11 %	9 %	11 %
widow(er)	1 %	1 %	3 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.10**Family life of the long-term unemployed in Highland County**

complete families with children	61 %
complete families with children and other family member	9 %
incomplete families (one breadwinner with children)	13 %
childless married couples	7 %
single	7 %
no data	3 %
Total	100 %

TAB. 5.11**Marital status according to sex – relative frequency**

	men	women	total
single	22 %	18 %	40 %
married and common-law	15 %	45 %	60 %
Total	37 %	63 %	100 %

TAB. 5.12**Comparison of the long-term unemployed structure with the population structure in the county according to domicile**

Municipality	the county population	long-term unempl.
2.000 or less	26.7 %	22 %
2.000–10.000	36.1 %	41 %
more than 10.000	47.2 %	47 %
Total	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.13**Duration of unemployment with regard to age.**

Duration of unemp.	30 years or younger	31–40	41 and older	
6–12 months	50 %	22 %	28 %	100 %
more than 12 months	31 %	26 %	43 %	100 %

TAB. 5.14**Average monthly take-home pay in previous position in Kč**

1.800 or less	32 %
1.801–2.200	25 %
2.201–2.700	29 %
2.701 and more	14 %
Total	100 %

Flexible groups with non-stable patterns of working behaviour (“drifters”) are only marginally represented in the sample.

TAB. 5.15**Duration of last job**

school-leavers	8 %
no previous employment	3.3 %
1 year or shorter	26.7 %
1 – 2 years	14 %
2 – 5 years	13.3 %
longer than 5 years	36.7 %
Total	100 %

TAB. 5.16**Income per capita in the household of a long-term unemployed – cumulative relative frequencies**

up to 1.200	33 %
up to 1.300	43 %
up to 1.650	66 %
up to 1.800	79 %
up to 2.000	90 %
more than 2.000	100 %

TAB. 5.17**Evaluation of general situation and financial situation of the unemployed (Gamma = 0.64)**

Financial	General situation:				
	favourbl.	bearbl.	diffic.	insolubl.	
good	19 %	30 %	40 %	11 %	100 %
problems	5 %	19 %	65 %	11 %	100 %
critical	2 %		46 %	52 %	100 %

TAB. 5.18**Most frequently stated extension of daily activities**

	respondents	women	men
household chores	68 %	81 %	40 %
taking care of one's children	38 %	52 %	13 %
watching TV	38 %	39 %	33 %
reading books	37 %	40 %	27 %
household self-production	34 %	35 %	29 %
looking for a job	32 %	32 %	31 %
reading magazines	28 %	28 %	26 %
listening to music	27 %	27 %	26 %
house or car repairs	25 %	22 %	25 %
hobbies	25 %	28 %	16 %

TAB. 5.19**Reasons for non-employment according to the unemployed**

– no vacant jobs in the vicinity	37 %
– employers do not hire people like me	32 %
– shift-work is inconvenient for me	16 %
– health problems	15 %
– low wage	11 %
– positions do not correspond to my qualification	10 %
– did not look for a job too intensively	7 %
– am not interested in a job	5 %

TAB. 5.20**Plans for future, according to respondent's gender**

	men	women	total
no plans	9 %	17 %	14 %
employment	67 %	47 %	55 %
temporary job	2 %	7 %	5 %
disability pension or nursing allowances	7 %	8 %	8 %
maternity	2 %	12 %	8 %
household	2 %	1 %	1 %
dole	5 %	–	2 %
waiting	4 %	4 %	4 %
own business	2 %	2 %	2 %
others		2 %	1 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.21**Evaluation of one's chances of getting a job**

Chance	any	corresponding to one's qualification
good	15 %	13 %
little	25 %	23 %
poor	40 %	29 %
no chance	16 %	29 %
does not know	4 %	6 %
Total	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.22**Typology of the unemployed according to Merton**

Type	Highland		total	Schuyt 88
	men	women		
conformist	16 %	20 %	19 %	36 %
ritualistic	23 %	25 %	24 %	9 %
evasive	36 %	15 %	23 %	25 %
enterprising	11 %	4 %	7 %	10 %
calculating	9 %	33 %	25 %	9 %
autonomous	5 %	3 %	4 %	10 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.23**Typology of the unemployed according to marital status and number of children unprovided for**

	single	married	childless	1 child	2 children
conformist	10 %	18 %	17 %	19 %	23 %
ritualistic	18 %	27 %	25 %	28 %	19 %
evasive	45 %	15 %	34 %	3 %	19 %
enterprising	3 %	9 %	6 %	3 %	12 %
calculating	16 %	29 %	12 %	41 %	27 %
autonomous	8 %	2 %	6 %	6 %	– %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %

TAB. 5.24**Abridged table: types of the unemployed, health problems**

	without health problems	health problems
conformist	18 %	21 %
ritualistic	16 %	30 %
evasive	18 %	24 %
enterprising	8 %	7 %
calculating	36 %	15 %
autonomous	4 %	3 %
Total	100 %	100 %

