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The Unemployment of Less-Competitive Groups of People on the Labor Market of Ukraine, the Eu and Poland

Abstract

The European integration strategy of Ukraine to the EU puts on the agenda the implementation of the European employment policy. The aim of the research is to analyse the risks of unemployment of less-competitive groups of people at a labour market in Ukraine, the EU-28, and Poland. On the base of the results of this comparative analysis were formulated the current priorities of employment policy and its adaptation to the European employment policy.

Key words: unemployment, labour market, risks, less-competitive groups of people, level of education, old workers, females, youth.

Risks of unemployment in Ukraine are increased after 2013 year. Such situation was arisen under the influence of political and economy crisis and was connected with the beginning of Russia's aggression in Donbas region. At the same time, European integration strategy of Ukraine to the EU puts on the agenda the implementation of the European employment policy. Elaboration of proposals on this issue requires the risk analysis of unemployment of less-competitive groups of people at a labour market in Ukraine compared with the EU-28 and Poland, both culturally and economically close country.

Theoretical studies of unemployment usually are included in the classical, Marxist, Keynesian, neoclassical, monetarist, and institutional theories of employment. *The Classical theory of employment* of XIX century (*Smith 1778, Rikardo 1817, Say 1803, Petty 1890, Mill 1909*) gave one of the first explanations of unemployment from the point of a free market economy. It considers that the equilibrium at labor market established automatically as on all other markets and, as a result, unem-

ployment cannot be a serious economic problem. *T. Malthus* (1798) did the first attempt to clarify the nature and causes of unemployment.

The Marxist theory stresses that employment is determinate by the common market rules. The commodity "work force" creates new value at the process of labour while value of other resources just simply transmitted on it. Besides that, work force as a commodity affected on ratio of supply and demand and its own market price. *K.Marx* (1867) grounded the capitalist law of population, according to which the formation and growth of the industrial reserve army of labour is a feature of the economy based on private property. Thus, unemployment under capitalism is inevitable and necessary condition for its development. *K.Marx* saw the solution of this problem in changing of the mode of production, rejection of the pursuit of economic efficiency and profit as the main objectives of the activity.

According to the most common *Keynesian theory* of unemployment, labor market is characterised by the constant equilibrium. The price represents only a result of the ratio between supply and demand. The role of a main regulator on labor market belongs to the state, which affects the aggregate demand for goods, services and work. Followers of *J.Keynes* (1936) explain unemployment as a consequence of the reduction of aggregate demand. This is due to the tendency to savings and insufficiency incentives for investment. Elimination of unemployment is possible by stimulate of demand and state investments. In contradistinction of Keynesians, representatives of *neoclassical theory* of employment (*Marshall 1920, Pigou 1933, Hall 1970*) stress the role of wage at a labour market as a regulator of work force supply and equilibrium demand.

At the last decades in the framework of neoclassical theory the theory of human capital is intensively developing. It rejects the oversimplified classic hypothesis about homogeneous character of labour and leads the main social institutes (as a family and education) and non-market forms of human activities (such as care for children or elderly persons etc.) to the economic analysis. The theory of human capital uses approaches to the analysis of human behavior, which are applied for researches in proposition of labour, economic reasons in family behavior (family planning and intra family productions), long term labour demand, employment and unemployment level, labour market structure, the role of trade unions and state in its regulation.

In the XVII century *W.Petty* (1890) made the first attempt to estimate the monetary value of the individual production characteristics. The first mechanisms of social security (compensation for the risk of unemployment, sickness, employment injury, etc.) were formed and became one of the most important stages in the development of methods for assessing human capital at the turn of the XIX-XX centuries.

The *monetarist theory* (*Friedman 1977*) contends that changes in money supply are the most significant determinants of the rate of economic growth and the behavior of the business cycle. It is based on a necessity of "natural" level of unemployment and a refusal of active state impact methods.

Monetarists believe that a sustainable market economy has endogenous tendency, which leads to stabilization and self-regulation. That is why achievement of market stability and equilibrium is possible at the condition of free market competition with flexible prices and wage, without impact of state and trade unions. Using mechanisms of money and credit policy (such as the discount rate of the central bank, the size of mandatory reserves of commercial banks at the central bank accounts) can help to achieve the market equilibrium.

The theoretical approaches of the *institutionalism* are based on the works of *F.Hayek* (1979), who is the one of the most remarkable libertarians the XX century. Main categories of his methodology formed the basis of the theoretical concept of the "social market economy".

F. Hayek and the representatives of "new Austrian school" are opponents of the new classical "theory of equilibrium". They consider that there is no any "common equilibrium" in principal. According to Hayek's doctrine, all economic decisions are made only on the base subjective evaluations and preferences. That is why "micro economist" *F.Hayek* does not agree with the macroeconomic approach of Keynesians, Marxists, monetarists and others regarding the analysis of market economy, for example with Keynesian explaining the reasons of unemployment. He thinks, that unemployment is directly related to the theory of business cycle. The institutional theory explains an employment character by specific features of dynamics of certain branches, professional and demography groups. A special attention is given not to the macroeconomic analysis of labour market, but to research of professional structures and certain features of branches in a structure of labour force, levels of wage etc.

F. Hayek believes that the state must perform only institutional functions, i.e. support the functioning of "market order". Since the cause of unemployment is the demands of trade unions, the government should not be responsible for its overcoming. State can solve social problems only at the permissible expense part of a budget. Capable of work people should receive money, which they earn, without any kind of help from a society. The form of distribution that ensures the development of production is fair, and social inequality contributes to the development of society. Social and economic philosophy of F.Hayek (as well as "English – Austrian" school with its "doctrine of non-interference") was considered as a form of extreme and non-contemporary of liberalism during a long time. The crisis of Keynesianism in 1970th, and the collapse of "Marxism" in 1980-90 years attracted attention to the theory of institutionalism again.

The contemporary processes of economic development form new requirements for the development strategies of countries in the XX-XXI centuries. The emergence of new social and economic risks puts on the agenda a response to the questions related to excessive stratification by income level, crisis of the model of the welfare state, lack of justice in the global economy, critical violations in the ecological balance of the planet. These problems directly affect the availability and quality of the employment opportunities for people around the world.

The aims of the research are to analyse the risks of unemployment of less-competitive groups of people at a labour market in Ukraine, the EU-28, and Poland, to formulate the priorities of employment policy for youth, women, old workers and low qualified workers.

Age group	Main risks of deprivation	Leading indicator
0-5 years	Stunted growth	Malnutrition Pre-school program coverage
6-14 years	Poor education quality (low human capital development)	Later entry Grade repetition
15-25 years	Low human capital development (edu- cation quality / attainment) Unemployment / low wages Inactivity (violence, substance abuse etc.)	Secondary school enrolment repetition Unemployment
25-64 years	Low income	Unemployment Below poverty earnings (underem- ployment)
Over 65 years	Low income	Pension coverage
General popula- tion	Poor health care Poor housing / lack of basic infrastruc- ture	Health insurance coverage Running water Sewerage In flood-prone area

Table 1. The life cycle approach and the main risks

Source: World Bank (2000).

Table 2. The total risks of unemployment in the EU-28, Poland, and Ukraine,
2011-2015, %

Country	Age	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
EU – 28	15-64	9,7	10,6	11,0	10,4	9,6
	15-24	21,7	23,2	23,6	22,2	20,4
	25-29	12,7	13,9	14,6	13,6	12,4
	50-59	7,0	7,5	7,9	7,6	7,2
	55-64	6,8	7,3	7,7	7,4	7,0
Poland	15-64	9,8	10,2	10,5	9,1	7,6
	15-24	25,8	26,5	27,3	23,9	20,8
	25-29	12,0	13,1	13,6	11,8	10,1
	50-59	7,6	7,9	7,9	7,2	6,0
	55-64	6,9	7,4	7,7	6,8	5,4
Ukraine	15-64	8,0	7,7	7,3	9,4	9,2
	15-24	18,6	17,3	17,4	23,1	22,4
	25-29	9,2	9,5	8,7	11,1	11,2
	50-59	5,1	5,3	5,1	6,0	6,3

Sources: the data of ILO, Eurostat, LFS Ukraine.

The risk of unemployment is directly related to the human life cycle and due to its biological, physiological and social nature. It is connected with lack of experience and skills in a young age, maternity and care for children, old-age. Such risks have a high probability in the life of each person and this affects temporary or permanent decreasing of competitiveness at a labour market. Level of unemployment is a statistical representation of the probability of the risk unemployment realisation.

The life cycle approach allows identifying the less-competitive groups of people at the labour market (such as youth, females, old workers, low qualified workers) (table 1).

The risks of unemployment in the EU–28 and Poland had a tendency to increase in 2011-2013 and to decrease in 2014-2015 (table 2). At the same time in Ukraine the risks of unemployment before 2013 had a tendency of decreasing and increasing in 2014-2015 years. Such situation in the country was formed under the influence of political and economy crisis which started at the end of 2013 and at the same time was connected with the beginning of Russia's war aggression in Donbas region.

Age	Country	Year	Sex	Maximal risk of unemployment
15-64	EU – 28	2013	Males	19,9
		2015	Females	18,0
	Poland	2013	Females	22,5
		2015	Females	17,9
15-24	EU – 28	2013	Females	31,6
		2015	Females	28,1
	Poland	2012	Females	39,5
		2015	Females	33,2
25-29	EU – 28	2013	Females	30,1
		2015	Females	28,8
	Poland	2013	Females	45,8
		2015	Males	26,3
50-59	EU – 28	2013	Males	15,2
		2015	Males	14,2
	Poland	2013	Males	16,4
		2015	Males	13,6
55-64	EU – 28	2013	Males	14,3
		2015	Males	13,7
	Poland	2014	Males	14,1
		2015	Males	12,1

Table 3. Maximal risks of unemployment in the EU-28 and Poland, Ed 0-2,
2011-2015, %

Sources: the data of ILO, Eurostat, LFS Ukraine.

In 2015 the situation of the job loss and involuntary unemployment during the last 12 months at least once found themselves 11,7% of respondents (*Ukrainian Society 2015*). Among those who had to go through dismissal, half of the respondents were aged 18-39 y.o. (27,7% - aged 30-39 and 21,8% - 18-29 y.o.), and one in five – aged 50-59 years. The clear majority of people who found themselves in the situation of dismissal, had high levels of education – 40,8% has a professional education and 32,0% – complete high education.

In 2011-2015 maximal risks of unemployment in the EU-28 and Poland had a people with educational levels: "less than primary", "primary" and "lower secondary" (Ed 0-2) (table 3). Comparative classification of educational levels in the EU-28 and Ukraine is represented in the table 4.

Educational levels	EU-28	Ukraine
Ed 0-2	Less than primary, primary and lower secondary educa- tion	Primary education or no education Basic secondary education
Ed 3-4	Upper secondary and post- secondary non-tertiary education	Complete secondary education Professional education
Ed 5-8	Tertiary education	Basic high education Not complete high edu- cation Complete high education

Table 4. Comparative classification of educational levels in the EU-28 and Ukraine

Sources: the data of ILO, Eurostat, LFS Ukraine.

The maximal risk of unemployment (45,8%) was in 2013 year in Poland for females aged 25-29 y.o. with educational level Ed 0-2. Females in this country also had the highest risk of unemployment in the age groups 15-24 and 15-64, and males – only in the age group 55-64 y.o. and in the age group 25-29 y.o. (in 2015). The highest risks of unemployment in the EU were for females aged 15-24 and 25-29 and males of older age groups 50-59 y.o. and 55-64 y.o. The data about risks of unemployment in dependence from a level of education for Ukraine are available in public access only for age groups 15-24 and 15-64 y.o. with educational levels 3-4 and 5-8. For the age group 15-24 y.o., the maximum risk in 2014 was for males with education level 0-2 (25,2%), and in 2015 – for males with education level 5-8 (24,6%).

In 2011 in comparison with the EU and Ukraine, Poland had the highest risk of unemployment for females. The situation has changed during the five years – the risk of unemployment in Poland in 2015 slightly exceeded the figure for the EU only for females' age group 15-24 y.o. At this time Ukraine was moving in the opposite direction.

In 2011 in comparison with the EU and Poland, Ukraine had the lowest level of unemployment risk for females. In 2011-2015 the risks of unemployment of females in Ukraine were lower than the corresponding figures for the EU and Poland only for the age group 50-59 y.o. However, until 2015 it is ahead of these countries by the level of risk for almost all age groups. Thus, in 2011-2015 the risk of unemployment for females in Ukraine was lower than the corresponding figures for the EU and Poland only for the age group of 50-59 y.o.

The total risks of unemployment significantly reduced with the transition to the older age groups for males and females mainly probably because youth completes the transition from school to work (table 5).

Country	Age	Sex	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
EU – 28	15-24	Females	21,0	22,4	22,9	21,4	19,5
		Males	22,3	23,9	24,3	22,8	21,0
	25-29	Females	12,8	13,9	14,5	13,7	12,3
		Males	12,6	13,9	14,6	13,6	12,5
	25-59	Females	8,7	9,5	9,9	9,5	8,8
		Males	8,3	9,1	9,6	9,0	8,3
Poland	15-24	Females	28,8	30,0	30,1	25,5	20,9
		Males	23,6	24,1	25,4	22,7	20,7
	25-29	Females	13,7	15,4	15,6	12,8	9,8
		Males	10,7	11,3	11,9	11,0	10,2
	25-59	Females	8,9	9,5	9,8	8,5	6,9
		Males	7,5	8,0	8,2	7,2	6,2
Ukraine	15-24	Females	18,7	16,1	16,3	22,4	21,9
		Males	18,6	18,1	18,2	23,7	22,7
	25-29	Females	8,2	8,0	7,4	9,7	10,8
		Males	9,9	10,6	9,6	12,2	11,4
	25-59	Females	5,8	5,8	5,6	6,4	7,2
		Males	7,7	7,6	7,1	9,6	9,1

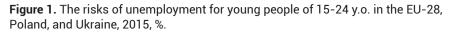
Table 5. Risks of unemployment for age groups 15-24, 25-29 and 25-59 y.o.in the EU-28, Poland, and Ukraine, 2011-2015, %

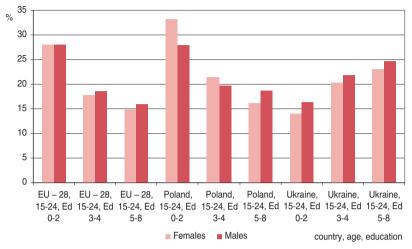
Sources: the data of ILO, Eurostat, LFS Ukraine.

Usually the relation between the risks of unemployment and level of education is regressive. The risks are reduced with increasing level of education. However, according to data in 2015 in Ukraine, unlike in Poland and the EU-28, the risk of unemployment for young people 15-24 y.o. is growing up with increasing level of education.

Besides that, in Ukraine the risk of unemployment for females was higher than for males (figure 1).

In 2015 the distribution of risks of unemployment during lifetime by age, gender and level of education in Poland was similar to the EU (figure 2). The highest risk level was for the young people aged 15-24 and 25-29 y.o. with the educational level Ed 0-2.





Sources: the data of ILO, Eurostat, LFS Ukraine.

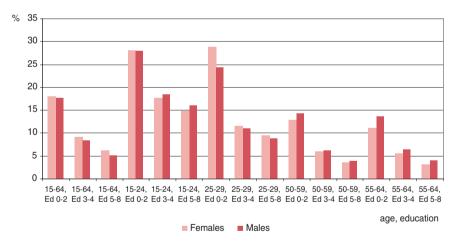
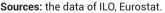


Figure 2. The risks of unemployment by age, sex and education in the EU–28, 2015,%



The total risks of unemployment for the age group 15-64 y.o. in the EU and Poland were higher for females than for males. In the EU these trends have also belonged to the age groups 15-24 y.o. (Ed 0-2) and 25-29 y.o. In Poland for the age groups 15-24 (Ed 0-2 and Ed 3-4) and 25-29 y.o. (Ed 3-4) and for the older age groups 50-59 and 55-64 y.o. (Ed 3-4) risks of unemployment for females were higher than for males. Higher risks of unemployment among females in younger age groups may be related to the birth of children and the need to take care of them.

To the contrary, for the age group 15-24 y.o. with educational levels Ed 0-2 and Ed 5-8 in Ukraine the risks of unemployment are higher for males than females. For the older age groups the total risks of unemployment for females and males in Ukraine have had a similar distribution (table 6).

Around one third of the population in rural territories in Ukraine has a status of self – employed person. Most of them are working in subsistence agriculture. The extremely high death rate of men, especially of working age, leads to the fact that women predominate in the population structure in Ukraine (in 2015 – 53,7%). Besides that, in rural areas there is a limited quasi-market "women's" work, where is almost impossible to lose work.

The total risks for older age groups 50-59 and 55-64 y.o. in 2011-2015 are slightly increased in the EU and decreased in Poland. The trend was similar to the risks of unemployment for the peoples with an educational level Ed 0-2. The risks for people with the educational level Ed 3-4 were decreased both in the EU and in Poland. The risks for people with an educational level Ed 5-8 EU were stable in the EU, and in Poland were decreased.

Age	20	11	20	12	2013		20	14	20	15
	Fe- males	Males								
					EU - 28					
15-64	9,8	9,7	10,6	10,6	11,0	11,0	10,5	10,3	9,6	9,5
15-24	21,0	22,3	22,4	23,9	22,9	24,3	21,4	22,8	19,5	21,0
25-29	12,8	12,6	13,9	13,9	14,5	14,6	13,7	13,6	12,3	12,5
50-59	6,7	7,3	7,1	7,9	7,5	8,3	7,3	7,9	6,8	7,5
55-64	6,1	7,3	6,6	7,8	6,9	8,3	6,7	7,9	6,3	7,5
	Poland									
15-64	10,5	9,1	11,0	9,5	11,2	9,8	9,7	8,6	7,8	7,4
15-24	28,8	23,6	30,0	24,1	30,1	25,4	25,5	22,7	20,9	20,7
25-29	13,7	10,7	15,4	11,3	15,6	11,9	12,8	11,0	9,8	10,2
50-59	7,6	7,7	7,8	8,0	7,9	8,0	7,1	7,3	5,9	6,0
55-64	6,2	7,4	6,6	8,0	6,9	8,3	6,4	7,1	4,8	5,9
	Ukraine									
15-64	7,0	8,9	6,6	8,6	6,3	8,2	7,6	10,9	8,2	10,2
15-24	18,7	18,6	16,1	18,1	16,3	18,2	22,4	23,7	21,9	22,7
25-29	8,2	9,9	8,0	10,6	7,4	9,6	9,7	12,2	10,8	11,4
50-59	4,2	6,0	4,1	6,5	4,4	5,7	4,4	7,6	4,6	7,9

Table 6. The risks of unemployment of females and males in the EU - 28, Poland, and Ukraine, 2011-2015, %

Sources: the data of ILO, Eurostat, LFS Ukraine.

Risks of life's flow cause uneven distribution of social risks over the lifecycle. The development of civilisation changes the ways of neutralising the main risks of the life cycle from their distribution inside a family to the use of market mechanisms and instruments of social policy. *G. Bonoli* (2005) notes that increasing number of risks reduces the abilities of family and market for adequate neutralisation of such risks.

Arrangements / Strategies	Informal	Market-based	Public
Risk Reduction	 Less risky production Migration Proper feeding and weaning practices Engaging in hygiene and other disease pre- venting activities 	 In-service training Financial market literacy Company-based and market-driven labour standards 	 Labour standards Pre-service training Labour market policies Child labour reduction interventions Disability policies Good macroeconomic policies AIDS and other disease prevention
Risk Mitigation (Portfolio)	 Multiple jobs Investment in human, physical and real assets Investment in social capital (rituals, recipro- cal gift-giving) 	Investment in multiple financial assetsMicrofinance	 Multi-pillar pension systems Asset transfers Protection of poverty rights (especially for women) Support for extending financial markets to the poor
Risk Mitigation (Insurance)	 Marriage/family Community arrangements Share tenancy Tied Labour 	 Old-age annuities Disability, accident and other personal insurance Crop, fire and other damage insurance 	• Mandated/provided insurance for unem- ployment, old age, dis- ability, survivorship, sickness, etc.
Risk Coping	 Selling of real assets Borrowing from neighbours Intra-community transfers/charity Sending children to work Dis-saving in human capital 	 Selling of financial assets Borrowing from banks 	 Transfers/Social assistance Subsidies Public works

Table 7. Examples of Social Risl	K Management Strategies	and Arrangements
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Source: Holzmann (2003)

Current demographic and social trends lead to increasing the activity of women at the labor market. This augments the need to combine work and family life. The relationship of employment and education enlarges the likelihood of social exclusion among low-skilled workers. As the result, if the risk of poverty contributes to the lack of resources and insufficient to meet the needs, the social exclusion leads to a deficiency or loss of civil rights, for example by limiting access to the labor market (*Kirnos, 2011*).

A.Sen (2009) came to conclusion that genuine social equality requires more unequal relationships where preference is given to poor and most vulnerable people. It is necessary to consider the differences in the starting positions of both individuals and entire groups in society.

One of the risk analysis aims is to identify the most appropriate mix of the risk management strategies (prevention, mitigation and coping) and the arrangements (informal, market-based and publicly provided or mandated). Table 7 provides examples of such strategies and arrangements. Decision which one of the risk management strategies is the "best" depends on the type of risk, the costs and effectiveness of the available instruments. It requires taking into account many different sources of risk management instruments (fa-milies, communities, nongovernmental organisations, market institutions and government agencies) and varying levels of demand from different groups (such as formal sector workers and people living in persistent poverty). The proposed risk management strategies will be typically multi-sectoral, and need not be limited to social protection.

In the case of Ukraine, for example, to solve problem of youth employment it is important to improve the quality of education, the professional training in particularly. The mismatch between educational system and the labour market demands is a weak point in Ukrainian business environment. Solving such problems is possible within the implementation of the person-centred approach as well as the community and employers engagement, as the important principles of the European employment policy. In the context of community engagement, the potential role of trade unions (such as civil society organisation) in supporting less-competitive groups of people back to work also should be studied. An essential role belongs to eliminate restrictions at the labor market, including the development of transport and communications.

Today the employment in countries with emerging economies is mostly raised in the global supply chains. It has provided the new opportunities for employment in developing and emerging economies, including workers who had difficulty accessing wage employment or formal jobs, such as women, young people and migrants (*ILO 2015*). Ukraine is one of such countries.

On the other hand, global economic integration has caused many countries and sectors to face the major challenges of continuing high levels of unemployment, the growth of both unprotected work and the informal economy, that influences the employment relationship and the guarantees it can offer (*ILO 2008*). Global supply chains have also had employment displacement effects in a number of cases. For example, increased outsourcing to developing countries of manufacturing activities has tended to reduce employment in the sectors concerned in advanced economies (*Park 2013, Spence 2011*).

A common problem for Ukraine and the EU countries is the population aging. Increasing the proportions of older people in the population structure makes it relevant to the development of services for elderly care. Within this, sustaining innovation and the role of the social economy are important issues. *J. Rifkin* (1995) considers the development of non-economic employment as one of the effective tools to reduce the standard of employment in the post-industrial society. He focuses attention on the necessity to reduce working hours while maintaining salary levels and the broad funding sector of non-profit organizations.

The urgency of such problems for Ukraine should be viewed in the context of the adaptation of the national legislation and policy to the EU standards to implement the Ukraine–European Union Association Agreement.

The policies of Member States' in the fields of social inclusion and employment in the EU is supported and complemented by the European Commission (*EC 2010*). Today the EU wants to have a smart, sustainable and inclusive economy. These three mutually reinforcing priorities are integrated in the Europe 2020 strategy and should be able to help the EU and the Member States to provide the high levels of employment, productivity and social cohesion.

The Europe 2020 strategy sets targets to lift at least 20 million people out of poverty and social exclusion and to increase employment of the population aged 20-64 to 75%. To achieve this goal, the EU has set five ambitious objectives (on employment, innovation, education, social inclusion and climate/ energy) to be reached by 2020. The Platform against Poverty and Social Exclusion and the Agenda for New Skills and Jobs are among the flagship initiatives of the Europe 2020 strategy. These initiatives should support efforts to reach the declared targets. Each Member State has adopted its own national targets in each of these areas.

The Agenda for new skills and jobs contributes to achieve the EU's aims to get the early school-leaving rate below 10% and more young people in higher education or equivalent vocational education (at least 40%), as well as to have at least 20 million fewer people in or at risk of poverty and social exclusion by 2020. The "New Skills for New Jobs" initiative sets out the agenda for upgrading, anticipating and matching better skills. The main task of this initiative are: to promote better anticipation of future skills needs, develop better matching between skills and labour market needs, and to bridge the gap between the world of education and work. It includes flexicurity, job quality and working conditions and job creation.

The European Commission's Youth Employment Package includes proposed Recommendation to Member States on introducing the Youth Guarantee to ensure that all young people up to age 25 receive a quality job offer, continued education, an apprenticeship or a traineeship within four months of leaving formal education or becoming unemployed. The proposed recommendation urges Member States to establish strong partnerships with stakeholders, ensure early intervention by employment services and other partners supporting young people, take supportive measures to enable labour integration, make full usage of the European Social Fund and other structural funds to that end, assess and continuously improve the Youth Guarantee schemes and implement the schemes rapidly. To facilitate school-to-work-transitions, the Package launches a consultation of European social partners on a Quality Framework for Traineeships to enable young people to acquire high-quality work experience under safe conditions. Furthermore, it announces a European Alliance for Apprenticeships to improve the quality and supply of apprenticeships available by spreading successful apprenticeship schemes across the Member States and outlines ways to reduce obstacles to mobility for young people.

Bearing that in mind, the prospects for further research will cover the analysis of adaptation process of the national legislation and policy in the sphere of employment to EU standards and its effect on decreasing unemployment risks at the labour market for lacked competitive groups of people.

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