

Work Attitudes and Social Protection:
What Vietnamese and Swedes Can Learn From Each Other

Chyong-fang Ko (柯瓊芳)
Institute of European and American Studies
Academia Sinica (中研院歐美所)

ko@sinica.edu.tw

(02) 37897252

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Academia Sinica

Abstract

The author investigates differences in work attitudes between Vietnamese and Swedes. Considered a model welfare state, Sweden spent 993.6 billion Swedish Kroner (approximately USD154.3 billion), or 32.2% of its total GDP, on social protection expenditures in 2009. Pensions, health care, and unemployment benefits accounted for 69% of total expenditures. In contrast, the developing country of Vietnam spent approximately 17% of its GDP on social and economic services, mostly on education/training (24.6%) and pensions/social relief (19.5%). Data from the fifth wave of the World Values Survey indicate that on a high-to-low 1-10 scale of life satisfaction, the average score for Swedes was 7.7 and for Vietnamese 7.1. Of the Swedish respondents, 85 percent expressed either great or medium pride in being a Swede, compared to 98% of Vietnamese respondents. In terms of job characteristics, Swedes mentioned sense of achievement and working with people as top priorities, while Vietnamese mentioned long-term job security and income. On a low-to-high 5-25 scale of work motivation, Vietnamese respondents had higher scores (21) than Swedes (15). The strong Vietnamese work ethic is likely due to early childhood influences.

I. Introduction

Over the past two decades, Vietnam has made great progress toward becoming a lower-middle-income country as defined by the World Bank (per capita GNP of USD1,010 in 2010). However, the country's social security system is underdeveloped, and most Vietnamese must continue working well into their old age to protect

themselves from the risks of sickness, poverty, and unemployment. The current Vietnamese government describes social security as its most important focus, describing it as an important element for sustainable societal development (Vietnews, 2010). Government officials are claiming that they are drawing on the experiences of other countries—both positive and negative—to establish a modern, fair, and transparent social security system.

Many countries are addressing questions regarding whether welfare systems reduce work motivation and hinder economic growth. Based on their research of 20 Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries since the 1960s, Blanchard and Wolfers (2000) suggest that interaction between economic shocks and market institution is a key factor explaining the rise of European unemployment. In contrast, Michau (2009) argues that the combination of macro-economic conditions and work motivation is central to understanding the constant rise in European unemployment since the 1970s. He claims that generous unemployment benefits create a “moral hazard” in the form of reduced motivation for job searches. According to Michau, the extent of this moral hazard depends on individual values, which are associated with family education. Children who grow up in families where the ethics of hard work are emphasized tend to have stronger incentives when they become adults (Algan & Cahuc, 2009).

Regardless of the hazards of disincentives and dependency, almost all developed countries maintain safety nets, and many are blaming their social welfare systems for their current financial crises (Bengtsson, 2010; Katsumata, 2000; Zaidi, 2008). Thus, reducing welfare dependency and

privatizing social security systems to trim government budgets is a top concern for many nations, and states without systems are looking for ways to establish them with a minimum of funding and management missteps.

Considered a prime example of a welfare state, in 2009 Sweden spent 32.2% of its GDP (Swedish Kroner [SEK] 993.6 billion, approximately USD154.3 billion) on social protection programs. Pensions, health care, and unemployment accounted for 69% of total expenditures (Statistics Sweden, 2011a). In contrast, in 2008 the developing country of Vietnam spent 17.4% of its GDP (211,940 billion Vietnamese Dongs, approximately USD10.1 billion) on social and economic services, mostly on education/training (24.58%) and pensions/social relief (19.45%). Health care and unemployment benefits accounted for very small percentages of total spending (General Statistics Office of Vietnam, 2011).

In this paper I will use Vietnam and Sweden as two examples of social protection and work attitudes. In the next section I will describe the two countries' socio-demographic backgrounds and social security systems. In Section Three I will present generalized findings from the World Values Survey, and use its data to compare work attitudes in Vietnam and Sweden. I suggest that Vietnamese tend to take any jobs available to maintain self-sufficiency and/or support dependent family members, and that Swedes, who do not feel threatened by short-term periods of unemployment, prefer to wait and apply for jobs that have greater potential to provide feelings of achievement. I assume that children who grow up with ethics of hard work are more likely to have

stronger work incentives as adults. In the final section I will discuss what the two countries can learn from each other.

II. Social demographics and social security systems

Vietnam

Vietnam needed several decades to recover from its war with the United States, but has since achieved great success in economic development, with an average annual economic growth of nearly 8% over the past 10 years. The country's poverty rate declined from 58% in 1993 to 12% in 2009 (GESS, 2011). According to recently released official statistics, Vietnam's total population is 90 million, with approximately 61 million (69%) in the employable age range of 15-64 (CIA-The World Factbook, 2011). As of 2011, labor force participation rates in Vietnam are 76% for males and 68% for females. More than half of all workers (54%) are engaged in agriculture, 20% in industry, and 26% in services (Table 1).

The country has long been influenced by Confucianism. Family and kinship relationships are highly valued, and most social protection is provided by kinship networks. However, accelerated industrialization and urbanization processes accompanied by a steady decrease in birth rate and increase in female labor force participation are affecting traditional family functions such as caring for the elderly and providing financial support for all family members. Thus, a top concern for Vietnamese is enhancing government-funded social security programs to address the increasing needs of the country's citizens (Giang, 2007; Vietnews,

2010).

In Vietnam, social security services are provided via a mix of state-run mechanisms, policies, and measures designed to provide support in response to illness, childbirth, occupational accidents and diseases, aging, and other objective problems that result in lost income (Asian Development Bank, 2008). The origins of this system can be traced to 1945, but for most of the country's history, coverage has been limited to those who participated in its wars of independence. In 1961, a North Vietnam government decree was issued to provide social insurance benefits for all workers in the public sector, covering approximately 700,000 out of a population of 17 million (ASSA, 2008). In 1995, the Socialist Republic of Vietnam issued Decree 12 on Social Insurance Regulations for civilians and Decree 45 on Social Insurance Regulations for military and police forces. Both decrees stipulated five benefits (sickness, maternity, work injuries, survivorship, and old-age benefits) and established a social insurance fund financed by contributions from employers and employees. Between 1995 and 2002, the total number of contributors increased from 2.9 million to 4.5 million, and approximately 11% of the workforce (approximately 40 million workers) received benefits (Asian Development Bank, 2008).

In 2002, the Vietnam Health Insurance (VHI) and Vietnam Social Security (VSS) systems merged. VSS is recognized as a unique national system managing national social insurance and health insurance schemes. In 2008 the Vietnamese government issued Decree 94/2008 to include unemployment and pension systems in VSS. Social insurance protection is still limited to a small portion of the population: 4.1 million in

2000 and 5.8 million in 2004 (MOLISA, 2006). According to Jowett et al. (2003, cited in Evans et al., 2007), approximately 0.9 million (15%) Vietnamese working in formal sectors (e.g., civil servants, retired government employees, and workers in large companies) and 29 million working in informal sectors were uninsured in 2002.

Sweden

According to the most recent data, Sweden's total population in 2011 was 9.46 million, with 5.05 million (53.4%) in the labor force. In 2010 the country's per capita GDP was the twenty-third highest in the world (USD39,100), and its Human Development Index was the ninth highest (0.885). According to the 2010-2011 World Economic Forum competitiveness index, Sweden's economy is the second most competitive in the world. The country is considered a post-industrial society, with 1.9% of its laborers engaged in agriculture, 26.6% in industry, and 71.6% in services. Sweden is a much older society, with a median age of 42 years (versus 27.8 years in Vietnam); 19.7% of its population is 65 years of age or older (versus 5.5% in Vietnam). In 2010 the overall employment rate for Swedes between the ages of 15 and 64 was 72.2%—75.1% for males and 70.2% for females (Table 1).

The Swedish social security system was initially organized by churches—in 1734, every parish was required to have an almshouse. Private health benefit societies were started during the nineteenth century and became regulated and subsidized in 1891. In 1913 the then-Liberal Party government passed a National Pension Act to provide

security for the elderly, and in 1934 private unemployment societies were regulated and subsidized in the same manner as health benefit societies. In 1961, private health benefit societies were replaced by county-level public insurance societies, which were also given the task of managing pensions. Independent and mostly union-run unemployment benefit societies are now centrally regulated by the national government (Försäkringskassan, 2010; Wikipedia 2011a).

The social security system in Sweden consists of five sectors:

1. Child allowance and parental benefits. Parents of children 16 years of age and younger (and in some special cases, older) receive a child allowance of SEK1,050 per child per month, with an additional supplement for multiple children ranging from SEK150 for two children to SEK4,114 for six. Parents can take up to 480 days off from their jobs to take care of their children, and depending on income, can apply for other temporary benefits for staying at home to take care of sick children. There is a special childcare allowance for the parents of children with long-term illnesses.

2. Housing. Families with children and some individuals 29 years of age and younger are eligible for housing allowances, depending on income, family size, housing costs, and house size.

3. Benefits for the sick and disabled. All workers are entitled to sick pay, with the first 14 days paid for by the employer and the rest by the Swedish Social Insurance Agency. Workers whose ability to maintain employment is permanently affected are eligible for disability payments. Workers who need everyday assistance in order to work or study are also eligible for disability allowances, including allowances for paying an

assistant if necessary. In special cases, individuals who have great difficulty using public transport due to a permanent disability can obtain an allowance for purchasing a car, making alterations to a car, or getting a special driver's license.

4. Support for the elderly. Swedish workers who have earned taxable incomes are entitled to pensions starting at the age of 61. Levels depend on income and length of employment. There is also a guaranteed pension for anyone who has resided in Sweden for at least three years, regardless of income level. Elderly residents are also eligible for housing supplements and maintenance support, depending on need.

5. Welfare. Swedes with no or low incomes can apply for welfare benefits from local municipalities to cover basic housing, food, clothing, and telephone needs (Försäkringskassan, 2011; Wikipedia 2011b).

Expenditures for these benefits have increased yearly for several decades. The two main funding sources are general government contributions from taxes (51.7% of total receipts) and social contributions from employees (46.2%), self-employed persons and pensioners (9.8%), and employers (36.4%) (Statistics Sweden, 2011b).

III. Work attitudes in Vietnam and Sweden

Data

Data from the fifth wave of the 2005 World Values Survey (WVS2005), a large-scale cross-national longitudinal survey, was used to investigate work attitudes in Vietnam and Sweden. The first WVS was

conducted in 1981-1984, and new data from a growing number of participating countries have been collected once every five or ten years since. Approximately 83,000 samples from 57 countries/regions are included in WVS2005. A multistage random probability sampling of 1,500 persons age 15 and older was created for each country, with participants sharing their opinions during personal interviews.

“Work attitude” is considered a culture-specific topic. Accordingly, to ensure that all interviewees were from the same cultural backgrounds, 50 Vietnamese respondents and 129 Swedish respondents whose fathers or mothers were not born in Vietnam or Sweden were excluded, resulting in a sample of 1,495 Vietnamese and 874 Swedes. The mean age of the Vietnamese respondents was 40.6 years; males accounted for 52% of the sample. For the Swedish respondents the mean age was 48.6 years, with males accounting for 51% of the sample. Descriptive statistics for all of the study variables are presented in Table 2.

Measures

Work attitude was measured by responses to five statements; respondents could choose from five possible answers for each item: (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) neither, (4) disagree, (5) strongly disagree.

The statements were

1. To fully develop your talents, you need to have a job.
2. It is humiliating to receive money without working for it.
3. People who don't work become lazy.
4. Work is a duty for society.
5. Work should always come first, even if it means less free time.

To identify top concerns for job searches, respondents were asked

to identify two of the following four statements as being the most important:

1. A good income so that you do not have any worries about money.
2. A safe job with no risk of closing down or unemployment.
3. Working with people you like.
4. Doing an important job that gives you a feeling of accomplishment.

To determine the respondents' most important goals for child rearing, they were asked to select five qualities from the following list: (1) independence; (2) hard work; (3) feeling of responsibility; (4) imagination; (5) tolerance and respect for other people; (6) thrift; (7) determination, perseverance; (8) religious faith; (9) unselfishness; (10) obedience.

Three items focused on demographic data. First, respondents were asked to report their highest level of education, from 1 (no formal education) to 9 (university degree). This variable was recoded as less than or equal to primary school, junior high school, senior high school, and university degree. Second, respondent income was measured according to a self-reporting scale ranging from 1 (lowest) to 10 (highest). Third, gender was coded as 1 for male and 0 for female.

IV. Results

1. Work attitudes

Vietnamese respondents expressed much stronger work motivation compared to their Swedish counterparts. As shown in Figure 1, 88% agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, "to fully develop your

talents, you need to have a job,” 86% with “it is humiliating to receive money without working for it,” 87% with “people who don’t work become lazy,” 88% with “work is a duty toward society,” and 75% with “work should always come first, even if it means less free time.” Respective agreement/strong agreement rates for the Swedish respondents were 41%, 32%, 39%, 61% and 35% (Fig. 1). Possible explanations for the high rates among the Vietnamese respondents are lack of a social security system, socialization to join the labor market, and a perceived need to become self-sufficient. In contrast, “Work is a duty toward society” received the most support from the Swedish respondents, and “it is humiliating to receive money without working for it” the least. These results can be interpreted as representing a welfare state “moral consensus,” with the capable contributing more to support the vulnerable. Hence, more than half of the Swedish respondents agreed that “work is a duty toward society,” yet only one-third agreed with the statement that receiving money without working for it is humiliating.

I constructed a work motivation scale by assigning a value of 5 to “strongly agree” statements, 4 to “agree,” 3 to “neither,” 2 to “disagree,” and 1 to “strongly disagree,” resulting in a potential range of scores from 5 to 25. Lower values indicate less work motivation (or less value given to work) and higher values greater work motivation (more value given to work). The Vietnamese respondents had a much higher mean score for work motivation (21.0) compared to their Swedish counterparts (15.4). For Swedes, a more detailed analysis reveals a positive association between work motivation and age (correlation coefficient = 0.23) and negative associations with education and income levels (-0.25 and -0.16,

respectively). In addition, Swedish males expressed stronger work motivations than Swedish females (Table 2, left triangle). For the Vietnamese respondents, work motivations were high regardless of gender or income level. Positive but weak correlations were found between work motivation and age and education level (both 0.06) (Table 2, right triangle).

2. Are Vietnamese more industrious than Swedes?

A second possible explanation for the high work motivation scores among the Vietnamese respondents is childhood socialization. As shown in Figure 3, the top five qualities that Vietnamese respondents chose as important for children to learn at home were hard work (89%), feelings of responsibility (75%), determination (62%), thrift (60%), and independence (59%). In comparison, the top five qualities chosen by Swedish respondents were tolerance and respect for other people (94%), responsibility (92%), independence (78%), imagination (56%), and determination (48%), all of which can be viewed as virtues or basic life guidelines. For Vietnamese, hard work may have received top priority based on a belief that it leads to success and poverty avoidance, whereas for Swedes, tolerance and respect are ideas tied to democratic accomplishments.

3. Top concerns in job searches

In addition to differences in work attitudes, Vietnamese and Swedish respondents also differed in terms of major concerns for job searches. As shown in Figure 2, Vietnamese respondents were most concerned about “a safe job with no risk of closing down or unemployment” (55%),

followed by “a good income so that you do not have any worries about money” (26%), “doing an important job that gives you a feeling of accomplishment” (10%), and “working with people you like” (7%). Regarding the second most important concern for Vietnamese, the order of choice was “stable job” (29%), “good income” (27%), and “persons to work with” and “feeling of achievement” (both 20%). The top concern among the Swedish respondents was “a feeling of achievement” (49%), followed by “persons to work with” (27%), and “stable job” and “good income” (both 11%). Their second major concerns were “persons to work with” (39%), followed by “good income” and “feelings of achievement” (both 23%), and “stable job” (14%). The order of top concerns was similar across age, gender, education, and income level in both countries (Figs. 4-7).

These results suggest that Vietnamese consider jobs more as means of survival, since objective conditions such as stability and good income are perceived as more important than subjective feelings such as co-worker compatibility and feelings of achievement. Swedes are apparently more concerned with personal achievement, since subjective feelings were mentioned more often than objective conditions. Further research is required to determine the effect of insufficient formal support systems on the Vietnamese respondents’ emphases on material rewards.

V. What Swedes and Vietnamese can learn from each other

As mentioned earlier, more than one-third of the Swedish government’s expenditures on social services are earmarked for the

elderly (Table 4). As the proportion of elderly citizens grows, expenditures for these kinds of social services are expected to grow as well. According to demographic data from Eurostat (2011), the old-age dependency ratio in Sweden (defined as the projected number of persons aged 65 and over expressed as a percentage of the projected number of persons aged between 15 and 64) is expected to grow from 27.7% in 2010 to 35.3% in 2025 and 41.7% in 2050. Hansson (2010) argues that raising taxes to meet demographic challenges is the most direct solution, however, there is little room for doing so because the tax burden among Swedes is already exceptionally high. Accordingly, Hansson also suggests that work hours be lengthened to increase the overall tax base without increasing the tax burden on individuals. He notes that Swedes currently work 36 weeks per year on average, which is 8 weeks less than Irish workers (43.9 weeks) and 10 weeks less than American workers (46.2 weeks) (Alesina et al., 2005). If each Swedish employee worked one extra week per year, there would be just over 5 million additional weeks of work income that could be taxed in support of the country's social services system. Hansson (2010) also suggests cutting down on Sweden's black market economy, which is believed to be the equivalent of approximately 5% of the country's GDP. Taxing such transactions would have a strong and positive effect on government revenue.

Another suggestion for increasing tax revenue is to increase the employment rate of Swedes in the 50-64 age range. The country's official retirement age is 65 for both men and women, but many retire much earlier. Statistics for 2005 indicate employment rates of 82% for

men and 78% for women between the ages of 55 and 59, and 60% for men and 55% for women between the ages of 60 and 64 (Eurostat, 2008). In light of the impending decline in the number of working-age Swedes, policy makers should consider increasing employment rates for these age groups and extending the official retirement age.

The Vietnamese population is also rapidly aging (Fig. 8). According to the United Nations (2011), the percentage of Vietnamese age 65 years and older is expected to be 10.2% (10.1 million) in 2025 and 23.1% (24.0 million) in 2050. Pensions, medical care, and other costs for these citizens are expected to increase rapidly during this period. Although Vietnamese will likely retain their strong work motivation, it may start to decline as the country's rate of socioeconomic development increases, meaning that they will face the same difficulties that Swedes are facing today in the near future. Thus, establishing a better taxation system to support social services is a major task for Vietnamese policy makers.

VI. Conclusion

The findings indicate that when individuals enjoy the protection of a well-financed welfare system, they have more opportunities to find employment that provides subjective feelings of achievement instead of or in addition to objective rewards such as stability and good income. According to Michau (2009), reduced motivation is one of the primary factors explaining rising unemployment in European countries since the 1970s. Other employment analysts have emphasized the importance of cultural transmission from parents to children, especially in the area of work ethics (Algan & Cahuc, 2009; Bisin & Verdier, 2001). They point out

that children who grow up with ethics of hard work are more likely to have stronger work incentives as adults.

Data from the fifth wave of the 2005 World Values Survey indicate that on a 5-25 (low-to-high) scale of work motivation, Vietnamese respondents had higher scores (21) than Swedes (15). In terms of job characteristics, Swedes mentioned feelings of achievement and working with people they like as priorities, while Vietnamese mentioned long-term job security and income. These differences reflect the two countries' levels of affluence. In Vietnam, which does not have a well-developed social security system, individuals are more likely to view jobs in terms of simple survival and to deemphasize subjective factors such as co-worker compatibility and feelings of achievement. In contrast, Swedes are more likely to focus on subjective factors and to be patient during periods of unemployment or underemployment because they trust their country's safety net. The World Values Survey data also suggest that differences in work attitudes reflect differences in family education priorities. Vietnamese children are encouraged to believe that hard work leads to success and poverty avoidance, while Swedish parents emphasize tolerance and respect—two factors strongly associated with the country's democratic accomplishments.

As part of their movement toward socioeconomic modernity, developing countries must acknowledge the importance of developing social support systems to protect their most vulnerable citizens. However, they must also maintain awareness of the potential adverse effects of welfare policies on work incentives. In this paper I used the examples of Vietnam and Sweden to demonstrate differences in work attitudes and

family education. Vietnamese would do well to learn from Sweden's experience, and Swedes may benefit from considering ways to enhance work incentives while reducing government deficits resulting from their generous welfare policies.

Table 1. Socio-demographic data for Vietnam and Sweden

	Vietnam	Sweden
Population	90,549.390	9,088,728
Median age	27.8 years	42.0 years
Age structure		
< 15 years	25.2%	15.4%
15-64 years	69.3%	64.8%
≥65 years	5.5%	19.7%
Total fertility rate (‰)	1.91	1.67
Net migration rate (‰)	-0.35	1.65
Life expectancy		
Male	69.72 years	78.78 years
Female	74.92 years	83.51 years
Literacy		
Male	96.1%	99%
Female	92.0%	99%
GDP Per Capita (PPP in USD)	3,100	39,100
Labor force	47.37 million	4.961 million
Labor force by occupation		
Agriculture	53.9%	1.9%
Industry	20.3%	26.6%
Services	25.8%	71.6%
Unemployment rate	4.4%	8.4%
Unemployment, youth 15-24 years		
Male	4.38%	26.27%
Female	4.88%	23.72%
Health expenditures	7.2% GDP	9.9% GDP
Population below poverty level	10.6%	NA
Tax and other revenues	28.2%GDP	53.1%GDP

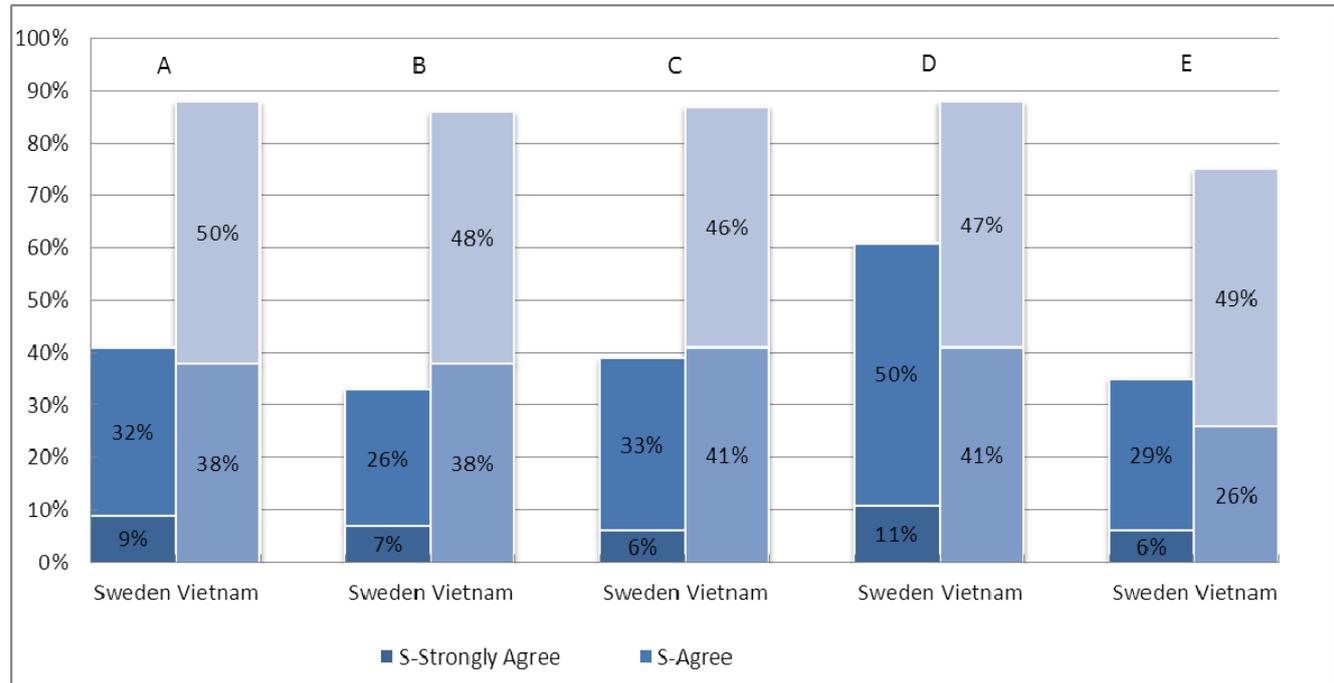
Source: Central Intelligence Agency, *World Factbook* (2011).

Table 2. Summary statistics from WVS2005-2008

	Vietnam	Sweden
Sample size	1,445 (100%)	874 (100%)
Male	748 (52%)	443 (51%)
Female	697 (48%)	431 (49%)
Mean age	40.6 years	48.6 years
Education		
≤primary	815 (56%)	146 (17%)
Junior High	482 (33%)	186 (21%)
Senior High	74 (5%)	245 (28%)
University	74 (5%)	297 (34%)
Mean income (1-10, low-high)	5.5	6.1
Mean life satisfaction (1-10, low-high)	7.1	7.7
Proud to be a national		
Very proud	1,180 (82%)	358 (41%)
Quite proud	243 (17%)	384 (44%)
Not very proud	13 (1%)	74 (8%)
Not at all proud	1 (0.07%)	17 (2%)

Source: XXXXXXXX

Figure 1. Work attitudes in Vietnam and Sweden.



A: “Work develops talent.”

B: “It is humiliating to receive money without working.”

C: “No work leads to laziness.”

D: “Work is duty to society.”

E: “Work comes first.”

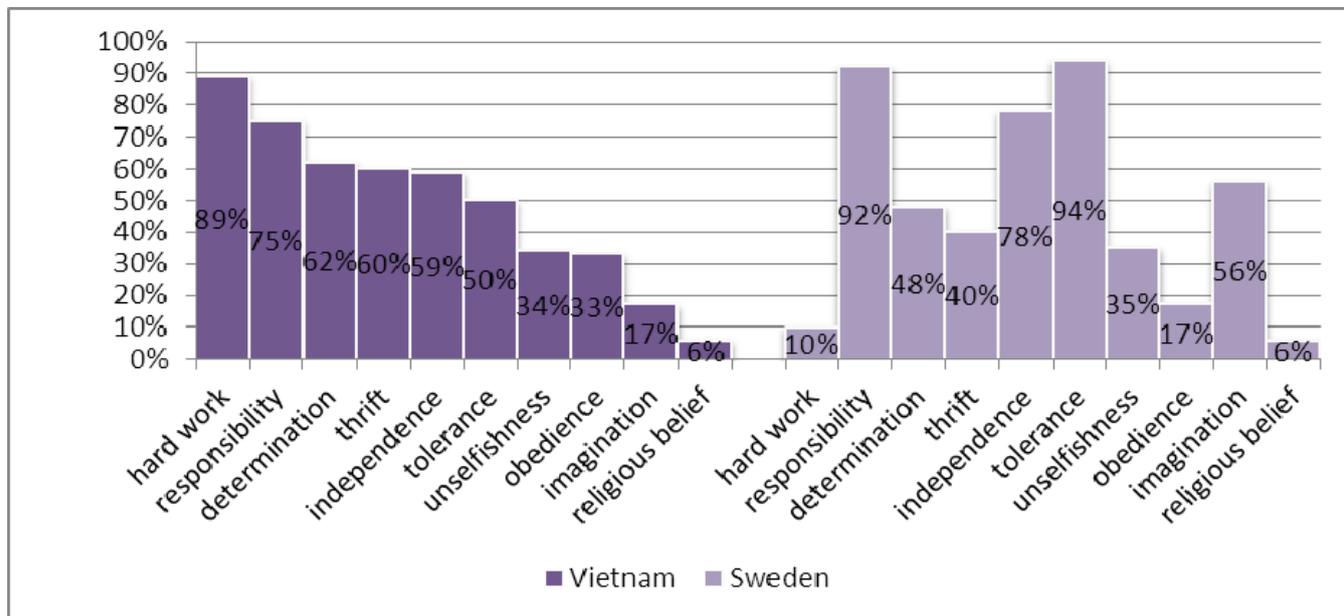
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Table 3. Correlation matrix of work motivation and socio-demographic variables for Vietnam and Sweden

Sweden \ Vietnam	work	education	age	male	income	mean	S.D.
work	0	0.06*	0.06*	0	0.01	21.0	2.7
education	-0.25***	0	-0.26***	0.10***	0.18***	4.4	1.7
age	0.23***	-0.33***	0	0.08**	-0.02	40.6	15.8
male	0.11**	0.004	-0.04	0	0.03	0.5	0.5
income	-0.16***	0.32***	-0.05	0.07*	0	5.5	1.5
mean	15.4	6.9	48.6	0.5	6.1		
S.D.	3.4	2.1	17.1	0.5	2.9		
N	848	867	874	874	830		

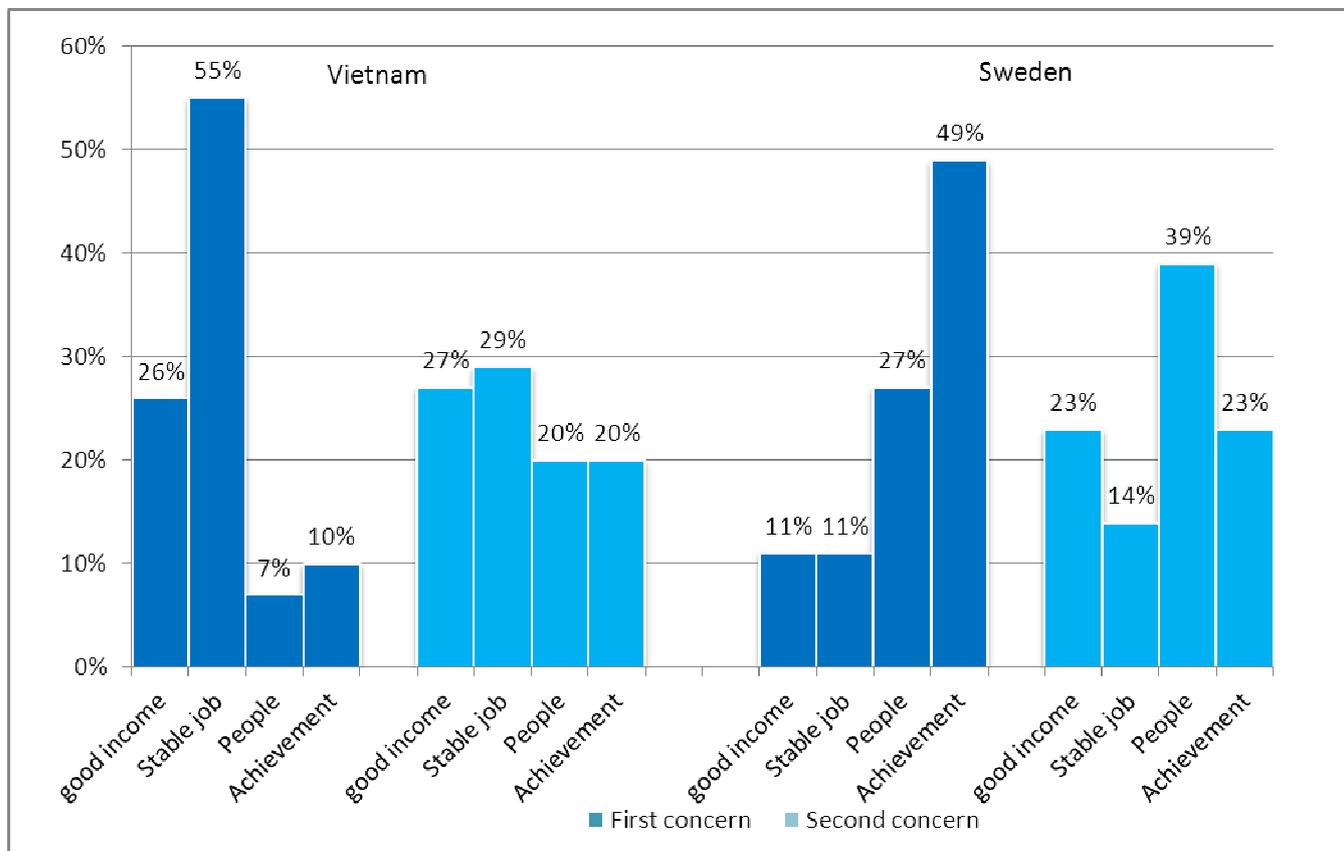
*** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 2. Personal characteristics considered important to learn at home in Vietnam and Sweden.



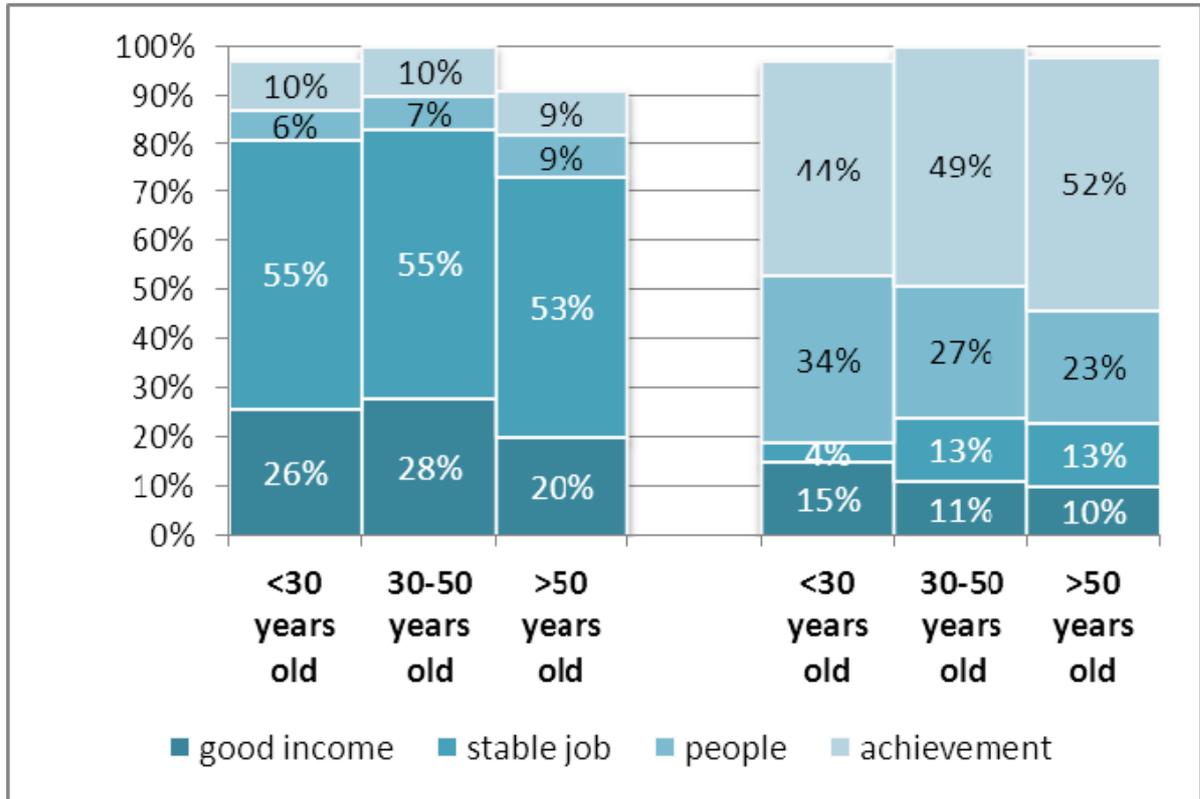
Source: XXXXXXXX

Figure 3. Top two concerns when looking for jobs in Vietnam and Sweden.



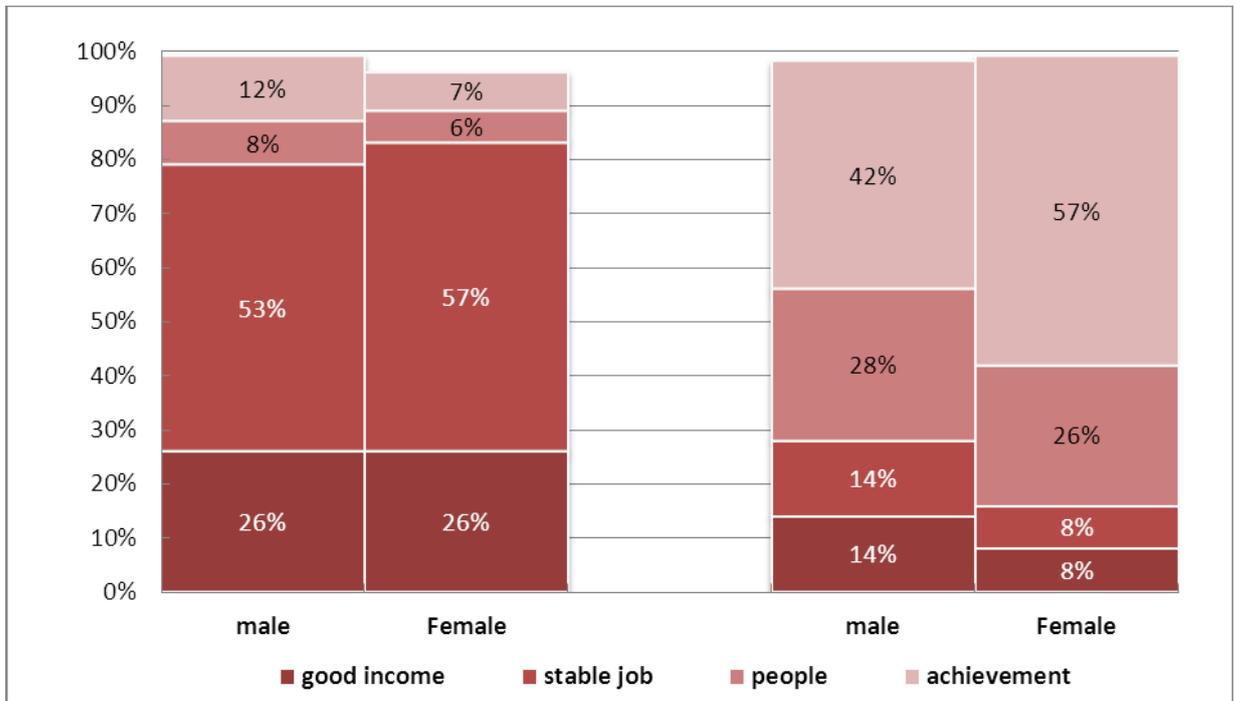
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Figure 4. Top concerns when looking for jobs in Vietnam and Sweden by age group.



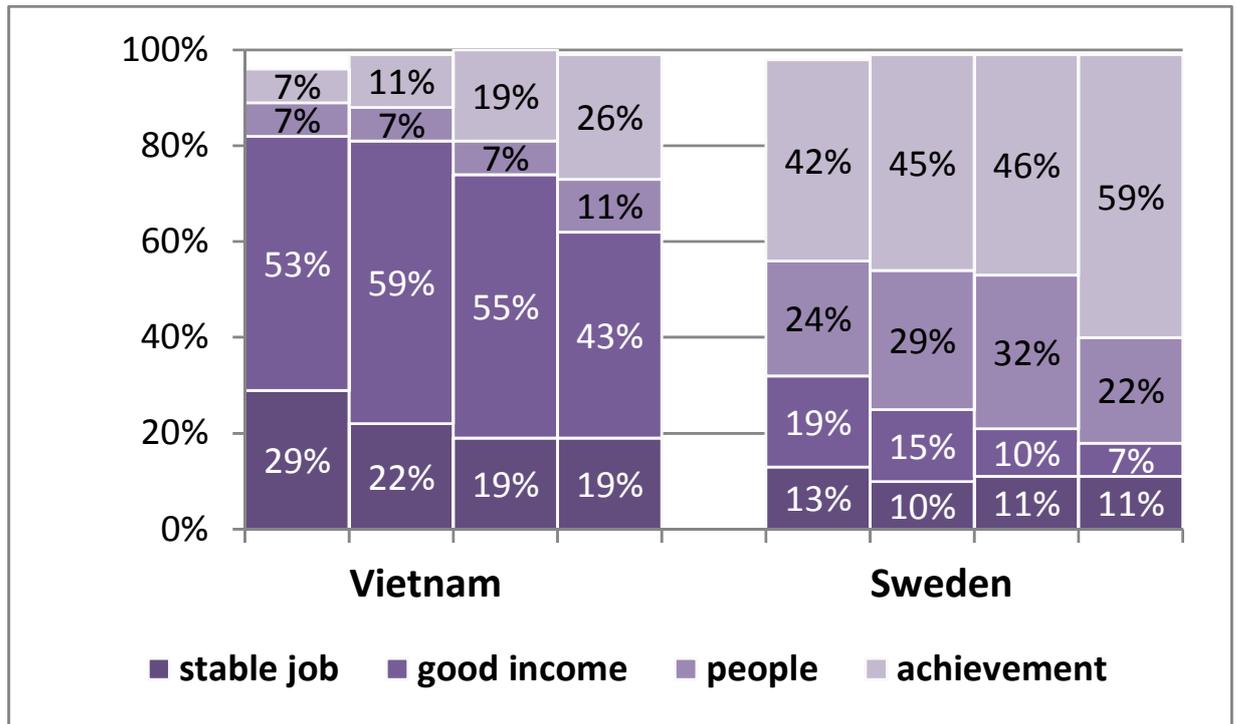
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Figure 5. Top concerns when looking for jobs in Vietnam and Sweden by gender.



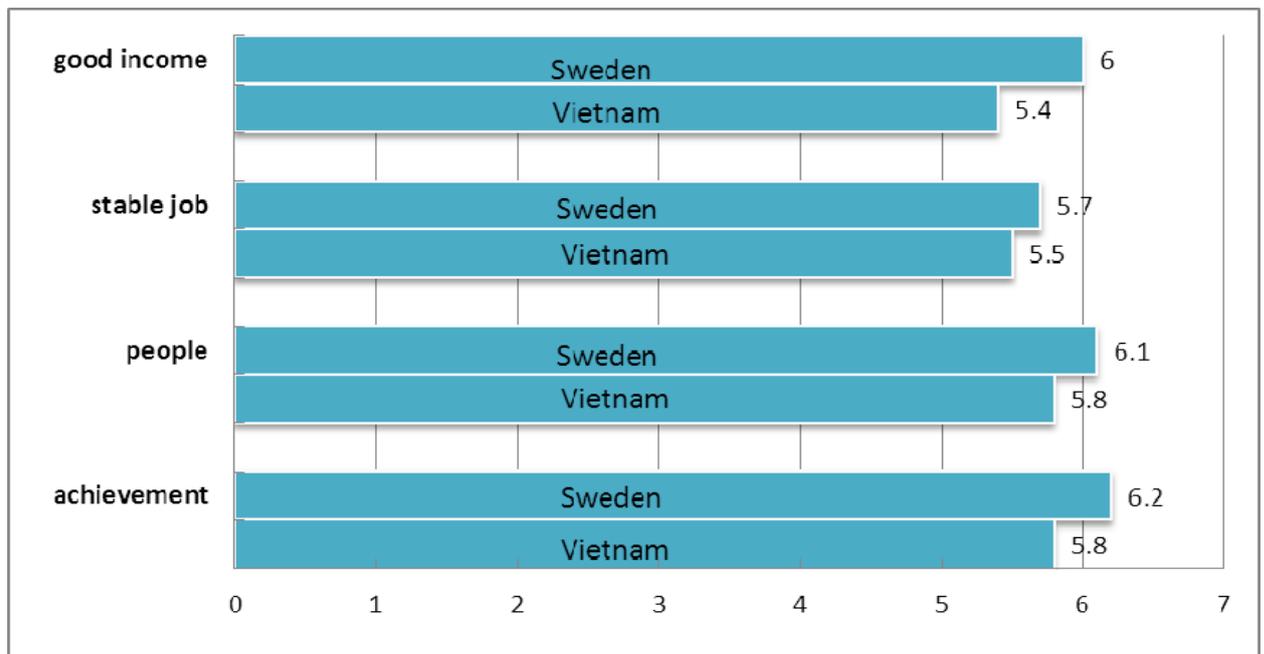
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Figure 6. Top concerns when looking for jobs in Vietnam and Sweden by level of education.



Source: XXXXXXXX

Figure 7. Top concern when looking for jobs in Vietnam and Sweden by mean income level.



Source: XXXXXXXX

Table 4. Social protection expenditures by function in relation to percentage of GDP, 1999–2009 (in million SEK)

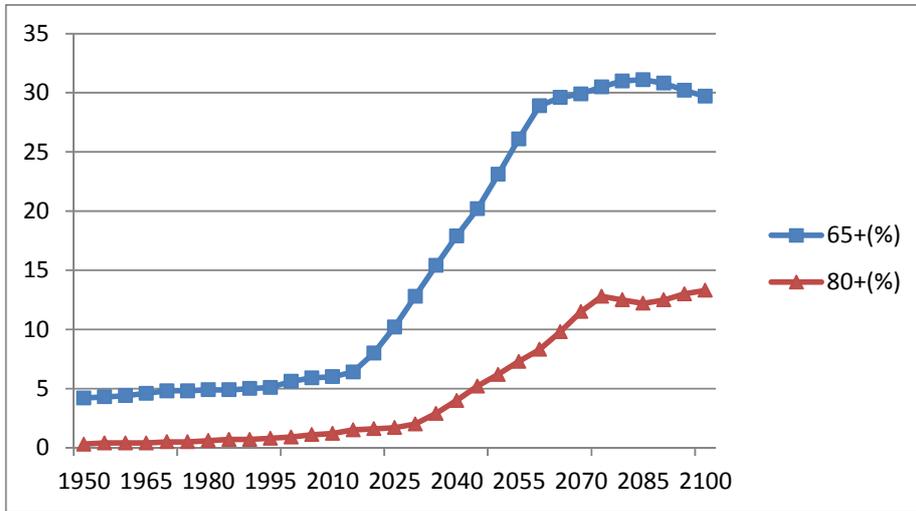
Function	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Health care	162 342	177 683	194 400	211 925	222 667	219 079	219 453	229 378	234 694	241 856	247 843
As % of GDP	7.6	7.8	8.3	8.7	8.7	8.2	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.5	8.0
Disability	82 905	87 887	93 179	102 122	112 301	120 602	126 743	133 481	138 177	137 778	140 730
As % of GDP	3.9	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.4	4.3	4.6
Old age	239 161	246 037	257 229	273 351	299 216	306 942	319 558	328 084	345 643	370 423	392 512
As % of GDP	11.2	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.8	11.5	11.5	11.1	11.1	11.6	12.7
Survivors	14 494	14 923	15 099	15 595	17 800	18 007	17 941	18 072	17 971	17 968	18 077
As % of GDP	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Family/children	60 629	59 779	64 905	69 213	74 322	76 943	79 653	87 781	91 448	96 836	99 586
As % of GDP	2.8	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.2
Unemployment	55 444	47 899	42 746	43 822	46 876	50 962	51 161	47 861	33 905	27 932	40 322
As % of GDP	2.6	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.1	0.9	1.3
Housing	15 006	13 992	14 401	14 231	14 573	14 561	14 775	15 008	14 736	14 695	14 746
As % of GDP	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Social exclusion nec.	16 059	15 394	15 369	15 833	17 015	16 959	16 624	17 444	18 354	19 815	21 954
As % of GDP	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7

Social protection benefits	646 040	663 594	697 328	746 092	804 770	824 055	845 908	877 109	894 928	927 303	975 770
As % of GDP	30.2	29.3	29.7	30.5	31.6	31.0	30.5	29.8	28.6	28.9	31.6
Administrative costs/other expenditures	10 987	12 994	17 216	17 754	15 490	15 942	16 380	17 015	18 261	18 517	17 871
As % of GDP	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Social protection expenditures	657 068	676 620	714 644	763 846	820 260	839 997	862 288	894 124	913 189	945 820	993 641
As % of GDP	30.7	29.9	30.4	31.3	32.2	31.6	31.1	30.4	29.2	29.5	32.2
GDP	2 138 421	2 265 447	2 348 419	2 443 630	2 544 867	2 660 957	2 769 375	2 944 480	3 126 018	3 204 320	3 089 181

Source: Statistics Sweden (2011); http://www.scb.se/Pages/TableAndChart_202286.aspx.

NOTE: I'M NOT SURE THAT YOUR READERS WILL UNDERSTAND THE MEANING OF "Survivors" OR "Social exclusion nec." I'M ALSO NOT SURE THEY WILL UNDERSTAND WHAT "Social protection benefits" OR "Social protection expenditures" MEAN, EITHER, BUT I'M MORE CONCERNED ABOUT "Survivors" AND "Social exclusion nec." YOU MAY WANT TO MARK THEM WITH FOOTNOTE NUMBERS, AND THEN EXPLAIN WHAT THEY ARE AS NOTES BELOW YOUR TABLE.

Figure 8. Aging trends in Vietnam.



Source: XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX.

AS USUAL, I DID NOT REVISE YOUR REFERENCES.

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中文摘要

本文旨在分析比較瑞典與越南民眾的工作態度與求職條件的差異。做為一個福利國家的典範，2009 年瑞典的社會福利支出占國內生產總值的 32.2% (9,936 億瑞典克朗，約合 1,543 億美金)，而其最主要的支出項目為養老俸、健康照護、以及失業補助 (共占 65% 的總支出)。相對的，越南的社會以及經濟服務支出只占國內生產總值的 17%，教育/訓練以及養老俸/社會救濟是最主要的支出項目 (分別各占了 24.6% 與 19.5% 的總支出)。分析第五波的世界價值觀調查資料發現，雖然兩個國家的社會福利制度與支出額度差異很大，但兩個國家受訪者的工作滿意度卻差異不大 (分別為 7.7 與 7.1；1 代表非常不滿意，10 表示非常滿意)。而且福利支出較大的瑞典受訪者反而有較低的愛國情超 (85% 的受訪者以自己國家為榮)，社會福利支出較少的越南，卻有高達 98% 的受訪者以自己國家為榮。在尋找工作的優先條件考量上，瑞典受訪者以工作本身所帶給自己的成就感以及對職場共事同仁的喜好程度為優先考量條件；相對的，越南受訪者則以工作的穩定度以及薪資的高低為優先考量條件。在一個介於 5-25 分的工作動機指標上，越南受訪者的工作動機遠高於瑞典受訪者 (分別為 21 與 15)，這個差異可能與社會經濟水準有關，也可能與個人成長過程中的社會化影響有關。