TERTIARY EMPLOYMENT IN SOME CENTRAL EUROPEAN COUNTRIES ABOUT 1980

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The application of employment indices to analyze the development of services often meets criticism, reasonable in the case of some of them, especially those of the socio-cultural sphere of services, which employ far fewer people than their social role would indicate. However, it does not alter the fact that employment remains the only objective index, comparable in time and space, that allows for an international study of endowment with services. Remembering the limitations mentioned above, employment data have been accepted as a basis for illustrating differences in the development of services in five Central European countries: Czechoslovakia, the German Democratic Republic, Hungary, Poland and Romania. The statistical data used have been collected from the turn of the 1970s and 1980s. The grouping of data into spheres and branches of services originates from the author's earlier studies (WERWICKI, A. 1987), which assumes that all branches of the national economy, apart from agriculture, forestry, fishing, mining, manufacturing and construction, represent service activities. In this way not only strictly productive activities were excluded from the analysis but also all productive services, employment in which in the discussed countries is being registered together with that branch of economy for which those services have been rendered. Therefore the object of this analysis must be limited to the sub-system of consumption and public services composed of three spheres: market, socio-cultural and civil services. The differences in the number of detailed items in the national statistics of the countries in question determined, however, that further analysis has been carried through only in a division into two spheres of services: the market and socio-cultural ones, the latter comprising also the civil services. This also means the return to the traditional division of the third sector of economic activities into two groups --material and non-material services (NOWOSIELSKA, E. 1972) - or, as some authors suggested (BORCHERT, J. G. 1980), into the third and fourth sectors of activities.

The regional differentiation of employment structures has been discussed first of all by countries, and secondly inside them, by the first order administrative units. In Czechoslovakia they are 'kraj'-s (lands), in the GDR — 'Bezirk'-s, in Hungary — 'megye'-s, in Poland — voivodships and in Romania — 'judet'-s.

PERSONS ACTIVE IN SERVICES IN THE BACKGROUND OF THE GROSS AND NON-AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT

The first question arising in an analysis of service employment concerns both the ab-

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solute and relative parts played by it in the gross employment of any analyzed territory. Important also is the share of service employment in the structure of non-agricultural employment.

Among the countries in question Poland had the biggest absolute number of persons employed in services, however, in relation to the total employment it accounted for only 34.2% (48.9% in relation to the non-agricultural employment), while the share of those employed in agriculture and forestry accounted for 30.2% and those employed in mining, manufacturing and construction for as much as 35.6%. (Table 1) In the GDR service employment took second place in its absolute number and, at the same time, it had the highest shares in relation to gross and non-agricultural employment among the countries discussed (46.0 and 51.5%, respectively). Czechoslovakia and Hungary also had high shares of service employment in relation to both total and non-agricultural ones, although their absolute service employment was relatively small. Romania had the lowest share of service employment: it accounted for only 25.2% of the gross employment and for 39.3% of the non-agricultural one; agriculture in Romania at the same time provided employment to 36.8%, and manufacturing with mining and construction to 38.0% of professionally active persons. Comparing these data with respective ones of the most developed countries of the world (Table 2), it may be stated that the GDR, Czechoslovakia and Hungary have already entered the post-industrial stage of economic development, while Poland still remains in the stage of industrial domination accompanied by a high share of agricultural employment. Romania at the same time had an employment structure typical of the transitional period from an agricultural to an industrial economy.

The international differences discussed find their reflection in the internal diversification of the countries in question. To show these differences, a classification of territorial units has been evolved, based on the shares of non-agricultural employment compared with their mean values for the studied countries on the one hand, and, on the other, on the rates of employment in industry and construction as well as in services, calculated as shares of the non-agricultural employment, also compared to the respective means for the countries in question. As the scheme to Figure 1 shows, they allow for a distinction of nine classes of units, of which class 2, 5 and 8 are transitional as compared with the purely productive (classes 1, 4 and 7) and servicing ones (classes 3, 6 and 9). In the countries in question classes 1 and 2 with a distinctive agricultural character of employment and the lowest shares of service employment appear only in Romania where they cover as much as 29% of all the territorial units (Figure 1). However, in Romania the largest share belongs to class 4 (33%) with a mixed industrial and agricultural structure of employment. Besides this one in Romania only one other unit-in Poland-belongs to this class. Six other Romanian 'judet'-s had an industrial structure of employment (class 7), like the Katowice voidvodship in Poland and three 'megye'-s in Northern Hungary (Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén, Komárom, Nógrád). There are only seven units in Romania belonging to classes with a service type structure of employment (classes 3, 6 and 9). On the contrary, class 9 with high shares of both industrial and service employment dominated in the GDR (53% of all units) and Czechoslovakia (50% of the units). In these countries it has been accompanied almost exclusively by the similar class 8 with an intermediate employment structure between a highly industrial and industrial and a service one, often appearing also

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in Hungary (40% of the existing units). In Poland only five voivodships had the structure of class 8. It is to be noted that classes 8 and 9 representing an employment structure with high shares of both industrial and service employment have also been typical of the capitals of all the studied countries, as well as for most territorial units comprising big cities. In Poland the most numerous were units belonging to class 6 (30%) with a mixed employment structure—industrial-agricultural and service one. A further 22% of voivodships was represented by class 3 with an agricultural and service structure of employment. Apart from Poland only one 'judet' in Romania (Constanta) had such a structure. Based on the above discussion it may be stated that Czechoslovakia, the GDR and Hungary are countries with harmoniously developed employment structures. In Poland it is the agricultural and service as well as industrial and service structures that proved to be dominant, both with high shares of service employment resulting mostly from a deficit in other non-agricultural productive functions. In Romania agricultural as well as industrial and agricultural structures were dominant.

An analysis of the percentage distribution of the service employment in the total number of professionally active persons may serve as proper means for a further supplementation of the above diversification of the countries in question. These shares were the lowest in Romania where only one fourth of all the territorial units had a service employment share larger than the national mean and where only in two units (Bucuresti and Constanta) did they exceed the mean value for the five countries examined. This indicates that in 31 units the shares of service employment did not exceed the value of 25% of the gross employment. In Czechoslovakia and the GDR the situation was just the opposite. All their administrative units had percentage shares of service employment higher than the mean value for the five countries. Furthermore, the shares of service employment were much higher than this average in most of their territorial units. In this respect Poland and Hungary held an intermediate position. The international mean, only slightly higher than the national means for these countries, exceeded in Hungary 55% of the 'megye'-s, while in Poland 30% of the existing voivodships. The dominant group of units in Poland was represented by voivodships with service employment shares lower than 30% of those engaged in the non-agricultural sector of the economy. These voivodships were located in the central and Eastern parts of the country. (Figure 2) There were only two such units in Hungary. The picture shown above indicates the existence of a certain regularity which relies on the fact that the higher the national shares of service employment were, the larger the numbers were of territorial units with shares higher than the international mean. It may also be noted that in the immediate neighbourhood of capitals which are normally the biggest national concentrations of service activities, there usually appeared units with much lower shares of service employment.

The above internal diversification of the countries in question, although very general because of the size of the teritorial units analyzed (especially in Czechoslovakia), and, resulting from this, their functionally diversified content indicate the existence of some regularities which allow for the definition on an international scale of several levels of service development.

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Source: National statistics and the author's calculations

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 Table 1

 Structure of gross employment in some Central European countries about 1980

| | | | | | | Professionally active | ally active | | | |
|--------------------------|------|----------------|----------------|----------------------------------|----------------|----------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|----------|--------------------------------|
| | | | | | | | Outs | Outside agriculture | H | ture |
| Country | Үеаг | Totals | In agriculture | culture | Totals | ais | In mining, manufac- turing and constructi- on | manufac- constructi- a | | In services |
| | | Thou- sands | Thou- sands | % of gross employ- ment | Thou- sands | % of gross employ- ment | Thou- sands | % of gross employ- ment | | % ofThou-grosssandsemploy-ment |
| Czechoslovakia | 1981 | 7,268.4 | 1,026.4 | 14.3 | 6,242.0 | 85.7 | 3,235.0 | 51.8 | | 3,007.7 |
| GDR | 1981 | 8,295.9 | 884.5 | 10.7 | 7,411.4 | 89.3 | 3,591.9 | 48.5 | L | 3,819.5 |
| Hungary | 1980 | 4,919.3 | 849.8 | 17.3 | 4,069.5 | 82.7 | 2,101.2 | 51.6 | | 1,968.3 |
| Poland | 1980 | 16,732.1 | 5,050.8 | 30.2 | 11,681.3 | 69.8 | 5.964.2 | 51.1 | | 5,717.1 |
| Romania | 1977 | 10,793.6 | 3,975.6 | 36.8 | 6.818.0 | 63.2 | 4,101.8 | 60.2 | 1 | 2,716.2 |
| Countries studied totals | | 48,009.3 | 11,787.1 | 24.6 | 36,222.2 | 75.4 | 18,994.1 | 52.4 | | 17,228.1 |

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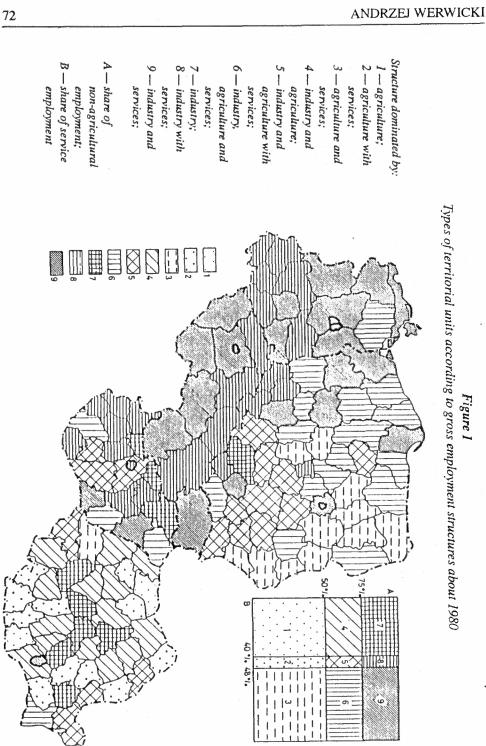
Table 2

Structure of gross employment in some Western countries, 1979

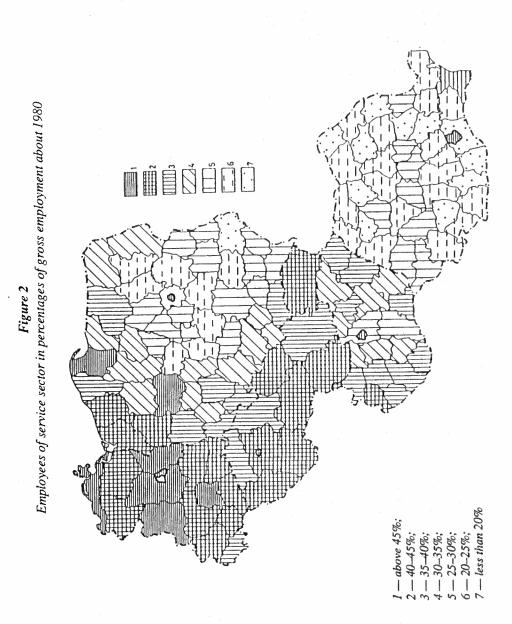
| | - | | Pre | Professionally active | ive | | |
|----------------------|---|-------|--------|--|---|----------------------|---|
| | | | Outsid | Outside agriculture, % of gross employment | of gross emplo | yment | |
| Ē | | | | | In services | | |
| Totals, thousands | | Ē | | Inm | In market services (part) | part) | In socio-cul- |
| | | IOIAI | Total | Total | In transporta- tion and com- munication | In distributi- on | tural and re- maining mar- ket services |
| 3,094 | | 89.4 | 48.6 | 23.6 | 6.4 | 17.2 | 25.0 |
| 26,424 | 1 | 94.1 | 50.4 | 20.0 | 5.7 | 14.3 | 40.3 |
| 22.761 | | 91.8 | 58.2 | 20.7 | 5.9 | 14.8 | 37.5 |
| 13,302 | | 82.6 | 50.3 | 22.6 | 5.1 | 17.5 | 27.7 |
| 4,268 | | 94.3 | 62.5 | 20.3 | 6.8 | 13.5 | 42.2 |
| 2,973 | | 92.6 | 53.1 | 25.4 | 6.0 | 19.4 | 27.7 |
| 26,282 | | 97.5 | 60.3 | 21.7 | 5.8 | 15.9 | 38.6 |
| 104.996 | | 96.6 | 65.5 | 24.9 | 5.0 | 19.5 | 40.6 |
| 204,100 | | 94.7 | 60.6 | 23.1 | 5.4 | 17.8 | 37.4 |

Source: Rocznik Statystyczny GUS, 1981 (Statistical Yearbook, 1981), p.640. tab.18 (945) and the author's calculations

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THE STRUCTURE OF SERVICE EMPLOYMENT

Particular countries are often more diversified by the structure of employment in services than by their shares in the gross and non-agricultural employment. At the beginning it may be stated that the higher the level of development in a certain country is, both economically and culturally, the lower the share is of market services in total service employment. On the contrary, the lower this level is, the higher the share is in this sphere of services. (*Table 3*) In Czechoslovakia, for example, the sphere of market services employs about 55% of persons active in the service sector, which also indicates that more than 45% of them act in the sphere of socio-cultural and civil services. Similar indices characterize the GDR. In Poland and Romania the shares of employment in market services exceeds 60% of the total service employment, which indicates that people active in socio-cultural and civil services do not even reach the value of 40% of that employment. Hungary with 59% share of service employment in the sphere of market services is in an intermediate position. The differences in the relative sizes of the two main spheres of service find confirmation in the differences in the number of persons active in each of the spheres mentioned per 1,000 inhabitants, which will be discussed in more detail later.

The international diversification of these countries, which is based on the differences in the structure of service employment, is not big but, nevertheless, very characteristic. The dominant shares are generally close to the national means. More significant deviations appear only in territorial units containing big cities, centres of cultural activity and public administration, where the shares of market services are usually much lower than in the neighbouring areas. This is especially true in the case of Poland but concerns also Hungary, the GDR and Romania. (*Figure 3*) It is only in Czechoslovakia where both Prague and Bratislava had higher shares of employment in market services than in the neighbourhood. Heavily industrialized areas, seaports or border re-loading stations, as well as agricultural areas with a deficit in the sphere of socio-cultural services are usually also characterized by higher shares of market services than the national means.

The employment structure of market services

Irrespective of the country and its socio-economic system, the share of market services in the total of service employment is always higher than the share of the remaining spheres. The employment in distribution, which from the point of view of population, is the most important branch of market services, seems to be the decisive factor of the market service employment structure. In better developed Central European countries the share of distribution oscillates close to 40% of the employment in the market services, i.e. around 10% of the gross national employment (Hungary, Czechoslovakia and the GDR). In Poland and Romania, however, it drops below 35% of the employment in the market services (*Table 4*), that is, to the level of 5–7% of the gross employment. In the highly developed West European countries, however, the share of distribution in the gross employment rises up to 14–20%. (*Table 2*)

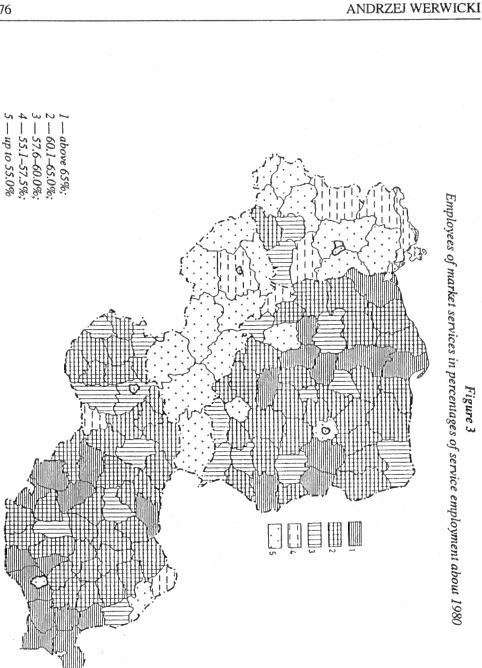
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 Table 3
 Structure of service employment in some Central European countries about 1980

| | | | | Pro | fessionally a | Professionally active in services | es | | |
|--------------------------|------------|-----------|-------------------------|-----------|--------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Country | Population | Total | tal | Iul | In market services | ses | In socio-cu | In socio-cultural and civil services | vil services |
| | Thousands | Thousands | Per 1000 inhabitants | Thousands | % | Per 1000 inhabitants | Thousands | d 10 | Per 1000 inhabitants |
| Czechoslovakia | 15,344.7 | 3,007.7 | 196.0 | 1,646.1 | 54.7 | 107.3 | 1,361.6 | 45.3 | 88.7 |
| GDR | 16.732.5 | 3,819.5 | 228.2 | 2,137.3 | 56.0 | 127.7 | 1,682.2 | 44.0 | 100.5 |
| Hungary | 10.712.8 | 1,968.3 | 193.0 | 1,161.4 | 59.0 | 108.4 | 806.9 | 41.0 | 75.3 |
| Poland | 35,734.9 | 5,717.1 | 150.0 | 3,489.6 | 61.0 | 97.7 | 2,227.5 | 39.0 | 62.3 |
| Romania | 21.559.9 | 2,716.2 | 126.0 | 1,674.0 | 61.6 | 77.6 | 1,042.2 | 38.4 | 48.4 |
| Countries studied totals | 100,084.8 | 17,228.8 | 172.1 | 10,108.4 | 58.7 | 101.0 | 7,120.4 | 41.3 | 71.0 |

Source: National statistics and the author's calculations

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Transportation and communication in terms of employment is the second biggest branch of market services. It provided work for about 30% of those employed in the sphere discussed. Among the studied countries, Hungary and Romania had the highest shares of employment in transportation and communication, while Czechoslovakia and the GDR had the lowest ones. (*Table 4*) In relation to the gross employment the shares of transportation and communication oscillated between 5–8%, which means that they were slightly higher than in highly developed countries.

| | | | Profession | ally activ | e in marke | et service | S | |
|--------------------------|----------------|-------|--------------------------|------------|----------------|------------|------------------|------|
| Country | То | tal | In transp an commu | d | In distr | ibution | In "rem branc | |
| • | Thou- sands | % | Thou- sands | % | Thou- sands | % | Thou- sands | % |
| Czechoslovakia | 1,646.1 | 100.0 | 492.8 | 29.9 | 707.8 | 43.0 | 445.5 | 27.1 |
| GDR | 2,137.3 | 100.0 | 613.9 | 28.7 | 849.9 | 39.8 | 673.5 | 31.5 |
| Hungary | 1,161.4 | 100.0 | 404.5 | 34.8 | 512.6 | 44.1 | 244.3 | 2t.1 |
| Poland | 3,489.6 | 100.0 | 1,117.8 | 32.0 | 1,131.0 | 32.4 | 1,240.8 | 35.6 |
| Romania | 1,674.0 | 100.0 | 556.5 | 33.2 | 575.2 | 34.4 | 542.3 | 32.4 |
| Countries studied totals | 10,108.4 | 100.0 | 3,185.5 | 31.5 | 3,776.5 | 37.4 | 3,146.4 | 31.1 |

Table 4 Structure of employment in market services about 1980

Source: National statistics and the author's calculations

Decisive for the size of employment in the "remaining market services" group were the craft and communal services. Among the countries studied the GDR and Poland had the most developed craft services, while Romania revealed the less developed ones.

Communal services were of some importance only in cities where they were concentrated. Together with the "remaining branches" of market services, they provided employment for about one third of people active in the sphere. Hungary is an exception with a share of only 21% of the "remaining branches" in total employment in market services, which resulted mostly from a deficit of craft services.

Twelve regional combinations of the structure of employment in the market services have been distinguished. Their appearance, although to some extent chaotic, has some regularities, resulting from the range of employment in particular branches. In case of a country in which employment in distribution forms the biggest group, most often there appear territorial units in which a combination of distribution with the "remaining bran-

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ches" of market services dominates (the GDR and Czechoslovakia). While in those countries in which distribution and transportation with communication employ almost an equal number of people, the most numerous are the units in which these two branches dominate (Poland and Romania). In such countries units with large employment in the "remaining branches" are also numerous. These units are usually agricultural in character with low shares of transportation and a deficit of distribution, or they are units with low shares in market services in general, like big cities where special and rare services are important, while distribution and transportation are not so developed (in terms of employment). Some regularities also resulted from the structure of gross employment. In countries where shares of service employment are high (the GDR and Czechoslovakia), the composition of structural classes differs from those with low shares (Poland and Romania).

Employment structure in the sphere of socio-cultural services

The main components of the sphere of socio-cultural and civil services are as follows: science, education, health care, social security and public administration (both central and local). National employment statistics of the countries in question do not allow for a specification of the employment in administration. In the case of the GDR the regional data for science, education and health care services are only estimates. The data for Hungary do not even allow for any specification of particular employment groups forming the socio-cultural sphere of services for the whole country. Therefore, the analysis of the employment structure of the sphere in question has been limited to three main professional groups: science and education, health care services and social security, and the "remaining branches" of the sphere discussed. For Hungary such a distinction was not even possible. Therefore in the analysis this country has been omitted.

The most frequent group of the socio-cultural and civil services, excluding the "remaining branches", was that containing employees in science and education, education being dominant. In Poland and Romania this group comprised more than 40% of the total employment in the sphere; 30% in Czechoslovakia and the GDR. The differentiation of the studied countries according to the role played by employment in the health care services and social security was small; employment in this group oscillated in a very limited range: from 25.6% to 29.4% of the total employment in the sphere. (*Table 5*) Significant differences appeared in the size of employment in the "remaining branches" group of socio-cultural and civil services: from 27.5% in Poland to 44.6% in Czechoslovakia. The size of this group depends mainly on the number of people employed in civil services, i.e. in administration, judicature and related professional groups. In Czechoslovakia people employed in the civil services represented 29% and in Romania more than 46% of the total number of people employed in the "remaining branches", while in Poland only 5.6%. A major part of the discussed group consisted of people employed in culture (15%) and engaged in sports, touristic and recreational services.

The internal, regional differentiation of the countries studied based not only on the structures of employment in the discussed sphere. It was also connected with the relative sizes of particular professional groups. The higher the mean shares of a group in a country,

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| | | Professio | onally acti | ve in soci | io-cultural | and civil | services | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-----------|------------------|------------|--------------------------------|-----------|------------------|----------|
| Country | То | tal | In scier educ | | In heal service social s | es and | In "ren brand | <i>v</i> |
| | Thou- sands | % | Thou- sands | % | Thou- sands | % | Thou- sands | % |
| Czechoslovakia | 1,361.6 | 100.0 | 406.2 | 29.8 | 348.7 | 25.6 | 606.7 | 44.6 |
| GDR | 1,682.2 | 100.0 | 442.6 | 32.2 | 493.9 | 29.4 | 745.7 | 38.4 |
| Hungary | 806.9 | 100.0 | — | | _ | | | |
| Poland | 2,227.5 | 100.0 | 964.8 | 43.3 | 650.6 | 29.2 | 612.1 | 27.5 |
| Romania | 1,402.2 | 100.0 | 460.3 | 44.2 | 278.9 | 26.8 | 303.0 | 29.0 |
| Countries studied totals | 7,120.4 | 100.0 | | | | | | |
| Countries studied without Hungary | 6,313.5 | 100.0 | 2,273.9 | 36.0 | 1,772.1 | 28.1 | 2,267.5 | 35.9 |

Table 5
Structure of employment in socio-cultural and civil services about 1980

Source: National statistics and the author's calculations

the more often units dominated by that group appeared. The best illustration of this thesis is Romania with the highest share of those employed in science and education among these countries. As a result, this group dominated in the structure of employment in the socio-cultural and civil services of all territorial units. Only in two of them, out of the existing 41, did employment in the "remaining branches" co-dominate. Employment in health care in Romania, although generally lower than in the other countries, in 34 units exceeded the national mean indicating a relatively even distribution within the country. Czechoslovakia also reveals large uniformity in the employment structure of the sociocultural and civil service sphere. Generally dominant was the group of "remaining branches", as a result of the large number of employees in administration, sometimes accompanied by science and education (Slovakia), or by health care (Bohemia). In the GDR, a country with a high share of socio-cultural services in the total service employment, in most of the existing units (12 of 15) two professional groups co-dominated the sphere: science with education and the "remaining branches". (In the three other units the "remaining branches" predominated.) As opposed to the GDR, Poland was the most diversified country in terms of the employment structure of the sphere discussed. Employment in science and education was the dominant group in 48 of the existing 49 territorial units. In two of them the "remaining branches" were dominant and it is the branches that absolutely dominated the last unit left. In many voivodships employment in health care services was also high, although lower than the international mean, similar to Romania. The lack of proper data for Hungary eliminated any possibility of an analysis of the internal diversity in the country in terms of socio-cultural and civil services.

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SERVICE EMPLOYMENT AND POPULATION

Satisfaction of the demand on services depends not so much on the absolute number of persons engaged in service activities, as it does when the relationship between this number and the number of population living in a particular territory is considered. The demand on services itself is the result of the standard of living in the society, of its ways of living, and especially of the degree of its professional activity. Univocal determination of these dependencies is not yet possible. Their impact, however, is undisputable and finds confirmation in Figure 4. Based on the example of countries that are highly developed economically (according to the general opinion they fully satisfy the demand on services), one may trace clear relations between the indices of professional activity, the shares of persons engaged in service activities and the standard of living. The richer a country is and the higher the professional activity of its population, the higher the share of people engaged in services. To a certain extent, one may also guess the influence ways of living have on the size of service employment. For example, in countries known as thrifty and economical, like Germany, Sweden or Switzerland, the share of employees in services is lower than in other countries with similar economic standards (the USA, France, Britain). The Central European countries analyzed do not exhibit such regularities mostly because of the underdevelopment of service sector in their economy. On the graph (Figure 4) a relationship can only be found between the standard of living and the share of service employment. In this respect two groups of countries can be distinguished: those with higher living standards (Czechoslovakia, the GDR and Hungary) and others with lower standards (Bulgaria, Poland and Romania). In terms of professional activity these groups do not differ, moreover, both show an identical range of diversity: from 46% to about 50%. Based on this one may hazard a hypothesis that the size of service employment in countries with a deficit of service activities depends only on the level of economic development and the number of population, and does not correlate with the index of professional activity. This also indicates an underestimation of the impact of this index on the demand on certain services in these countries. As a result, the size of service employment is centrally regulated according only to the population number and its financial possibilities.

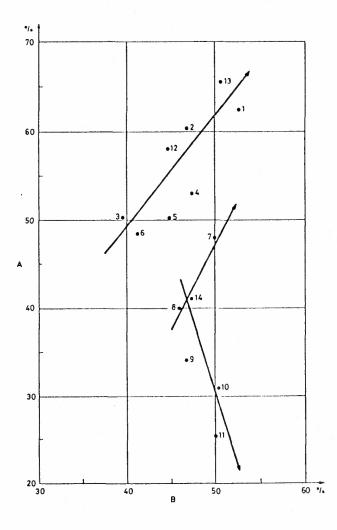
The number of people employed in services in these countries oscillated from 126 per 1,000 inhabitants in Romania, to 228 per 1,000 inhabitants in the GDR. It may be stated, therefore, that the degree of satisfaction of the demand on services was almost twice as high in the GDR as in Romania, disregarding the fact that the demand on services depends not only on the standards of living of a society but also on the supply of services, i.e. on the access to certain economic units which may secure a rational use of durable material goods and one's personal time. The degree of satisfaction of the demand on services in Czechoslovakia is nearly the same as in the GDR, while in Poland nearly the same as in Romania. Hungary, in this respect, had an intermediate position. (*Table 3*)

The international diversification of particular countries reflected the general level of satisfaction of the demand on services. (Figure 5) In the GDR, for example, per 1,000 inhabitants in all territorial units there were at least 200 persons employed in services, i.e. as many as the other countries had almost exclusively in their capitals. The number of

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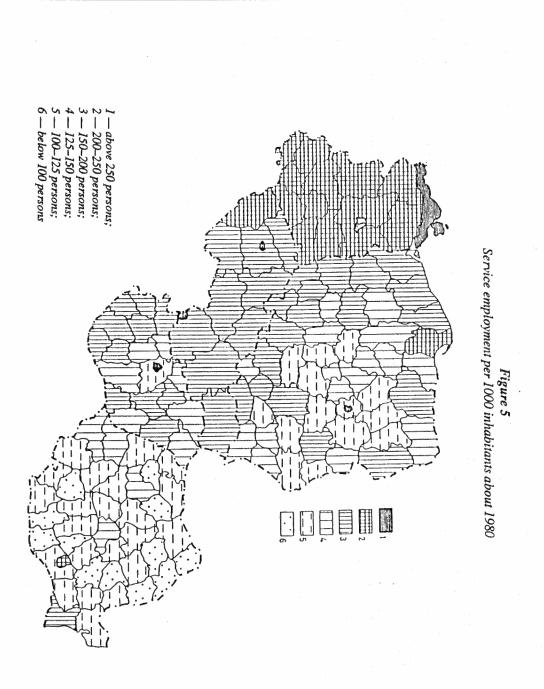
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Figure 4 Service employment on the background of professional activity of population in selected countries about 1980



- A share of people active inservices;
- B index of professional activity
- 1 Sweden;
- 2 United Kingdom;
- 3 Spain;
- 4 Switzerland;
- 5 Federal
- Republic of Germany;
- 6 Austria;
- 7 German Democratic
 - Republic;

- 8 Hungary;
- 9 Poland;
- 10 Bulgaria;
- 11 Romania;
- 12 France;
- 13 USA;
- 14 Czechoslovakia



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persons employed in services in Czechoslovakia was relatively even and oscillated between 150 and 200 people per 1,000 inhabitants. In Romania in 11 out of the existing 41 territorial units this number dropped below 100 persons per 1,000 inhabitants and in a further 24, although it oscillated between 100 and 125, it was still lower than the national mean. In Romania there were higher numbers than the mean value only in 6 units, characterized by the the highest values with Constanta (150) and Bucuresti (200 persons per 1,000 inhabitants). For Poland and Hungary larger regional differences were typical: a mixture of units with an employment in services per 1,000 inhabitants near the international mean, with units showing a clear deficit of services. The last kind, with a service employment not higher than 150 persons per 1,000 inhabitants covered almost entirely North-Eastern and Central Poland as well as Central and Northern Hungary. In the capitals of these countries service employment exceeded 250 persons per 1,000 inhabitants.

| Table 6 | |
|---------|--|
|---------|--|

| Type of structure | | Structu | re dominate | d by employ | ment in | |
|---|-----------------------------|--|--|--|--|----------------------------------|
| Gross employment structure | industry | industry and services | industry and agricultu- re | industry agricultu- re and ser- vices | agricultu- re | agricultu- re and services |
| Structure of employment in market services | transport- ation | transport- ation and distributi- on | transport- ation and remaining branches | distributi- on | distributi- on and remaining branches | remaining branches |
| Structure of employment in socio-cultural and civil services | science and education | education and health service | education and remaining branches | remaining branches | | |
| | | | | | | |
| Shares of employes in: | | | Classes | of shares | | |
| Service sector | to 2 | 25% | 25- | 30% | above | e 30% |
| Service sector per 1000 inhabitants | to 150 | persons | 150-200 |) p ers ons | above 20 | 0 persons |

Classes of employment structures applied in the typology of territorial units

In some countries or their parts very low values of service employment related to the population resulted from their general level of economic development, which found its reflection mainly in an underdevelopment of the socio-cultural and civil services. The level of development of the market services in these countries was much less diversified and particular countries were much more homogeneous in this respect. Apart from the

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GDR and Czechoslovakia where the number of employees in market services exceeded usually 100 persons per 1,000 inhabitants, i.e. exceeded the mean value for the five countries; in other countries such values were characteristic only of capitals, highly urbanized regions and seaports. Very low values, below 80 persons per 1,000 inhabitants, were typical of the agricultural areas of Poland and Romania as well as of neighbouring big cities functioning as their hinterlands. Employment in the sphere of socio-cultural and civil services in the whole of the GDR and Czechoslovakia also exceeded the international mean. In general, it exceeded 80 persons per 1,000 inhabitants. In the other countries such numbers appeared only in capitals or, sometimes (Poland), also in territorial units containing big cities---important centres of scientific and cultural activities. Other metropolitan regions as well as recreation areas in Poland and Hungary had numbers close to the mean. The remaining territories of the last mentioned countries and almost half of the units in Romania had relatively low indices of employment in the socio-cultural and civil services (40 to 60 persons per 1,000 inhabitants). The other half of Romania, Eastern and Southern part of the country, had extremely low employment in the discussed sphere (less than 40 persons per 1,000 inhabitants). Equally low indices in Poland appeared only in three units.

Each analysis so far carried out indicates that the general level of development of the service sector measured by means of employment, was the highest in the GDR and Czechoslovakia, the countries with the most developed economies, which were also spared such war devastations as those suffered by Poland. The level of development of the service sector in Romania was the lowest among the five countries. Poland and Hungary held an intermediate position and were typical in the parallel existence of both units with developed services and with their deficits.

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