

MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYMENT IN EASTERN EUROPE

Abstract

In the context of transitional changes in the last decade in East European countries, the employment structure is one of the fastest changing areas. What is the best methodology to compare the employment situation in the different countries of the region? Multivariate statistical analysis methods are representing very reliable way of getting the full picture of the problem. Principal components analysis is one of the simplest multivariate methods but it could produce very useful information about the employment in the Eastern Europe in very easy and understandable way.

Key Words

Employment, Multivariate Analysis, Principal Components Analysis

ACM classification

G.3 PROBABILITY AND STATISTICS, *Multivariate statistics*

JEL classification

C4 – Econometric and Statistical Methods: Special Topics, C49 – Other

Former communist countries have lost out on at least a half century of normal economic development. The nature of their growth built serious structural distortions into their economies, which made them highly inefficient, compared to the rest of the world. This led to an unavoidable output decline after the collapse of communism. Making up for this lost time will take at least 15 years in the case of the Czech Republic, 20 years in the case of Hungary and Poland, and 30 years in the case of Romania.

In the last decade, labour force activity rates increased in most Western European countries. In the Eastern European countries employment situation was different. The economic activity rates have decreased both for men and women (the decrease being often larger for men). In a majority of eastern countries women constitute a larger proportion of the total labour force between 40 and 50%. Exception is Turkey because it has considerably less women in the labour force – fewer than 30%.

Total employment as a percentage of the total population is an indicator of a country's capacity to support its population. Bosnia and Herzegovina, The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia have the

lowest employment ratios in the whole Europe. The economic activity rates in these countries are not too much below the average, and the reasons for the low ratio can be high unemployment in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia.

The general trend between in the last decade in East European countries is a continuous increase in the share of total employment in the service sector at the expense of the agricultural and industrial sectors. There are exceptions, and the share of total employment in agriculture is still high in Albania (72%), Moldova (51%) and Romania (43%).

Women are less likely than men to be employers or self-employed workers in Eastern Europe, especially in Turkey and Albania. Proportion of employed women among these groups is over 50%, only in Moldova and Belarus with Ukraine, Lithuania, Estonia, Latvia and Russia slightly below 50%.

In Lithuania the proportion of women among legislators, senior officials and managers is highest in Eastern Europe (47%). In the rest of the region there is clear majority of men in these occupations with lowest recorded proportion of women being in Turkey at 8%.

Part time employment remains a female domain, but varies considerably among countries. In Moldova the proportion of all employed women working part time is less than 1%. In most of the countries, the trend has been increasing since 1990. In general, employed persons in Eastern Europe have longer working hours than employed persons in Western Europe (except in Greece and Iceland). In all countries men spend more time in paid work than women, but the difference between women and men is more pronounced in Western Europe than in Eastern Europe.

The employment is very dynamic and complex economic category that can be analyzed with different scientific methods including quantitative ones. Multivariate statistical analysis offers a range of methods and techniques, for example discriminant analysis, conjoint analysis, principal components analysis, AID and CHAID methods, factor analysis, cluster analysis, correspondence analysis etc. These methods gradually are finding their place in different areas of economy. At the moment, marketing research represents the area with most intensive use of multivariate statistical methods. If they can find their place in marketing, the more than logically is to spread the use of the same methods also into other areas of economic science.

This paper also notes that employment structure dynamics is high on the priority list of countries around the world by virtue of the implementation in many countries of longitudinal panel surveys and other instruments measuring Labour Market Dynamics (LMD).

1. METHODS AND DATA

Principal components analysis represents one of the simplest multivariate methods. The objective is to take original variables (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p) and find combinations of the set to produce indices or new variables (Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_p) that are uncorrelated in order of their importance, and that describe the variation in the data. The lack of correlation means that the indices are measuring different "dimensions" of the data, and the ordering is such that $\text{Var}(Z_1) \geq \text{Var}(Z_2) \geq \dots \geq \text{Var}(Z_p)$. The new variables are the principal components. In principal components analysis, there

is always the hope that the variances of most of the new variables will be as low as to be negligible. In that case, most of the variation in the full dataset can be adequately described by the few Z variables with variances that are not negligible, and some degree of economy is then achieved.

Principal components analysis will not always work, in the sense that a large number of original variables are reduced to a small number of transformed variables. Indeed, if the original variables are not correlated, then the analysis achieves nothing. The best results are obtained when the original variables are very highly correlated, positively or negatively. If that is the case, then it is quite conceivable that 20 or more original variables can be adequately represented by two or three principal components. If this desirable state of affairs does occur, then the important principal components will be of some interest as measures of the underlying dimensions in the data. It will also be of value to know that there is a good deal of redundancy in the original variables, with most of them measuring similar things.

The principal component analysis will help us make the plot of East European countries against their values for two principal components. The picture is rather meaningful in terms of what is known about employment in the region. The countries with similar employment situations will be grouped together and it is possible to see the position of each country in the comparison with other countries.

The procedure for principal component analysis starts with data on p variables for n individuals, as indicated in Table 1.

Table 1: The form of data for a Principal Components Analysis

Case	X_1	X_2	...	X_p
1	x_{11}	x_{12}	...	x_{1p}
2	x_{21}	x_{22}	...	x_{2p}
...
n	x_{n1}	x_{n2}	...	x_{np}

The first principal component is the n th linear combination of the original variables (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p):

$$Z_1 = a_{11}X_1 + a_{12}X_2 + \dots + a_{1p}X_p \quad (1)$$

that varies as much as possible for the individuals, subject to condition that

$$a_{11}^2 + a_{12}^2 + \dots + a_{1p}^2 = 1 \quad (2)$$

Thus the variance of Z1, Var(Z1), is as large as possible given this constraint on the constants a1j. The constraint is introduced because if this is not done, the n Var(Z1) can be increased by simply increasing any one of the a1j values. The second principal component is

$$Z_2 = a_{21}X_1 + a_{22}X_2 + \dots + a_{2p}X_p \quad (3)$$

It is chosen so that Var(Z2) is as large as possible subject to the constraint that

$$a_{21}^2 + a_{22}^2 + \dots + a_{2p}^2 = 1 \quad (4)$$

and also to the condition that Z1 and Z2 have zero correlation for the data. Further principal components are defined by continuing in the same way. If there are p variables, there will be up to p principal components.

The steps in a principal components analysis are the following:

1. Start with coding the variables to have zero means and unit variances. Sometimes it is omitted when it is thought that the importance of variables is reflected in their variances. In the case of employment all the variables will have the same importance.
2. Calculation of the covariance matrix. This is a correlation matrix if step 1 has been done.
3. Finding the eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors. The elements of the eigenvectors matrix are the coefficients of the principal components while the eigenvalues are their variance.
4. Discarding any components that account for only a small proportion of the variation in the data. For example, for the 20 variables there will be 20 principal components but only the first four components account over 90% of the total vari-

ance. On this basis, the other 16 components may reasonably be ignored.

The principal components analysis is giving us very useful information about differences in employment structure but it could be just the start for more serious multidimensional analysis. For example, factor analysis, on the basis of the principal components analysis, helps to reduce a vast number of variables (for example, all the questions tapping several variables of interest in a questionnaire) to a meaningful, interpretable, and manageable set of factors.

The data were collected from UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe) statistical database maintained by the Statistical Division of the UNECE Secretariat. It provides detailed statistical information on countries in Europe, North America and Central Asia. These are probably not the latest data on employment in the East European region, but it is fresh enough to get the insights.

Only several variables were taken for analysis but it is just a start for further and more detailed scientific research.

2. RESULTS

It is appropriate to begin with step 1 of the four parts of the analysis that have just been described. Standardization of the measurements ensures that they all have equal weight in the analysis.

The covariance matrix for the standardized variables is the correlation matrix. The correlation matrix for all variables shows that correlation variables are not particularly high, which indicates that several principal components will be required to account for the variation in the data. The eigenvalues of this matrix are shown in the table 2.

Table 2: Eigenvalues of correlation matrix, and related statistics (Employment EEC + Developed Countries in Employment in Eastern Europe) Active variables only

	Eigenvalue	% Total	Cumulative	Cumulative
1	2.633371	43.88952	2.633371	43.8895
2	2.065042	34.41736	4.698413	78.3069
3	0.821423	13.69038	5.519836	91.9973
4	0.371016	6.18360	5.890851	98.1809
5	0.109108	1.81846	5.999959	99.9993
6	0.000041	0.00069	6.000000	100.0000

Table 3: Eigenvectors of correlation matrix (Employment EEC + Developed Countries in Employment in Eastern Europe) Active variables only

	Principal Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Agriculture	0.278519	0.608002	0.189799	0.085429	0.015234	0.713587
Industry	0.534732	0.142312	0.100197	0.728522	0.015719	0.390867
Services	0.015761	0.648560	0.303039	0.385817	0.022126	0.581330
% of Women	0.137201	0.365365	0.902360	0.093115	0.157320	0.003238
% Unemployment	0.559808	0.183099	0.004075	0.361583	0.722708	0.004858
% Youth Unemployment	0.551389	0.149781	0.218709	0.416761	0.672291	0.006121

The corresponding eigenvectors are shown in table 3, standardized so that the sum of the squares of the coefficients is one for each of them. The seeigen vectors are providing the coefficients of the principal components.

The Scree Method is one of the approaches to deciding how many principal components to select as themost important. The analyst looks for natural break points in the percentage of total variance dependent from each principal component. Figure 1 shows a scree plot for Eastern European countries.

It is a matter of judgment as to how many components are important. To some extent, the choice of the number of components that are important will depend on the use that is going to be made of them. For the present case, it will be assumed that a small number of indices are required in order to

present themain aspects of difference between the countries, and for simplicity only the first two components will be examined further. Between them, they account for about 78% of the variation in the original data.

The first component is

$$Z_1 = 0.278519 X_1 - 0.534732 X_2 + 0.015761 X_3 + 0.137201 X_4 - 0.559808 X_5 - 0.551389 X_6$$

As the analysis has been done on the correlation matrix, the variables in this equation are the original values after they have each been standardized to have a mean of zero and standard deviation of one.

The second principal component is

$$Z_2 = - 0.608002 X_1 + 0.142312 X_2 + 0.64856 X_3 + 0.365365 X_4 - 0.183099 X_5 - 0.149781 X_6$$

Figure 1: Principal Components Scree Plot

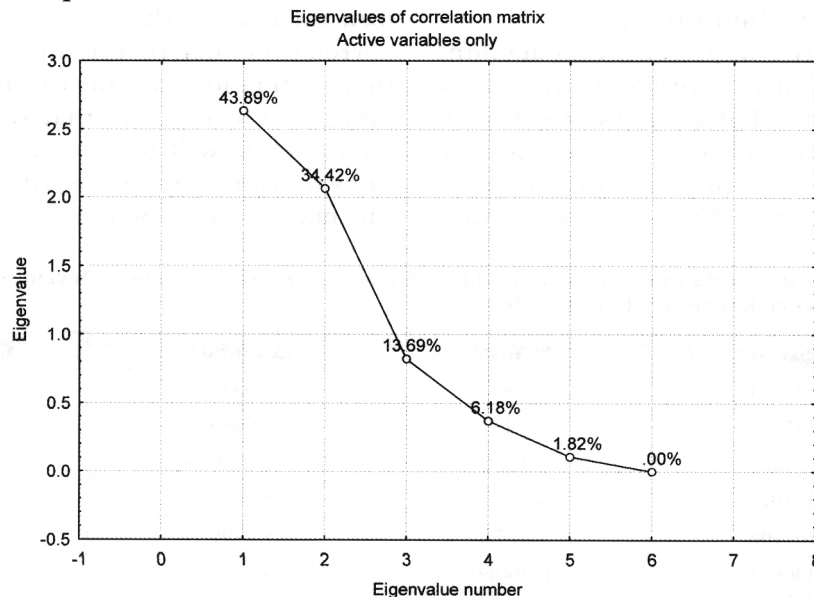


Figure 2 shows a plot of 21 East European countries with three West European countries (Norway, Switzerland and Germany) for comparative estimate. The plot shows the positions of the countries against their values for the first two principal components. The picture is certainly rather meaningful in terms of what is known about the employment in the countries.

The plot on the figure 2 is the result of principal components analysis. The use of this result is obvious. With one look at the plot one can get the full picture about the employment in the region and the position of each country.

The West European countries are grouped in the upper left corner with very similar employment situation in all three major economic sectors (agriculture, industry and services) and with similar values for almost every other variable.

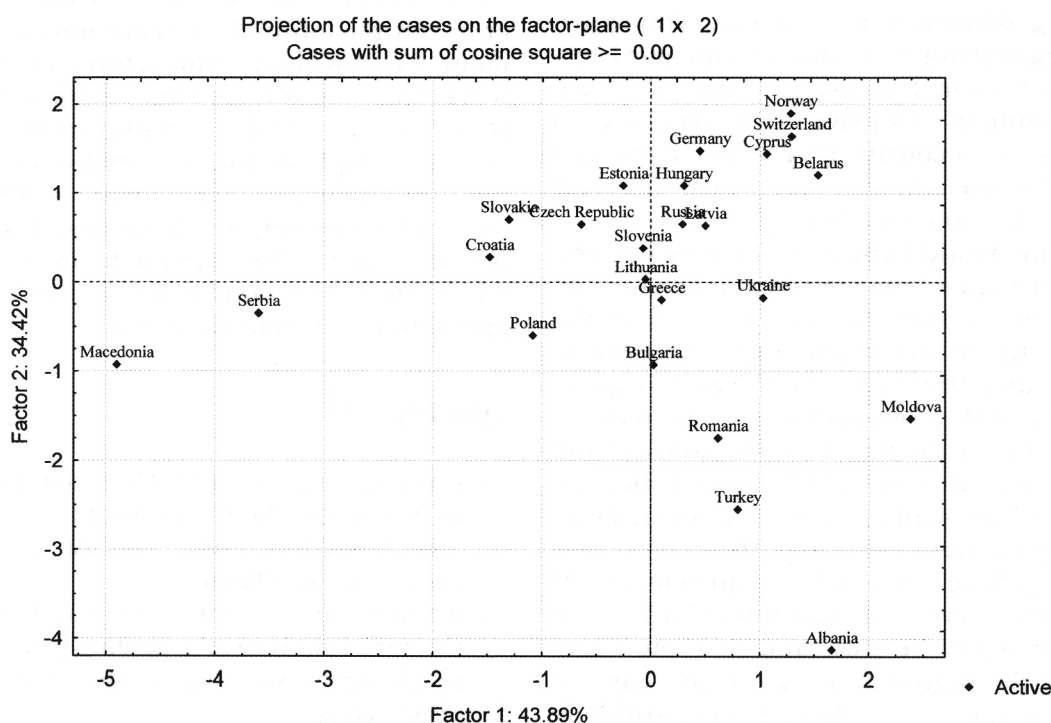
It is interesting to notice that most similar employment structure to West European countries have Cyprus, Belarus and Hungary. All countries from former USSR are very close to one another, with exception of Moldova. The reason for this is that Moldova has larger percentage of employees in agriculture, the percentage of employed women is above 50% and percentage of total unemployment is very low.

It is very easy to notice that the most dramatic difference in employment structure is in Serbia, Macedonia and Albania. Serbia and Macedonia have the same problems: very low percentage of employment in the agricultural sector and largest percentage of total unemployment in the whole Europe. Albania has the problem on the opposite side: the greatest percentage of employment in the agricultural sector and beside that, the very low percentage of employed women.

In Eastern Europe unemployment rate is more varied than in the rest of the continent, but the majority of countries had higher unemployment rates in recent years. In most countries there are small differences between women and men in unemployment rates. However, in Greece, Turkey and Albania considerably more women are unemployed than men. In Lithuania the situation is the other way round – the unemployment rate for men is higher than for women.

In a majority of region countries there is a higher youth unemployment rate for women than for men, but in many countries the differences are not large and may be subject to annual variations based on which sectors of the economy are hardest hit by unemployment. The youth unemployment rate is generally higher than the overall

Figure 2: The plot diagram on the basis of the scores for the first two principal components



unemployment rate through out the East European region.

In some countries more than half of all the unemployed have been in that position far more than 12 months. The recorded longterm unemployment rate is highest in Albania, Slovenia (65%) and Bulgaria (62%).

The unemployment rates were high for all East European countries except for Belarus, Cyprus, Moldova and Ukraine. Since by present standards any rate below 3% can be regarded as exceptionally good, Moldova would stand out in Eastern Europe. Ten countries in the region (Albania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Macedonia, Poland, Serbia and Slovakia) have double digit rates and hence can be classified as countries with extremely worrying unemployment rates, the same can be said about the other four nations since they have rates in excess of 7% (Czech Republic, Greece, Russia and Turkey). With this arbitrary classification, only Moldovans claim to have performed extremely well. However, the reader should note that absolute levels of unemployment for these countries are not strictly comparable owing to differences in measurement techniques.

When it comes to employment by sectors, of particular interest is the relative size of the service sector. This is mainly the tertiary sector (it comprises such divergent items as banking, distribution, insurance, transport, catering and hotels, laundries and hairdressers, professional services of a more varied kind, publicly and privately provided, etc.) and was, in majority of Eastern European countries, the largest in recent years, exceeding 50% in majority of them.

As one would expect (since it is a natural characteristic of development), most of the countries considered show a decline in the percentage of the labour force engaged in agriculture. However, many East European countries have double digit percentages.

Conclusion Employment is a political and socioeconomic issue which needs to be tackled in all its manifestations. Eastern European countries are going through transitional period and the achievement of acceptable levels of manpower utilization will inevitably be slow and in some countries of the region may take many years. In addition, the rise is the longer term problem:

the effect of evolving structures of the labour force, attitudes to work and changing social objectives which may affect employment in a fundamental sense.

EU Social Policy Agenda and European Employment Strategy emphasise the importance of ensuring a positive, mutually reinforcing interaction between economic, employment and social policies among the countries. Good employment and social policies are needed to underpin productivity and to facilitate the adaptation to change. They also will play an essential role towards the full transition to the knowledge based economy.

It is necessary to monitor not only the employment in each country but to compare the employment characteristics among the countries. The more countries from Eastern Europe are getting closer to EU membership the more complicated is the analysis of current situation. Multivariate analysis is a very useful tool for monitoring the employment, in this case in the region of Eastern Europe.

The principal components analysis represented in this paper is conducted on the basis of just a few employment variables and many key indicators of the labour market and labour market dynamics are missing (labour market transitions, occupational and geographical mobility, discouraged workers, multiple jobholders, temporary employment, employment contractors, shiftwork, work time and leisure time, work at home, time related under employment, in a dequate employment, international movement of labour, etc.). This work represents only the beginning of a more serious and deeper analysis, for example factor analysis, which should be conducted on the basis of much more relevant variables.

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Biography:

Savić Mirko is assistant professor at the Faculty of Economics in Subotica, Serbia. He is teaching statistics, business statistics and multi variate statistical analysis at the Department of Business Informatics and Quantitative Methods. He has published more than 20 articles and four books in the areas of statistics, multivariate statistical methods and statistical software. Member of MENSA.