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### NON-STANDARD WORK AND INEQUALITY

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# The necessity to follow up labour market inequalities

### Background

- Changes in earnings and labour market conditions are the most important *direct* key driver of rising income inequalities (OECD, 2011)
- Policy trade-offs: Many regulatory reforms and institutional changes tended to increase *employment* opportunities, at the same time they were associated with wider *wage inequality*

### Questions

- To which extent are labour market inequalities driven by gaps between "typical" and "atypical" non-standard forms of employment?
- Do non-standard jobs pay less and are of poorer quality?
- To what extent are non-standard jobs "stepping stones" to improved labour market prospects, or rather "traps"?
- How do non-standard work patterns affect *household* earnings and income inequality?

# Non-standard employment and inequality

### $1. \ {\rm Development} \ {\rm and} \ {\rm characteristics} \ {\rm of} \ {\rm non-standard} \ {\rm employment} \\$

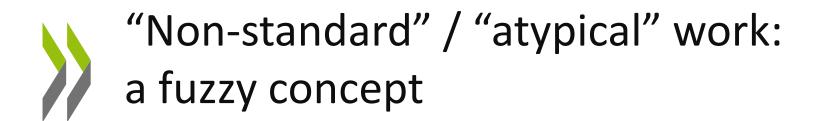
- Factors driving NSW
- Share of NSW and trends in OECD countries
- Is employment growth polarising?

### 2. Labour market prospects of non-standard workers

- Are non-standard workers in low-paid or lower quality jobs?
- "Stepping stones" or "dead ends"?
- NSW and the earnings distribution

### 3. How does NSW affect household income inequalities and poverty?

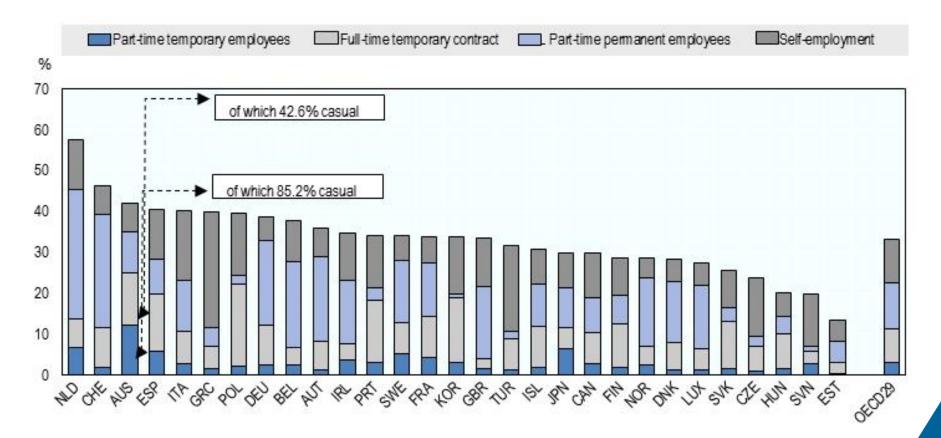
- Distributional position of NS workers in household income distribution
- Contribution of NSW sources to income inequality
- Poverty and NSW
- The role of taxes and benefits



- Country-specific conventions
- Data issues
- In its <u>broadest terms</u>, defined by what it is *not* (fulltime dependent employment with an indefinite duration contract)
- → includes self-employment, all temporary and all part-time employees
- Broad definition used by Eurofund, ILO, WB
- Not a normative concept, and different from the notion of precarious employment

# Share of non-standard work is sizeable but very different across the OECD

#### Share of non-standard employment in total employment, 2013 or close



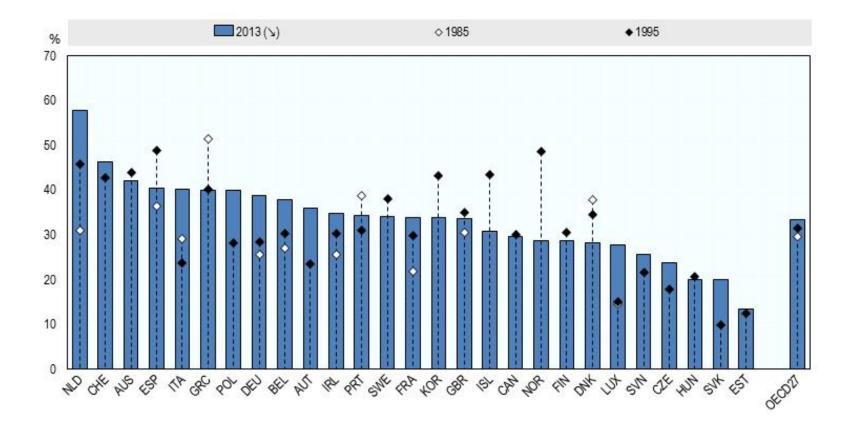
Note: Sample restricted to paid and self-employed (own account) workers aged 15-64 years old, excluding employers, student workers and apprentices.

Source: OECD (2015); EULFS; KLIPS for Korea, LFS for Japan, HILDA for Australia and LFS for Canada.



- <u>Women</u> are slightly over-represented if part-time work is included
- Youth are overrepresented in temporary employment and overall incidence of NSW is high among youth
- Incidence of NSW is 30% higher (60% in case of temporary employment) for the <u>low-educated</u>
- Incidence of NSW is close to 50% higher for <u>elementary and semi-skilled</u> occupations (than for skilled/highly skilled).

# The share of NSW has increased moderately across OECD

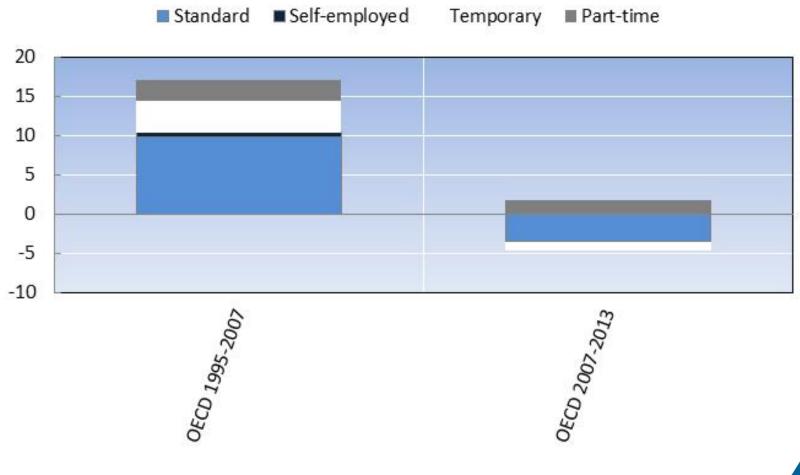


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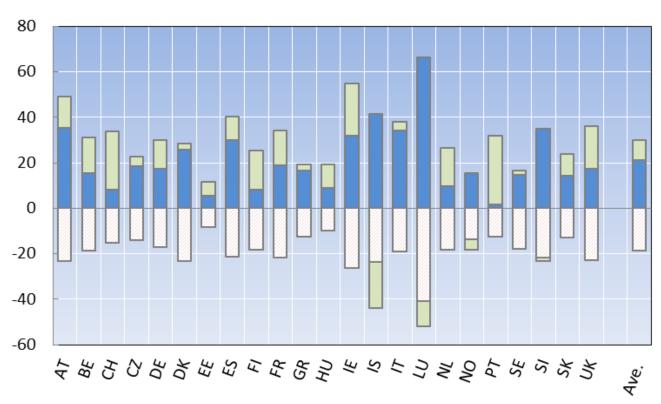
### Employment growth, by type of contract, 1995-2007 and 2007-13



Source: OECD (2014); EULFS

## In most countries employment has polarised into high- and low-skill jobs, away from routine jobs

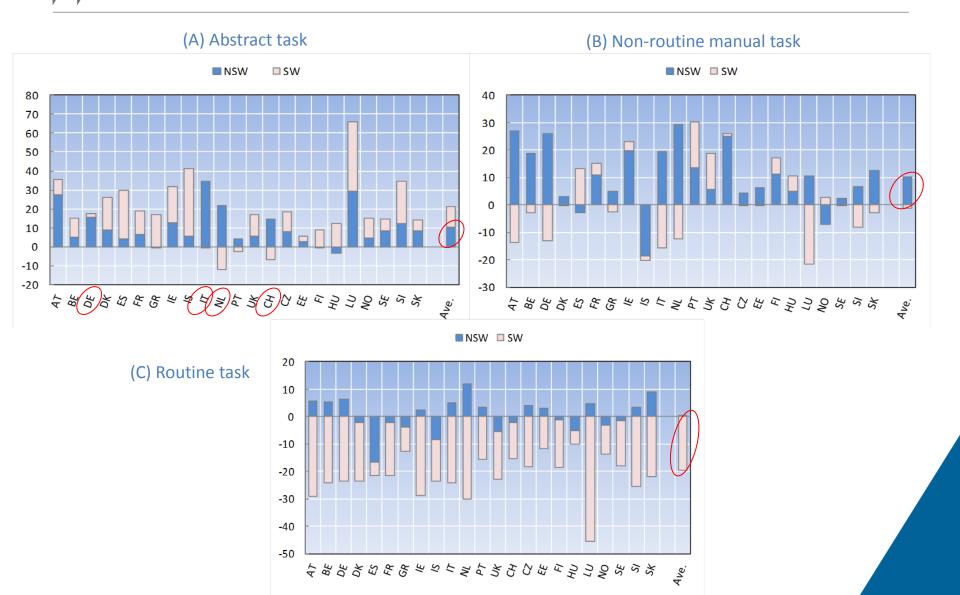
#### Percentage change in employment shares by task category, 1995/98-latest available year



■ Abstract (high-skill) 🖾 Routine (middle-skill) 🔲 Non-routine manual (low-skill)

Note: Abstract occupations (ISCO88: 12-34); Routine (ISCO88: 41-42, 52, 71-74, 81-82 and 93); Non-routine manual (ISCO88: 51 83 and 91). The overall sample restricted to workers aged 15-64, excluding employers as well as students working part-time.

## Non-standard work is the main source of employment growth for low-skill jobs



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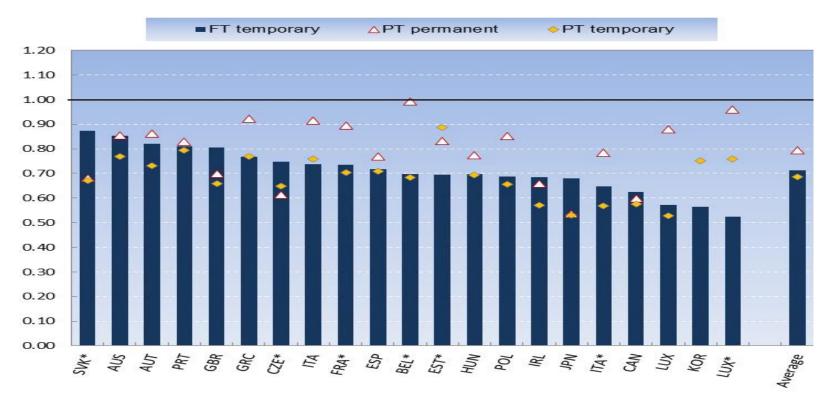
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### Ratio of median hourly wages (standard workers = 1), 2012

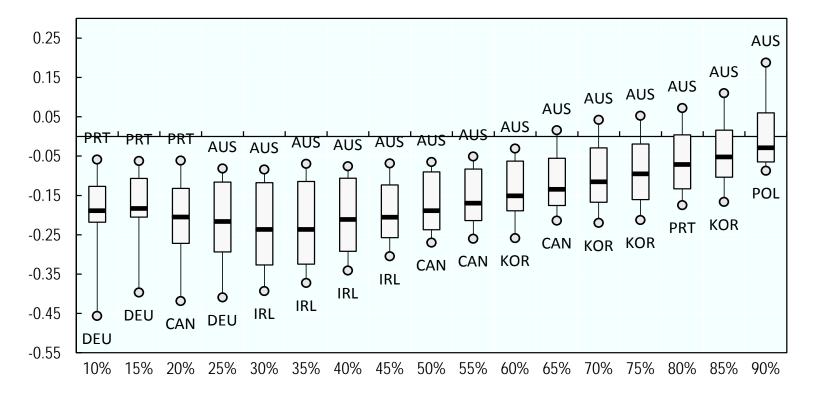


Source: OECD (2014); EU-SILC; KLIPS for Korea, LFS for Japan, HILDA for Australia and LFS for Canada.

Is there a wage penalty for NSW, controlling for individual and job characteristics?

- <u>Temporary workers</u> face a wage penalty, about 12% controlling for observable characteristics, then 5-8% once unobservables are taken into account
  - The penalty is higher for younger workers.
  - Temporary workers would enjoy higher upward earnings mobility when this is accompanied by a change in the job contract to standard employment.
- For <u>part-time</u> workers
  - in permanent contracts, the penalty is small or a wage *premium* is found in some countries, mainly for women
  - Part-time temporary workers still face some wage, especially men.

# The earnings gap between SW and NSW is larger at the bottom

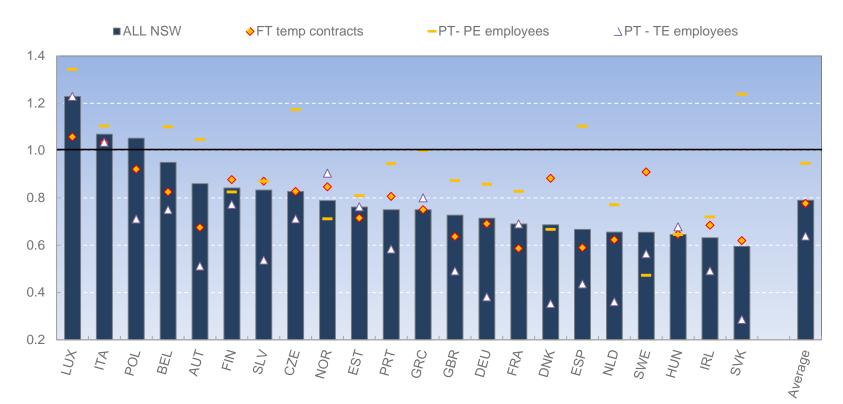


Source: EUSILC (2012), HILDA (2012), KLIPS(2009), Canada LFS (2013).

*Note:* The box for each quantile represents the interval of the impact of NSW on log hourly wages ranging between 25% and 75% of values, with the black line representing the median impact. The circles represent the country with the highest and lowest impact on wage associated with NSW for each decile.

## Do atypical jobs provide less training?

### Ratio of reported answer to undergone training in the past 12 months (standard workers = 1), 2010



### "Stepping stones or dead ends": are those in NSW likely to move into standard jobs?

- Controlling for characteristics and initial employment status, <u>temporary workers</u> are 12-13 points more likely than the unemployed to be in standard work after one year
- For <u>part-timers</u>, transition rates into standard jobs are higher for those with *permanent* job contracts
- In most countries, <u>self-employed</u> have a lower probability to move into standard work
- Mixed evidence of stepping-stone effect of NSW by <u>workers'</u> <u>characteristics:</u>
  - only prime-age and older temporary workers exhibit higher transition probability into permanent jobs; a stepping-stone effect for young temporary workers (15-29) is generally not confirmed
  - there is little variation in a majority of countries in transition probabilities by skill level (i.e. education).

### Does NSW lead to higher risks of nonemployment?

- <u>Temporary workers</u> are at higher risk of both unemployment and inactivity than those in SW in ¾ of countries
- <u>Part-timers</u> are more likely than SW to move out of the labour force
- <u>Self-employment</u> is not associated with higher risks of unemployment but risk of inactivity is higher for women in half of the countries

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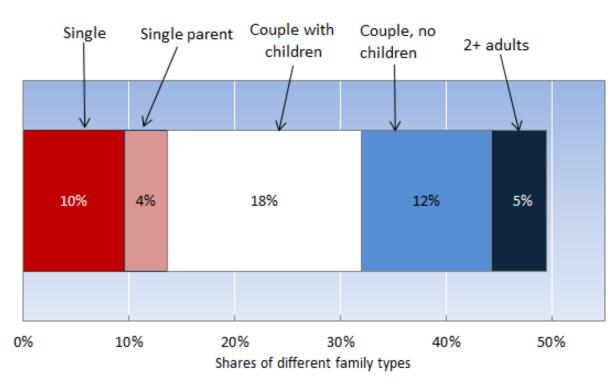
Will the growth in NSW lead to higher income inequality and poverty?

An increase in the share of non-standard workers is likely to contribute to increased *individual earnings* dispersion, but the impact on *household income* depends on:

- "Demography": in which household do NSW live, and are they main or secondary earners
- "Earnings": what is the contribution from NSW earnings at the household level and how are they distributed
- "Incomes": what is the position of NSW workers in the overall income distribution and how do different work arrangements affect the risk of poverty

## Many non-standard workers are the main income earner in their household

### Half of all non-standard workers are main household earners

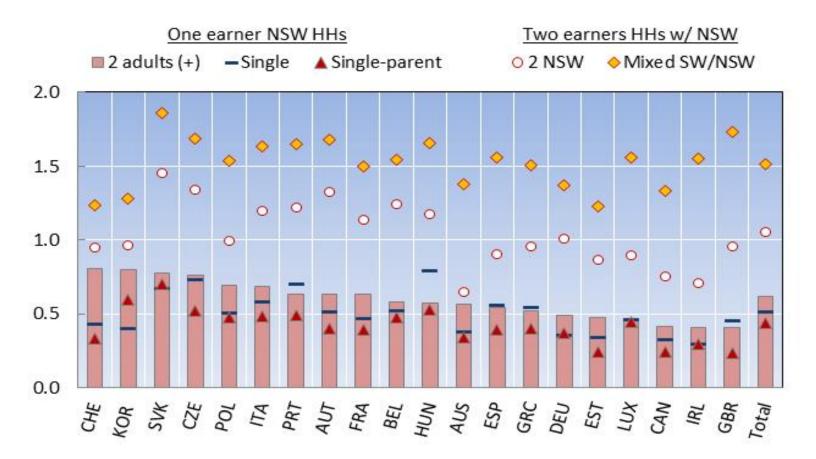


Shares of non-standard workers as main earners , by family type, OECD average 2010

Source: OECD (2014); EU-SILC, KLIPS for Korea, HILDA for Australia and SLID for Canada.

### Households with only non-standard worker(s) earn (much) less

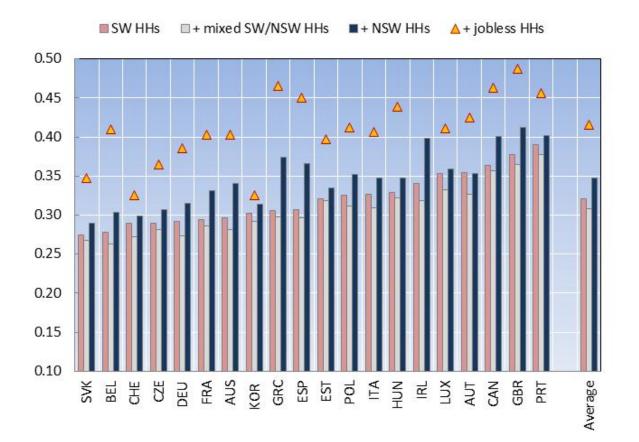
Median earnings ratio (one earner SW households = 1), 2012



Source: OECD (2014); EU-SILC, HILDA for Australia, KLIPS for Korea and SLID for Canada.

### Household earnings inequality is higher when accounting for households with NSW

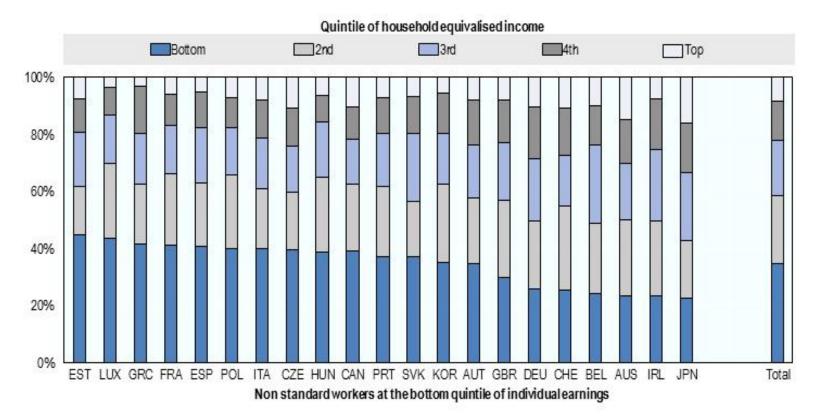
#### Gini coefficient of equivalised household earnings, 2012



Source: OECD (2014); EU-SILC, HILDA for Australia, KLIPS for Korea and SLID for Canada.

# Low earner NSW not necessarily at the bottom when looking at the household

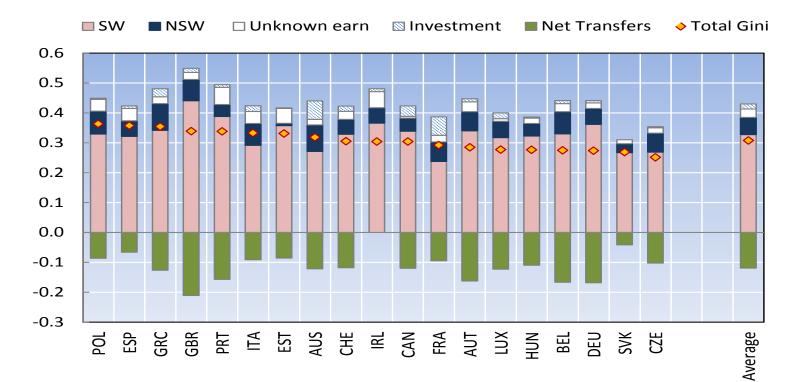
Distributional position of NSW in household income quintiles, by quintile of individual earnings, 2012



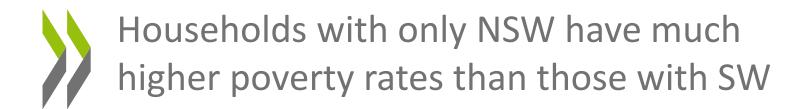
Source: EU-SILC (2012), HILDA (2012), KLIPS (2009), SLID (2010), JHPS (2012).

# A big part of household income inequality still explained by SW

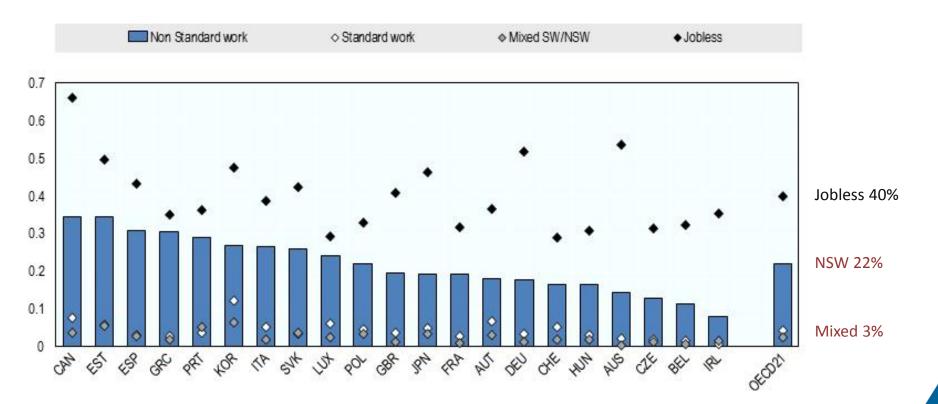
Breakdown of household equivalent income inequality (Gini) by income source, 2012



Source: EU-SILC (2012), HILDA (2012), SLID (2010)



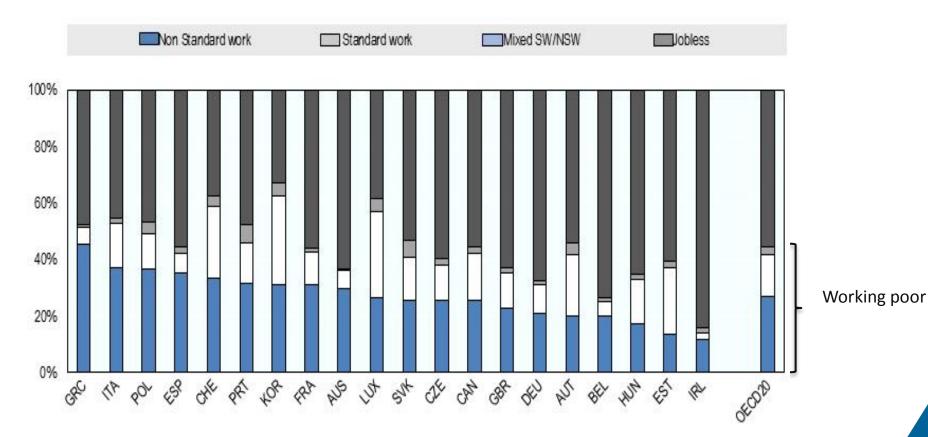
### Income poverty rates by employment pattern, 2012



Note: The poverty line is defined at 50% of the median equivalised household income for the entire population. Source: OECD (2014); EU-SILC, HILDA for Australia, KLIPS for Korea and SLID for Canada.

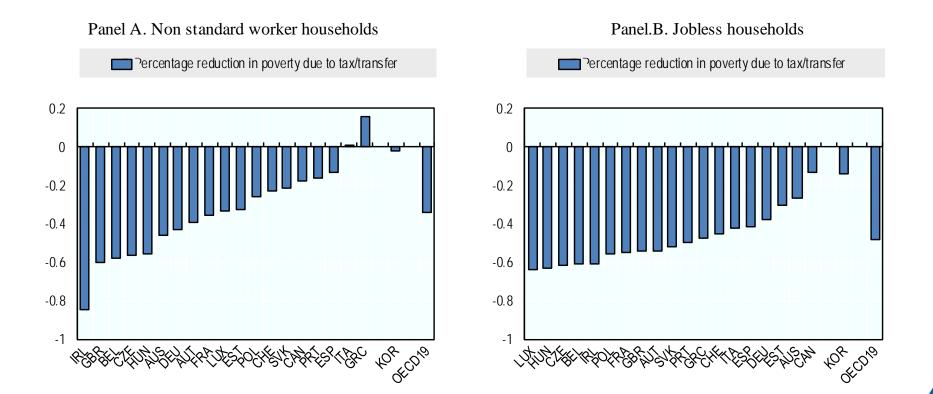
## Almost one third of the poor and two thirds of the working poor are in NSW households

### Distribution of income poverty by household employment type



Note: The poverty line is defined at 50% of the median equivalised household income for the entire population. Source: OECD (2014); EU-SILC, HILDA for Australia , KLIPS for Korea and SLID for Canada.

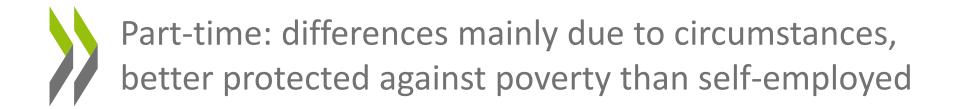
# Taxes and transfers reduce poverty for NSW, but much less than for jobless



Source: OECD (2014); EU-SILC, HILDA for Australia, KLIPS for Korea and SLID for Canada.

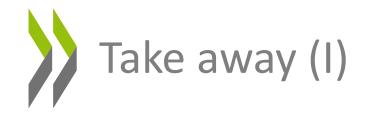
NSW have different entitlements to taxes and benefits, particularly self-employed

- There are statutory differences to taxes and benefits for workers in non-standard jobs, particularly among selfemployed workers;
- The most common difference is the exclusion of self-employed workers to unemployment benefits (25 out of the 41 countries).
  No eligibility to work injury benefits and differences in the rules of sickness and maternity benefits are also common;
- Generally, self-employed contributions are larger than employee contributions but lower than employee and employer contributions combined.

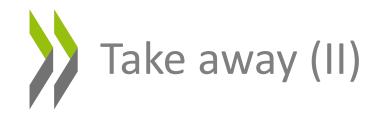


• Effective differences to **part-time workers** are related more to the **particular circumstances** of these workers (e.g., lower earnings due to lower hours of work) than to structural differences in policy rules;

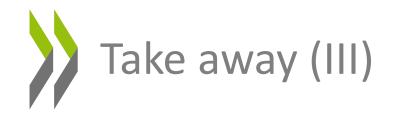
• Simulation results suggest that, in most countries, taxes and benefits reduce poverty gaps of workers in non-standard jobs and, under similar circumstances, are more effective reducing the poverty gap of part-time than of self-employed workers.



- Employment in non-standard work arrangements has increased over the years and accounts for one third of total employment.
  43% of working households include a non-standard worker;
- On some measures of job quality, non-standard workers are worse off than full-time permanent employees. Hourly wages are 20-30% lower, and job insecurity is higher;
- Overall household earnings are also lower when non-standard workers are present , up to 40% lower for households where there are only non-standard earners.



- "Stepping-stone" effects for non-standard work exist in most countries, but they depend on the type of non-standard work and there are trade-offs involved;
- Temporary workers have a higher transition probability into standard work, compared to the unemployed; but they often face considerable wage penalties, experience greater earnings instability and upward earnings mobility requires a move to standard work;
- Prospects also differ greatly by the characteristics of nonstandard workers, with prime-age and older workers facing better chances to use non-standard jobs as "stepping stones".



- Earnings from non-standard work are distributed more unequally than earnings from standard jobs;
- Low-earning non-standard workers are likely to be at the bottom of the household *income* distribution, especially if they live with other non-standard rather than with standard workers;
- The risk of poverty is not associated with non-standard work *per se.* 60% of all working poor live in households where all earnings are drawn from non-standard work.