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Review on the Risks of Atypical Work in OECD Countries in the 1980-2020 Periods

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Abstract. The rapid change in working models establishes a new workforce structure and working systems. This situation creates the problem of unregistered employment and atypical work by individualising business dealing. Economic, social and technological developments, especially in the 1970s, have impacted working life worldwide, and atypical employment forms and working models have gradually replaced typical employment types. Being flexible, it is aimed to adjust the working days and hours according to the demand differences and changes in the market, sustainability of the enterprises, increase in productivity and employment, and the establishment of the work and life balance of the employees. However, with the spread of flexibility practices over time and the intensification of atypical working styles, some losses have begun to occur in employees' vested rights regarding working conditions. Informal work causes another problem, such as unorganised and irregular labour. The purpose of the study is to examine the problems caused by atypical work. The research used descriptive statistical method since it is convenient to follow the developments in a particular field and identify the factual situations. The authors have collected data from World Labour Organisation and OECD sources and analysed these collected data according to descriptive statistical techniques. Using the trend analysis method, the authors have analysed the workforce structure and union density change in the analysed period based on numerical data. The research has established that atypical work causes insufficient instrumentality and status problems in the study period and disorganisation of labour. Based on research results, it can be stated that such working models as teleworking, working from home, and atypical work may lead to various social and psychological problems in the future

Keywords: labour, working model, part-time work, disorganisation of labour, precarisation



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INTRODUCTION

According to the generally accepted classification, publicity has reached the information society by passing through the stages of primitive, agricultural, and industrial societies. The factors that make this classification possible are always the economic, cultural, and political factors and the ways of doing business that enable the ownership of the production means and their exchange. Throughout history, the type of work and workplace differed with the change and development of civilisation [1-5]. Every civilisation and social stage has brought its way of doing business. Different business systems of each society are determined by the level of technology reached. Today, with the opportunities provided by the everyday use of information and communication technologies, it is necessary to determine how new working methods such as “virtual work”, “virtual workplace”, “atypical employment”, and “atypical work” are affected. In addition, it is necessary to determine what consequences the said working method has in favour or against whom, including the employee and the employer, this is essential in keeping projections about the future.

In conventional ways, people were working depending on a place of work. This situation was a status opportunity in the organisational hierarchy and satisfaction provided by workplace friendship in a favourable organisational climate. This process had changed considerably when the employee, who joined the organisation with muscular strength and partly mental power in the industrial society, started to work using “the power of knowledge” in the information society. In addition to such sectors as agriculture, industry and service, the “information business” emerged, which allowed the appearance of a new sector called “information sector” [6-7]. Today, humanity witnesses the rise of new business models called “Virtual Workplace” or “Virtual Corporation”, virtual work, atypical work, distance work, and Internet technology. Nowadays, to define the way of doing business, such concepts as “teleworking”, “virtual organisation”, “network organisation”, and “virtual office” are used. Despite the variety of concepts and the lack of clarity in the literature, it is evident that the concepts of “job”, “workplace” and “employee” have lost their conventional meaning. The distance between work-workplace-employees, which cannot be separated in the conventional sense, is combined with virtual networks [8-12]. This inseparable triad led to a new and dangerous class called precarisation in atypical work. On the other hand, an individual who loses the idea of space due to atypical work becomes alienated from work and themselves. Although there are enough publications on the alienation of the employee, the gap in the literature on the problem areas of atypical work and precarisation makes this study relevant, functional and necessary.

Humanity is going through a period in which every rule, principle, job, and method of doing business in a conventional way is transformed. Work, which means

applying labour to a solid object, has changed form and applied to abstract/virtual entities. It is not easy to predict how this process will turn out today. This process is radically changing the human-work relationship. Earlier, the object was the work itself. Today, this conventional subject-object relationship has been disrupted with artificial intelligence, expert systems, and the adaptation of various algorithms to the job. It is essential to identify and even emphasise the place of people in the human-work relationship. Although the way of working in a workplace and between certain hours is caused by different reasons, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, the gap created by eliminating the idea of the workplace from human life must be filled with such measures as close communication and interaction [13-18]. The workplace where employees spend a considerable part of their lives is also the environment where they modernise and socialise by applying their workplace friendship, knowledge and skills. To eliminate the feeling of emptiness and abandonment caused by the removal of workplaces which have such essential functions from human life, it is necessary to frequently communicate through live and video connections on various platforms. It is essential for atypical employees who do not have a workplace yet to meet their socialisation and solidarity needs by establishing various non-governmental organisations.

Developments in the way they appear now show that people will work in more than one job simultaneously in the future. Currently it has different applications, such as “multi-career” and “atypical career”. The new working class has more than one skill and ability in these new ways of doing work, which is implemented as atypical work. In addition to the obligation mentioned above, atypical work has problems working without status, precarious working, working without organisation, and working without a contract. This study tried to determine the development of atypical work in OECD countries during 1980-2020. For this purpose, the authors have tried to identify what is atypical work in OECD countries. In addition to the fundamental question of the study, the authors aimed to answer the following sub-questions:

- What is the evolution of employment indicators in OECD countries during the period under review?
- Is atypical work increasing in OECD countries?
- Does atypical work in OECD countries cause the problem of labour disorganisation?

THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

Atypical nature of work and the problem of alienation from work

In terms of motivation theories, there are three types of factors that push people to work, and the first of these is “instrumentality”. According to the instrumentality factor, work is beneficial for an individual, and it becomes a motivating factor if it can meet their physical and psychological needs. Otherwise, the instrumental reason

necessary for an individual to do the job disappears. The second benefit that the job provides to the individual is self-fulfilment. The need for self-actualisation is met in two ways. The first is the psychological satisfaction created by the person seeing their work, and the second is the social satisfaction provided by the appreciation of other people. Social satisfaction is also the third reason that directs a person to work and makes work meaningful. However, the atypical study contains fundamental problems in providing this satisfaction. In virtual organisations that do not exist but can be processed as if they exist, human beings do their job anywhere far from a block of concrete and natural environment. The employee is at work but not in an abstract and virtual universe, not in the real world [8; 10; 11; 19]. Here but not at work. Therefore, it is not easy to define the framework of the atypical work. The main factor that makes the definition difficult is that the work is real and the workplace is virtual. The employee in the virtual business environment has lost their real social universe and works in a simulated business environment, in an artificial environment that does not meet the needs of reality.

The most typical example of atypical work is virtual work. Virtual work differs from conventional business forms by not allowing the employee to touch and feel the virtual product produced by the employee. Virtual works do not give the employee a feeling of seeing and perceiving their work in three dimensions, and therefore cannot give satisfaction. This situation pushes the business to "virtual alienation". Alienation has been used for physiological, psychological, sociological, economic, political, and theological issues. Despite all these different uses, the word alienation can be grouped under two headings in terms of meaning. The first one is separation from self and the other is distancing from people and inability to adapt to social processes. Alienation is the process that disrupts the integrity of harmony in an individual's daily life. Alienation can be evaluated in three different ways. The first is the loss of interest in the society in which a person lives, cultural values, and the distribution of roles [20; 21]. In this kind of alienation, the person experiences powerlessness and loneliness caused by the inability to grasp social processes. Another alienation is the alienation of labour that occurs due to the division of labour as the employee loses control over the work in the production process. Virtual alienation occurs with the vague sense of pleasure the worker experiences due to virtual barriers between their work and themselves.

Today, people become alienated from society and themselves due to various reasons such as industrialisation, technology, changes in social structure. A person loses the ability to behave naturally, sensitively and sincerely. The shape of production, the forms of specialisation, and the current production methods prevent free and natural development. The main factor that causes

alienation in jobs and social processes causes people to move away from their natural order. Today's atypical jobs and employment styles do not allow the employee to be involved in the work processes. Human nature is denied in this new type of work; independence, creativity, curiosity, and the ability to think independently are hindered [22-24]. People cannot fully comprehend their place in automation-based business forms requiring general information and communication technologies. The person who has to do business with artificial intelligence and expert systems is alienated by moving away from naturalness and complying with the machine's rhythm.

Near risk areas of atypical study

Advanced information technologies prevent employee from integrating themselves into the business processes. The excessive automation of the work makes the employee depend on the machine and surrender to the operating logic of the automation. Excessive dependence on the work processes and the technology used causes the employee to feel worthless. According to the success motivation theory, a theory of motivation, the individual has two basic needs. The first is that the essential factor motivating people to work is achieving. The second need is the need of the individual to establish a relationship with his/her environment. Even if the current meaning of the work meets the individual's need to achieve to a certain extent, it is not enough to meet their social needs [25; 26]. In industrial psychology, this new meaning of work can cause employees to feel lonely and worthless. Employees obtaining a corporate identity depends on having a physical structure of the work. The experience of having the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities to do a job enables the development of identity and, therewith, gives an employee a social status. In the conventional sense, the identity of the job is lost in case of retirement and unemployment, while the opportunity to obtain identity and status is lost in atypical work.

Different individuals perform different functions at work and some workplaces consist of people who do not know each other. However, in the conventional sense, work is also the source of friendship and social communication outside the family [27]. The job enriches the employee's field of personal relationships. This wealth is only possible when there is physical interaction. Otherwise, the artificial interaction provided by the virtual environment does not provide a suitable environment for the enrichment of personal relationships. Atypical work, in a way, means a disorder. The human biological system also has a functioning order, as any system. In terms of time management, planning, and ordering priorities, irregularity disrupts the person's life order and family life.

In an atypical study, it is possible to do or postpone the work at any time. When people have a job, they have a workplace and colleagues and take on new social roles. In classical organisations, the individual is in contact with other people, such as his/her colleagues, managers, and

subordinates. The employee's role is interrelated with the role of a large number of employees. In atypical work, people have to carry out their work in electronic cells away from their social environment and in environments of spacelessness. With the impact of the pandemic, jobs are moved to homes in the compulsory remote work process [28-30]. However, this working system causes people to lose their colleagues. Knowledge work, which requires intense attention and mental focus and makes it difficult for a person to be a family member, damages the conventional family structure.

A job that will save people from loneliness and contribute to being a social person must meet the social needs of people, which are expected from work. Only in this way can the individual protect their integrity and get rid of the feeling of loneliness and strangeness. Unfortunately, atypical work at home cannot respond to the individual's psychological needs, nor does it fulfill their social role. Access opportunity provided by knowledge work and information organisation eliminates realistic interactions. Virtual access does not allow interaction and leaves people alone. Atypical work is quickly adopted due to the sense of freedom provided by adaptation to change and mobility.

Atypical study and problem areas

Atypical work pushes an individual to insufficiency in social relations and isolates them. In an atypical study, people lose the opportunity to communicate face-to-face, and human-centred interaction turns into tool-centered communication. The new communication, which has increased widespread access, loses its depth and content contrary to expectations. Icon-based simplifying media narration moves away from the content of face-to-face communication. At the same time with the increase in communication channels due to virtual networks, humans' loneliness is expanding. In vehicle-centred communication, the isolation of the individual, who has gained extraordinary opportunities in ways such as the Internet and satellite communication, increases. Minds conditioned by the magic of easy access cannot find a real opportunity for interaction. Even when the employee devotes themselves in atypical work, it is impossible to live in peace due to the uncertainty of tomorrow. The problems of atypical work are still understudied. The negativities caused by the atypical work on the human element of the organisation are beginning to emerge [31-33]. It is not yet known how an individual accustomed to loneliness in an artificial environment surrounded by webs will overcome asociality. Among these uncertainties, common forms of atypical study can be identified as follows [34]:

Working in satellite centres. It is away from the workplace but connected to the business with a network system. Working centres called satellite offices belong to a single company. The company designs satellite offices. Satellite offices, which have personal computers, telephones, Internet, and other information and communication

technologies infrastructure, are atypical employment places where employees from different departments work. In this work method, employees are neither at home nor at work. Satellite offices are places where a modern employee is alone with information and communication technologies.

Neighbouring study centres. These centres are also designed to enable an atypical way of working. The difference between neighbouring study centres from satellite offices is that they are designed and used by more than one organisation. Employees in neighbouring work centres represent different interests. Neighbouring study centres, which form organisational design contrary to synergy creation and group dynamics, are mechanical/electronic environments purified from organisational culture and climate.

Telework at home. Teleworking at home is the most common example of atypical work. Telework or virtual work can be in an environment where the employee can only communicate indirectly, away from the workplace and colleagues. When working at home, it turns into an office and the person is far from the motivational group dynamics of the workplace and disrupts the warm climate of their own home. With information and communication technologies moving to the house, the house loses its "home" quality, becomes the workplace branch, and loses its conventional character.

Mobile work. The most atypical type is mobile work. It does not work depending on any fixed location that works in a mobile operation. The idea of space loses its conventional meaning in mobile workers. Mobile workers are often travelling. These include information and communication technologies from home, car, hotel, etc. They work by establishing a connection with the central office. Mobile workers are the travelers of the information societies.

Part-time job. A part-time job is a form of employment that requires fewer hours per week than a full-time job. These usually work in shifts and alternately. If an employee works less than 30 hours per week, they are considered part-time worker. According to the International Labour Organisation, part-time workers account for almost 50 percent of total employment in most developed countries except the United States (I.L.O. Part-Time Work Convention No. 175).

The most critical drawback of atypical work is career development. Employees should generally have clear information about career opportunities in the organisation. Since atypical work is carried out in independent environments outside the organisation's hierarchical structure, it causes the employee to stay away from the career competition environment of the workplace. The organisation's hierarchical structure responds to the employee's desire to rise. The most important disadvantage of the atypical work method, devoid of hierarchy, rank and competition, is that it does not respond to the human desire to rise. Humankind has realised its desire to rise

by competing with other employees in the conventional workplace. It can be argued that non-destructive competition has had a considerable motivational effect on human productivity [35; 36]. Although atypical work provides the employee with the flexibility of movement, it causes social isolation and adaptation problems to the environment in the long term. Atypical work deprives employees of motivation tools such as participation in decisions, jobs, and work processes.

Atypical work and precarisation problem

Since atypical work is a form of work without status and contracts, these people often work for lower wages than others. The basic (root) fee is usually not included in wages. Another negative aspect of the atypical work is that, generally, atypical employees do not have any social security benefits. According to a study conducted in the USA, one-fourth of those working at home were lonely and asocial. In a study conducted in England, 60% of the teleworkers stated that isolation from social processes is the biggest drawback. In a large-scale study on the benefits and drawbacks of telework by Hudson's Bay Company, most telework states missed exchanging views with colleagues [35]. In addition to their needs and social security, people want to be psychologically satisfied financially, economically, and physically.

Temporary and part-time workers, especially programmers, software developers, and system designers in information technology, work part-time to form the new semi-unemployed class characteristic of the information society. These people are mainly self-employed and called "crowd workers"; conditional workers and new migrants. Atypical employment finally causes a new problem called precarisation. It produces insecure employment or job security, labour instability, insufficient average monthly wages, rapid change, low social position, and unstable work [37-39]. Unfortunately, people whose working conditions have deteriorated with precarisation and become insecure and unprotected must continue their low-status lives during their retirement.

A new marginalised working class is emerging in the business world due to atypical work. These are chronically unemployed, disadvantaged suburban residents, those in need of social assistance, industrial transformation victims, job seekers, and part-time workers. A class of socially non-settled people who do not have fully guaranteed employment and stable earnings, "low status", most of them lack social and political rights and security. Working independently from the workplace in precarisation leads to the disappearance of employees' organisational support and professional isolation [37; 40-42]. Isolation is a state of loneliness and separation. Aside from the psychological and social conditions, it has been established that the essential concrete drawback of atypical work is the disorganisation of labour. This research aims to present the effect of an atypical study on the labour force, discuss the subject, and contribute to the literature on this subject.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Research design

In this study, the authors used the descriptive statistics method to examine the problem areas of atypical work in a certain period. Another reason for choosing the descriptive statistics method is that it is suitable for the subject and purpose of the research, and it was used to answer the research questions. In research-based descriptive statistics, it is aimed to establish the current state of the object or phenomenon. Descriptive research aims to draw a portrait of an organisation, individual, group, situation, or phenomenon. Descriptive statistics collect, interpret, and summarise data [43; 44]. Since the descriptive statistical method is based on quantitative data analysis, various descriptive tables support the analysis [45; 46]. Descriptive statistics describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and measures. Together with simple graphical analysis, they form the basis of every quantitative data analysis. With descriptive statistics, they describe what the data shows. Descriptive statistics convert numbers and quantitative data obtained from observations into descriptive indices. The descriptive statistical technique was used because of its compatibility with the approach of this research [44].

Sampling

The study sample consists of 24 OECD countries, including 20 founding countries in 1961 and four other countries that joined the organisation until 1973. The founding countries are the USA, Germany, Austria, Belgium, United Kingdom, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Ireland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Italy, Iceland, Canada, Luxembourg, Norway, Portugal, Turkey, and Greece. The countries that joined the OECD later and the years they joined are as follows: Japan (1964), Finland (1969), Australia (1971), New Zealand (1973). Other countries that joined after 1994 are Mexico, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, South Korea, Slovakia, Chile, Estonia, Slovenia, Israel, Latvia, and Lithuania.

Collection and analysis of data

In this study, the authors aimed to obtain the most appropriate data from OECD countries, to create a mind map of how the atypical study followed a course at ten-year intervals in 1980 and beyond. For this reason, the research sample was determined according to the purposeful sampling method. The study examined the problematic areas of atypical work in OECD countries in the post-1980 period by examining the new forms of work conducted differently, such as atypical or mobile work, while determining this impact on organised labour [47].

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Atypical employment is growing every day with new working technologies. The COVID-19 pandemic has been one of the imperative factors affecting this process. While

the rate of atypical employees to total employment was 8.5% in 2008, it increased to 12.3% in 2013 [48]. Although the share of temporary employment decreased between 2000 and 2012 (12.5%), it increased to 13.6% in 2016 [49]. In a considerable part of the 28 European Union member countries, atypical employment had a share of 37.2% of all employees in 2016. In 28 member countries of the European Union, 19.5% of the employees are

part-time, 12% fixed-term, 10% self-employed, and 1.7% temporary office workers. Among the EU countries, the rate of people called precariat in the Netherlands, where the most atypical employment is (82.5%), is at the level of Spain (51.2%) and Germany (45.8%). It is at the level of Bulgaria (12.9%), Estonia (18.8%) and Hungary (19.2%). Table 1 shows the proportion of atypical workers among all employees in European countries.

Table 1. Proportion of atypical workers among all employees in European Countries (15-64 age group, %, 2011-2019)

European Union	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
European Union – 27 countries (2020 and later)	38.8	38.9	38.6	38.6	38.5	38.2	37.9	37.3	37.2
European Union – 28 countries (2013-2020)	39.1	38.9	38.8	38.8	38.6	38.4	38.1	37.4	37.3
European Union – 15 countries (1995-2004)	39.4	39.2	39.0	39.1	39.1	38.9	38.7	38.1	38.1
Eurozone – 19 countries (2015 and later)	39.3	39.4	39.2	39.2	39.3	39.1	38.8	38.4	38.3

Source: [49]

The above ratios show that as economies grow, precariatization also grows. The precariat class grows the economies, but they cannot get a share from the growing economies; they continue to be the cause of wealth but the victims of poverty.

Part-time workers in Canada usually work less than 30 hours per week [50]. Part-time work ranges from 1-34 hours per week [51]. In July 2020, it was determined that approximately 23.29 million people were working part-time in the USA [52]. Part-time workers in the US do not have the benefits of health insurance. Although the

numbers are unclear, the US Women's Policy Research Institute suggests that the proportion of women working part-time is nine times higher than men [53]. In 2015, the average percentage for women was 32.1% in Europe, while this rate was 8.9% for men [54]. Another problem with employment is an East-West division in the EU. While part-time work is seen as a marginal attitude even among women in Central and Eastern European countries, Western European countries have adopted this much more broadly. The highest rate of part-time work in Europe is in the Netherlands, and the lowest is in Portugal (Table 2).

Table 2. Total part-time employment rate OECD, % of employment, 1980-2019

Countries	1980	1990	2000	2010	2019
Australia	n.d.	n.d.	23.76	24.85	25.54
Austria	n.d.	n.d.	11.75	19.17	20.02
Belgium	9.76*	13.51	19.26	18.32	16.87
Canada	14.29	16.97	18.1	19.56	18.95
Denmark	20.56*	19.16	15.29	19.15	19.2
Finland	n.d.	7.59	10.36	12.48	14.56
France	10.3*	12.17	14.25	13.68	13.44
Germany	13.37*	13.42	17.58	21.84	22.04
Greece	7.24*	6.7	5.34	8.91	10.46
Iceland	n.d.	22.17*	20.41	18.36	15.71
Ireland	8.02*	9.99	18.08	24.86	20.58
Italy	8.02*	8.88	11.71	16.37	18
Japan	11.08	13.57	15.95	20.24	25.16
Luxembourg	7.27*	7.61	12.97	15.78	11.64
Netherlands	18.54*	28.15	32.07	37.15	36.96
New Zealand	n.d.	19.65	22.16	21.84	19.79
Norway	n.d.	21.78	20.21	20.45	20.14
Portugal	n.d.	7.62	9.34	9.57	7.11
Spain	n.d.	4.64	7.54	12.16	13.22
Sweden	n.d.	14.48	14.04	14.5	13.72
Switzerland	n.d.	n.d.	23.04	26.14	26.87
Turkey	n.d.	9.33	9.35	11.48	9.5
United Kingdom	18.43*	20.11	23.3	24.63	23.06
OECD – Total	13.21*	13.15	13.89	16.67	16.7

Note: * – data of the year closest to the years for which no data are available

Source: [48]

Another form of atypical work is temporary employment, a fixed-term, project, or task-based work, and this situation continues to be a problem for the employees. Although some employees prefer to have temporary jobs because they combine work with training, this causes unsecured and unorganised work. People are working in temporary employment according to the

terms of daily work or periodic employment contract. Temporary employment is an atypical form of employment in the form of low-income and informal wage employment, and it means nothing but postponing the unemployment problem [55]. Temporary employment in EU and OECD Member Countries is shown in Table 3 (1980-2019).

Table 3. Temporary employment Total OECD, % of dependent employment, 1980-2019

Countries	1980	1990	2000	2010	2019
Australia	n.d.	n.d.	4.84	5.23	5.27
Austria	n.d.	n.d.	7.94	9.35	8.69
Belgium	5.39*	5.31	9.13	8.12	10.92
Canada	n.d.	n.d.	12.48	13.35	12.79
Denmark	12.45*	10.79	9.74	8.43	10.86
Finland	n.d.	n.d.	16.46	15.56	15.76
France	3.34*	10.53	15.44	15.1	16.39
Germany	n.d.	10.53	12.74	14.53	11.95
Greece	16.24*	16.55	13.47	12.6	12.51
Iceland	n.d.	14.43	12.18	12.36	7.78
Ireland	6.11*	8.49	5.95	9.64	9.76
Italy	6.61*	5.22	10.11	12.68	16.99
Japan	9.61	10.61	14.52	13.75	n.d.
Luxembourg	3.25*	3.38	3.4	7.1	9.18
Netherlands	5.82*	7.61	13.66	18.5	20.25
New Zealand	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	7.79
Norway	n.d.	n.d.	9.3	8.44	7.98
Portugal	n.d.	18.33	19.93	22.8	20.78
Spain	n.d.	29.82	32.18	24.74	26.26
Sweden	n.d.	n.d.	15.24	16.4	16.55
Switzerland	n.d.	n.d.	11.54	13.11	12.66
Turkey	n.d.	14.4	20.34	11.44	11.58
United Kingdom	5.5*	5.24	6.96	6.11	5.18
United States	n.d.	n.d.	4.48	4.21	3.95
OECD – Total	9.17	10	11.63	11.88	11.77

Note: * – data of the year closest to the years for which no data are available

Source: [49]

Atypical work is essentially the result of the strategy of labour disorganisation. The most damaging aspect of this strategy for employees is that the unions that protect rights of the employees lose power in this process. Whatever the name of regular employment or precariatization, the basic strategy is the disorganisation of labour. Whatever the name of atypical employment or precariatization, the basic strategy is the disorganisation of labour. While around seventy percent of the workforce was unionised in the 1970s, there was a dramatic decline in union membership in the 1980s and early 1990s. When the unionisation rates of OECD member countries were

examined, it was established that the purpose of labour disorganisation has been achieved to a large extent. Employers' efforts to prevent their workers from joining the union became fundamental for employees [56]. To keep employees away from unionisation and disorganise their labour, the labour disorganisation has been adopted with the modern human resources movement such as horizontal organisational structures, downsizing, human resources movement, and reserve workers. Union membership, 36% in the early 1940s and around 70% in the 1970s declined to 12% in 2018 due to the labour organisation strategy [56; 57].

Table 4. OECD Union density ratios in the countries (1960-2018)

Countries	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000	2010	2018
Australia	50.2	44.2	49.6	45.4	24.8	18.4	13.7
Austria	60.1	56.7	51.7	46.8	36.9	28.9	26.3
Belgium	41.5	42.1	54.1	53.9	56.2	53.8	50.3
Canada	29.2	31	34	32.8	31.2	30.1	25.9
Denmark	56.9	60.3	78	74.6	74.5	67.2	66.5
Finland	31.9	51.3	69.4	72.8	74.3	70.3	60.3
France	19.6	21.7	18.3	9.8	9.5	9	8.8
Germany	34.7	32	34.9	31.2	24.6	18.9	16.5
Greece	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	24.9*	22.2	20.2*
Iceland	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	89.4	85.2	91.8
Ireland	45.3	53.2	57.1	51.1	36	33.5	24.1
Italy	24.7	37	49.6	38.7	34.4	35.5	34.4
Japan	32.2	35.4	30.8	25.2	21.5	18.3	17
Luxembourg	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	43.2*	35.1	31.8
Netherlands	41.7	38.4	34.8	24.6	22.6	19.5	16.4
New Zealand	n.d.	56.3	69.1	49.6	22.4	21.4	18.8
Norway	60	56.8	57.9	58.5	52.4	50	49.2
Portugal	n.d.	n.d.	54.8	29.3	20.5*	19.6	15.3*
Spain	n.d.	n.d.	13.3	13.3	17.4	18.3	13.6
Sweden	64.6	67.7	78	81.5	86.6	70.2	64.9
Switzerland	31	24.9	27.5	22.5	20.2	17.6	14.9*
Turkey	12.1	29	39.5	35.2	16	10.7*	9.2
United Kingdom	40.5	44.8	52.2	39.6	29.7	26.8	23.4
United States	30.9	27.4	22.1	15.4	12.9	11.4	10.1

Note: * – data of the year closest to the years for which no data are available

Source: [58]

It is observed that unionisation rates in OECD countries decreased considerably from 1998 to 2018 (Table 4) “Union density” has continuously decreased in OECD countries since the 1980s [59]. Unionisation rates in developed western countries continue to decline today. The 1973 oil crisis, which is considered the turning point of neoliberalism, effectively reduced the density of unions in the USA. The adoption of the Taft-Hartley Act during this period was a great misfortune for unions in the United States [57; 60; 61]. In this process, unions were initially created, but those who developed the strategy that labour will not always remain a factor of production were weakening the organised workforce.

The risks of atypical work in OECD countries emerged, especially when capitalism developed new business models to overcome the crisis after the oil shock in 1973. In this study, the authors tried to determine the situation by doing a trend analysis of the last 40 years to determine whether this new working model favours the workforce, called atypical working or precarisation. The figures above show that precarisation means eliminating or weakening organised labour in firms [62-64].

In addition, it was concluded that the strategy implemented to weaken the organised workforce in front of companies brings risks such as the loss of employees' unions and working without security and status. Based on the principle that the value and meaning of jobs are measured with their results, it was determined through trend analyses that remote and atypical working is not favourable for employees. Thus, the authors concluded that atypical work creates a situation against the labour force. It was determined that the results confirm the authors' assumption that atypical employment leads to many psychological and social problems of the employees with concrete indicators.

Studies conducted on the subject with the literature review show that atypical employment and remote work are significantly higher in OECD countries, especially in the Netherlands. Due to the economic crisis of different intensities since 2008, the rate of atypical work in the total workforce increased [41; 65; 66]. As in many other fields, literature studies also constitute a disadvantaged group of women in this problematic area in atypical employment. Atypical employees among the total employees

in Europe increased from 12.7% in 1987 to 20.9% in 2009. This rate is 36.5% for women. Atypical employment rates are higher than 30%, especially in France, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Austria. It is demonstrated that atypical work, presented as a contemporary study model and ultimately leads to the emergence of a new class called precariat, increases daily [42; 67; 68]. Although atypical business models have been proposed in employment and labour market regulation as a solution to precarisation, it is evident that this will not be enough to solve the problem [39; 41; 69; 70]. It can be argued that this class, called the precariat, may cause critical social problems in the future. It is understood that information and communication technologies have led to new employment models such as remote work and atypical work. On the other hand, not wanting an organised power and adopting the strategy of labour disorganisation causes the emergence of irregular and unstable class in OECD countries, although there is yet no class-consciousness [65; 71-73]. It is necessary to consider what problems this unstable and irregular class will cause in the future.

CONCLUSIONS

This study focuses on the possible risks of atypical working models on the labour force. The research focused only on OECD member countries and the implications of atypical work on union density. Lack of access to data on some of the studied countries appeared to be a limiting factor. On the other hand, the research does not

cover other important countries. The problem of precarisation began in 1961, the year when union movements and organised labour gained importance and the OECD was established; however, the authors could not obtain sufficient data about these periods. Another limiting factor in this matter was that the countries that joined OECD after 1994 were not included in the sample. On the other hand, the research covers a substantial sample; it supports the problems of the atypical work with particular indicators and examines the subject in-depth. Discussion of the effect of atypical work on the workforce in the long term and a large sample supported by numbers makes the research original, functional and essential in contributing to the literature.

The research results show that atypical and non-contractual work called precarisation leads to a new class. Drawing attention to social and economic problems of this class in the future makes the research theoretically and practically important. The research findings show particular risk factors based on the argument that atypical study involves risks. It can be argued that this will raise some social and economic problems in the long run. It is necessary to take precautions and develop new business models with security, status, and contracts. In addition, the study covers the reflections of atypical work on union density but does not cover the relationship between atypical work and poverty. The authors propose to consider this issue in another study.

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Огляд ризиків нетипової роботи в країнах ОЕСР у 1980–2020 рр.

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Анотація. Швидка зміна робочих моделей виявляє нову структуру робочої сили та робочі системи. Така ситуація створює проблему незареєстрованої зайнятості та нетипової роботи через індивідуалізацію способу ведення бізнесу. Економічний, соціальний і технологічний розвиток, особливо з 1970-х років, вплинув на трудове життя в усьому світі, і нетипові форми зайнятості та робочі моделі поступово замінили типові види зайнятості. З гнучкістю вони спрямовані на коригування робочих днів і годин відповідно до відмінностей попиту та змін на ринку, стійкості підприємств, підвищення продуктивності та зайнятості, а також встановлення балансу між роботою та життям працівників. Однак із поширенням практики гнучкості з часом і посиленням нетипових стилів роботи почали відбуватися деякі втрати в набутих правах працівників щодо умов праці. Неформальна робота викликає ще одну проблему, наприклад, використання неорганізованої та нерегулярної праці. У цьому дослідженні автори статті мали на меті вивчити проблеми, викликані нетиповою роботою. У методі дослідження використано описову статистичну техніку, оскільки в такий спосіб зручно відслідковувати розвиток подій у тій чи іншій галузі та виявляти фактичні ситуації. Були зібрані та проаналізовані дані дослідження з джерел Всесвітньої організації праці та ОЕСР відповідно до описових статистичних методів. Використовуючи метод аналізу тенденцій при аналізі даних, було розглянуто структуру робочої сили та зміну щільності профспілок за аналізований період на основі числових даних. Результати дослідження визначили, що нетипова робота викликає проблеми недостатньої інструментальності та статусу в досліджуваній період і дезорганізації праці. На основі результатів дослідження можна стверджувати, що такі робочі моделі, як дистанційна робота, робота з дому та нетипова робота, можуть призвести до різних соціальних і психологічних проблем у майбутньому.

Ключові слова: праця, робоча модель, неповний робочий день, дезорганізація праці, прекарізація
