



Nordic Council
of Ministers



Nordic Future of Work Conference

The Future of Work and new Forms of Work
from the Global and the Nordic Perspectives

Helsinki

1

Nordic Future of Work Conference I

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and the Nordic Perspectives

Editor: Tuomo Alasoini

*Contributors: Jari Lindström, Raymond Torres, Kerstin Ahlberg,
Shauna Olney, Antti Kauhanen, Lisbeth Pedersen,
Maríanna Traustadóttir and Thomas Janson*

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The Nordic Future of Work: Conference, Helsinki 5–6 September 2016

Chief adviser, PhD Tuomo Alasoini

The Conference on the Future of Work was part of the programme of the Finnish Presidency of the Nordic Council of Ministers and of the Nordic priority project “Open and Innovative Nordic Countries with Well-being People in 2020 – Equal Opportunities to Welfare, Education, Culture and Work,” initiated by the Finnish Presidency in 2016. It is part of the Centenary Conversation launched by the International Labour Organization (ILO) Director-General Guy Ryder with the aim to prepare for the celebration of the ILO’s centenary in the 2019 and give a Nordic input for the future orientation of the ILO activities and policies in order for the ILO to better address future challenges. It will be followed by a series of other Nordic conferences on the future of work.

The conference was attended by 85 participants from all Nordic countries, including Greenland and the Faroe Islands, from the ILO, the Secretariat of the Nordic Council of Ministers, and Nordic ministries, other administrative bodies, universities and research institutions, and organizations of the social partners.

The conference aimed to identify Nordic and global trends relating to the future of work, including new forms of work and new technologies and production models resulting from digitalization, robotisation and “uberisation”. Key questions were how the changes affect our labour market situations and how the Nordic countries and the ILO should address the global challenges and opportunities and better promote social justice and decent work in the Nordic region and globally. Gender equality aspects were stressed as a Nordic priority.

The conference was organized by the Finnish Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment. The conference programme was drafted in consultation with the Finnish tripartite ILO Committee and other relevant stakeholders. The Nordic Institute for

Advanced Training in Occupational Health (Niva) was responsible for the practical arrangements. The conference was moderated by Bettina Sægbom. This report collects a majority of the conference's contributions.

Summary of the discussions

The speakers identified, more or less, the same kind of challenges for the future of work:

- How to respond to the rapid changes in the global labour market?
- How to ensure adequate protection and employment opportunities for all?
- How to safeguard workplaces in the advanced countries like the Nordic region and our welfare societies in global competition and amidst technological and demographic changes?

Policy responses suggested by employers and workers varied, but many of the speakers stressed the following:

- We have to ensure that our labour market can compete in the global market especially through better education and skills of the workforce and higher productivity.
- Both governments and social partners have a responsibility to update policies, legislation and collective agreements to better respond to the future labour market. Social protection should cover all workers and the self-employed and unemployed in a way that encourages active labour market participation. More flexibility is also needed on the labour market.
- Global cooperation and solutions, up-to-date legislation and labour standards, and social dialogue are needed to promote decent work for all.
- Gender equality is an important principle and policy goal. It is also to a large extent a prerequisite for economic and social development. We have to continue to tackle gender pay gaps, segregation in the labour market and inequality at work nationally, regionally and globally. Huge equality deficits still exist in most

parts of the world, in particular, as regards labour market participation of women. Gender equality is a key priority for the future ILO work.

Day 1: Future challenges in working life

The conference was opened by the Finnish Minister of Justice and Employment *Jari Lindström*. In his opening speech Minister Lindström pointed out that cooperation among the Nordic governments in ILO affairs started already before the first Labour Conference in 1919. Now that our current economies and labour markets are faced with huge challenges and opportunities, national policy makers and social partners should actively benefit from new technologies while promoting social justice and decent work for all. Changes should be anticipated and government interventions and legislation updated as necessary. Minister Lindström pointed out that, due to its tripartite nature and mandate, the ILO has a unique opportunity to also tackle gender pay gaps and other work-related gender discrimination issues in a way that leads to concrete improvements at workplaces. Gender equality should be a priority of the future ILO action.

In his keynote speech *Raymond Torres*, Director of the ILO Research Department, presented the global challenges of the labour market. There are common trends in the world of work, including more diversified workplaces and changes in employment relationships. Permanent jobs are predominant only in high-income employment. The growth of the middle class is slowing down. There is a lower demand for services that can be automatized. Non-routine cognitive occupations are on the rise, while routine and non-routine manual occupations are diminishing. The world of work is becoming increasingly fragmented, with new ways of organizing the production and outsourcing of tasks. Growing numbers of workers are in jobs linked to global value chains, where labour-intensive tasks are allocated to emerging economies. Because of the global value chains, wages in advanced countries are lower than they used to be, while in emerging economies both wages and labour productivity in general are higher than before. Global social security coverage, largely based on contributory schemes, is higher for employees than for own-account workers or unpaid family workers. The main policy challenge for the ILO is how to achieve the new forms of work while ensuring coherence in the application of labour standards in global supply chains. Risks relate to inward-looking policy reactions which reduce network benefits, erode the existing institutions, intensify inequalities, and increase political tensions. We should

consider what it is that the policy-makers can do. What are the main challenges for labour regulations, social protection, enterprise creation and tripartite policy-making? How should and could the ILO address these trends as part of global governance?

Kerstin Ahlberg, Research Editor from the University of Stockholm, addressed the change, collective bargaining and collective agreements from the Nordic perspective. She referred to the differences between the Nordic models, where generally binding collective agreements are only applicable in Finland, Norway and Iceland. Trade union density was the highest in Iceland (85%) followed by Finland (69%), Sweden (68%), Denmark (67%), and Norway (52%). According to the Nordic model, wages and other working conditions are subject to collective bargaining. New forms of work such as temporary agency work and gig economy, bad public procurement practices and outsourcing undermine collective bargaining, especially in cleaning and mobility services. In the EU the autonomy of social partners is challenged by country-specific recommendations on wage bargaining. Also, the wording on wages in the draft pillar of European social rights is problematic. A European minimum wage is not favoured by the Nordic social partners. Transnational collective bargaining is not advancing, even if some transnational companies have negotiated transnational agreements, and further legal clarity is needed for these companies.

Simen Markussen, Senior Research Fellow at Frisch Centre in Oslo, discussed the future of work and how to deal with it. Imports from China reduce (low-skilled) employment and wages and increase benefit dependency. Migration reduces prices and wages and affects employment. Broadband internet increases the demand for skilled labour and decreases the demand for low-skilled labour. Providing more education would help to tackle wage inequality. Other potential solutions include cheaper low-skilled work, increasing productivity, investing more in education, or subsidizing employment. A citizen's wage could be a solution in case large groups are unemployed. The benefit should be available to all, including the self-employed. Conditionality on past income adds the incentive to work to the citizen's wage systems.

The representatives of the Finnish social partners in the technology industry *Tero Tuominen*, Adviser at the Federation of Finnish Technology Industries and *Anu-Hanna Anttila*, Head of Research Unit at the Finnish Metalworkers' Union, talked about the specific challenges of the Finnish technology industry and its workers. Tero Tuominen called for better policies concerning taxation, legislation and labour costs, more local bargaining and flexibility in working time, and stricter penalties for the so-called illegal strikes. These measures would help companies to compete in the global market. The

main challenges listed by Anu-Hanna Anttila were digitalization, robotisation, automatization, industrial internet, internet of things, and 3D printing. Better professional skills and updated vocational school education, including work with computers, will be needed. The question arises whether local bargaining compromises minimum wages and whether new forms of work lead to less trade unions. Better industrial and technological development in Finnish enterprises is needed for competition in the global market.

The day ended with a panel discussion among the previous speakers and *Nanna Højlund*, Vice President at LO – Danish Confederation of Trade Unions, who stressed the need to address workers' protection deficits relating to the platform economy, including the challenges this means for collective bargaining.

Day 2: Gender equality and some best practices

Shauna Olney, Chief at the Gender, Equality and Diversity Branch, talked about a better future for women at work, with background information on women's position in the global labour market. According to a study by the ILO, only 1.3 billion women are working, compared to 2 billion men. Women are more likely to be unemployed, in low-paid jobs and informal arrangements. The global gender wage gap is 23%. Women perform more unpaid household and care work and marginal part-time work. They are more likely to be contributing family workers in family enterprises than men. There is research showing a high correlation between public spending on work-family policies and a high female employment rate and, thus, with economic performance. Among the policy goals set in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development are gender equality and decent work. The ratification rate of international conventions (ILO Conventions on Equal Pay (No. 100) and Discrimination in Employment and Occupation (No. 111) as well as CEDAW Convention) is high. Their proper implementation would be important for individuals, businesses and economies.

Antti Kauhanen, Chief Research Scientist at the Research Institute of the Finnish Economy (ETLA), presented his research on the impact of occupational restructuring on men and women. Over the last 20 years employment has increased in low-paying and high-paying occupations and declined in middle-paying occupations. Occupational restructuring is driven by technological progress and offshoring. The Finnish labour market is highly segregated and occupational restructuring, including ICT and robotics,

may affect men and women in a different way. Until now occupational restructuring has had quite similar impacts on men and women. If occupational restructuring contributes to reducing occupational segregation, it may improve gender equality. Educational systems should respond to the changing skills needs concerning both men and women.

Lisbeth Pedersen, Head of Research Department at SFI – The Danish National Center for Social Research, discussed the measures needed to reduce gender discrimination in future working life, which is an important factor for economic growth. Wage gaps and segregation are current trends in the Nordic labour market. The megatrends affecting Nordic welfare states are globalization, technological changes and increase in life expectancy. Industrial work will be more exposed to foreign competition. There will be a higher inflow of labour from other EU Member States and of less educated migrants, and a higher demand for well-educated skilled labour. The Nordic labour market is becoming more segregated. Globalisation has a greater impact on male-dominated industries, and the female-dominated hotel, restaurant and cleaning sectors may attract foreign workers. Since most of them are men, the gender pay gap could diminish. Highly qualified labour will be needed on all levels. It is important to upgrade the skills especially among the least educated. In particular, if the size of the public sector is reduced, we have to promote mobility between the public and private sectors and make both sectors accessible to men and women. In the Nordic countries collective agreements have a very important role, which is why social partners should also be active in looking for new solutions. We have to continue our work to mitigate gender equality gaps, increase gender-flexibility in our labour market, and address wage gaps in jobs of equal value.

Marianna Traustadóttir, Gender Equality Consultant at the Icelandic Confederation of Labour (ASÍ), presented the Icelandic tripartite cooperation to develop an Equal Pay Standard (IST 85:2012), which is a management standard similar to the ILO 9001 Quality Assurance Standard. A toolbox has been developed, including a check-list, a model for job classification, and guidelines for implementation.

Tuomo Poutiainen, Programme Manager at ILO Bangladesh, told about the ILO activities in the garment sector in Bangladesh, where 60% of the workers are female. The ILO helps to improve factory safety, strengthen the labour inspectorate, and enhance occupational health and safety, workers' rights and compliance with the ILO labour standards. Support is also provided to the survivors of Rana Plaza collapse in 2013. An Employment Injury Protection and Rehabilitation Scheme has been established.

Thomas Janson, Deputy Director at the Swedish Ministry of Employment, presented the Swedish Global Deal Initiative launch by Prime Minister Löfven. The idea is to improve social dialogue at all levels in the spirit of trust to achieve the goals of the 2030 Agenda.

Henrik Munthe, Attorney at Law at the Confederation of Norwegian Enterprise NHO, presented the work done by Norwegian employers on the promotion of employers' organizations in Vietnam. The idea was to assist Vietnamese employers' organizations in promoting social dialogue in the country.

The conference ended with short summaries by *Markus Äimälä*, Director of Labour Law and Industrial Relations at the Confederation of Finnish Industries EK, and *Katarina Murto*, Director at the Finnish Confederation of Professionals STTK. The former stressed the need for flexible labour market and more local bargaining in view of the global competition, and the latter the need for collective bargaining also in the future labour market.

1. Opening address by Minister of Justice and Employment Jari Lindström

Ladies and Gentlemen,

It is my great pleasure to welcome you all to this Nordic conference on the future of work and the role of the ILO, which is organised as part of this year's Finnish Presidency of the Nordic Council of Ministers.

The ILO is the oldest specialised agency of the United Nations. It was founded in 1919 as an independent agency of the League of Nations. Its mission was – and still remains – to promote universal peace, which can only be based upon social justice and improved working conditions.

The preparation and promotion of international labour standards was seen as important from the very beginning, because there was a fear that without universal labour standards countries with decent social and labour standards would be economically disadvantaged.

International labour standards, in particular the core labour standards, remain highly relevant even in today's global commodity and labour markets.

The principles of the core labour standards, which cover freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining, non-discrimination and equal opportunities at work, and the prohibition of forced labour and abusive child labour, also offer benchmarks for other international organisations and treaties.

The UN is committed to promoting social justice and decent work globally, in particular by introducing decent work in its Sustainable Development Goals and by its Global Compact for Businesses. The OECD guidelines for multinational enterprises also refer to the core labour standards. The EU has included these standards in its scheme of tariff preferences and in development policies and trade agreements.

At the time when the ILO was founded the world was recovering from the First World War. After the Russian and German Revolutions there was a real threat of social unrest and even revolution in Europe and elsewhere.

Finland had become independent only in 1917 and was still recovering from the severe Finnish Civil War of 1918. After the Civil War, Finnish society still suffered from a strong polarisation. Probably one symptom of this polarisation and lack of proper social dialogue was that in 1920 the Finnish Trade Union Federation even refused to send a representative to the second International Labour Conference.

Finnish social dialogue has come a long way in the decades that have followed. Since the Second World War, Finland has become a stronghold of tripartite cooperation and collective bargaining. Social dialogue, tripartite negotiations and well-organised labour markets are often seen as preconditions for social peace and also for wide-ranging labour market settlements.

The recent Competitiveness Pact concluded between the social partners is an example of our Finnish culture of social dialogue. This pact is expected to promote the economic stability and to boost growth, competitiveness and employment in Finland.

The Nordic governments and social partners have been active in the ILO from the beginning. Denmark, Norway and Sweden became members in 1919, while Finland joined the ILO in 1920. However, thanks to strong support given by the Danish, Norwegian and Swedish Governments, a Finnish tripartite delegation was allowed to attend already the first International Labour Conference, held in Washington in 1919.

The Nordic governments prepared themselves together for that first ILO Conference, and so one could say that the centenary of Nordic ILO cooperation coincides with the ILO's centenary.

The ILO Centenary Conversation on the Future of Work was launched at an opportune time. Huge changes are taking place everywhere. The ILO is also reforming its administration and reviewing international labour standards. The preparations for the ILO centenary in 2019 offer us an opportunity to take stock of the achievements of the organisation and to identify the opportunities and challenges created by the new global labour markets. The centenary conversation will also help us to take the changes into account in the ongoing reforms in the ILO.

The world of work is changing at an ever faster pace. Our economies and labour markets are affected by new challenges and opportunities relating to globalisation, and demographic and technological changes, such as robotisation and digitalisation. Many

businesses and workplaces are relocating, too. Some are closing down, but at the same time new businesses and job opportunities are being created.

Because of automation and robotisation, the impact of labour costs may be less significant when deciding on the localisation of production. Automation may thus enable some of our enterprises to bring their industrial activities back to Europe from countries with lower labour costs. A positive development is also that robots sometimes free us from dangerous, heavy, dirty and dull tasks.

Technological changes allow us to lower the threshold for becoming self-employed and engaging in entrepreneurship. Regular paid employment is being challenged by self-employment, the social economy and other new forms of work.

Technological changes do not happen by themselves, but involve national policy makers and social partners having their say on developments. Our employment, education and social policies – must strengthen growth potential in a coherent way without increasing inequality and insecurity in the labour market. We should take advantage of the opportunities offered by new technologies, while also making sure that no one is left behind. Social justice and decent work must be promoted.

The current labour and social security legislation should be updated to better respond to the requirements of the new forms of work. Our education and vocational training policies should also be adapted to the changing needs of employers and employees. Although anticipation of future changes has become more difficult, it is at the same time more and more crucial for the successful planning of government interventions.

Gender equality and non-discrimination belong at the very core of the ILO Decent Work Agenda. ILO Convention No. 100 on Equal Remuneration and Convention No. 111 on Discrimination have played a decisive role in helping Member States, including the EU members, to promote equal opportunities at work, including equal pay for work of equal value.

For example, separate pay scales for women and men have not been included in Finnish collective agreements since 1963, when Finland ratified the ILO's Equal Remuneration Convention.

Gender equality and non-discrimination at work present huge global challenges. They are topics where the ILO's work can make a real difference. Within the UN system the ILO – as a tripartite organisation whose actions also have an impact on collective agreements and other negotiations between social partners – has a unique opportunity to promote equality at the workplace level.

Gender equality must also be promoted in the field in good cooperation with other UN agencies and actors. The working conditions of textile and garment workers in Bangladesh, most of them women, have generated worldwide concern, in particular since the collapse of the Rana Plaza building, causing the deaths of more than 1,100 workers.

This conference will give us an opportunity to learn about the ILO's activities in protecting the lives, health and decent working conditions of the textile workers.

Ladies and Gentlemen, I wish you all a fruitful conference!

2. Future of work: emerging trends and policy issues¹

Raymond Torres, Director of the ILO Research Department ILO, Geneva

2.1 Introduction

The global crisis that erupted in 2008 in the aftermath of the collapse of Lehman Brothers has caused a major shock to labour markets.² The world is still facing a legacy of job losses, precariousness and unstable conditions for many enterprises.

However, the world of work is experiencing significant structural changes that go deeper than the legacy of the global crisis. In particular, new production patterns have come about through globalisation.³ More and more sectors, including services sectors, compete internationally, while a growing number of countries are opening their markets to trade, investment and capital flows. As a result, the proportion of workers participating in the world economy has more than doubled over the past two decades. Increasingly, production is organised through global value chains. In addition, the role of finance has grown, significantly affecting the real economy, productive investment and income distribution.⁴

More fundamentally, new technology modifies habitual work environments at a rapid pace. As automation and innovation continue to gather momentum in everyday services and manufacturing, a new industrial revolution, one underpinned by microchips and robotics, appears to be around the corner. New technology has also resulted in a fragmentation of production processes, leading to outsourcing of a

¹ A preliminary version of this paper was presented at the Nordic Council Conference on the Future of Work in Helsinki (September 2016) and the Global Forum jointly organised by KRIVET and Korea Economic Daily in Seoul (November 2016).

² See R. Torres, (2010) and (2012).

³ UNCTAD (2013) estimates that 80% of global trade is linked to the global supply chains of TNCs. ILO (2015).

⁴ Favereau (2016); ILO (2008).

growing range of tasks and jobs, both within countries and between them.⁵ One consequence is that ongoing trends related to changes in enterprise structure have in many cases accelerated. The greening of the economy may also generate a new wave of technological change. However, failure to tackle climate change effectively may lead to significant economic disruption accompanied by output and employment losses. Such developments may bring significant productivity gains, wealth creation and job opportunities, but not necessarily for all.

Taken together, these changes may result in a transformation of the workplace of unprecedented proportions. The purpose of this paper is to offer issues for discussion concerning the nature of these changes, the possible factors at work and the policy relevance of emerging patterns.

2.2 Is the deceleration of employment growth permanent?

Global employment growth has stalled at a rate of less than 1.3% per year since 2011. This compares favourably to the crisis period (2008–2010) when employment growth averaged only 0.9%, but remains significantly below the 1.7% annual rate achieved in 2000–2007. Some analysts argue that the deceleration of employment growth may intensify, reflecting the effects of the ongoing wave of new technology. Robots and automated processes would replace jobs at an accelerated pace. This negative impact would outweigh the positive employment effects associated with the production and use of robots and automated processes.⁶

It is also argued that this trend may reflect a deceleration of long-term economic growth – the advent of “secular stagnation”, i.e. a situation of subdued economic performance in which conventional macroeconomic policies are unable to restore full employment. In the wake of the financial crisis, global economic projections have repeatedly fallen short of expectations. The evolution of IMF growth projections for 2016 is enlightening in this regard. In 2012, the IMF projected that global economic growth

⁵ World Economic Forum (2016).

⁶ While Keynes predicted “technological unemployment” due to the discovery of new ways to perform work outrunning the pace at which new uses for labour can be found, some scholars have proposed computer-controlled equipment as one possible explanation for jobless growth. See Frey and Osborne (2013).

would reach 4.5% in 2016. Ever since, growth projections have been continuously revised downwards, and in October the estimate is for a mere 3.1% (Table 1).

Table 1: Global GDP growth in 2016 as projected by the IMF, in%

2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
4,5	4,1	4,0	3,6	3,1

Note: 2016 growth projections by the IMF.

Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook.

The trends and implications differ significantly across countries. In advanced economies, the recent slowdown in economic growth is compounding long-term trends of economic deceleration. This performance is linked with fundamental changes in demographic and economic trends – including ageing populations and changing occupational demands – that have already been reflected in a structural slowdown in economic growth and may contribute to secular stagnation.

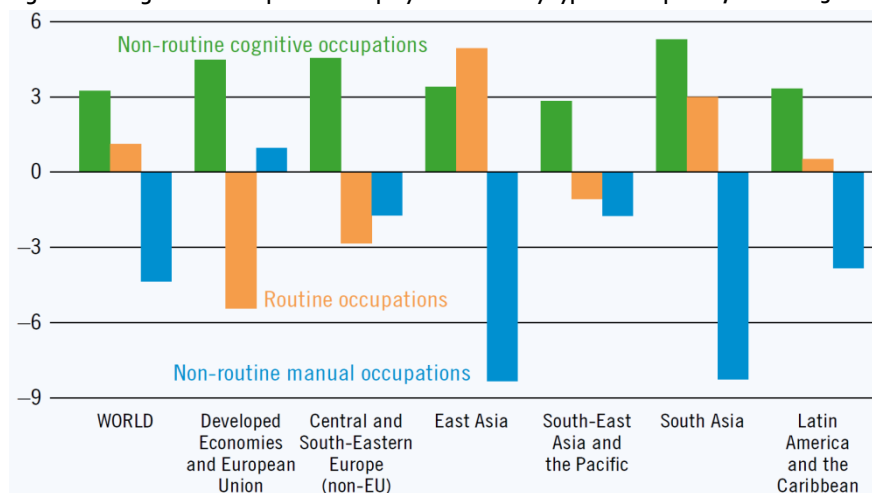
Many developing and emerging countries are now catching up with advanced economies, and their economic growth rates have increased remarkably over the last few decades – from an average of 3.5% in the 1980s to 6.1% in the 2000s. This has resulted in a significant decline in poverty rates and improvements in labour markets. However, substantial differences emerge across regions. In particular, while many developing countries appear to have achieved a durable “virtuous circle” of growth, investment, income growth and development that enables them to catch up with already industrialised countries, there remains a significant question mark about the capacity of several of the world’s poorest countries, generally least developed countries, to reach that sustainable take-off point.

Moreover, the challenges facing many developing and emerging economies relate to the ability to boost a diversified productive capacity that limits the economy’s vulnerability to external shocks (e.g. exports and oil prices), while also delivering better employment and decent work outcomes.

These developments have muted any sense of optimism over a return to pre-crisis labour market performance. This – together with the reduced employment content of economic growth in both advanced economies and low-income countries– may complicate the task of creating enough jobs for the 40 million people entering the labour market every year.

Importantly, the occupational profile of jobs is changing (Figure 1). In advanced economies, the demand for occupations that are skill-intensive and can be replaced by automated processes is falling. The role of technology has also changed the nature of the tasks performed by people. Non-routine tasks and face-to-face jobs are on the rise. By contrast, certain tasks and jobs can be routinised and thus replaced by digital processes.

Figure 1: Change in the occupational employment share by type of occupation, 2000–2013



Source: ILO (2015a) World Employment and Social Outlook – Trends, January 2015.

2.3 Is the employment relationship changing in a fundamental way and what is the impact on income distribution?

The effects of economic transformations under way go beyond their impact on the volume of employment. New forms of work are spreading and represent an increasing share of the global labour force, possibly signalling a fundamental departure from the typical employment relationship (Figure 2).

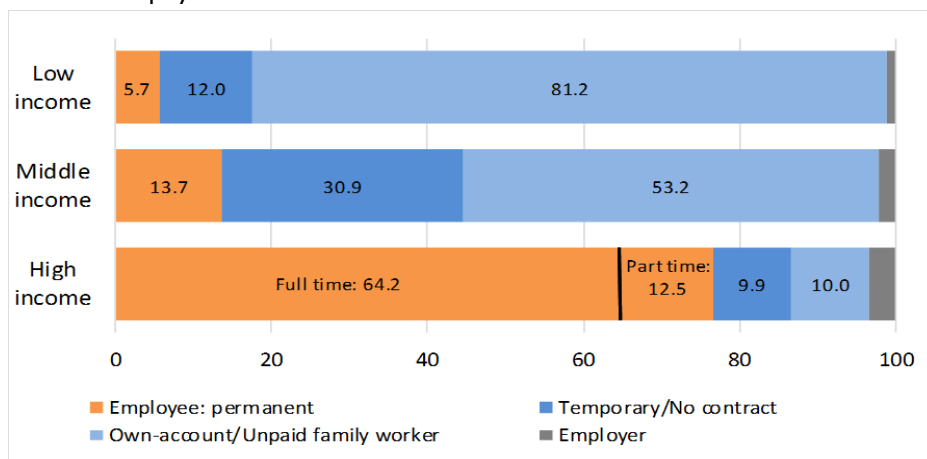
First, the trend increase in the proportion of wage and salary employment in total employment has stalled. In a number of advanced economies such as the United Kingdom and the United States, the incidence of wage and salary employment has declined. This means that a growing number of workers who in the past would have been employed in enterprises as wage earners are now working for themselves.

In developing economies, the trend rise in the incidence of wage and salary employment has, on average, slowed down significantly (notably in BRICs). In emerging economies, wage and salary employment represents, on average, 59% of total employment, while in low-income developing countries the figure is as low as 28%.

Second, changes are also taking place in the dependent employment relationship, which is becoming less and less stable. This is a multifaceted phenomenon. In particular, the incidence of temporary employment has increased in most advanced economies over the past decade.⁷ Likewise, working time patterns have become more diverse, with growing part-time work and telework, for example. In emerging and developing economies, informal employment and undeclared work remain the norm.⁸

Third, a trend towards a smaller average size of enterprises is evident. This may reflect the wider reach of outsourcing practices and the fact that, as noted earlier, production can be divided into different tasks performed in different workplaces. The advent of an “artisan economy”, as first documented by Larry Katz, is a case in point. Likewise, crowd-working is on the rise, effectively connecting clients with individual providers without transiting through a structured enterprise.

Figure 2: Employment by status for low – middle – and high-income countries, latest available year, in% of total employment



Source: ILO (2015b) World Employment and Social Outlook 2015: The Changing Nature of Jobs.

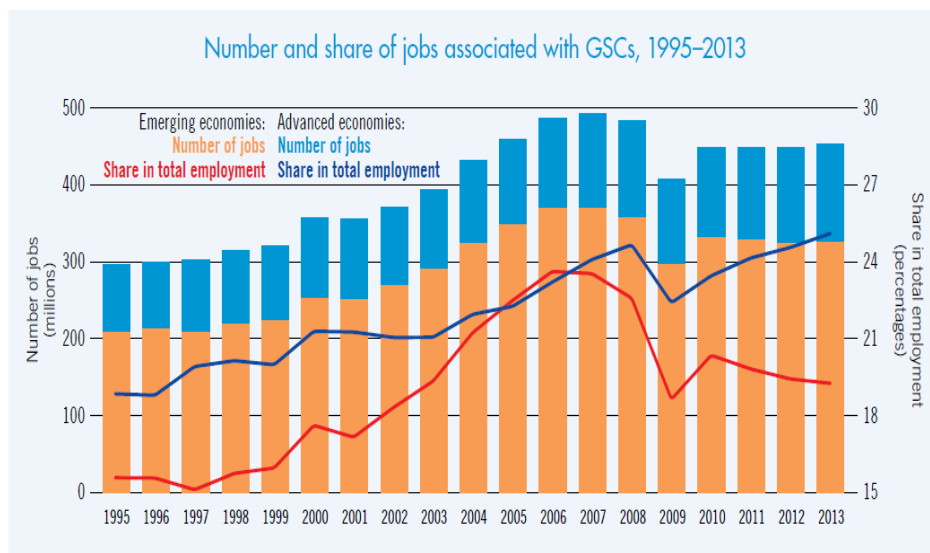
⁷ Eurofound (2013).

⁸ ILO (2014a).

Among the different causes of diversified work patterns, evidence points to the growing role of technology in shifting labour demand away from traditional employment relationships (full-time life-long work).⁹ The fragmentation of production along global supply chains is a key underlying factor (Figure 3).

These developments are redefining the traditional understanding of the employment relationship and make it difficult for labour market institutions to guarantee adequate levels of coverage and protection for these different forms of work. For example, in many countries, existing systems of social protection do not (fully) cover workers with non-standard forms of employment. Moreover, even when the legislation guarantees social security to non-standard employees, the level of de facto coverage is reportedly lower than for workers with standard employment contracts.¹⁰

Figure 3: More workers in jobs linked to global supply chains



Note: Data for 40 countries (66% of the global labour force).

Source: ILO Research Department, based on data on 40 countries representing two thirds of the global labour force.

⁹ Frey and Osborne (2013).

¹⁰ ILO (2015b).

Associated with the high incidence of informal employment, working poverty is another issue affecting employment quality for a significant share of the employed population in developing and emerging economies.¹¹ In 2014, 28% of the employed population in developing countries (equal to almost 760 million workers) were living below the USD 2 per day poverty threshold.

The global crisis was preceded by a long period of increasing income inequality in advanced countries and, by contrast, declining income inequality in most emerging and developing economies. Between 2000 and 2007, the Gini index, which measures the extent to which the distribution of income among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution, increased by 1.5, 1.3 and 0.3 percentage points in the United States, the EU-15 and Canada.

Income inequality developments in emerging and developing economies are less clear-cut. In particular, the middle class is expanding, but in these countries the top income earners tend to become richer, similar to what has been observed in advanced economies.

A key issue is whether changes in the world of work are responsible for widening inequalities. Since the onset of the crisis, wage growth has decelerated sharply in most countries. In fact, according to the Global Wage Report 2014/15, global wage growth in 2013 stood at 2%, compared with 2.2% in the previous year and 3% in 2007.¹² It is expected that these growing trends in wage moderation will have a negative impact on rising inequalities.

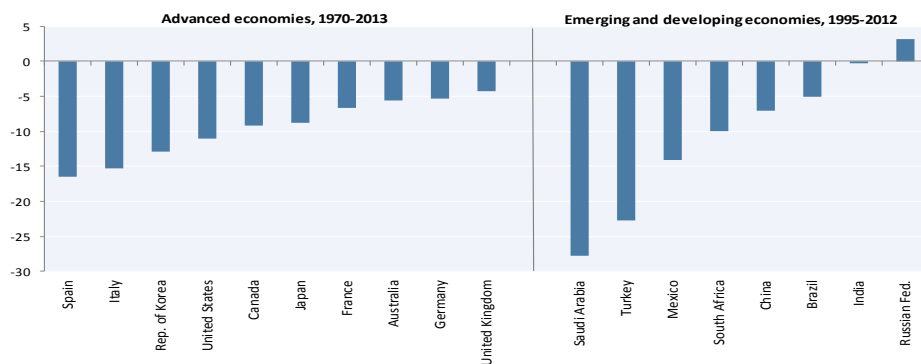
Nevertheless, wage inequalities had already widened in the period leading up to the crisis. Indeed, the wage share (i.e. the share of labour income in total income or GDP) has declined since the 1990s. This trend is consistent across advanced, emerging and developing countries (Figure 4).

¹¹ ILO (2016).

¹² ILO (2014b).

Figure 4: Change in the share of wages in GDP

Developments in the adjusted labour share among G20 countries



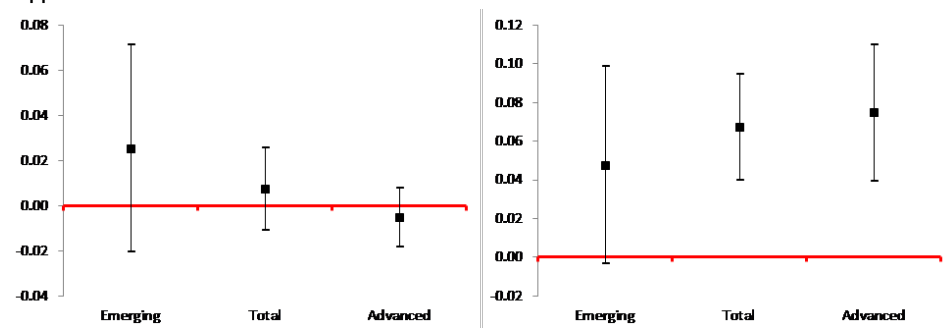
Source: ILO Global Wage Report 2014/2015.

A link can be established between falling labour shares and wider income inequalities in advanced economies. However, the relationship is more complex in emerging and developing economies, where the middle class has expanded.

In addition to inequalities between income cohorts across the disaggregated workforce, women remain severely disadvantaged at work in several respects, with little evidence of sustained and irreversible movement towards full equality. Overall, women's labour market participation rates are 26 percentage points lower than those of men; the gender pay gap remains at about 20%; women continue to suffer from segregation in low quality and undervalued jobs and to be over-represented in informal and non-standard forms of work as well as unpaid family labour.

More fundamentally, there is a link between wage developments and the fragmentation of production facilitated by new technology. Thus, while participation in global supply chains has a clear positive impact on productivity, wage earners do not benefit from this process (Figure 5).

Figure 5: Impacts of global value chains on wages (left panel) and labour productivity (right panel) of suppliers



Source: ILO Research Department.

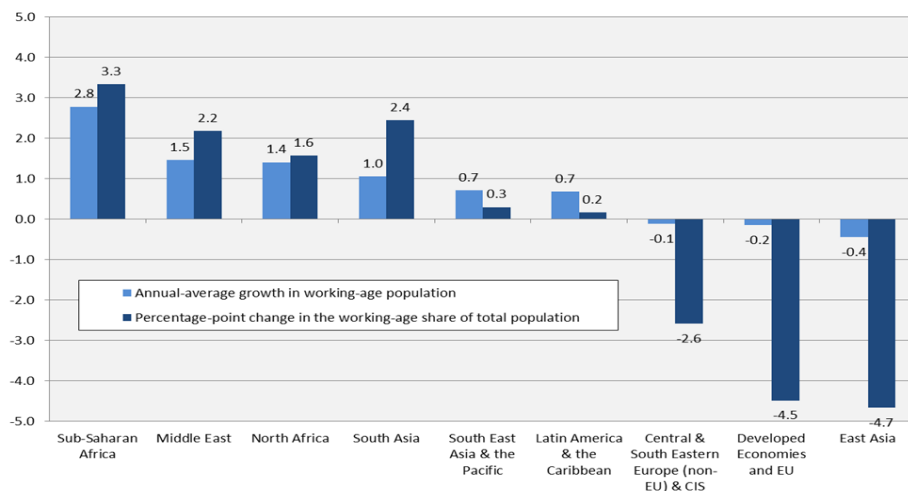
2.4 What are the key labour supply developments?

The world population is ageing: by 2040, life expectancy at birth is estimated to exceed 74 years, approximately seven years higher than at the turn of the millennium. Moreover, the global labour force is estimated to become older, on average, by around one and a half months every year. As the world population ages, there is an increasing burden on the working-age (15–64) population to support both their own families and the older generation. Indeed, as the share of the world's population aged over 65 years increases from just over 8% in 2015 to nearly 14% by 2040, an increasing number of elderly workers is expected to remain in the workforce. Nonetheless, with the global working-age share of the total population already on a downward trend, additional measures will be needed to boost labour supply.

Within this, there is considerable heterogeneity between regions in terms of the demographic profile. In sub-Saharan Africa, for instance, the working-age population as a share of the total population – a proxy measure for labour supply – is expected to continue to increase right through to the next century. In absolute numbers, sub-Saharan Africa's working-age population is set to almost double in size between 2015 and 2040. The core productive working-age population is also expected to continue to rise in South Asia, both in absolute terms and as a share of the total population (see Figure 6). The question is whether this population growth will be met with equivalent increases in

productive opportunities or whether unemployment, working poverty and vulnerable forms of work may instead lead to an exodus towards better quality employment.

Figure 6: Working-age population growth, by region, 2015–2040



Source: UN, 2013; UN-DESA, 2013; and ILO Research Department.

Meanwhile, the working-age population is expected to decrease by 0.4% per year in East Asia between 2015 and 2040, equivalent to a total drop of 4.7 percentage points as a share of the total population. Similar decreases are anticipated in developed economies and the EU, and Central and South Eastern Europe (non-EU) and CIS. These regions face a different challenge, namely whether they will be able to meet skills needs and shortages.

At present, international migration trends reflect the regions of high and low labour supply ratios, as well as increasing numbers of people migrating abroad. In 2013, for instance, of the 232 million migrants worldwide, nearly 60% resided in developed countries, representing total growth of more than 50% between 1990 and 2013. Moreover, approximately 80% of international migrants residing in developed countries in 2013 originated from developed regions. However, the forces behind international migration go far beyond a simple rebalancing of labour supply and labour demand. As shown in Figure 6, the net emigration rate is closely related to factors such as levels of social protection and working poverty, in which those with low levels of the

former and high levels of the latter are associated with higher rates of emigration. It is consistent with research that suggests international migration is mostly motivated by economic reasons, particularly a better standard of living.

This also reinforces the notion that the developing countries facing high rates of population growth, but also characterised by working poverty and vulnerable forms of work, will be less able to provide quality employment for the growth in labour supply. In addition, not all outward migration originates from countries with rapid population growth. Where migration stems from countries with ageing populations, such as China or Russia, outward migration means the remaining working-age population bears an even higher dependency burden. Nonetheless, the motivation behind migration stems from a far wider range of factors such as political conditions, families and networks, demographic pressures, and involuntary migration including for asylum and natural disasters. Incentives and channels will therefore need to be further incorporated into policy-making for both origin and destination countries in order to facilitate additional migration.

2.5 Concluding remarks

Common trends are occurring in the world of work, notably a more diversified workplace and a significant change in the employment relationship. New technology and changes in global production patterns, as well as “financialisation”, may be important factors at play. Improving understanding of how they operate is essential. Also, over the long run, climate and energy factors stand to further impact the labour market in various ways. However, patterns differ significantly across and within countries, indicating a role for domestic policies and institutions.

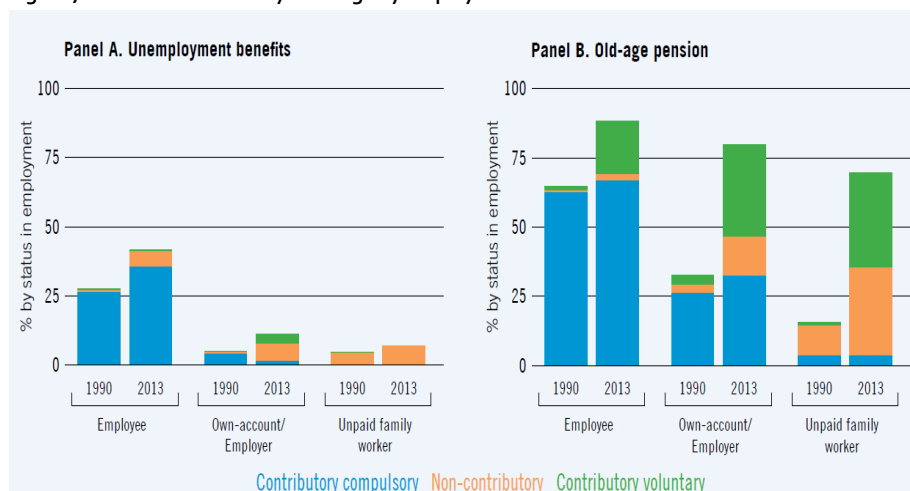
Among the key questions arising from this analysis is to what extent the changes observed in the world of work are positive for all women and men – and all developing and industrialised countries – and what policy makers can do about them. Given the diverse preliminary findings and the complexity of new technology, much more research is needed in this area to shed light on policy options.

Already, the trends suggest numerous challenges for labour regulations, social protection, enterprise creation and tripartite policy-making. Figure 7 illustrates the challenge for social protection. One approach would be to step up efforts to extend

existing protection to new forms of work. Another approach is to diversify the policy response, for example with a universal income scheme.

Similar dilemmas arise with respect to the international policy response. Global governance, including the ILO, cannot remain unaltered by the ongoing transformations in the world of work.

Figure 7: Global social security coverage by employment status



Source: ILO (2015b).

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3. Challenges and opportunities for collective bargaining – the Nordic perspective

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3.1 Introduction

At Stockholm University where I work, I sometimes teach labour law to students who are to become economists. Some of them wonder why labour lawyers speak so highly of collective bargaining and collective agreements. In their world, collective agreements are cartels, and cartels are evil.

At such occasions, I use to show them an excerpt from the Preamble of the ILO Constitution:

“Whereas also the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labour is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries”

And I tell them that this is agreed between workers, employers and governments all over the world, and that it means that there is a point where competition at the workers' expense goes too far. A point where competition between nations is no longer decent, but unfair. Also, I tell them, the same applies to competition between enterprises. Consequently, collective bargaining and collective agreements are recognised all over the world as an appropriate instrument for keeping competition with wages and other terms and conditions of work at a decent level.

This lack of understanding among young people, a lack that is not limited to aspiring economists, is a challenge in itself. Trade union density has been decreasing for decades, and more and more workers do not seem to see the good coming out of

joining a trade union to defend their interests. And there are other challenges as well, which I will come back to.

3.2 What is the Nordic perspective?

Given the differences between our industrial relations systems, one has to start by asking whether there is at all a Nordic perspective on collective bargaining.

Just to mention one example, opinions over what role the Government should play for wage formation differs between the Nordic countries. Finland, Iceland and Norway all have mechanisms for giving collective agreements (or parts of them) *erga omnes* effect, which means that they are made binding for all employers and workers in the industry or profession in question, whether they are members of the signatory organisations or not. In contrast, trade unions as well as employers' organisations in Denmark and Sweden fiercely oppose to even discussing anything but a purely "optional" collective agreement system.

Also, the climate of cooperation between trade unions and employers' organisations varies. Seen from a Swedish perspective, the confederations for employers and trade unions in Denmark seem to act very carefully to preserve the industrial relations system as such. Their relations seem more characterised by pragmatism than is the case in Sweden. In Sweden, all actors constantly speak about "defending the Swedish model", but it sometimes appears as lip service. In practice, especially the confederation for private employers go against measures aimed at furthering the application of collective agreements, most notably when it comes to public procurement.

However, notwithstanding the differences between our countries, there are also similarities that still make it relevant to speak about collective bargaining from a Nordic perspective.

First, I think it is true to say that there is a general understanding that collective bargaining is the superior means of regulating working life issues. Particularly, it is the only method of wage formation. None of the Nordic countries have a statutory minimum wage.¹³ And even if three of them have systems for making collective

¹³ Eldring and Alsos (2014).

agreements generally applicable, wages in these collective agreements are still decided by the social partners, that have a wide autonomy compared to their counterparts in other EU/EEA countries.

Obviously, this is explained by the high rates of organisation in the Nordic countries. It is true that trade union density has decreased since the 1990s, but it is still incomparably high in an international perspective.¹⁴ And when trade unions have enough strength to give the employers a match, there is little need for interventions by the government. Collective bargaining works.

Second, since the system works well, there is also a broad consensus in the Nordic countries that the EU should not be allowed to intrude on this wide collective autonomy, especially not when it comes to wage formation. There is a strong conviction that, in this field, we can manage better on our own. At the same time, this confronts the trade unions with a dilemma. Their colleagues in other member states who are less fortunate and wants the EU to step in and help them raise their standards, may perceive the Nordic approach as disloyal, if not self-righteous.

3.3 Challenges

Thus, the overall challenge from a Nordic perspective is to preserve our well-functioning collective bargaining systems – but also to develop them. If not, they will lose their significance. Examples of questions that should engage trade unions and employers in the Nordic countries today are:

- How can the new categories of workers and “employers” in the so called gig economy be organised and integrated in collective bargaining?
- How to prevent collective agreements from being undermined through bad public procurement practices?
- How to defend the Nordic apprehension of collective autonomy without resorting to self-righteousness?

¹⁴ According to OECD, trade union density was 66.8% in Denmark, 69% in Finland, 85.5% in Iceland, 52.1% in Norway and 67.7% in Sweden in 2013. OECD.stat <http://stats.oecd.org/> entered on 29 September 2016.

3.3.1 *Integrate new forms of work in collective bargaining*

First, when new phenomena, such as crowd work, appear on the labour market your first reaction often is that they should be restricted as far as possible, or even banned. However, this may not be very effective. It is hard to imagine that we could (or would) stop businesses from making use of the advantages that digitalisation offers. In the long run, it may be more effective to take a proactive approach and concentrate primarily on normalising the working conditions in the new forms of work instead of trying to marginalise the phenomenon as such.

The regulating of temporary agency work may serve as an example. Not very long ago temporary agency work was prohibited in many countries. But it existed anyways and agency workers were exploited.

In 2000, the European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC) and the two EU level employers' organisations UNICE (today BusinessEurope) and CEEP, started to negotiate with a view to reaching an agreement on temporary agency work.¹⁵ One factor that complicated the negotiations was a clash on the trade union side between national affiliates that focussed on suppressing temporary agency work as much as possible, and those whose main concern was to guarantee agency workers normal terms and conditions of work.¹⁶

The Swedish trade unions belonged to the last category, because in Sweden (as in Denmark), the agency work sector was already well integrated in collective bargaining. The trade unions had derived advantage of the work agencies' aim to be acknowledged as "normal" employers. Thus, the unions and the new employers' organisation Bemanningsföretagen had reached collective agreements according to which agency workers should as a rule have open-ended employment contracts, have wages comparable to wages in the user companies and continue to get paid between assignments. This gives the agencies incentives to care for their workers and guarantee all of them work, and to market themselves as providers of good labour instead of cheap labour.

Many new forms of work in the "gig economy" have similarities with temporary agency work, as they mean that people perform work/offer services to others through

¹⁵ Ultimately, the negotiations failed. Seven years after they broke down, EU adopted the Directive 2008/104/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 19 November 2008 on temporary agency work.

¹⁶ For a comprehensive record of the negotiations and the subsequent negotiations in the Council on a directive, see Kerstin Ahlberg, *A store of a failure – but also of success*, in Ahlberg, Bercusson, Bruun, Kountouris, Vigneau and Zappalà, (2008).

mediation by a third party. Certainly, there must be mediators among them who want to act as responsible members of society, in the same manner as many temporary work agencies do. And this ambition on their part could be the incentive for engaging in collective bargaining.

3.3.2 *Prevent bad public procurement practises from undermining collective agreements*

The ILO Convention concerning Labour Clauses in Public Contracts (No. 94) establishes the principle that public contracts should include clauses ensuring the workers' wages, hours of work and other terms and conditions at least as favourable as those established by collective agreements, arbitration awards or national laws at the place where the work is carried on. Among the Nordic countries, Denmark, Finland and Norway have ratified the Convention.

The ever increasing outsourcing of activities that were earlier performed by the state or by local authorities makes the principle contained in the Convention more relevant than ever. Competition on public contracts leads to an increased pressure on terms and conditions of work, unless procuring authorities make demands counteracting this. In Sweden, which has not ratified the Convention and where collective agreements are binding only on the signatory organisations and their members, it is not unusual that contracts are awarded to bidders who will not pay wages according to the applicable collective agreement. In some sectors, this is a rule rather than an exception.

This occasioned the Swedish Government to propose legislation that would oblige procuring authorities to include labour clauses in their contracts in certain situations.¹⁷ At the time of writing this, it appears as if the bill will not pass the Parliament, to the satisfaction of the private employers' confederation that has pursued a fervent campaign against it. It is hard to understand why a proposal aimed at furthering the application of collective agreements is called "a deathblow to the Swedish model" by an employers' organisation.¹⁸

¹⁷ Government Bill 2015/16: 196 Nytt regelverk om upphandling.

¹⁸ Svenskt Näringsliv (2015). Part of the explanation may be that the confederation does not itself conclude collective agreements on wages and general terms and conditions. These collective agreements are negotiated by the confederation's affiliates, "förbund", which tend to be more pragmatic than the confederation.

Rather, the truth is that the collective agreements in sectors like house cleaning and mobility services are severely undermined.¹⁹ Contracts are simply not awarded to enterprises bound by collective agreements. Thus, in my view, there is every reason for both trade unions and employers to defend the principle contained in ILO Convention No. 94, if they do not want the collective agreements system to be more and more insignificant.

3.4 Defend collective autonomy

Article 153.5 of the Treaty of the Functioning of the European Union (FEUF) explicitly states that EU has no competence to adopt directives on pay, the right of association, the right to strike and the right to impose lock-outs. These issues are the member states' own business. This is very important, because the regulation of pay, the right of association and the right to strike or to impose lock-outs decides the scope of collective autonomy.

3.4.1 *Country-specific recommendations on wage bargaining*

However, the exception has not prevented the EU from taking an ever increasing interest in wage formation in the member states. This interest is manifest in the so called European Semester, a procedure for coordination of the member states' economic policies. Each year, the European Commission undertakes a detailed analysis of their plans for budgetary, macroeconomic and structural reforms. On the basis of this analysis it works out draft country-specific recommendations, which often include advice on wages and wage formation, for example at what level they should be negotiated. The draft recommendations are debated and possibly modified by the EU Council and finally endorsed by the heads of state and government.

As ever in the EU context, this should be done "while respecting the autonomy of the social partners." However, as mentioned before, the meaning of the phrase differs, and "the autonomy of the social partners" is comparably wide in the Nordic countries.

¹⁹ SOU 2015:78.

Belonging to the Euro area, Finland is in a special situation, but at least for Denmark and Sweden it is unacceptable that the EU tries to tell how wages should be negotiated. Thus when, in 2012, the first round of country-specific recommendations were formulated, the Swedish Government had to convince its colleagues in the Council to delete a paragraph according to which the Government would be recommended to “encourage increased wage flexibility.”²⁰ Apparently this taught the Commission a lesson, since it has refrained from proposing similar recommendations ever since.

However again, the Commissions outline of a European Pillar of Social Rights presented in March 2016 included formulations on wage formation that sound alien for a Northerner. It read: “Minimum wages shall be set through a transparent and predictable mechanism in a way that safeguards access to employment and the motivation to seek work. Wages shall evolve in line with productivity developments, in consultation with the social partners and in accordance with national practices.”²¹

3.4.2 *A European minimum wage?*

There is another example where the Nordic approach to wage formation contrasts to that in the rest of EU/EEA. Unlike the Nordic countries, the vast majority of the other member states have statutory minimum wages, which are of great importance where collective agreements coverage is low. At the same time, the statutory minimum wage can be so low measured in terms of purchasing power and in relation to the average wage in the country in question, that it does not amount to a living wage. According to the OECD statistics for 2014 the relation between the statutory minimum wage and the average wage in EU/EEA countries varied between 32 percent (in the Czech Republic) and 50 percent (in France).²²

This has initiated a debate on the possible introduction of a European minimum wage scheme. With few exceptions on the employers’ side, both trade unions and employers organisations in the Nordic countries disfavour the idea of a statutory minimum wage in general.²³ Even more, they oppose to the introduction of a European

²⁰ K Ahlberg, (2012).

²¹ COM (2016).

²² Minimum relative to average wages of full-time workers, OECD.stat <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=MIN2AVE> entered on 29 September 2016.

²³ Eldring and Alsos (2012) and Eldring and Alsos (2014).

minimum wage scheme. However, for the trade unions the idea confronts them with a dilemma.

On the one hand, they fear that a statutory minimum wage would undermine the autonomy of the social partners and cause a downward pressure on wage levels. On the other hand, many of their colleagues in the ETUC are advocating a European minimum wage scheme that would raise the standards for the poorest workers. After a hot debate at the ETUC congress 2015, the delegates agreed on a compromise that the Nordic trade unions could accept. It means that the ETUC can engage in discussions on “a common reference for national statutory minimum wages,” but it should be applicable only in countries where trade unions want them.²⁴

In sum: Article 153.5 FEUF is still valid and the EU still has no competence to adopt legislation on pay, the right of association, the right to strike and the right to impose lock-outs. But political pressure through soft law measures like the country-specific recommendations can also be effective. Obviously, governments, employers’ organisations and trade unions in the Nordic countries have to be vigilant if they wish to preserve collective autonomy Nordic style.

3.4.3 *A framework for transnational “collective bargaining”?*

When capital can move freely across borders, trade unions need structures and procedures where they can meet employers at transnational level. Thus, ever since the beginning of the European project, academics and legal experts have tried to invent legal structures for transnational collective bargaining.²⁵ For decades, this debate took place in a vacuum. Unlike the development of collective labour law at national level – where normally a social practice of collective bargaining has come first and legislation put in place afterwards – nothing that could be characterized as transnational collective bargaining in fact existed. Those who were supposed to benefit from the legal framework did not ask for it.

Around the latest turn of the millennium, realities changed. Not that trade unions and employers’ organisations started to negotiate collective agreements over wages and other terms and conditions of employment at transnational level. But

²⁴ Paris Manifesto – Stand up in solidarity for quality jobs, workers’ rights and a fair society in Europe.

²⁵ In a forthcoming anthology with the title *Rethinking transnational collective bargaining*, the Belgian researcher Auriane Lamine has written a splendid chapter on how this idea was developed from the 1960s and onwards.

managements of multinational companies and agents representing the workers in their subsidiaries started to negotiate varying kinds of “texts” that meant to be applied throughout the whole company.

Rather than being a result of spontaneous initiatives by trade unions and employers, this development was induced by the (mandatory) establishment of bodies for information and consultation, European works councils, in Europe’s large multinationals. As a consequence, the only signatory on the workers’ side was often the European works council. However, to an ever increasing extent trade unions got involved, and something more similar to collective bargaining as we know it started to develop. The outcome was agreements dealing with topics like managing and anticipating change, health and safety, skills development, fundamental rights etc.

The European Commission soon announced that it had the ambition to submit a proposal designed to make it possible for the social partners to formalise the nature and results of transnational collective bargaining.²⁶ It imagined a framework that would be optional to apply and – once it were applied – make the parties’ agreement binding.

Eleven years later there is still no such framework in place. BusinessEurope does not want it, and it takes two to tango. However, the position of BusinessEurope is not shared by all employers.

Individual companies who have negotiated transnational company agreements recognise that there is a need for further legal clarity.²⁷

On the workers’ side, the ETUC is in favour – in principle. But again, there has been this division between member organisations, each inspired by the traditions in their own countries. While some have advocated that the provisions of a transnational company agreement should have immediate normative effect for all employment contracts in all member states where the agreement is applicable, others, for example Nordic trade unions, have feared that transnational company agreements could interfere with their autonomy and collective bargaining at national level.

A number of proposals have been put forward during the years, and step by step they have become more realistic from a Nordic point of view. On 30 September 2016 the ETUC adopted a resolution where it indicates that it will advance its demands for a legal and procedural framework for transnational company agreements. It points out

²⁶ European Commission Social Agenda 2005 – 2010, COM(2005) 33 final, 9 February 2005.

²⁷ Commission Staff Working Document “Transnational company agreements: realising the potential of the social dialogue”, SWD(2012) 264 final, p. 7.

that the framework would fully respect the autonomy of the national social partners and the national collective agreements and collective bargaining systems.²⁸

Now, this may be the ambition, but it is technically very difficult to construct such a system if it is at all possible. In any case, as long as this ambition exists the Nordic trade unions will probably serve their interests better if they engage in constructive discussions.

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²⁸ European Trade Union Confederation (2016)

4. A better future for women at work

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4.1 Introduction

What will the future of work look like? Educated guesses can be made based on trends, but there are also choices to be made in shaping the future of work. The future of work is not preordained. We have choices as individuals, families and communities. Choices are made by governments, companies, trade unions and consumers, at national, regional and international levels. All these choices will shape the future of work.

Perhaps the question should be “what do we want the future of work to look like, and how do we make that happen.” A future of work that has gender equality at its core will be a better future of work for all. As most people will spend the better part of their lives in the world of work, it is a privileged entry point to make changes in society. Our home life, work life, and life in our communities are all linked, and norms and values that permeate one part of our lives will influence the others.

4.2 ILO Centenary

In 2019, the ILO will celebrate its centenary: one hundred years of social justice, of giving workers and employers a voice, and promoting gender equality. Celebrations are also a time for reflection: at the threshold of the ILO centenary, it is a time to look back, to take stock and to look forward. In this context the ILO launched a series of centenary initiatives, including the future of work initiative and the women at work initiative.²⁹ Of course there can be no future of work without women at work, so these initiatives are

²⁹ ILO (2013).

very much linked. The future of work and the women at work initiatives are, therefore, working hand in hand to help ensure that the future will bring decent work for both women and men.

Gender equality and women's empowerment need to be at the centre of the future of work initiative. However, given the major gender gaps remaining in the world of work, and the slow progress, a specific initiative on women at work was launched to be able to examine in more depth the obstacles to decent work for women, as well as innovative solutions. This involves new research and data, new partnerships, consultations and dialogues, and advocacy, leading to direct action to be able to make a difference to real women and men on the ground.

The link between work and gender equality has been forged over the years in the Nordic region, which has the highest labour force participation of women in the world.³⁰ However, the high labour force participation did not happen organically in the region, nor will it happen organically elsewhere. It was the result of a conscious choice to have gender equal societies; a conscious choice to take what were in the 1970s, 80s and 90s innovative, brave and often controversial steps. There was a conscious choice to work together as individuals, social partners and governments, and as a region to make gender equality a reality. Through the Nordic Council of Ministers, the region has worked together for more than 40 years to promote gender equality. There is also no sense of complacency; for decades there has been a continual monitoring and challenging of policies which are often readapted to address new realities.

In the Nordic region, gender equality is not treated, as is sometimes the case elsewhere, as a lofty, "soft", aspiration. Achieving gender equality is recognized as being about addressing deeply entrenched stereotypes, and changing society. Is it about challenging assumptions about gender roles and responsibilities, and how this manifests itself, among other things, in terms of jobs and job quality.

³⁰ Nordic Statistics (2016).

4.3 Women at Work

The women at work centenary initiative aims to go “beyond business as usual”, and to challenge assumptions with respect to what women want in the world of work and why they are not achieving their aspirations. Challenging assumptions has been key to each stage of the work of the initiative.

As a first step, it was important to hear the voices of women and men. The ILO, therefore, partnered with Gallup to conduct a poll with a view to having a sound, first hand understanding of what women want and need in the world of work.³¹ New questions have been added to Gallup’s World Poll as part of the women at work centenary initiative. A joint Gallup-ILO report will be launched in March 2017 which no doubt will further challenge assumptions about women and the world of work. However, existing Gallup data already challenges a number of stubborn assumptions. One of the most important discoveries Gallup has ever made coming out of the World Poll is that what the whole world wants is a good job – men and women, across the globe. And they want their children to have a good job.³²

While everyone wants a good job, women are losing out. Despite progress in education, maternal mortality, despite laws, policies and programmes, despite international commitments, the world has fallen short in bringing jobs – both in terms of quality and quantity – to women in line with those of men. Women continue to have fewer jobs than men, they work in a more limited range of jobs, often reflecting gender stereotypes, jobs tend to be lower paid, have poor working conditions, and there is less scope for collective voice. More needs to be done to deliver on decent work for women as the ILO approaches its centenary.

4.4 Trends

Before looking at the future, it is important to look at the past. Therefore, a first step in the women at work initiative was to take stock: to know where women stand today and how they have progressed in the world of work over the past 20 years, in terms of both the quantity and quality of jobs.

³¹ http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS_426000/lang--en/index.htm

³² Clifton (2011).

The Women at Work: Trends report,³³ released in March 2016, provides this snapshot, and shows that the labour market looks very different for women and men. As emphasized in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, it is crucial to have sex disaggregated statistics.³⁴ Examining only aggregate figures does not provide a full or an accurate picture, which then limits the ability to design appropriate responses. The Women at Work: Trends report evidences how little has changed for women at work in the last twenty years, despite common assumptions that there have been considerable improvements.

There is a significant employment gender gap. Nearly 1.3 billion women are employed compared to 2 billion men. In 20 years the global employment gender gap has closed by only 0.6%. Progress in getting women into jobs has essentially flat lined. Women are also more likely to be unemployed, with particularly worrying trends for young women. Even when women are in employment, they are more likely to be in low-paid jobs and in informal arrangements. They are more likely to be contributing family workers (to work in a family enterprise) than men.

The wage gap remains wide, with globally women still earning approximately 23% less than men. There is also no correlation between economic development and gender wage gaps: even where there are economic gains, women are not getting their fair share. The gender wage gap also directly contributes to income inequality.³⁵

There is also a paid and unpaid hours' gap. Women are more likely to work shorter hours for pay but longer hours per day than men. Women perform at least two and a half times more household and care work than men, which severely impacts on their ability to work in paid, formal work. While women represent 40% of total employment, they make up 57% of those working shorter hours and part-time. Over the last decade, marginal part-time employment has become a more common form of non-standard work, with short hours of less than 15 hours a week. Hours in marginal part-time employment can be unpredictable and insecure. Women are more likely than men to be in marginal part-time work. The long hours of men in paid employment also impact on household and care work: more than one third of employed men (compared to 25.7% of women) work more than 48 hours per week. Even in the Nordic region, while

³³ ILO (2016). The trends and data set out in the section are from this report, unless otherwise stated.

³⁴ United Nations (2015).

³⁵ IMF (2015).

the situation is better than in many other regions, women still spend more time on caring responsibilities than men.³⁶

Another common assumption is that women are increasingly entering male-dominated fields; however, there remains a significant occupational segregation gap. In all parts of the world, women remain over-represented in the lowest paid occupations, and are concentrated in specific sectors, including health, education and retail trade sectors. Occupational segregation has increased in some areas in the last twenty years, not decreased.

The cumulative disadvantage faced by women in the labour market – lower levels of employment, lower wages, lower access to labour-based social protection – has a significant impact in later years on social protection coverage. Two hundred million women are living without any regular income in old age, compared to 115 million men. The lack of equality in the world of work, means increasing poverty for women in old age.

In the face of such slow progress in closing gender gaps in the world of work, there is a compelling need to go beyond “business as usual” if the future is to bring any real improvement for women in the world of work.

4.5 The case for decent work for women

Gender equality and women’s economic empowerment are closely related to access to decent work. To succeed and advance economically and to be able to make and act on economic decisions is at the heart of economic empowerment, and it is difficult to imagine being able to succeed economically without decent work.

There is a strong rights case for gender equality. With the adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the international community has resoundingly acknowledged that gender equality and women’s economic empowerment are essential for sustainable development, as is decent work. There are a range of highly ratified international treaties acknowledging gender equality as a fundamental right, including the ILO’s Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), as well as the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979).

³⁶ Nordic Statistics (2016).

Decent work is also linked to increased life ratings for women. As indicated above, there is evidence that what the whole world wants, men and women, is a good job. A recent Gallup study also looks at how women and men rate their lives, and how this relates to full-time jobs.³⁷ Gallup classifies people as “thriving”, “struggling” or “suffering” according to how they rate their lives. Women, more than men, are more likely to consider themselves thriving when they are working full time for an employer, and this is whether or not they have children in the home.

The strong business rationale for gender equality in the world of work has been evidenced time and again,³⁸ as has the strong economic rationale. In a recent McKinsey study it was found that if women participated in the economy at a level identical to men, it would add up to 28 trillion dollars, or 26% of annual gross GDP in 2025.³⁹ This is roughly equivalent to the combined US and Chinese economies today.

While there is more and more evidence that closing the gender gaps in the world of work is good for individuals, good for business and good for economies, these gaps are still not closing, or are closing at a glacial rate, in most parts of the world.

4.6 Moving towards transformative change: Decent work and care

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is about transformation, which does not come about by tentative incremental changes. Transformation in the world of work will require policies and measures that fundamentally challenge and change assumptions, in particular regarding gender roles and responsibilities. One of the most pervasive assumptions in all societies is that childcare, and other family care responsibilities, should be the main responsibility of women. This has a number of major implications. First, care responsibilities, in particular childcare, are a major obstacle to women accessing and progressing in work. Study after study shows that work-family balance is the top work-related issue for women.⁴⁰ Second, care workers are low paid, and the work is undervalued, as skills required are overlooked, as they are

³⁷ <http://www.gallup.com/opinion/gallup/189854/women-life-ratings-better-full-time-jobs.aspx>.

³⁸ ILOb (2015).

³⁹ McKinsey Global Institute (2015).

⁴⁰ Ipsos MORI (2015) and (ILO 2015c) KOLAKOLA

often regarded as “natural” female characteristics.⁴¹ Third, men need to be encouraged to take their share of unpaid care work, and the future of work needs to allow men to take on, and benefit, from this role.

In order to have a better future of work for women, there needs to be an ecosystem of initiatives. The Nordic countries have redefined the “breadwinner” and “homemaker” model, and have sought to address this “missing link” of care with a view to supporting decent work for women. The future of work needs to address the unresolved tensions between care and work if it is to give rise to more jobs and better quality jobs for women and men.

Unpaid household and care responsibilities fall disproportionately on women. There is a role for men, for employers, and for governments in addressing this imbalance. Public spending on work-family policies can have a significant impact in this regard. A study of OECD countries examines the relationship between total government family policy spending and the rates of women’s employment, and shows a correlation between higher public spending and higher female employment.⁴² In most countries, public spending is concentrated in the form of family allowances. In others, including Iceland, Norway and Sweden, where there is a high female employment rate, a significant share of public spending on work-family policies is dedicated to early childhood care and education.

Decent care jobs could be the future of work. The demand for the care professions is already high, but will increase. With an increasingly ageing population in many countries, and a growing population entering childbearing age in others, the demand for care will grow. The number of older people who need support for activities in daily lives in developing countries is expected to quadruple by 2050. In 2012 there were 810 million persons 60 or over, or 11.5% of the population. By 2050, this is expected to reach 2 billion.⁴³

There are not enough jobs to go around, and with investments in care, new jobs could be created. A recent study by the International Trade Union Confederation shows that if 2% of GDP was invested in the care industry, overall employment would increase by 2.4 to 6.1%. A similar investment in construction would generate only half as many

⁴¹ Oelz, Olney, Tomei (2013).

⁴² ILO calculations based on OECD: Stat Extracts, 2011; OECD Family Database (cited in ILO: Women at Work: Trends, 2016).

⁴³ ILO (2013) and ILO (2016).

new jobs.⁴⁴ It is estimated that in the US this would lead to 13 million new jobs, many of which would be taken up by women (59–70%). Such investment could address both the care crisis and gender inequality.

4.7 Conclusion

As part of the women at work centenary initiative, dialogues will be undertaken to examine experiences around the globe and elicit cutting-edge thinking on innovative and effective approaches to overcoming obstacles to decent work for women. The first Global Gender Dialogue will take place in the Nordic region which has made enormous strides in addressing issues of gender equality, including with respect to women in business and management, and balancing work and family responsibilities for both men and women.

Embedding gender issues in the future of work conversations is essential, as has been done in the conference hosted by the Nordic Council of Ministers. Having specific gender dialogues will help to deepen the conversation and examine specific issues, with a view to furthering decent work for women. The Global Gender Dialogue organized with the Nordic Council of Ministers will involve an exchange between Nordic experts and experts from other regions, as the Nordic countries have much to offer to address global challenges to decent work for women.

To ensure a better future of work for all women and men, and for the next generations, the choices that are made now will be crucial. And courageous choices and actions will be needed. A future of work which purposefully and boldly embraces gender equality will be a better future of work for women, for men, and for our societies.

⁴⁴ ITUC (2016).

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5. The future of work: challenges for men and women

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5.1 Introduction

Many important issues about the future of work are linked to occupational restructuring. In this article, I describe occupational restructuring, the driving forces behind it, and how it may affect men and women.

5.2 Occupational restructuring

Occupational restructuring is one of the most important labour market developments. International empirical evidence has firmly established that occupational structures have changed markedly in developed countries over the last 20 years.⁴⁵ This occupational restructuring has been characterised by job polarisation: employment has increased in low-paying and high-paying occupations, while declining in middle-paying occupations.⁴⁶ This phenomenon has also shaped the Finnish labour market significantly.⁴⁷

Figure 8 shows how occupational structures changed in the Finnish private sector in 1995–2008. The employment share of managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals, and service and sales workers has increased, while the

⁴⁵ Goos *et al.* (2014).

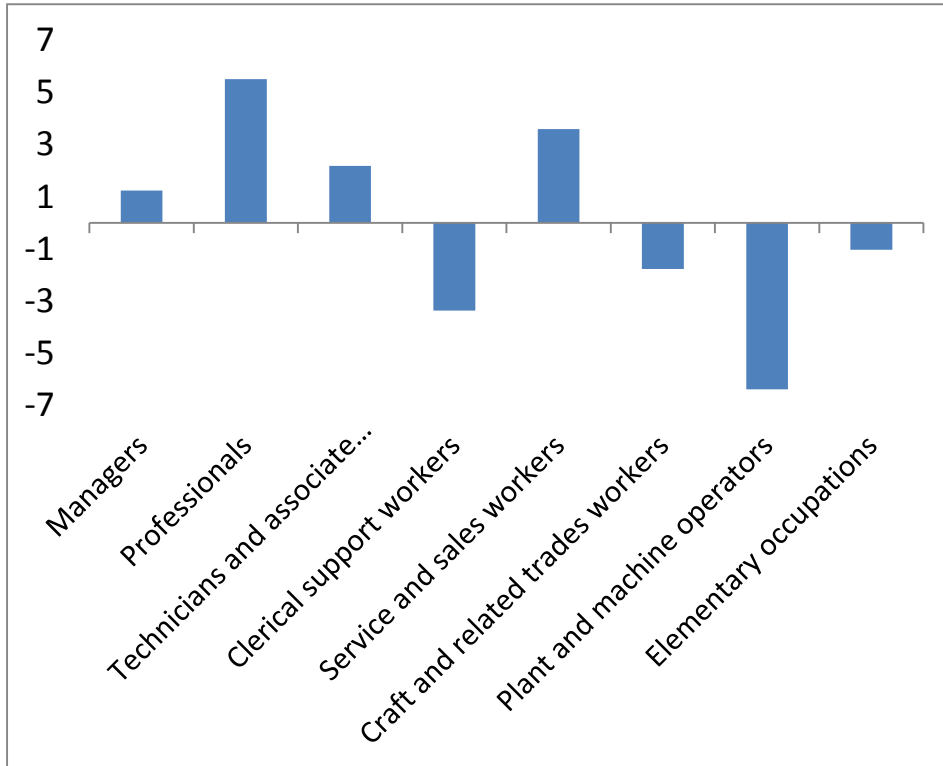
⁴⁶ Goos & Manning (2007), Acemoglu and Autor (2011), Goos *et al.* (2014).

⁴⁷ Asplund *et al.* (2012), Mitrunen (2013), Böckerman & Vainiomäki (2014).

employment share of clerical support workers, craft and related trade workers, plant and machine operators, and elementary occupations has declined.

Many of the declining occupations have been in the middle of the wage distribution, whereas the occupations that have increased their employment share can be found at both ends of the wage distribution.

Figure 8: Change in the employment share of occupations in Finland, 1995–2008 (percentage points)



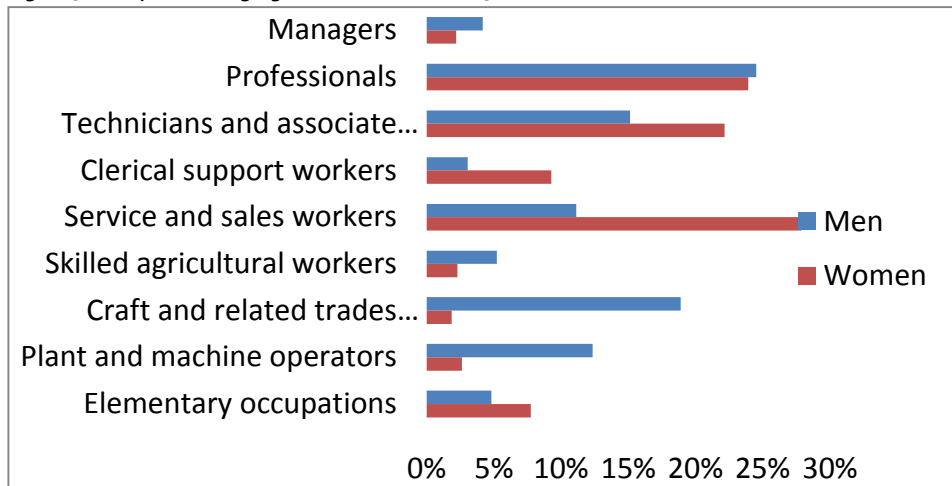
Source: Kauhanen and Lilja (2014).

Occupational restructuring may affect men and women differently due to occupational gender segregation.⁴⁸ Figure 9 shows the extent of occupational gender segregation in the Finnish private sector in 2015. As can be seen, men more commonly hold

⁴⁸ e.g. Goos and Manning 2007, Dwyer (2013).

managerial positions and traditional blue-collar jobs as craft and related trade workers and plant and machine operators for example, whereas women are more commonly employed in service and sales positions. Professional occupations are the most equal in terms of gender.

Figure 9: Occupational segregation in Finland in 2015



Source: Labor Force Survey, Statistics Finland.

To understand how occupational restructuring may affect men and women differently, we need to understand the drivers of occupational restructuring. We turn to this question next.

5.3 Drivers of occupational restructuring

There are two main drivers of occupational restructuring. First, technological change has enabled the automation of routine-intensive jobs while increasing productivity in non-routine tasks.⁴⁹ Second, many clerical and blue-collar manufacturing jobs have been offshored.⁵⁰ We will now take a more detailed look at these drivers.

5.3.1 ICT and robotics

ICT and robotics have very different implications for different tasks. The following classification of tasks helps in analysing the effects of these technologies:⁵¹

- Expert thinking. These tasks deal with problems that do not have rules-based solutions. In other words, these tasks require creative problem-solving. Most tasks in professional occupations fall into this category.
- Complex communication. These tasks require interpersonal communication to acquire or transmit information or encourage others to act based on the information. Many tasks in sales and management occupations belong to this category.
- Cognitive routine tasks. These are mental tasks that can be described using rules-based logic. Many simple clerical tasks, such as billing and approving applications, belong to this group.
- Manual routine tasks. These are physical tasks that can be described using rigid rules. Many product assembly tasks belong to this category.
- Manual non-routine tasks. These are physical tasks that require fine-motor skills and perception, such as cleaning buildings and driving a car in the city.

⁴⁹ Acemoglu & Autor (2011), Autor & Price (2013), Autor & Dorn (2013), Autor (2014), Goos *et al.* (2014).

⁵⁰ Blinder & Krueger (2009), Goos *et al.* (2014).

⁵¹ Autor *et al.* (2003), Levy & Murnane (2004).

ICT and robotics affect these tasks very differently. Computers are useful for tasks that can be described in deterministic rules, that is, programs. This means, for example, that cognitive routine tasks can be completely automated. The same applies to manual routine tasks.

Occupations involving a great deal of expert thinking and complex communication are harder to automate using the currently available technology. However, computers increase productivity in these occupations enormously by making more information available and enhancing the ability to analyse and communicate that information. Moreover, recent advances in artificial intelligence mean that, in the future, some of these tasks may also be automated.⁵²

Manual non-routine tasks are least affected by advances in technology. They cannot be automated, nor does technology increase productivity in these tasks. However, this is bound to change in the future, as technological progress will see many of these tasks become routine manual tasks; robotic cleaning, for example, will be a likely future scenario.

The impact of technological progress on occupational restructuring can be seen in Figure 8. The occupations that have declined involve a high proportion of routine tasks. Many of the tasks in the traditional blue-collar occupations are manual routine tasks, and clerical support workers mainly perform routine cognitive tasks. The increase in the employment share of professionals and managers reflects the same underlying forces. Technological change has increased productivity in expert thinking and complex communication, which has increased the demand for professionals and managers.

The threat of computerisation is smaller for highly educated individuals and those in the public sector. This is because the tasks performed by the highly educated fall mainly into the first two categories above, and there are fewer routine tasks in the public sector than in the private sector. One reason for this is the importance of health care and education in public sector employment.

⁵² Brynjolfsson & McAfee (2014).

5.3.2 Offshoring

Technological progress and the liberalisation of international trade have led to an increase in trade in tasks.⁵³ The costs associated with global operations have decreased significantly, which has led firms to globalise their value chains. Thus, many organisations globally source the tasks that their operations require. Tasks such as management, finance, R&D, production, and sales can be performed in different locations across the globe.

Some tasks are easier to offshore than others. Goos *et al.*⁵⁴ classified occupations based on how easy they are to offshore. Their classification shows that more easily offshorable occupations include clerical support workers, craft and related trade workers, and plant and machine operators. Occupations that are harder to offshore include managers, professionals, and service and sales workers. These results are in line with the pattern evident in Figure 8.

Technological progress will allow a larger share of occupations to be offshored in the future.

5.4 The future of occupational restructuring

The driving forces behind occupational restructuring will continue to operate in the future. The development of ICT, robotics, and artificial intelligence means that more and more tasks will be “routine”. Machines are able to replace human labour in a wide range of tasks. Similarly, technological progress will make offshoring various tasks more profitable. Occupational restructuring is likely to continue over the next 10 years.

However, advances in automation will not mean the end of work. Technological progress creates new tasks and jobs, and in many cases these new jobs are beyond our imagination. Thirty years ago, for example, web designers did not exist, so even imagining that kind of job was virtually impossible.

⁵³ Baldwin (2006).

⁵⁴ Goos *et al.* (2010).

5.4.1 Occupational restructuring – men and women

Technological change and offshoring may affect men and women differently through occupational restructuring. Until now, occupational restructuring has affected men and women in similar ways. Automation and offshoring have reduced the demand for labour in both male-dominated occupations (e.g., blue-collar manufacturing workers) and female-dominated occupations (e.g., clerical support workers). Similarly, employment is increasing in both male- and female-dominated occupations.

Recent Finnish research shows that labour market restructuring has had a small positive impact on the gender pay gap. Kauhanen and Maliranta⁵⁵ showed that in the Finnish private sector, labour market restructuring has increased the wages of women more than those of men, although the impact has been modest. They also emphasised that the effects of restructuring are complex and dependent on the sector and time period. Thus, it is difficult to forecast how labour market restructuring will affect men and women in the future. On the one hand, automation is less of a threat to employment in the public sector, where the majority of employees are women. Women also have a higher level of education than men, making them less susceptible to computerisation. On the other hand, there are indications that employment in the science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) fields will increase in the future. In light of the current educational segregation, this will favour the employment of men.

5.4.2 Restructuring and segregation

The long-term effects of occupational restructuring on gender equality in the labour market largely depend on the impact of restructuring on occupational segregation. Occupational restructuring is set to continue, requiring many people already in the labour market to change their occupations. In addition, new generations will enter a very different labour market in terms of occupational employment opportunities.

These changes open up possibilities for reduced occupational gender segregation. People who need to seek a new occupation may want to consider positions traditionally dominated by the other gender if employment prospects are better in such occupations. Similarly, people entering the labour market for the first time may want to cross traditional boundaries due to the employment opportunities available to them;

⁵⁵ Kauhanen & Maliranta (2015).

there may be fewer opportunities in the traditional fields and more opportunities in the non-traditional fields. Crossing traditional boundaries may be helped by changes in occupational tasks. For example, the growing use of technology in healthcare jobs may lower the barrier for men to enter these traditionally female-dominated occupations. Technological developments may also make it easier to combine work and family life, which may reduce gender disparities within occupations and also help women to enter occupations where they have traditionally been underrepresented.⁵⁶

5.4.3 *The future demand for skills*

Occupational restructuring challenges the skills of both men and women in the labour market. Automation means that the demand for both cognitive and manual routine skills will diminish. People with these skills will have to acquire new skills that are rewarded in the labour market. On the other hand, the demand for abstract tasks will increase. This may be especially true for skills in the STEM fields. The rapid development of technology means that the demand for different types of skills will evolve even more quickly.

The acquisition, maintenance and renewal of skills will be critical for both men and women in the future labour markets. This is an important challenge for our education system; we need a flexible adult education system that enables people to develop their skills throughout their working lives.

5.5 Conclusion

Occupational restructuring is one of the most important labour market developments. This restructuring has been characterised by job polarisation: employment has increased in low-paying occupations and high-paying occupations, while declining in middle-paying occupations. Occupational restructuring is driven by technological progress and offshoring.

Occupational restructuring may affect men and women differently because of occupational gender segregation. To date, occupational restructuring has affected men

⁵⁶ Goldin (2014).

and women in similar ways. The long-term effects of occupational restructuring on gender equality in the labour market largely depend on the impact of restructuring on occupational segregation. If restructuring helps to reduce occupational segregation, it will improve gender equality in the labour market. In any case, labour market restructuring challenges the skills of both men and women and poses a significant challenge for our education system.

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6. Which policy measures could best mitigate gender inequality gaps in future labour markets?

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6.1 Introduction

Gender equality is an important characteristic of the Nordic model. It is often discussed as a matter of morality and justice, but it is also a matter of economy and economic growth. If we had not succeeded in increasing the number of women in the labour force since the 1970s, our Nordic societies would have looked quite different today. We would not have experienced the growth in wealth that we have seen over the last few decades or the same level of equality in income distribution for all citizens. The increase in female labour force participation has made it possible to develop and provide the free universal welfare services that are a crucial element of the Nordic welfare states and key in creating income and social equality in the Nordic societies. It has also created scope for a higher level of education among both men and women. At the same time, we have actually also witnessed a decline in the male labour supply, mostly due to an increase in the amount of time spent on education. It is hard to imagine what the Nordic societies would have been like without a large labour supply of both men and women.

Women's labour is an important factor for economic growth. If we can boost women's labour force participation, either by increasing women's employment, increasing the number of hours worked or using women's labour in a smarter way, we can increase society's wealth and create scope for welfare services. The McKinsey Global Institute has calculated that gender equality in labour markets around the world could increase global GDP by 26%. We could not, of course, accommodate such an

increase in the Nordic countries – to a large extent we have experienced that increase already.

Women's labour force participation in Nordic countries is the highest in the western world. However, there is still room to improve gender equality, and by so doing enhance wealth and our ability to meet the challenges of globalisation. Although the distribution of employment of men and women is fairly even in the Nordic countries, the labour market is still characterised by deep structural inequality that manifests itself in a remarkably persistent gender pay gap.

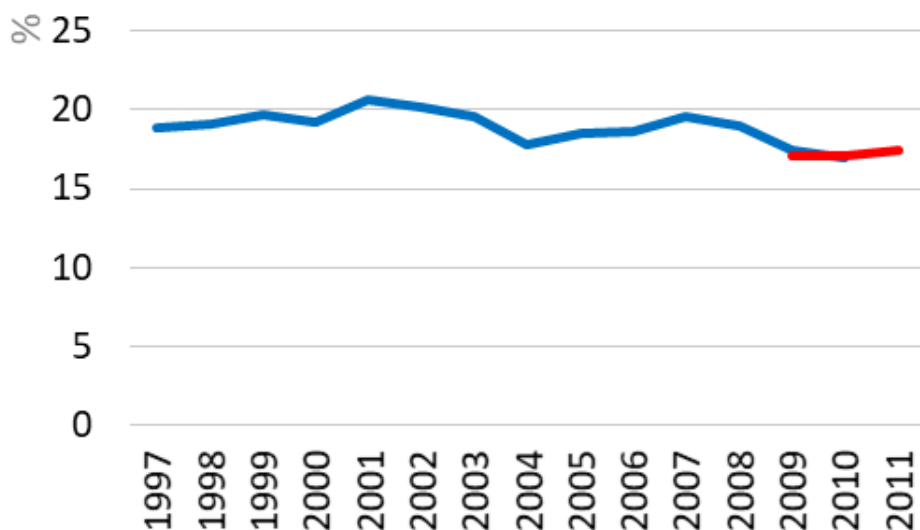
Before answering the question about which policy measures mitigate gender inequality gaps in future labour markets, it is necessary to arrive at a clear understanding of the gender equality situation in today's Nordic labour markets.

6.2 The wage gap is very persistent

If we study the wage gap in Denmark, we find that it has been very stable since the early 1970s. During the 1960s, when we built the welfare state, the wage gap decreased significantly, but since the 1970s – when public debate was very much about women's liberation and we adopted the equal pay act – the wage gap has remained largely unchanged.

During the last two decades, we have conducted a number of studies on the wage gap and the reasons for differences in men's and women's hourly wages. Since the late 1990s, we have had very good data on individual wages. Analysis of this data shows a very stable and only very slightly decreasing wage gap over the last twenty years. A projection of the decrease reveals that if the current trend continues, we will have to wait more than one hundred years for equal pay.

Figure 10: Wage differences between men and women

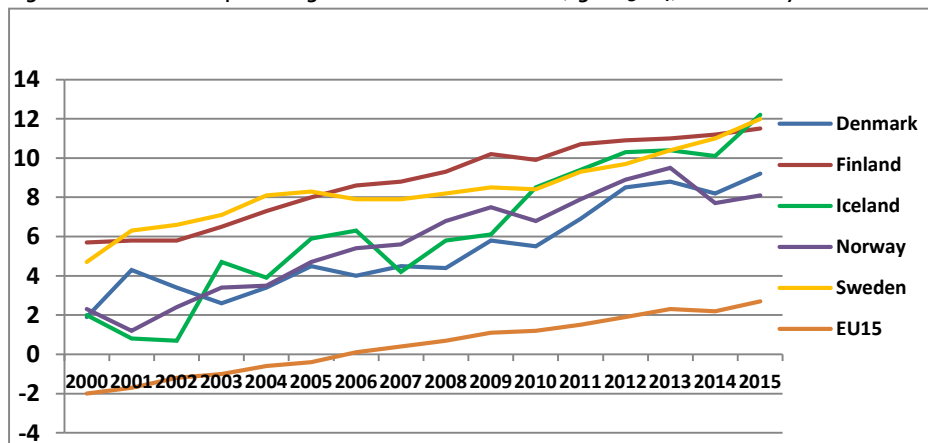


Source: Larsen & Houlberg, 2013. Larsen, 2010.

Why a persistent wage gap?

Once we believed that the wage gap would decrease over time. Women would become increasingly better educated and when they reached the same level as men, we would see an even wage distribution. Our expectations were not fulfilled. The figure below shows the difference in the percentage of women and men with tertiary education. If we look at Sweden, for instance, 5% more women than men had a tertiary education in 2000; by 2015 this had increased to 12%. The figure also shows that the increase in women's education compared with that of men has been much steeper in the Nordic countries than in the EU countries in general. Measured by years and level of education, women today are – on average – better educated than men.

Figure 11: Difference in percentage of women and men with (aged 15–64) with tertiary education



Source: EUROSTAT.

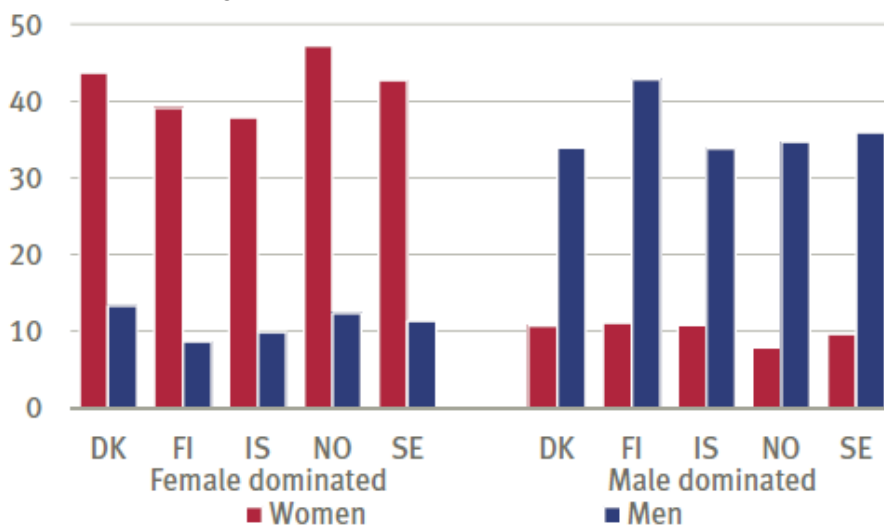
Since the late 1990s, Danish researchers have studied the development of the wage gap and the reasons behind the differences in men's and women's wages. These extensive analyses were made possible by the creation of a comprehensive register containing information on hourly wages for the majority of wage earners, combined with information on personal characteristics and labour market attachment for every individual wage earner. As econometric analyses based on register data, it was naturally limited by the information that could be drawn from what was found in the registers, but it was possible to check the meaning of some of the important and recognised reasons for the pay gap, including education, work experience, job function, industry, sector, family background and the extent of labour market attachment (full-time, part-time). The analysis showed that men's and women's different position in the labour market (i.e. job function, industry and sector) was the most significant factor in explaining the wage gap. Put simply, the reason for the persistent wage gap is that men and women occupy jobs that are remunerated differently, and that both the occupational structure and the wage structure have proven to be unchangeable over time.

6.2.1 Segmented labour markets in the Nordic countries

A closer look at the Nordic labour markets reveals that they are highly segmented by gender. The figure below shows the percentage of all female and male employees in female-dominated and male-dominated industries. The female-dominated industries are education, health and social services; the male-dominated industries are manufacturing, construction, and transport and storage.

The figure shows that up to 45% of women are employed in the two female-dominated industries while up to 42% of all males are employed in the three male-dominated industries.

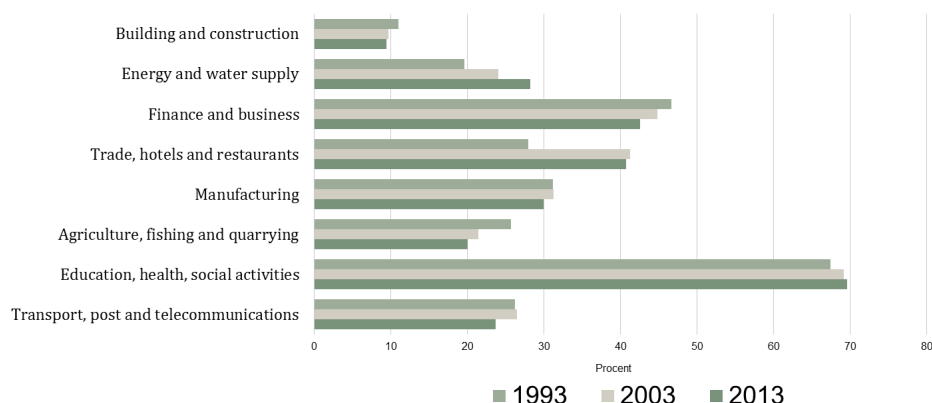
Figure 12: Percent of employed aged 15–64 years old in the largest female-dominated and male-dominated industries 2013



Source: EUROSTAT and Nordic Council of Ministers, 2015.

In a newly published study from the Danish National Centre for Social Research (SFI), the researchers (Larsen and Larsen, 2016) have calculated the change in segregation over time. First of all, the study finds little change in the distribution of men and women across industries.

Figure 13: Percentage of women across industries



Source: Larsen and Larsen, 2016.

Secondly, the changes in distribution between 1993 and 2013 reflect an even more segmented labour market. The percentages of women in the male-dominated industries are decreasing while the percentages of women in the female-dominated industry are increasing.

The female-dominated jobs (in education, health care and social services) are mostly in the public sector.

In Sweden and Iceland, which had the largest number of women in the public sector, there was a small decrease. In the remaining countries, there was a very small increase in the number of women in the public sector. Gender-segmented labour markets are a reality in all the Nordic countries.

The conclusion from this brief examination of gender wage differences and the segmented labour market is that the very persistent wage gap is a result of a very persistent labour market segmentation combined with a rather inflexible wage structure. That is, men and women are in the same types of jobs in the same industries and in the same sectors over time and, since the wage structure barely changes over time, the wage gap also remains unchanged. We could equally ask whether this persistent wage gap and employment structure is a problem at all. Their persistence may reflect gender preferences or societal preferences in general. So why worry? One problem, of course, is that women are not equally rewarded for their educational investments. Most women have “medium” education, which has a relatively low rate of

return compared with “high” education. This is a result of collective agreements from long ago when women’s wages were set lower than men’s, due to their different status in society, in the family and in the labour market. But the other serious problem is that the inflexible labour market and lack of mobility across sectors impose restrictions on the use of men’s and women’s skills, and consequently become an obstacle to providing the necessary human resources to the shortage sectors and industries. In that sense, a gender-segregated labour market stunts economic growth.

6.3 Strategies for changing segmentation patterns

What strategies could we use to achieve more gender-balanced occupational distribution? More equal educational distribution between men and women could definitely have an impact. However, this is not an easy strategy to pursue. We have been aware of the problem of unequal educational distribution since the late 1980s, and different measures have been taken, but with little success. New types of measures and political initiatives are being tried, and they could in time prove effective. But changes to educational distribution may not be enough to change the distribution of men and women across the public and private sectors.

In the previously mentioned SFI study on segregation in the labour market, the researchers also studied the transition between education and jobs for men and women. In this study the researchers first picked out five majors with an almost equal admission of men and women. They then followed the individual labour market careers of the graduates from one to five years after graduation. They found that even though the men and women were almost equally represented among the majors, they preferred different jobs in different sectors once they had graduated. In all five groups, more men than women took jobs in the private sector after graduation, and over time a decreasing or unchanged share of the women went to the private sector. These findings suggest that education is not the only determinant of labour market position. Men and women also have different preferences for public sector or private sector work. These preferences may be formed by various factors, such as those outlined below.

- *Work culture:*
Jobs and industries with a large proportion of either men or women employees may develop cultures that suit one gender best. This may be a barrier to entry for the other.
- *Working conditions:*
Working conditions have been set differently in different collective agreements. Welfare benefits (e.g. maternity leave and sickness payments) have typically been incorporated into the collective agreements in the areas dominated by women. Since these benefits are mostly used by women, those particularly attracted to jobs with these types of benefits are women.
- *Wage differentials:*
Male and female wages have been set unequally in different parts of the labour market. This is due to collective agreements negotiated a long time ago when women's wages were set lower than men's, because of their different status in society, in the family and in the labour market. The man was the typical and often sole breadwinner and therefore received higher wages to enable him to provide for his family. This wage structure in the Nordic labour market model is very stable and hard to change. Low-paid jobs with a strong female culture and welfare benefits that especially appeal to women may not be very attractive to men.

The conclusion is that to mitigate the actual gender wage and employment gaps we need to develop a much more gender-flexible labour market where men and women are equally attracted to, and equally employable in, the public and private sectors and more equally distributed across different industries.

6.4 Future challenges

The previous section gave a brief overview of the present status of gender inequality gaps in the Nordic countries. The answer to the initial question, "Which policy measures could best mitigate gender inequality gaps in the future labour markets?," will naturally depend on our expectations of changes that might occur and the impact of these changes on gender wage gaps.

In the future, the Nordic welfare states are likely to be affected by three megatrends:

- globalisation
- technological changes
- increase in life expectancy.

We must expect these changes to result in:

- more price competition in industries exposed to foreign competition
- higher inflow of labour from EU Member States
- higher inflow of less-educated immigrants
- higher demand for well-educated skilled labour (also with IT skills).

How would these changes in the labour market influence the male and female labour market and the inequality gaps?

The downward pressure would especially influence the part of the labour market dominated by men. Of course, we also find women employed in hotels, restaurants and cleaning where foreign workers would be willing to work for lower wages, but most of the workers will be men. This could actually shift the gender difference towards a lower wage gap.

All sectors will need highly qualified labour on all levels. In the future, we will especially need skilled labour, but we will also need to upgrade the skills of the least educated, not least among immigrants and women from ethnic minorities who only have a primary education. We need more equal educational distribution among men and women, but this may not be sufficient to end segregation in the labour market.

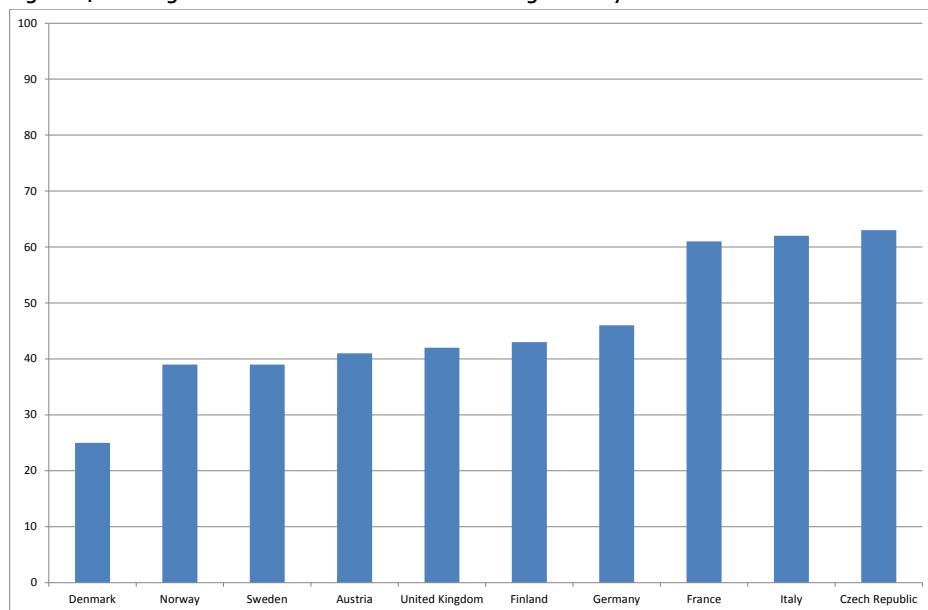
It is difficult to predict how developments will affect the demand for labour in the parts of the public sector that employ a large number of women. If we maintain or increase the size of the public sector, we may experience labour shortages in the public sector because of demographic changes towards a higher average age especially for public sector employers. If, for political reasons, we reduce the public sector, the labour market situation will be different for both women and men.

Regardless of the changes we will see in the public sector in the future, we will need a more flexible labour market where the employability of both men and women will be more or less equal in the two sectors. A shortage of labour in the public sector would result in an increased demand for male labour, while a surplus of female labour due to cutbacks in public expenditure would make it necessary for women to look for work in the private sector. In both cases, we will need a higher degree of mobility between the two sectors, and to make jobs in both the public and private sectors available to both women and men.

6.5 For whom the bell tolls

The Nordic labour markets are to a very great extent regulated by collective agreements. We have a tradition of finding solutions in dialogue with the social partners and between the social partners and politicians. The social partners occupy a very central and important position in the Nordic model. For this reason, we also have to rely on their ability to improve the situation.

Figure 14: The degree to which the labour markets are regulated by law



Source: Doing Business database, World Bank 2004.

It is not easy to predict the future; however, in this case, it seems obvious that what needs to be done to mitigate future gender inequality gaps is no different from what needs to be done to address the gravity of today's inequalities.

We definitely need a more gender-flexible labour market with equal working conditions for men and women in the private and public sectors, and over time we need to reduce the wage gap in jobs of equal value.

In this case, the bell tolls for the social partners.

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7. Is Iceland on the right track? The Equal Pay Standard – Tripartite result

Marianna Traustadóttir, Advisor, ASI – Icelandic Confederation of Labour

7.1 Introduction

The Icelandic labour market has undergone great change over the past few decades. A welfare system supporting high labour market participation and occupations requiring large numbers of employees have created the conditions for a high level of employment. A distinctive feature of the Icelandic labour market is the pronounced gender division of labour. Women and men work in dissimilar occupations and gender-based choice of education and training is still very much apparent. In the workplace, men are more likely than women to hold positions of power and influence. According to OECD labour force statistics, Iceland has the highest rates of women in paid employment among OECD members, in the euro area and the European Union. Labour market participation rates for both sexes in Iceland are the highest recorded in OECD countries. In 2014 the proportion of people in employment aged 16–74 was 81.5%; the figure for men was 84.7% and for women 78.2%. In Iceland, as in other Nordic countries, the revolution in women's levels of education and women's high labour market participation have been the basis of welfare and economic prosperity.

The gender pay gap in the Icelandic labour market has been persistent for far too long. In 1961 the Parliament approved a law on equal pay for women and men; the adjustment time was five years. Is it any wonder that fifty years later, women are asking: "Are we still in the adjustment period?"

The social partners felt that the situation was unacceptable: legislation had not worked, education had not worked and awareness campaigns have not worked. What

could be done? We turned to the tools of the bureaucrats: the technical world of the international ISO standards.

7.2 The Equal Pay Standard

ÍST 85: 2012 – Equal pay management system – Requirements and guidance, known as *The Equal Pay Standard*, was published by Icelandic Standards in December 2012. The aim was to create a system to ensure that women and men working for the same employer would receive equal pay and enjoy equal terms of employment for the same jobs or jobs of equal value.

Two major events in 2008 led to the Equal Pay Standard. In February 2008, collective agreements between the labour and employer confederations in the private labour market included a clause on the development of a certification scheme for gender pay equality, which was followed by a provisional clause, on the same subject, in the Act on Equal Status and Equal Rights of Women and Men.

In the second half of 2008, the Ministry of Welfare, together with the Icelandic Confederation of Labour (ASI) and SA-Business Iceland, began developing the Equal Pay Standard. Icelandic Standards agreed to supervise the project and a Technical Committee (TC) was established. It included the sponsors of the project and representatives of the Centre for Gender Equality, the Ministry of Finance, the Federation of State and Municipal Employees, the Association of Academics, the Icelandic Association of Women Entrepreneurs, the Association of Local Authorities in Iceland, as well as several private companies.

The TC set up a working group that was responsible for drafting the standard with the aid of experts in selected fields. It was decided that international management system standards (e.g. ISO 9001 on quality management systems and ISO 14001 on environmental management systems) would be used as models.

The standard describes the process that companies and public institutions can follow to ensure equal pay within their organisations. The standard aims to introduce effective and professional pay decision-making processes, effective review and improvement. It is applicable to all companies regardless of their size, field of activity and gender composition of staff.

Companies and institutions that implement the standard and obtain certification can thus improve their human resources management and pay policies. The standard

can be used to prevent and eradicate all forms of discrimination, and enhance an organisation's reputation as a fair employer.

The standard is voluntary: companies and public institutions are free to choose whether or not to implement it. The purpose of the standard is to enable certification of equal pay management systems.

Figure 15: Figuroverskrift



Above is an image as set forth in the standard of the process of implementation and maintenance of an equal pay system.

A company adopting the standard would start with an assessment of its current pay policy, classify jobs according to equal value and conduct wage research on the basis of that classification, and formalise policies and processes related to pay decisions. Those changes would need to be reviewed regularly, and checked and validated by management. Once the company has implemented those changes, it can apply for certification of its pay system.

7.3 Action Group on Equal Pay

In December 2012, an Action Group on Equal Pay was appointed by the Government and the social partners. The terms of reference contained a long list of tasks, some of which have already been implemented. They include gathering information and conducting research for action plans to promote greater gender equality in the labour market. One of the main tasks was to conduct a pilot project to implement the Equal Pay Standard.

It has been an extremely extensive project calling for the collaboration of all actors in the labour market; it has mainly involved:

- Supporting and guiding employers in the work they need to do when implementing the standard.
- Creating a toolbox, a website and seminars for those who wish to implement the standard.
- Organising a design competition for the Equal Pay Award logo.
- Defining and establishing the criteria to be met by accreditation agencies certifying the standard.
- Testing the standard to ensure its effectiveness as a tool for managers to detect pay inequalities so as to remedy and prevent them.

Affairs reporting to the Action Group on Equal Pay. In the beginning, some eleven government offices, seven private companies and two municipalities signed up for the pilot project. All the project participants agreed that implementing the Equal Pay Standard is a major commitment for the workplace. However, they all agreed that the process of implementation is worth the effort, and that the workplace benefits from a transparent and fair remuneration system. The Equal Pay Standard has already drawn out hidden discrimination at some of the workplaces that took part in the pilot project. It also pushes management to be more aware about the elements that constitute hidden discrimination, pitfalls and unfair remuneration.

The pilot project has involved collaborative knowledge sharing on how best to implement the standard and tackle common problems. A toolbox has been developed to help employers implement the standard. This toolbox consists of check-lists, an Excel spreadsheet model for job classification (to classify jobs gender neutrally) and

guidelines for implementation. Work is currently under way to translate and adapt an Excel model for salary analysis. A website has been set up to make these easily accessible. Finally, a series of workshops and courses have been developed for those interested in the standard or in the process of implementing it.

When the certification bodies that have applied for accreditation have received it, it should be possible to certify the first workplaces and the first state institutions, in the second half of 2016.

The Action Group and the Icelandic Design Centre co-organised a design competition for an Equal Pay logo. Accredited workplaces can use the logo as long as they fulfil the requirements of the Equal Pay Standard.

Figure 16: Equal Pay Standard logo



7.4 Plan of Action on Gender Equality 2016–2020

In September this year, the Parliament approved a new Plan of Action on Gender Equality for 2016–2020. The plan is divided into seven specific thematic areas. It is worth noting that one of these areas specifies that efforts to promote gender equality in the labour market will continue during the period covered by the new parliamentary Action Plan on executing and following up the projects set out in previous plans. The emphasis will be on introducing the Equal Pay Standard, (ST-85:2012, and conducting efficient and targeted awareness-raising programmes on certification of equal pay systems in accordance with a regulation on equal pay certification of companies and institutions according to the standard.

Is Iceland on the right track with the Equal Pay Standard? Will it eliminate the gender pay gap? It will take time as the standard is optional, but it is a positive tool and I have full confidence that it will make a difference.

8. The Global Deal

Thomas Janson, Deputy Director, Swedish Ministry of Employment

8.1 The 2030 Agenda places demands on global working life

In September 2015, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted the most ambitious development goals ever. By 2030, the countries of the world must together end poverty and hunger, realise the human rights of all, achieve gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls, and ensure the lasting protection of the planet and its natural resources. The Global Goals are integrated and indivisible, and cover the three dimensions of sustainable development: economic, social and environmental.

If the countries of the world are to achieve the goals, global working life needs to be changed. Global warming and globalisation mean that working life will continue to be transformed. But it is not just new challenges that make change necessary. There are also major shortcomings in global working life – shortcomings that are preventing decent and productive employment for all and that need to be addressed.

More than 200 million people throughout the world are without a job, and unemployment has risen in recent years.⁵⁷ Not everyone is guaranteed the right to a secure and safe job. Approximately two million people die each year at work. Half of the world's workers are in insecure jobs. In many places, women do not have opportunities to take part in the labour market on the same terms and conditions as men. Over the past twenty years, differences in employment between men and women have not improved. Women remain underrepresented in the labour market and find themselves in vulnerable jobs more often than men.

The opportunity to participate in the labour market on decent terms and conditions is a fundamental prerequisite for women's and men's freedom and opportunities to

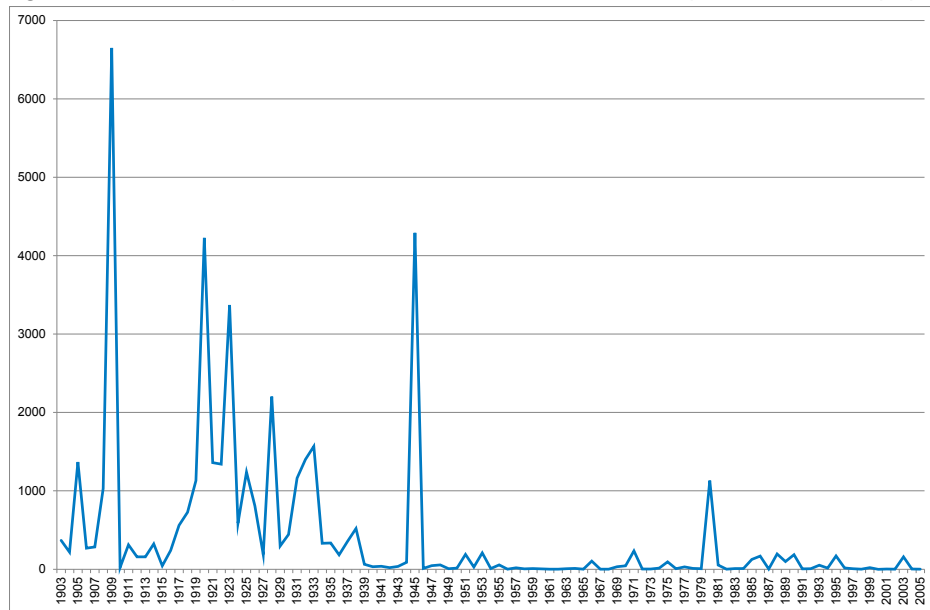
⁵⁷ ILO (2012).

fully use their skills and resources, realise their ideas and create prosperity. Free, independent social partners and labour market rights are important in work for social justice and sustainable development.

Freedom of association and the right to collective negotiations are fundamental human rights and essential for a democratic and legally secure society. A good social dialogue helps reduce the number of conflicts in a society, and distributes the burdens and profits more fairly in times of change.

Sweden's Prime Minister Stefan Löfven has therefore launched an initiative, "Global Deal – Together for Decent Work and Inclusive Growth", which currently brings together some twenty countries, trade unions, companies and international organisations. It is an international initiative for social dialogue – to ensure decent working conditions, higher productivity and more inclusive economic growth. This is a "win-win-win" opportunity, benefiting workers, employers and entire societies.⁵⁸

Figure 17: Number of days lost in Sweden in industrial conflicts 1903–2005 per 1000 workers employed



Source: <http://www.historia.se>

⁵⁸ Prime-Minister Stefan Löfven (2015).

At the beginning of the 1900s, Sweden was one of the industrialised countries with the highest proportion of days lost due to conflicts in the labour market. It was not until the Saltsjöbad Agreement of 1938 between trade unions and employers that the number of working days lost due to industrial conflicts fell. The agreement regulated how the social partners should negotiate and how conflicts should be dealt with. Since this agreement there have been few major conflicts in Sweden, and the number of working days lost has been relatively low by international standards.

The Swedish example is not unique. Also today, social justice is one of the most significant causes of social unrest and protests. According to the OECD African Economic Outlook 2014 report,⁵⁹ issues concerning wages, unemployment and working conditions are among the most significant causes of social unrest in Africa. Experiences from the financial crisis in Europe starting in 2008 also show that savings and reforms are often unbalanced and lead to protests when they have not been discussed and negotiated with the social partners.

The labour market is undergoing rapid transformation through global division of labour and technological developments. The past decade has seen a dramatic reduction in the proportion of poor people among those in gainful employment in the world. An estimated 41.6% of the developing world's workers were attaining the middle and upper-middle-classes in 2011.⁶⁰ The same countries currently represent approximately half of the world's total production – a strong increase from roughly one third in 1990.

These global changes are closely linked to increasing globalisation, including world trade. One in seven people in the world is a migrant who has temporarily or permanently moved within or between countries. Ideas and skills move across national borders, as they do between rural and urban areas, to an unprecedented extent.

Digitalisation has created new opportunities for individual people, companies and states throughout the world. The fast-growing use of information and communication technologies has created new platforms for research, innovation and entrepreneurship, and also gives poor women and men, girls and boys tools to influence their own situation and the rest of the world. The internet and mobile telephony have given individuals access to tools for information dissemination and created new opportunities to reduce poverty.

⁵⁹ African Economic Outlook (2014).

⁶⁰ ILO (2013).

At the same time, inequality is one of the major challenges of our time in efforts to eradicate poverty, create the best possible conditions for inclusive economic development and ensure that all people can enjoy their human rights and help build democratic and sustainable societies.

Inequality tends to perpetuate poverty since extreme poverty on various levels makes it more difficult for people and society to benefit from development. This reduces the possibilities for sustainable growth by limiting individuals' opportunities to find a job that matches their qualifications, increases the risk of corruption and reduces the willingness to invest.⁶¹ Issues concerning working conditions, social justice and inequality are not just significant causes of strikes, popular protests and social unrest. For many developing countries, economic growth is curbed by excessive income inequalities and labour markets that are not gender-equal.

8.2 Social dialogue key to sustainable development

The Global Deal is about the views of countries' development and what factors can contribute to more economic, social and environmental sustainable development. There is a great deal to indicate that countries that have enjoyed long-term sustainable development are also countries that have inclusive institutions that ensure that many people are included in decision-making, as well as legal security, freedom of expression and pluralism, inclusive economic institutions that provide the majority of people with opportunities to earn a living and that can also distribute incomes and wealth.⁶²

An equal society builds on the principle of the equal entitlement of all as a basis for the fair distribution of resources and both economic and political influence in society. A more equal distribution of resources is not only an obligation vis-à-vis the citizens, it is also an opportunity to achieve economically, socially and environmentally sustainable development.

Economic development can lead to reduced poverty for the individual and for society. One prerequisite for this is that access to resources and the opportunity to participate and influence developments in society are fair, both within countries and among countries. Even though many countries have experienced positive economic

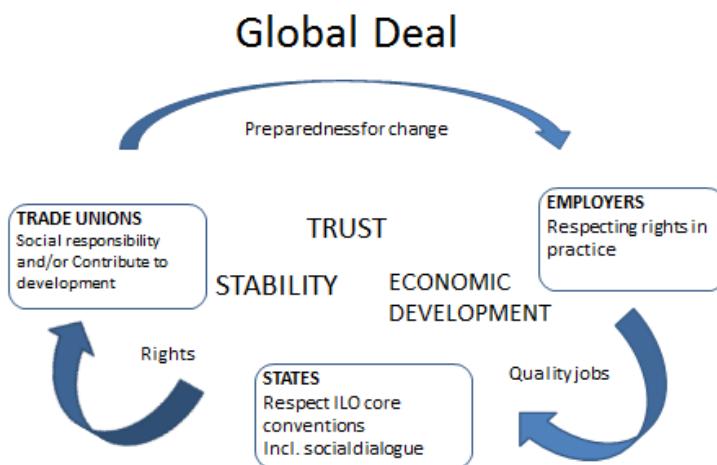
⁶¹ ILO a) (2014), IMF (2015), and IMF (2016).

⁶² Acemoglu & Robinson (2013).

development and reduced poverty, gaps between individuals and groups, based on gender, age, ethnicity, and economic and social status, etc. have widened.

Strong trade union organisations that can effectively conclude collective agreements, labour legislation and equal access to education can reduce any inequalities arising from globalisation.⁶³ This shows that political choices and civil society have a role to play in a country's development.

Figure 18: Illustration of the Global Deal



The Global Deal is based on both Swedish and international experience of how important strong social partners and robust collective agreement systems are for society's prosperity and development. Social dialogue is a productive factor that can drive a virtuous circle. This requires that the partners recognise each other as partners, and that the State acknowledges the partners' freedom of association and right to collective negotiations. But the partners must also take responsibility in their relations by considering the needs for development and change in the workplace, and the wider community, and by creating space for continuing professional development and

⁶³ OECD (2012).

lifelong learning. If increased trust and confidence can be created, this can also lead to increased productivity, greater equality, influence for employees and fewer conflicts.

When states respect human rights, trade unions take responsibility and employers respect human rights in practice, this leads to increased rights, willingness to change, trust and stability in the economy. It is quite simply a win-win-win situation when workers secure their right to good working conditions, wages, training and social welfare. Companies gain stability and consumers with more spending power. And this benefits society as a whole.

Minimum wages and inclusive, comprehensive collective agreements play a major role in reducing inequalities.⁶⁴ Collective agreements reduce differentiation of wages and improve wages and conditions for employees covered by these agreements.⁶⁵ The developing countries that have invested in increasing the proportion of decent jobs are increasing their productivity and growth more quickly than countries that have not invested in “quality jobs”.⁶⁶

8.3 Global Deal to achieve the goals in the 2030 Agenda

The 2030 Agenda encourages the establishment of partnerships to achieve the ambitious sustainable development goals. The Global Deal is working in this spirit. In this context, it is important to take account of the situation facing countries and the social partners. Exactly how social dialogue, trade union organisations and collective negotiations affect the economy and the labour market depends on the specific context in the country in question.⁶⁷ It is the context and how the labour market institutions relate to each other and to other institutions in society that are important. The strength of employer organisations and trade unions, and the coordination and relations between them also have an impact on the effects – better coordination capacity increases opportunities for positive results in society.

The Global Deal wants to improve the social dialogue locally, nationally and globally, and collaboration between different partners is a key element of the Global

⁶⁴ ILO (2014b).

⁶⁵ Toke Aidt Zafiris Tzannatos (2002).

⁶⁶ ILO (2014a).

⁶⁷ Toke Aidt Zafiris Tzannatos (2002).

Deal. Smooth collaboration between partners requires knowledge of and mutual respect for each other's roles and interests.

Including trade unions, employer organisations and companies is crucial for the relevance of the Global Deal. Cooperation between the various stakeholders is key to achieving the Global Deal vision. Different types of stakeholders contribute in different ways to the cooperation process. These include initiatives by the social partners and international organisations to strengthen and facilitate conditions for cooperation between parties. This is about measures to promote democratic development, freedom of association and human rights in working life.

The Global Deal can strengthen the work of governments, the business sector, trade unions and development actors through knowledge transfer and mutual learning, thus promoting the efforts of the business sector in the area of corporate social responsibility. International investors, development banks and development financiers set certain requirements in terms of sustainability and decent conditions before investing. Many companies have also concluded global framework agreements with international trade unions to cooperate on corporate social responsibility throughout the value chain.

The role of states in Global Deal work is determined by the conditions in each country. In countries in which collaboration between partners is well-developed, the State plays a lesser role in achieving the results. In certain countries, the State can function as a facilitator of collaboration between employees and employers (provide arenas, level the playing field, represent the long-term perspective, possibly facilitate organisation on both sides). In another group of countries, the State plays an active part in tripartite collaboration. Given that national contexts vary considerably, the role of the State in concrete terms will vary between countries.

In many developing countries there are obstacles to good social dialogue. Conventions Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87) and Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98) have a high level of ratification among African countries, but the level is low in Asia and Oceania. Despite ratification of the conventions, many countries impose restrictions on forming trade unions or employer organisations, restrictions on who is allowed to organise, and restrictions on the right to strike – and harassment and (often) anti-trade union discrimination occur. In the countries that are not democracies, free trade unions and free employer organisations are often forbidden. It is therefore crucial to work in various ways to strengthen people's rights.

With the Global Deal, Sweden and the countries, companies and organisations that have come on board are hoping to promote the development of a better social dialogue – locally, nationally and internationally. By raising the level of ambition and promoting joint learning as well as research and study, more can be done to strengthen trust, economic development and stability to achieve the goals in the 2030 Agenda.

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Summary in Swedish

Konferensen om framtidens arbete är en del av det initiativ som lanserades av Internationella arbetsorganisationens (ILO) generaldirektör Guy Ryder 2015, för att förbereda för firandet av ILO:s hundraårsjubileum. Syftet är att ge ett nordiskt bidrag till diskussionen om framtidens arbete för att bättre kunna möta de framtida utmaningarna. Den ingår i en serie av nordiska konferenser fram till jubileumsåret 2019.

Under konferensen identifierades nordiska och globala trender relaterade till arbetets framtid, inklusive nya former av arbete och ny teknik och produktionsmodeller som beror på digitalisering, robotisering och delningsekonomi. Viktiga frågor som diskuteras under konferensen var hur förändringarna påverkar våra arbetsmarknader och hur de nordiska länderna och ILO ska ta itu med de globala utmaningarna och möjligheterna för att bättre främja social rättvisa och anständigt arbete i Norden och globalt.

På konferensen identifierades även ett antal utmaningar för framtidens arbete, framför allt hur man ska svara på de snabba förändringarna på den globala arbetsmarknaden och hur man säkerställer ett tillräckligt skydd och sysselsättning för alla.

Svaren på utmaningarna varierade. På konferensen förde många deltagare fram att den nordiska modellen måste främja ökad konkurrenskraft, särskilt genom bättre utbildning och kompetens hos arbetskraften och högre produktivitet. Både regeringar och arbetsmarknadens parter har ett ansvar att uppdatera politik, lagstiftning och kollektivavtal för att bättre kunna reagera på den framtida arbetsmarknaden. Socialt skydd bör omfatta alla arbetstagare, egenföretagare och arbetslösa på ett sätt som uppmuntrar aktivt deltagande på arbetsmarknaden. Jämställdhet lyftes fram som en viktig princip och som en förutsättning för ekonomisk och social utveckling.



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Nordic Future of Work Conference 1

The conference aimed to identify Nordic and global future of work trends including new forms of work and new technologies and production models resulting from digitalization. It pointed to challenges of ensuring adequate protection, employment opportunities and safeguarding competitiveness in the Nordic region amidst rapid technological and demographic changes. As policy responses speakers identified the need to invest in education and skills, to update policies, legislation and collective agreements to better respond to the future labour market. Furthermore they emphasised that social protection should have a broad coverage and encourage active labour market participation. Global cooperation, labour standard and social dialogue are needed to promote decent work. Last but not least gender equality is an important principle and policy goal also for the future ILO work.



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