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Unemployment and activation policies in Norway

Barth, Erling

Abstract:

The NorSpaR project aims to analyse the main public policy initiatives by which Norway and Spain cope with the new social and economic challenges derived from the so-called New Social Risks (NSR). Although both countries present significant differences in their institutional settings (such as Spanish EU membership), or its belonging to diverse welfare regimes types (Norway is generally included in the Nordic regime, while Spain is part of the Mediterranean one), both countries share a common interest in addressing the aforementioned challenges while maintaining social cohesion. In the last decade, governments in both countries have tried to respond to those challenges by reforming their labour markets, adapting their unemployment schemes, as well as their gender, family and long-term care policies. The analysis covered in this project includes three areas of public policy addressing NSR. First, dependency is one of the most daunting challenges for post-industrial societies experiencing population ageing and with an increasing number of frail people in need of care. This situation is forcing governments to rethink their long-term care policies. Second, family and gender public programs need to respond to the growing difficulties of families in reconciling professional and family life. Third, in the transition to a post-industrial order, and in a context of mass unemployment, social protection systems have a renewed prominence. Along with the so-called passive policies offering financial support to the unemployed, active labour market policies are geared to put people back into work. In our analysis we try to find answers to the following questions: What are the challenges that each of these policies have been trying to address in recent years? How have these policies evolved? What kinds of reforms have been implemented, and which ones have been neglected? Have the policy goals and targets of welfare programs been modified in any significant way? Have the policy tools (services, transfers, funding or models of provision) changed? To what extent have these policies been successful in coping with social and economic problems? To what extent a social demand in favour of these changes exist? What are the main political and social actors intervening as stakeholders in these policies? Finally, what are the major similarities and differences existing between the two countries? To what extent are there policy proposals that might easily travel between them? Could they foster mutually enriching exchanges of information?

Keywords:

Welfare State; Public Sector Reform; Public Policies; Labour market; Long Term Care; Family Policies; Europe

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Unemployment and activation policies in Norway

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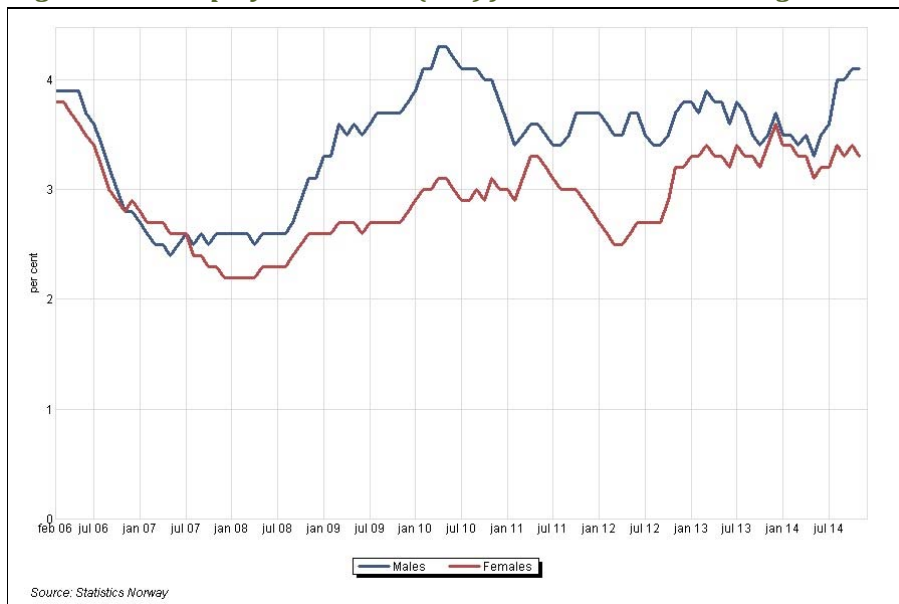
Introduction

Compared to most OECD countries, Norway has low unemployment rates, high employment rates, high educational attainment and relatively small income differentials. Outcomes have been good relative to most countries, also in the aftermath of the recent Great Recession. This paper provides a discussion about the policies towards the unemployed in Norway, their key elements and their key challenges. The policies towards the unemployed, with an emphasis on activation and skills development, have been key elements in Norway's labour market policies and a contributing factor behind the good performance of the Norwegian labour market, but clearly not the only, or even the most important one. The institutional framework of coordinated wage bargaining, the management of the income from oil and gas and overall economic policies have had a strong structural impact as well as an impact on how the current crisis affected the Norwegian labour market.

At the macro level, policies have been characterized by restraint in good times. Important elements of this policy have been to keep the large incomes of oil and gas outside of Norway in a sovereign fund (capping the amount to be spent in the main economy every year to the equivalence of a 4 per cent return on the assets), welfare policies focused on training and activation and broad consensus based reforms of the pension system to adapt it to demographic changes. When the 2008 crisis started, the sovereign fund and the good fiscal position allowed the government to pursue an expansionary response to the current crisis that followed from the collapse of the financial sector. Together with an export portfolio that was not particularly hard hit by the crisis and a demand push from high investment activity in the oil and gas sector off shore, expansionary fiscal policies contributed to a quick recovery of the Norwegian economy and to the fact that unemployment never really took off. Figure 1 shows

the development of the unemployment rates for men and women aged 15-74 from 2006 to 2014. The unemployment rates were close to 4 per cent in 2006 and dropped to below three in the boom in 2007. During the crisis, male unemployment rose to above 4 per cent, but dropped to a level well below 4 per cent after 2010.

Figure 1. Unemployment rates (LFS) for men and women aged 15-74



Note: Unemployment rates for persons aged 15-74 (Labour force survey), seasonally adjusted and trend-cycle, 3-months moving average, by sex.

Internationally, Norway has strong labour unions and a high level of coordination in wage bargaining. Employers' associations also play a crucial role in the coordination of wage bargaining. A two-tier bargaining system, with a coordinated bargaining system at the national level, supplemented by local bargaining at the plant level, has contributed to high employment rates and high productivity growth (Barth, Moene and Willumsen, 2014a). The encompassing bargaining system implies that unions internalize the interests of the unemployed and at the same time provides wage restraint to the employers. It also provides an institutional framework for coordination over issues like pension reforms. The pattern of bargaining, where the situation of export industries acts as the focal point in subsequent bargaining rounds, supports competitiveness. Subsequent local bargaining, under a peace clause, introduces a profit sharing and voice element locally that may contribute to productivity at the plant level. All in all, the outcome of bargaining in Norway is low wage differentials, across skills as well as across industries, firms and plants for workers with the same skill. Relatively high wages at the bottom of the distribution and relatively low wages at the top of the distribution have supported the creation of high wage jobs rather than low wage jobs. This situation has also provided incentives to acquire skills at the low end of the skills distribution and have fuelled a rapid structural change in the Norwegian economy.

Since most welfare state services and benefits provide insurance to the citizens, a compressed wage structure contributes to the legitimacy and support of a comprehensive and generous welfare state (Barth et al 2014a), and subsequently to the policy platform of the political parties (Barth, Finseraas and Moene 2014b). However, a key feature of the Norwegian welfare

system has been activation policies, involving active rather than passive measures and strong emphasis on education, training and the development of skills. Generous insurance with a strong focus on activation and skills development tends to smooth the process of structural change.

Eventually, the oil and gas activity have to decline; resources are limited and better sources of energy will be found. Investment activity will be the first to take a hit. The current decline in oil prices may be the beginning of such a decline, or at least it poses an early warning. Even if incomes will be high for quite some time after the investment activity dries out, and even if incomes from the oil fund will provide income after that, the Norwegian economy will have to face large structural changes in the future. This will be the key challenge to the future unemployment protection system; to smooth the welfare consequences of the expected structural changes, while at the same time provide instruments and incentives for swift reallocation of human resources to the new activities that will arise.

Any welfare benefit or unemployment protection system (UPS) faces the challenge of balancing distributional concerns and incentives to qualify and look for jobs (see eg. Cahuc and Zulberberg, 2004). This is true in Norway as well. In particular, there are important challenges in defining the boundaries between health related and work related benefit systems. There are also particular challenges related to the young that drop out of school and do not attain neither education, employment nor training (NEETs). For Norway, the high wages for low skilled workers and the relative skill intensive labour market provide a particular challenge to low skilled and marginal workers. Another key challenge to the Norwegian welfare system thus lies in the inclusion of marginal groups in the labour market.

1. Key elements of the unemployment insurance system

Unemployment benefits

The Norwegian unemployment protection system originated as a Ghent-type of system, i.e. one where insurance against unemployment was provided to union members only. The first law establishing such a system in Norway was enacted in 1906, based on voluntary membership in different unions. In periods of high unemployment, many of the unions went broke from financial strains and too small contributions (see Hatland 2014). A government unemployment protection system was established in 1938, encompassing most wage earners, with the exception of shipping and employment in the primary sector. In 1958 a new law was enacted and coverage was extended to all workers.

The current system is administered through the Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration (NAV, see below). The main requirements for receiving unemployment benefits are according to NAV (see www.nav.no) that:

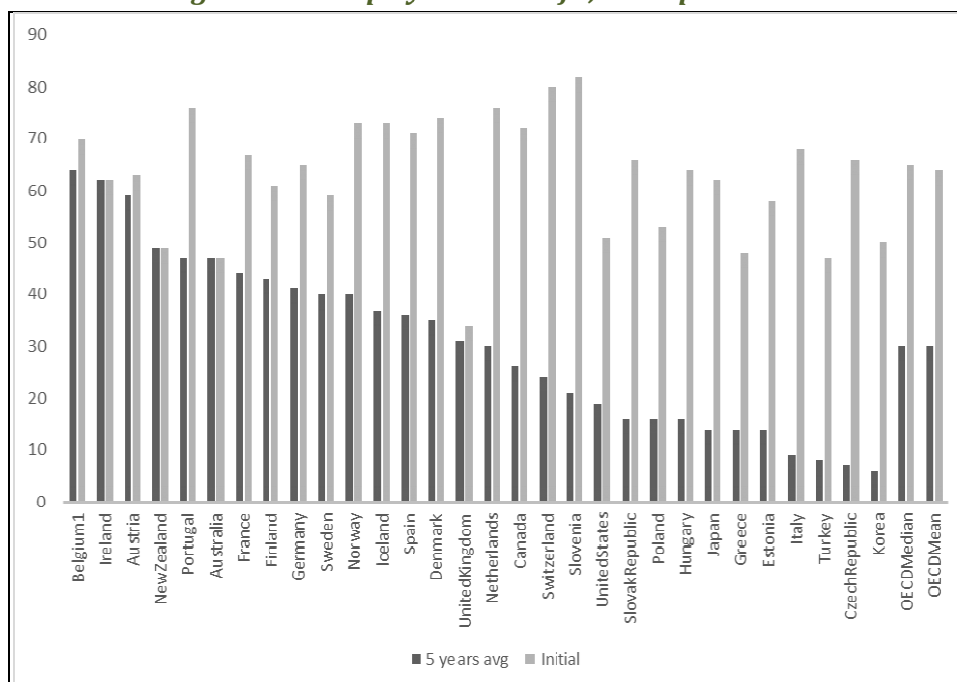
- Your hours have been reduced by at least 50 percent.
- You were paid wages of at least 1,5 times the National Insurance Scheme basic amount in the last calendar year (last year), or at least 3 times the National Insurance Scheme basic amount over the past three full calendar years. Parental benefits (*foreldrepenger*), pregnancy allowance (*svangerskapspeng*) and sickness benefits in

connection with pregnancy count as earned income and are included in the minimum income requirement.

- You are registered as a jobseeker and submit your employment status form every 14 days you actually apply for work (including that you are an active jobseeker, and that you keep your CV up-to-date on www.nav.no)
- You live or are present in Norway.
- You are not a student.

The unemployment benefit provides 62.4 percent of previous gross income and is treated as taxable income. It is provided for a maximum of 104 weeks (2 years). Unemployment benefit receipt is conditional on activity in terms of job seeking and/or participation in training or employment schemes. Figure 1 shows a recent cross-country comparison of net replacement rates by Parieliussen (2014), based on the OECD Tax and Benefit model. Replacement rates are averaged over four different household types. The figure shows both the initial replacement rate as well as an average over the first five years. The figure shows that Norway and Spain are quite similar in terms of net replacement rate, measured over both time intervals, and that both are placed around the middle of the OECD distribution.

Figure 2. Unemployment benefit, net replace rate



Note: Initial replacement rate and five year average are calculated as unweighted averages for four different family types (single person households, lone parents, a one-earner married couple with no children, and a one-earner married couple with children) and on two different initial earnings full-time levels (of 67 percent and 100 percent of AW). See Parieliussen (2014: table 1) for details.

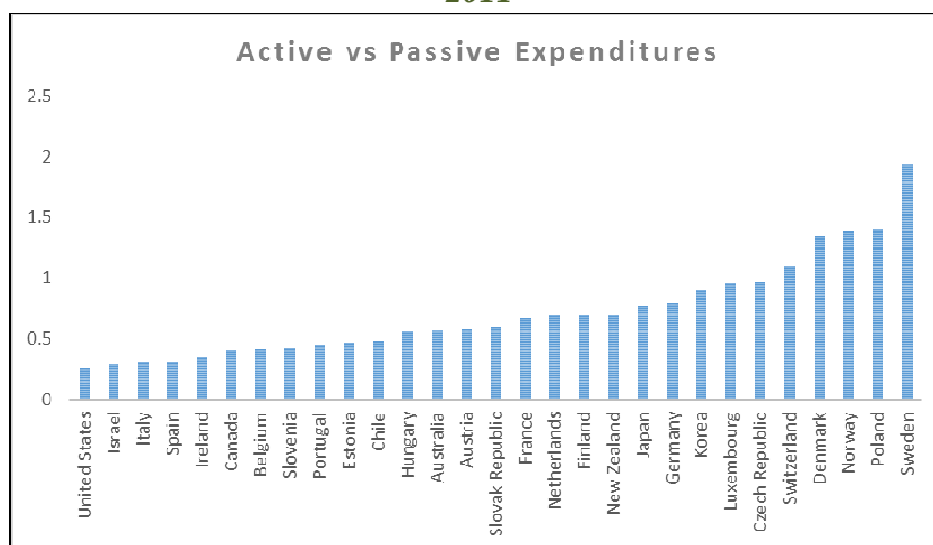
Source: Parieliussen (2014) Calculated from OECD Tax Benefit Model.

Activation policies

Norway has a high share of the expenditures on unemployment allocated to active labour market programs. Figure 2 displays the ratio of active over passive spending on labour market

programs. The Scandinavian countries, together with Poland and Switzerland, all have larger spending on active than passive measures.

Figure 3. Public expenditures on active versus passive labour market programmes, 2011



Note: Public Expenditures on Labour Market Programmes. Expenditures on active measures divided by expenditures on passive measures. Source OECD (2014a).

Table 1. Distribution of employment schemes by age. December 2013.

	Total	-19	20-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 +
All Schemes	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Assessment	3.9	1.5	2.3	2.4	3.1	4.6	7.1	5.2
Follow-up	15.4	12.1	15.2	14.2	14.7	16.7	17.6	10.7
Training	24.5	8.6	21.6	30.8	32.4	25.6	14.0	6.0
Wage subsidies	7.6	2.3	5.3	6.6	6.5	7.5	10.9	20.9
Traineeship	31.5	73.5	45.3	31.8	29.6	27.1	22.5	13.2
Rehabilitation	0.9	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.3	1.5	0.7
Adapted work	14.2	1.3	9.2	12.0	10.7	14.6	23.2	40.6
Treatment	1.0	0.1	0.3	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.0
Adaption	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.5	1.5
Job-creation	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.1

Source: NAV, Figures from December 2013.

A lot of effort has been devoted to evaluation of different types of programs. Røed and Raaum (2006) provided a detailed evaluation of active labour market programs on unemployment duration. Their results suggest that programs should be targeted at persons with *poor employment prospects and long unemployment spells*. They find particularly large effects for immigrants from developing countries. Hardoy (2005) finds positive effects of employment programs (mainly wage subsidies) in the case of young women and the youngest age groups (16-20-year olds). She does not find positive effects of training or vocational programs for teenagers. Table 1 shows the distribution of the different employment and training schemes by age in 2013.

Even though some of the evaluation studies have shown that wage subsidies have better results in terms of labour market outcomes than other programs, it is less prevalent among the youth unemployed. Traineeship is by far the most prevalent program for youth below 20, whereas only 2.3 percent are in jobs with wage subsidies. As discussed below, the government gives strong priority to the completion of formal education for the young. Since wage subsidies provide jobs for the youth, they may act as incentives for young people to work instead of completing formal education. One reason that wage subsidies are used less for the young is thus to avoid creating incentives to drop out of school, a point to which I return below.

Public Employment Administration merging with other welfare service providers

The first employment administration offices, aiming at matching workers to employers, were established at the municipality level. The first one was established in Bergen in 1897 (Hatland 2014). In 1906 a law was enacted, and in 1947 the National Employment Directorate was established. A law governing a state level Public Employment Service was enacted in 1960. In a recent large reform in 2006, the National Employment Directorate, National Social Security and Social Assistance Service at municipality level were merged. The Norwegian Labour and Welfare Administration (NAV) was established, with 456 local offices. The purpose was a «one-stop-shop» policy and as well as better coordination between activation policies and health related social insurance services. NAV is a comprehensive welfare and labour services organization, with about 19000 employees, of which 14000 are employed by the central government, and 5000 by the local authorities. NAV administers a third of the national budget through schemes such as unemployment benefit, work assessment allowance, sickness benefit, pensions, child benefit and cash-for-care benefit. On its home page NAV states its main goals as:

- More people active and in work, fewer people on benefits
- A well-functioning job market
- To provide the right services and benefits at the right time
- To provide good services tailored to the users' needs and circumstances
- Comprehensive and efficient labour and welfare administration

The NAV reform is continuously under evaluation, and it remains to see if it produces the results it aims to reach.

2. Main Challenges

Key challenge 1: Pensions and work

The Norwegian work force is ageing, with an increasing number of old-age pensioners. The number of individuals on health related benefits, such as sickness leave and disability pensions, is rising as well. An important policy debate concerns the relationship between health related benefits and work related benefits. According to Kostøl and Mogstad (2014) the incidence of disability receipt has risen from 2 percent in 1961 to 10 percent in 2010. They use a randomized experiment and find that many DI recipients have considerable capacity to work

that may be induced by financial work incentives. Their findings illustrate the problems of delineating between health related and work related benefits.

The merging of the welfare and public employment administrations was one step in the direction of improving the performance of the two systems in this regard and high emphasis is put on work assessments for the individual. A new disability benefit reform has taken place on 1 January 2015, where disability benefits will be taxed as income and not as pensions, where the benefits are higher to compensate for more tax, and where it will be easier for those who are able to work, to receive some work income while still retaining the disability status (www.nav.no).

Disability pension is to a large extent a question of an ageing population. Similar issues arise along the borders between old-age pensions and work. With an ageing population of increasingly better health, providing incentives to work rather than retiring becomes more and more beneficial. A negotiated reform granted a majority of the employed rights to early retirement schemes (contractual pension scheme, AFP), that allows for early retirement from the age of 62, while the regular pension age in Norway is 67. A large pension reform has now been put in place to improve work incentives for the elderly. All in all, the relationship between disability pensions, early retirement schemes and unemployment benefits may be blurry and sometimes depend on strategic choices conditional on job possibilities, health conditions and other factors.

But also among the young, delineations between different statuses may be blurry and complicated. In particular, young people are affected by conditions related to the education system, but also health related benefits are relevant from some groups. And the young are the most vulnerable towards unemployment.

Key challenge 2: Youth unemployment and drop out from school

Young people are the hardest hit by increasing unemployment. They are mostly new entrants to the labour market, or typically employed on a temporary basis in business-cycle-sensitive jobs. Hence they are among the first to suffer from cut-downs in the workforce or reductions in hiring rates. Figure 3 shows the development of unemployment among Norwegian youth (15-24) and adults (25-74) from 2006 to 2013. As in most other countries, youth unemployment is about three times larger than adult unemployment, and appears to be quite sensitive to the business cycle.

Figure 3. Unemployment by gender and age

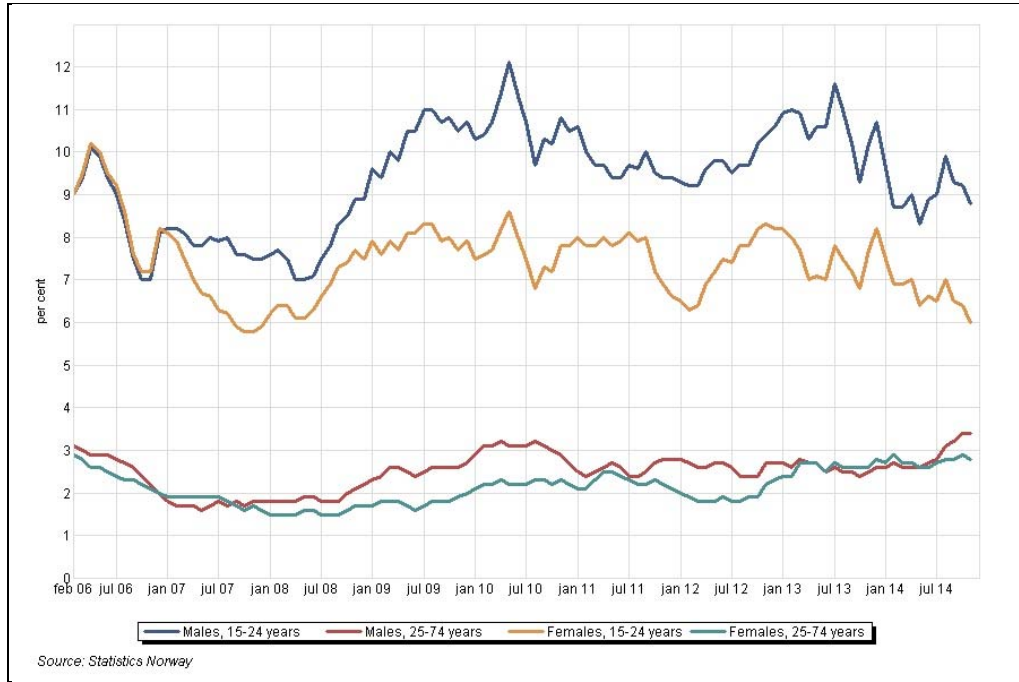
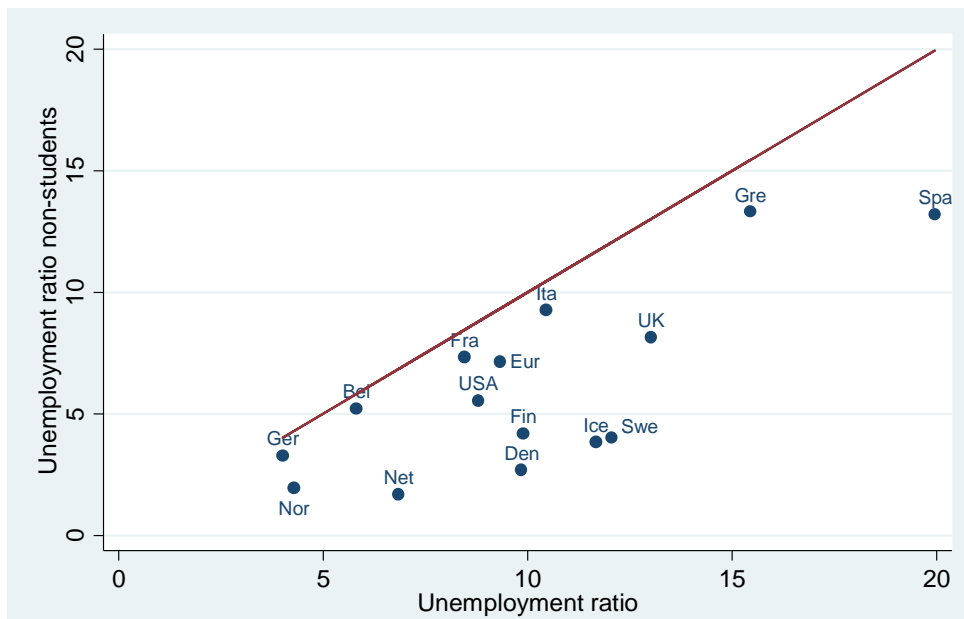


Figure 4.. Youth unemployment ratios with and without students, selected OECD countries, 2012 (1st quarter)



Notes: Unemployment ratio = unemployed 15–24 year-olds in relation to the whole population of the age group. Unemployment ratio, non-students = unemployed 15–24 year-olds with studying not being their main activity in relation to the whole population of the age group. The red line shows the 45 degree angle. Source: OECD.

Figure 4 illustrates the sensitivity of the unemployment figures for youth to how unemployment is measured. The figure shows youth unemployment from the first quarter of 2012 for a few OECD countries. The horizontal axis gives the unemployment ratio as a

percentage of the youth population¹. Among the Nordic countries, we note that both Finland and Sweden has a higher youth unemployment ratio than the average for Euro countries (EUR).

Many of the young people recorded in the Labour Force Surveys as unemployed are at the same time attending school, typically on a full-time basis. The numbers on the vertical axis of figure 4 thus shows what happens when we remove from the pool of young unemployed those young people who report studying as their main activity. These are unemployed NEETs as a percent of the youth population². For the Euro area as a whole, the youth unemployment ratio drops from 9.3 percent to 7.2 percent of the youth population. Finland and Sweden now show lower unemployment than the Euro average. For both Norway and Spain, the changes are also large, bringing Spain down to a level below Greece, and Norway to the bottom. This illustrates the close connection between education and the labour market for young people.

For youth, education and work are two closely related alternatives. Jobs provide income whereas education improves future income. The measure on the vertical axis takes this fact into consideration, and measure the share of youth population who are unemployed and do not report studying as their main activity. We note that the unemployment figures thus measured are much lower for most countries, the reason being that a significant proportion of the youth that are looking for a job are also full time students. For what purpose should we then use each of these measures?

Aiming at measuring conditions in the labour market, unemployment rates and unemployment ratios for youth provide the relevant and important measures. This measure reflects how difficult it is for a young person to obtain a job in the labour market, relative to all job seekers, and is an important measure of the mismatch between supply and demand in the labour market. However, for the purpose of measuring welfare among youth, both in the short run or in the long run, or of measuring future human capital of the economy, the unemployment figures should be adjusted to account for full time students that are at the same time looking for jobs. A young person who is in education is likely to get better employment prospects and higher pay in the future, and may also benefit from both public support schemes or loans for students. A young person who is not in education or training, and who do not get a job may suffer severe consequences both in terms of future prospects and current lack of income.

In terms of policy, education has top priority for the very young in Norway. The goal is to get as many as possible through upper secondary school. During recessions, the educational system expands, and more young people complete school. When jobs are difficult to find, the return to education is obviously huge, since the amount invested in terms of foregone earnings is small.

¹ Note that this is a different measure than the unemployment rate which is measured in percent of the youth *labor force* (=employed + unemployed). For youth, the unemployment ratio in percent of the total youth population provides a measure where the denominator is not affected by educational attainment.

² This measure is now included among the self-sufficiency indicators of the OECD's Social indicators, see e.g. OECD, 2014b figure 4.7.

There is a great concern about high levels of non-completion rates out of upper secondary schooling in Norway. Table 2 shows drop-out rates and NEET rates for Norway, Spain, EU, and OECD. We find that Norway has drop-out rates above average for EU and OECD, but low NEET rates. This difference is due to the fact that a non-trivial share of the young people who drop out do so to work (Albæk et al. 2014, 2015). In Spain, the dropout rates are even higher, and the NEET rates are about 1/5th of the youth population.

Table 2. NEET rates and School dropout rates, 2009

	Norway	Spain	Eu ^a	OECD ^a
NEET rate (percent of the age group)	6,7	20,2	11,2	12,8
School drop-outs^b (percent of the age group)	20,3	35,3	15,1	19,6

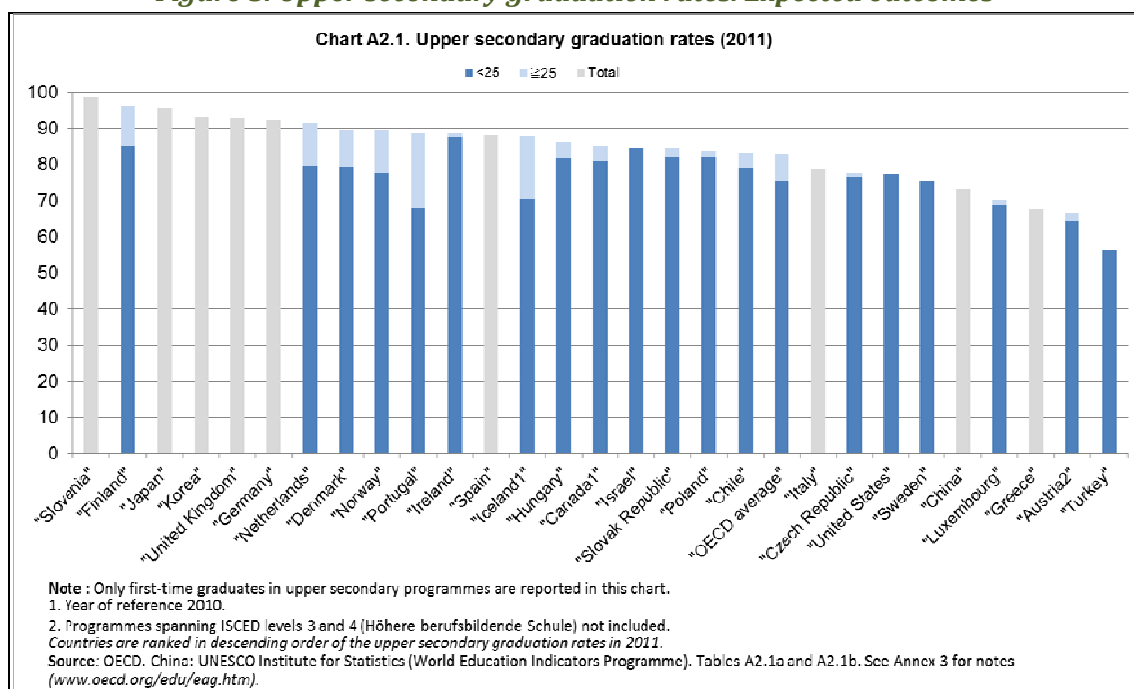
a) Unweighted average of the 21 EU and 34 OECD countries.

b) Share of youth 20-24 not in education and without an ISCED 3 educational attainment.

Source: OECD Scoreboard for youth

Drop-out rates from upper secondary school are better described as non-completion rates. A large part of the youth population that is described as drop outs eventually complete upper secondary school. This is clearly illustrated by the fact that for both Spain and Norway, in calculations based on current demographics and current graduation patterns, OECD expect upper secondary graduation rates of today's young eventually to reach close to 90 per cent.

Figure 5. Upper secondary graduation rates. Expected outcomes



Note: (OECD 2013, Chart A2.1).

Barth and von Simson (2012) show that unemployment among the NEETs in Norway is much less cyclical than youth unemployment in general. Both educational attainment, employment, and unemployment are highly cyclical, whereas the proportion young NEETs is less cyclical, suggesting that conditions on the labour market affect transitions between education and

work, but not to the same extent drop outs into the status of NEET. This also suggests that the bulk of the NEET problem is more of a structural problem than a cyclical problem, probably associated with conditions of young people who tend to have problems both in employment and school. Many of the NEETs also have health related problems, and an increasing number of young people obtain psychiatric diagnoses at an early age.

There is a “youth guarantee” for young people in Norway. Early on, it provided young unemployed (<20 years) with labour market training programs. The youth guarantee was extended in 1995 to all youth below 25, ensuring right to program participation for long term unemployed (6 months). Hardoy, Røed, Torp and Zang (2006) provide an evaluation of the youth guarantee from 1995. They conclude that the youth guarantee led to higher program participation and a more rapid transition into employment for unemployed youth. The youth guarantee for young people between 20 and 24 changed in 2013 from a follow-up and program-participation guarantee for unemployed, to guarantees for youth who need assistance to obtain work. It was extended to young unemployed below 30 years of age. The target group for these guarantees also encompass youth with reduced working abilities. Both youth with and without reduced working abilities, but who have a need for assistance in order to obtain work, have the right to take part in an individual activity-plan, that may involve both state and municipality programs, work related programs, own activities, health or psychological services and education. The goal is that 90 per cent of all youth with reduced working ability get an activity plan.

New Possibilities (Ny GIV)

Traineeship is used in combination with a highly prioritized effort to keep young people in education. The “New Possibilities” initiative (Ny GIV) was launched in 2010. The main goal of the project is to increase completion in upper secondary education from 70 to 75 percent by 2015. The initiative focuses both on preventing drop-out from upper-secondary education, and on helping drop-outs to complete their education. There is a close cooperation between the Educational authorities and the Labour and Welfare Service in order to encourage as many as possible to complete their education. Non-completion rates are higher in vocational courses. A dialog with the social partners is established to obtain more and better apprenticeships, and improvements in the way vocational training is organized is part of the initiative.

Ny GIV focuses on follow-up of the pupils with the poorest results in the final part of 10th grade and in upper secondary education and training. A common set of indicators is established to count the successful completion of Upper Secondary Education and Training. Ny GIV has a specific emphasis on the pupils’ skills in reading literacy, writing and numeracy, involving also improved training of their teachers. There is a Follow up Service in the county municipalities, targeting young people (between 16 – 21 years) who are neither in school nor at work (NEETS), and helping them to get back into school or in work. The objective of the project is to create a sustainable structured and targeted system to motivate as many pupils as possible between 16-19, and to qualify them to participate in education leading to basic competence or university and college admissions certification. The Follow up Service combines training programs with traineeships.

Key challenge 3: Structural change

Large structural changes are expected to occur when investments and subsequently production in the oil and gas sector starts to decline. These changes will require reallocation of human capital and other resources. We have already seen some consequences of the current decline in oil prices, and it remains to be seen if this is the start or an early warning for the structural changes that awaits the Norwegian economy after the oil. The institutional framework, with coordinated wage bargaining and a comprehensive welfare state, has historically facilitated structural change in Norway. The unemployment protection system will have to be tailored both to smooth incomes for workers who experience downsizing, and to the retraining and reallocation of workers into new activities.


3. Summing up

Norway has traditionally low unemployment and high employment rates, and was for several reasons able to steer through the current financial crisis without large and persistent increases in unemployment. A labour market policy based on active measures rather than passive measures, and an active policy towards training and education of the very young probably contributed to this outcome, even though other institutional factors were more important in fending off the crisis.

Activation is a key feature of unemployment policies in Norway. The aim is twofold: To combine relatively generous insurance without distorting incentives for job seekers, and to retrain the work force to facilitate structural change. Activation policies are combined with relatively strong individual employment protection and relatively lenient protection against collective dismissals. A currently debated issue is the use of temporary contracts, where the government proposes to loosen up on regulations.

One challenge that faces the unemployment system in Norway concerns the relationship between health related benefits, such as disability pensions and work related measures such as training and unemployment benefits. The dilemma lies on the borderline between disability and work, and on how to provide well for those who have to live on disability pensions, without distorting work-incentives for those who are able. Another key challenge concerns policies directed towards the young school drop-outs and unemployed NEETs. Cyclical youth unemployment and non-activity among the youth may be met with training and expansion of the educational system, clearly investments that have very large rates of return. But the more structural part of the NEET problem, perhaps related to reduced working ability, motivational or health problems, remains as a challenge to the unemployment protection system.

In the near future, the Norwegian system of unemployment protection will also have to face the needs arising from structural change as oil and gas related employments diminish. The institutional framework with coordinated bargaining and a strong welfare state has been conducive to structural change before. In order to sustain low levels of unemployment, high employment rates, and small income differentials, unemployment protection and activation policies may gain renewed importance. Unemployment insurance is a way of spreading the risks arising from downsizing and structural change, and together with small wage differentials across firms, which may contribute reallocation, activation policies may contribute to

retraining and upskilling of workers to facilitate mobility, both across skills, firms, trades, and across regions within Norway. 

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Grupo de Investigación en
Gobierno, Administración
y Políticas Públicas

Fundación José Ortega y Gasset-Gregorio Marañón
Instituto Universitario de Investigación Ortega y Gasset

Sobre el GIGAPP

El Grupo de Investigación en Gobierno, Administración y Políticas Públicas (GIGAPP) es una iniciativa académica impulsada por un equipo de investigadores y profesores del Programa de Gobierno y Administración Pública (GAP) del Instituto Universitario de Investigación Ortega y Gasset (IUIOG), Fundación Ortega – Marañón, cuyo principal propósito es contribuir al debate y la generación de nuevos conceptos, enfoques y marcos de análisis en las áreas de gobierno, gestión y políticas públicas, fomentando la creación de espacio de intercambio y colaboración permanente, y facilitando la construcción de redes y proyectos conjuntos sobre la base de actividades de docencia, investigación, asistencia técnica y extensión.

Las áreas de trabajo que constituyen los ejes principales del GIGAPP son:

1. Gobierno, instituciones y comportamiento político
2. Administración Pública
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