WORKING AFTER COVID-19: CROSS-COUNTRY EVIDENCE FROM REAL-TIME SURVEY DATA

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On March 9th, with the official count of COVID-positive individuals at 7,985 and of deaths from COVID at 463, Italy was the first European country to entered into a comprehensive, nation-wide lockdown. Containment measures were further tightened on March 22nd, when a Prime Minister’s Decree mandated the shut-down of any unessential productive activity, de facto bringing to a halt a large chunk of the Italian economy. Other European countries immediately followed: Austria on March 16th, France and Germany on March 17th, the UK on March 23rd.

The aim of these lockdown measures was to confine the spread of the coronavirus, to limit pressure on the national health system and, of course, to contain the death counts. Different degrees of lockdown were implemented at different point in time and across different countries. These public policy measures included closing schools, closing non-essential businesses, economic activities and institutions, stopping public transportation, prohibiting meetings of two or more people, imposing quarantine on people entering the country, closing borders. Moreover, individuals were asked (or mandated) to follow health and social distancing measures, such as, washing hands, coughing in the elbow, stop hugging or greeting, keeping physical distance from the others, staying at home, avoiding crowed places, stop meeting friends. Early studies (Kraemer, 2020) show that these measures were effective in reducing COVID-19 spread in the province of Hubei in China. However, these restraining measures cause also economic and psychological harms for the restrained individuals (Brooks et al., 2020) and have economic consequences (see Baldwin and di Mauro, 2020, for a review).
The April 2020 World Economic Outlook by the IMF reported estimates of large reductions in the 2020 GDP, which reached a -9.1% for the Italian GDP and was projected to -6.1% for the advanced economies. Unemployment rates were projected to increase in advanced economies from 4.8% in 2019 to 8.3 in 2020, with an increase from 3.7% to 10.4% in the US, from 10% to 12.7% in Italy and from 3.2% to 3.9% in Germany.

Indeed, immediately after the early lockdown measures, a large debate had started on the economic effects on the labor market of the social distancing measures (Kore and Peto, 2020; Bannot et al., 2020) and of a complete lockdown (Brouard, 2020). Some studies estimated which percentage of the regular jobs can be done without putting workers at risk of contracting Covid-19 (Boeri et al., 2020) or can be performed directly from home (Dingel and Neiman, 2020). Others have focused on the surge in unemployment (Coibion et al., 2020). Some authors suggested a possible trade-off between public health and economic motives (Glover et al., 2020): lock-down measures reduce contagion and deaths (with important social and economic benefits), but at the risk of a complete shut-down of the economy – with important effects on economic growth. To limit this risk, policy recommendations have been made that allow for a transition back to economic activity while preserving the most vulnerable, such as the elderly and those with pre-existing health issues (Ichino et al., 2020). Other studies considered the distribution effects and argued that COVID-19 will likely increase income inequality, due to a stronger negative effect on more vulnerable categories of individuals, such as young (Bell et al., 2020), women (Alon et., 2020), low educated (Adams-Prassl et al., 2020), Gig economy workers (Stabile et al., 2020).

This paper uses real time survey data from two waves launched at the end of March and in mid-April to provide a snapshot of the labor market outcomes in twelve countries, after that many restraining measures had been implemented. The main aim is to analyze the short-term effects on the labor market of the different social distancing measures adopted in these countries. Survey data from the project REPEAT (REpresentations, PERceptions and ATTitudes on the COVID-19) allows a comparison of these labor market responses, which may differ across countries, since countries were at different stages of the diffusion of the coronavirus and thus featured different public health measures at the time of the survey. In most countries, the first wave of the survey was launched from few days (Austria, UK) to three weeks (Italy) after the (regional, in the case of the US) lockdown – with the exception of Germany, where the lockdown was implemented immediately after.

The second wave typically came three to six weeks into the lockdown. Hence, data from the first wave capture the effect of the initial shock, while some small adjustments, by both individual and firms, to the lockdown had already been done during the second wave, at least in some countries. Our analysis uses mostly second wave data and concentrates on three labor market outcomes for those individuals, who were employed at the beginning of the year. Our surveys have information on whether they continued to work in their regular workplace, whether they were working from home or whether they stopped working (at least temporarily) – thereby remaining idle.
To study the differential effect of COVID-19 – and of the lockdown measures – on these labor market outcomes, we break down the analysis according to different workers’ characteristics, such as educational attainments, family income group, occupational type, employment status, age, gender, geographical location but also a subjective measurement of life satisfaction.

The paper proceeds as follow. In the next section, we describe the survey and the data used in the analysis. We then present the overall picture that emerges from our date. Finally, for each country, we provide a country fiche with more detailed data.

1) Real-time Survey Data

We use data from a real-time survey launched in several countries in March 2020 as part of the REPEAT project “REpresentations, PERceptions and ATtitudes on the COVID-19” (Brouard et al., 2020), which collects information on perceptions and individual behavior related to COVID-19 and the associated public health measures. Here, we consider the information on the current labor market status of the respondents and on their life satisfaction.

Table 1. Lock-down Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Lockdown’s date</th>
<th>National or Regional Lockdown</th>
<th>Number of deaths at lockdown date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>23/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>16/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>17/03/2020</td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>18/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>17/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>23/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>09/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>25/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>24/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>//</td>
<td>//</td>
<td>//</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>23/03/2020</td>
<td>National</td>
<td>359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>19/03/2020</td>
<td>Regional</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: For Brazil, it refers to the State of Santa Caterina. For US, it refers to California.*

The first wave of the survey was launched in seven countries (Australia, Austria, France, Germany, Italy, UK and US) by IPSOS and CSA on representative samples of each country citizens, between March 20th and March 30th. As shown in Table 1, at the time of the survey, all these countries, but Germany, were already in a state of national or regional lockdown. The second wave was launched in twelve countries (Australia, Austria, Brazil, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, New Zealand, Poland, Sweden, UK and US) by IPSOS and CSA on representative samples of each country citizens, some of whom participated to the first wave, in mid-April (April 15-20, except for Brazil and Poland where it was launched in April 30th-May 2nd).

In both waves, respondents were asked about their current labor market situation. In particular, we exploit answers to the following question: Currently, are you still working? Respondents have the following options: (1) Yes, I am still working outside of my home (in a company, factory or a vehicle, etc.); (2) Yes, I
am working from home; (3) No, I stopped working or (4) Not concerned/I don’t work habitually. We restrict our analysis to the employed individuals – thereby disregarding those, who answered (4). We construct three relevant categories: individuals working in the usual workplace, individuals working from home and individuals, who stopped working and are idle. It is worth noticing that this last category does not necessarily coincide with individuals being unemployed. In fact, in many countries, individuals were not laid-off, but rather asked to stay at home and to use different available arrangements, such as unused maternal leaves and extraordinary redundancy fund.

In both waves of the survey, we obtain socio-economic and demographic information on the respondents. In particular, we have individual information on gender, age, education, income groups, geographical location (according to the density), employment status (full time or part time worker, self-employed, unemployed or out of the labor force), type of occupation (blue collar, service worker, white collar, no occupation). Moreover, we use a question, in which individuals are asked how satisfied they are with their lives, with possible answers being: (i) dissatisfied; (ii) neither satisfied nor dissatisfied; and (iii) satisfied.

2) The Overall Picture

The REPEAT project allows comparing early labor market outcomes across seven advanced economies. Table 2 reports this comparison at the end of March (wave 1). Large differences emerge. In some countries, such as Italy and France, a large share of employed individuals stopped working, while much less in others, such as Australia and the US. Clearly, part of this difference is due to the different magnitude of the COVID pandemic and to the different degree of implementation of the restrictive measures. Table 1 provides information on the lockdown date and on the number of deaths at the date of the lockdown for each country. At the end of March, a large share of workers – from one (in Germany) to two workers (in the US) out of four – moved to working from home. Few workers remained in the regular workplace in Italy (18%) or in the UK (22%), but many more in Germany (53%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Time (survey)</th>
<th>Work from home</th>
<th>Work in the usual workplace</th>
<th>Stopped working</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>27-28 March</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>24-26 March</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>24-25 March</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>20-21 March</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>27-30 March</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>25-26 March</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>25-27 March</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country-Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures refer to the percentages of active people in January 1st.
Some adjustments in the labor market have occurred in the three weeks between the first and the second wave. Those countries – namely France and Italy, which were hit early and hard by the COVID, were able to reduce substantially the share of idle workers, by increasing the share of workers in the regular workplace (France) or both from home and in the regular workplace (Italy). The snapshot at the labor market in mid-April, reported in Table 3, shows still large heterogeneity across the twelve countries. The share of idle workers is small in Sweden, Australia and the US (around 11%), but much larger in Canada and Italy (34%). Only 18% of the workers is still in the original workplace in New Zealand, but 61% in Sweden. Finally, 60% of the individuals work from home in New Zealand, but only 28-29% in Sweden, Canada and Poland.

To study the differential effect of COVID-19 – and of the lockdown measures – on these labor market outcomes, for each country, we analyze different category of workers. More specifically, we calculate the three labor market outcomes – working in the regular workplace, working from home and stop working – according to educational attainments (no high school, high school and college), family income groups (in quartiles in the income distribution), occupational types (blue collars, white collars and service workers, corresponding respectively to 6-9, 1-2 and 3-5 in the 1-digit ISCO classification), employment status (full-time, part-time and self-employed), age (young 18-34, prime time 35-49, fifties 50-59, senior 60+), gender and geographical location (low, middle and high density areas). These calculations are reported in the country fiche with eight figures for each country.

### Table 3. Labor Market Outcomes (Wave 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Time (survey)</th>
<th>Work from home</th>
<th>Work in the usual workplace</th>
<th>Stopped working</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>15-20 April</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>15-18 April</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>30 April / 2 May</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>14-17 April</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>15-16 April</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>16-18 April</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>15-17 April</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New-Zealand</td>
<td>15-18 April</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>30 April / 2 May</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>16-17 April</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>15-17 April</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>16-18 April</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-Mean</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Figures refer to the percentages of active people in January 1st.

Despite the large cross-country differences shown in Tables 1 and 2, strong common patterns emerge in the analysis of the effect of COVID-19, and related measures, on the different categories of workers.

Large differences emerge in labor market outcomes depending on the educational attainments of the workers (see Figure 1 in the country fiches). In every country, college graduates work from home more than workers with no high school or with high school diploma only. Moreover, compared to these lower educated workers, college graduates work less from the regular...
workplace and – in most, but not all countries in our sample – are less likely to be idle.

An analogous pattern arises according to occupation type (see Figure 3 in the country fiches). White collars work more from home, but less from the regular workplace, than blue collars. In some countries (France, Italy, New Zealand, Poland, UK), this implies that white collars stop working less than blue collars. Service workers (a definition not available in every country) feature similar labor market outcomes to white collars, but less pronounced.

Some differences emerge also according to the work condition (Figure 4 in the country fiches). In particular, part-time workers are more likely to stop.

Clearly, education and occupation types are strongly related – and so is, at least to some extent, family income (see Figure 2 in the country fiches). In fact, in all countries (but Poland and Sweden), workers in the highest quartile of the income distribution work more from home than the others (particularly the low income workers). No major difference emerge in working from the regular workplace. Hence, in half of the countries in the sample (Brazil, Canada, France, Italy, New Zealand and the UK), high income workers are less likely to be idle. On the contrary, individuals in the lowest quintile of the income distribution tend to work less from home and are more likely to find themselves idle.

Gender gaps in labor outcomes emerge in some countries (see Figure 6 in the country fiches). Typically, women work more from home than men (the opposite happens in Austria and Sweden), but less in the regular workplace. In many countries, these changes produce only a compositional effect and the share of idle workers is the same across gender. In some countries, such as Austria, Canada, Germany, Italy, Poland and Sweden, instead, gender differences emerge, as women stop working more than men.

Finally, no systematic difference arises in labor market outcomes across age groups (see Figure 5 in the country fiches) – despite the health effect of COVID-19 being stronger on elderly individuals. Analogously, no clear rural-urban differences, as captured by population density (see Figure 7 in the country fiches) emerge.

To summarize, some categories of individuals – college graduates, white collars and high-income people, were largely able to continue to work from home – and hence not to remain idle. Instead, blue collars, workers with no high diploma and low-income people were less likely to work from home and often had to stop. These large differences in labor outcomes have economic consequences and affect also the level of life satisfaction. In fact, in almost all countries in the sample, there are more individuals satisfied with their life among those working from home (see Figure 8 in the country fiche). Then it confirms that life (un)satisfaction is strongly associated with economic (in)security framed by labor conditions (Clark & al. 2008).
Australia imposed social distancing rules on 21 March at a federal level, while the different States started to impose some stricter rules, which also included the shut-down of non-essential services. These measures notwithstanding, there was not a proper lockdown. At the time of the survey, the country had been under these rules for almost a month.

Tables 1 and 2 indicate that, during both waves, the majority of people was either working from home (47%) or from the usual workplace (40%); only the 13% stopped working.

Figure 1 shows a clear distinction between people holding a college degree (59% were working from home) and people with a lower level of education as they were more likely to work from their usual workplace. High income individuals are more likely to work from home (Figure 2). Figures 3 and 4 indicate that white collars and full-time workers were working from home more than respectively blue collars and part-time workers, with a difference of around 20% in both cases. Figure 4 shows also that part-time workers were more likely to stop working than full-time workers. Figure 5 indicates that young workers work from home more than workers aged 50+. Workers in their fifties represent the greatest share of those working from their usual workplace. No large gender emerges in stop working: 15% of women were idle against 12% among men.

Finally, life satisfaction is higher among those working at home and lower among those stop working.
Fig. 3. Current working status by occupation

Fig. 4. Current working status by work condition

Fig. 5. Current working status by age

Fig. 6. Current working status by gender

Fig. 7. Current working status by location

Fig. 8. Current working status by life satisfaction
AUSTRIA
[Data from on line surveys (CAWI) on April 15-18 2020. Sample Size: 1,000 respondents]

The Covid-19 pandemic reached Austria at the end of February. Between March 10th and March 15th, universities and schools were closed and public events gathering many people cancelled. On March 16th, the federal government imposed a national lockdown. On April 14th, wearing face masks in public places became mandatory and the government allowed some stores to reopen. The first wave of the survey was administered on 24-26 March, during the lockdown, and the second wave on 15-18 April, when the lockdown had just been lifted for some activities. The overall share of respondents working from home remain similar (around 36%) between waves, while the share of people working in their usual workplace increased from 33% to 47% and the share of those who had stopped working dropped from 29% to 17%.

Figure 1 shows a large difference in working conditions according to education: 60% of college graduates were working from home, 25% in their usual workplace and 15% had stopped. Among non-college graduates, 28% were working from home, 53% from their usual workplace and 18% were idle.

Figure 3 shows that similar shares of white collars and service workers working from home and in their usual workplace. On the other hand, only 16% of blue collars reported working from home, while 64% were working in their usual workplace. The shares of white collars, blue collars and service workers reporting that they stopped working was around 17-18%. Self-employed were more likely that full-employed workers to work from home and less from the usual workplace (see Figure 4).

Figure 5 shows that young workers were more likely than old workers to be working in their usual workplace, while old workers from home. Figure 6 displays a substantial gender gap: women were more likely than men to have stopped working: 22% versus 13%. Figure 7 shows that workers living in urban areas were more likely to be working from home and less in the usual workplace than workers in rural areas.

Surprisingly, if compared with other countries, satisfied individuals are more likely to work from the regular workplace and unsatisfied individuals from home (see Figure 8).
BRAZIL
[Data from on line surveys (CAWI) on April 30 – May 2, 2020. Sample Size: 1,000 respondents.]

Brazil did not adopt a nation-wide lockdown, although from March 17 many State governors imposed some restrictive measures. On March 18, several municipalities including Rio de Janeiro declared a State of emergency and on March 24 the State of São Paulo imposed a lockdown lasting until April 22. According to different news sources, many favelas were kept under lockdown by local criminal organizations, which limited the movement of people. At the time of the survey, many Brazilian states had therefore been in lockdown for roughly 40 days, although some measures were eased also in response to the pressure by President Bolsonaro, who strongly opposed lockdown measures.

As shown in Table 1, 42% of people in our sample were working from home, 36% in their usual workplace and 22% stopped.

Figure 1 shows that 64% of people in our sample with no high school diploma were still working in their usual workplace, compared to 32% among college graduates. Figure 2 indicates that people with higher income were more likely to work from home and less likely to stop than lower income people. White collars were also more likely to work from home, less from their usual workplace and also less likely to be idle (see Figure 3). Figure 4 shows that self-employed were more likely to work from home, less from the workplace and more likely to stop than full-time workers.

More than 70% of the elderly people (aged 60+) were working from home – this is more than 30% higher than in other age group. A large gender gap emerges in Figure 6: women were more likely to work from home than men (44% vs 39%), less in the regular workplace (31% vs 41%) and hence more likely to stop working (25% vs 20%). People in the cities work more in the regular work place than from home (Figure 7).

Finally, in our sample there is a strong negative correlation between low life satisfaction and stop working (Figure 8).
Fig. 3. Current working status by occupation

Fig. 4. Current working status by work condition

Fig. 5. Current working status by age

Fig. 6. Current working status by gender

Fig. 7. Current working status by location

Fig. 8. Current working status by life satisfaction
CANADA
[Data from online surveys (CAWI) on April 14-17, 2020. Sample size: 1,006 respondents.]

The Covid-19 pandemic reached Canada at the end of January, but its relevance was played down by the government until mid-March, when all provinces and territories closed non-essential activities, schools, universities and the country entered into lockdown without ordering a “stay at home” policy.

At the time of the survey (one wave only), launched between 14 and 17 April, when the country was into a lockdown. Among the respondents, 37% were working in the usual workplace, 29% from home and 34% were idle.

Figure 1 shows that 52% of college graduates were working from home, 27% were working in their usual workplace and 21% stopped working. Instead, among workers with no high school diploma, 45% stopped working, 44% were working in their usual workplace and only 11% from home.

A similar picture emerges from Figure 2, which shows the breakdown by income quartiles. Among individuals in the top quartile of the income distribution, 45% were working from home and 21% were idle, whereas almost one of two individuals in the first quartile of the income distribution reported had stopped working, and only 15% were working from home.

Self-employed are much less likely than full-employed workers to continue working in the usual workplace and more likely to be idle (Figure 4). Figure 6 displays large gender differences in the labor market. Women work much less than men in the usual workplace (29% vs 44%) and are more likely to be idle (40% vs 28%).

Individuals working in the usual workplace are more likely to be unsatisfied, while those working from home to be satisfied (Figure 7).
FRANCE
[Data from online surveys (CAWI) on April 15-16, 2020. Sample Size: 2,020 respondents.]

France entered into lockdown on March 17 – a week before the first wave of the survey. At the time, 38% of the respondents had stopped working, 26% remained in the workplace and 36% were working from home. Some adjustments had occurred in the French labor market between the two waves, since in mid-April, 41% of the respondents were working from the usual workplace, 33% from home and 26% remained idle.

Figure 1 indicates a large difference in labor market outcome according to education: college graduates were mostly working from home or in the regular workplace and only 21% were idle. Instead, the (few) individuals with no high school diploma mostly stopped working. Among high school diploma workers, one of two was working in the regular workplace, but one of three was idle.

High income individuals were more likely to work from home and less to be idle than low income workers (Figure 2). Similarly, Figure 3 indicates that most white collars (66%) were working from home and only 11% were idle, while blue collars were working from the usual workplace (64%), but one of four had stopped working. Service workers were working both from home and in the workplace, but almost one of four was idle. Self-employed were more likely than full-time workers to work from home, but less in the workplace (Figure 4).

Elderly workers (60+) were more likely to have stopped working (38%). No significant gender gap emerges in the idle workers (27% among women and 25% among men), with women more likely to work from home and less from the workplace (Figure 6). Among urban workers, more people work from home and less in the regular workplace.

Finally, Figure 8 indicates more satisfaction among individuals working, either from home or in the workplace, and less satisfaction among idle workers.
GERMANY
[Data from on line surveys (CAWI) on April 16-18, 2020. Sample Size: 2,000 respondents.]

On March 13th, Germany closed schools, kindergartens, universities and nursing homes. Most of the country’s external borders were closed on March 15th. By March 22nd, all German states decided to impose restrictions to movements in public spaces. The first wave of the survey was conducted on March 20-21, just before the official lockdown, but when most activities were already closed. The second wave was implemented in mid-April.

Tables 1 and 2 show that about one worker out of two continued to work from the usual workplace. Working from home increased from 24% to 31%, while idle workers dropped from 23% to 20%.

Figure 1 discloses large difference in labor market outcome according to education: 47% of college graduates were working from home, against only 24% among workers with high school diploma and only 10% of workers with no high school diploma. A large share of non-college graduates was working in the usual workplace, but one of two individuals with no high school diploma had stopped working. Similarly, high income individuals were more likely to work from home (Figure 2).

Figure 3 displays large differences depending on the type of occupation. Blue collars were largely working from the usual workplace or idle. Only 12% of them were working from home. On the opposite, white collars were mostly working from home or from the usual workplace (36%) and service workers mostly from the usual workplace or from home (36%). Figure 4 shows that approximately 70% of self-employed workers were working from home and only very few from the regular workplace. Part-time workers were more likely than full-time workers and self-employed to be idle.

No large differences emerge according to age groups (see Figure 5), although elderly workers (60+) are more likely to stop. Figure 6 shows that women are more likely than men to work from home, but less from the workplace. The percentage of women, who stopped working is 21% against 18% for men. Only a small urban-rural cleavage emerges, with individuals in the city working more from home and less from the workplace (Figure 7). Finally, Figure 8 shows that more satisfied workers among those working from the regular workplace and less satisfaction among the idle workers.
Fig. 3. Current working status by occupation

Fig. 4. Current working status by work condition

Fig. 5. Current working status by age

Fig. 6. Current working status by gender

Fig. 7. Current working status by location

Fig. 8. Current working status by life satisfaction
ITALY
[Data from on line surveys (CAWI) on April 15-17, 2020. Sample size: 997 respondents.]

Italy has been the third country after China and Korea to be largely hit by Covid-19. On January 31st, all flights to and from China were cancelled and a national emergency was declared. In February, eleven municipalities in Lombardia and Veneto were quarantined. On March 9th, the lockdown was extended to the entire country. On March 21st, the Italian government closed all non-essential economic activities.

Hence, both waves (on March 27-30 and on April 15-17) were conducted during the restrictive lockdown. However, in the three weeks between the first and the second wave, large adjustments took place in the labor market. The share of idle workers dropped from 47% to 34%, while the share of individuals working from home increased from 35% to 41% and in the regular workplace from 18% to 25%.

Figure 1 displays large differences according to education: 61% of college graduates were working from home, only 19% in the usual workplace and 19% were idle. Among workers with a high school diploma, 33% were working from home, 27% in the usual workplace and 40% had stopped working. The labor market outcome was even gloomier for the (few) respondents with no high school diploma. A similar picture emerges in Figure 2: high earners were more likely to work from home and less likely to be idle than low income individuals.

Figure 3 shows large disparities according to occupational status. Around two thirds of white collars worked from home, 16% in their usual workplace and 18% stopped working. Similarly, among service workers, approximately half worked from home, one of five in their usual workplace and one of four stopped. However, among the blue collars, only 15% worked from home, around one third in their usual workplace, but almost half of them had stopped. Part-time workers were more likely to stop (Figure 4).

No large differences emerge across age groups, although senior workers (50+) are less likely to be idle (Figure 5). Figure 6 indicates instead a gender gap in labor market outcomes: women are less likely to continue in the regular workplace (22% versus 29%) and more likely to stop (38% vs 30%) than men.

Finally, Figure 8 shows large difference in life satisfaction by labor outcomes. Idle respondents are largely unsatisfied, while individuals working from home or in the regular workplace are more satisfied.
Fig. 7. Current working status by location

Fig. 8. Current working status by life satisfaction
NEW ZEALAND
[Data from online surveys (CAWI) on April 15-18, 2020. Sample size: 998 respondents.]

New Zealand entered into lockdown on March 25th. At the time the survey, the lockdown had hence been in place for 20-23 days. As shown in Table 1, New Zealand has the largest percentage of respondents working from home in our sample (60%) and the lowest of those working in their usual workplace (18%), while 22% of individuals stopped working.

Figure 1 indicates large differences according to education attainments: 72% of college graduates was working from home, against 49% among individuals with a high school diploma and 35% among those with no diploma. Non-college graduates were more likely to work from the regular workplace, but also to be idle. Figure 2 shows that working from home is predominant among people with the higher family income, who are also less likely to be idle.

Large differences emerge also according to occupational status (Figure 3): white collars work more from home, less in the regular workplace and are less likely to stop working than blue collars. Part-time workers and self-employed are more likely to be idle (Figure 4). Prime age workers (35-49) work more from home than the others, but no large difference emerge in the idle workers (Figure 5). Figure 6 indicates that there are no gender gaps in labor market outcomes.

Finally, Figure 8 shows that there are more unsatisfied individuals among those working from home and more unsatisfied individual among those working in the regular workplace.

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Fig. 1. Current working status by education

Fig. 2. Current working status by income quartile
Fig. 3. Current working status by occupation

Fig. 4. Current working status by work condition

Fig. 5. Current working status by age

Fig. 6. Current working status by gender

Fig. 7. Current working status by location

Fig. 8. Current working status by life satisfaction
POLAND

[Data from online surveys (CAWI) on April 30 – May 2, 2020. Sample size: 1,000 respondents.]

Polish authorities started imposing anti-Covid-19 measures in mid-March. All mass events were cancelled on March 10th and cultural institutions and schools were closed on March 12th. The lockdown was implemented on March 24th and strengthened on March 31st. As of April 20th, some measures were lifted, but the government decided to postpone the Presidential election, which was originally scheduled on May 10th. Hence the survey was launched a month into the lockdown, when some restrictive measures had been already lifted. As shown in Table 1, a large majority of the workers (56%) were still in their regular workplace, 29% worked from home and 15% were idle.

Figure 1 shows that approximately 43% of college graduates were working from home, against around 20% for those with a high school diploma and 16% for those with less than a high school diploma. Individuals with no college degree were more likely to be work in the usual workplace. The share of idle workers was comparable across educational attainments. Almost no difference emerges according to family income (Figure 2).

Figure 3 shows that approximately half of white collars work from home and 42% in their usual workplace, leaving few white collars idle. Blue collars instead work almost exclusively in the regular workplace, while service workers work both from than and in the regular workplace. Idle workers are more common among blue collars and service workers. Self-employed are much more likely to work from home – and less in the regular workplace than other workers (see Figure 4).

No large differences in labor outcome emerge by age groups (Figure 5), while gender gaps exist. Figure 6 shows that women work from home more than men (33% vs 26%), but less than men in the regular workplace (46% vs 64%). As a result, more women than men stopped working (21% vs 10%).

Finally, Figure 8 shows that there are less unsatisfied individuals among those working from home and more unsatisfied individual among those idle.

Fig. 1. Current working status by education

Fig. 2. Current working status by income quartile
Fig. 3. Current working status by occupation

Fig. 4. Current working status by work condition

Fig. 5. Current working status by age

Fig. 6. Current working status by gender

Fig. 7. Current working status by location

Fig. 8. Current working status by life satisfaction
SWEDEN
[Data come on line surveys (CAWI) on April 16-17, 2020. Sample size: 1,009 respondents.]

Unlike most other countries, Sweden did not impose a lockdown. However, since March 16 government has introduced measures to reduce the diffusion of the virus, such as limiting gatherings of more than 50 people or advising elderly people to stay at home. In fact, as shown in Table 1, at the time of the survey, 61% of the respondents were still working in their usual place, 28% from home and 11% stopped working.

Figure 1 displays a large difference in labor market outcomes by education: the share of college graduates working from home is twice as large as those of non-college graduates. On the other hand, college graduates work less in the regular workplace. The share of idle workers across educational groups is relatively similar. No significant difference emerges by income groups (Figure 2). Instead, large differences exist by occupational types. Figure 3 shows that white collars are more likely then respectively service workers and blue collars to work from home, but less in the regular workplace. Also the self-employed work more from home and less in the regular workplace.

No large difference emerge in labor market outcome by age group (Figure 5). Instead, Figure 6 shows some gender gaps: women are less likely than men to work from home (26% vs 32%) and in the regular workplace (60% vs 62%). As a results, more women than are idle (15% vs 7%). In the urban areas, more work is done in the regular workplace (Figure 7).

Finally, Figure 8 shows that among those who stopped working there is a larger share of unsatisfied individuals.
Fig. 3. Current working status by occupation

Fig. 4. Current working status by work condition

Fig. 5. Current working status by age

Fig. 6. Current working status by gender

Fig. 7. Current working status by location

Fig. 8. Current working status by life satisfaction
United Kingdom
[Data from online surveys (CAWI) on April 15-17, 2020. Sample size: 1,001 respondents.]

Covid-19 reached the United Kingdom at the end of January. On March 15th, the British population was suggested by the government to avoid contact and non-necessary travel. On March 20th, schools, universities and non-essential activities were shut down. On March 23rd, the country entered into a lockdown. The first wave of the survey was launched immediately after, on 25-26 March, and the second wave on 15-17 April. Tables 1 and 2 show that, already in the first wave, a large share of the population worked from home and about one of three workers were idle. Almost no change took place in the labor market between the two surveys.

Figure 1 displays large differences according to education outcomes: 62% of college graduates were working from home and only 20% had stopped working. Instead, among workers with no high school diploma, 27% were working from home and 53% had stopped. A similar picture emerges from Figure 2, as around two thirds of the workers in the top quartile of the income distribution worked from home and less than one out of five stopped working.

Figure 3 indicates large differences also across occupational types. Almost three white collars out of four were working from home, but only one blue collar in four. Although blue collars were more likely to work in their usual workplace, half of them stopped working, as opposed to only 14% among the white collars. Service workers worked mostly from home (51%), but 31% were idle. Self-employed worked less than full-time workers in the regular workplace and were more likely to be idle (Figure 4).

Some small difference emerges also across age groups, with senior workers (50+) working less from home and more likely to be idle (Figure 5). Gender gaps emerged in Figure 6, as women were more likely than men to work from home (53% vs 45%), but less in the regular workplace (15% vs 25%).

Finally, Figure 8 shows that, among people working from home, there were more satisfied individuals, whereas more unsatisfied are present among those working in the usual workplace or being idle.
No measures were adopted by the US Federal Government. However, different states banned gatherings and closed non-essential services and other activities. Many cities imposed also stricter measures in order to contain the spreading of the virus. At the time of the survey, more than 43 States had issued a ‘Stay at home order’. These were mostly issued around 25 March.

As shown in Tables 1 and 2, at the time of the survey around one third of the US workers continued to work in the regular workplace, half of them were working from home and one out of ten had stopped working. Little changes take place between the two surveys.

Figure 1 indicates large differences by education attainments: around 60% of people with a college degree were working from home, as opposed to 26% of workers with no high school diploma. Idle workers were much less common among college graduates than among those without high school diploma. Similar differences emerge in Figure 2 across individuals of different income groups. Higher income individuals work more from home, less in the regular workplace and stop working less than lower income people.

Figure 3 shows that white collars work from home more than blue collars, who work more in the regular workplace. Full-time workers work more from home than part-time ones and stop working less (Figure 4). No strong pattern emerges by comparing individuals across income groups, although young workers are more likely to be idle (Figure 5). No large differences emerge with respect to gender: women work more than men from home (53% vs 48%), but less in the regular workplace (34% vs 39%). As a result no gender gap appears in idle workers (Figure 6).

Finally, no clear pattern emerges with respect to individual satisfaction with their life.
References


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