

**Gender equality and economic independence:
part-time work and self-employment**

Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for
Action in the EU Member States

Report



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Member States



The report was developed by the research team of the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE): Ilze Burkevica, Dr Anne Laure Humbert, Merle Paats, Dr Jolanta Reingardė and Eva Ronnberg. A particular thank you goes to other colleagues at EIGE for their intellectual contributions, editing and administrative support.

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The data collection and initial analysis was part of a study commissioned by EIGE and carried out by the Institute for Social Research (IRS) in collaboration with the Economic Research Centre on Labour and Industry (CRELI) at the University of Milan. The research was coordinated by Jolanta Reingardė and Maurizio Mosca (EIGE), together with Flavia Pesce (IRS), Manuela Samek Lodovici (IRS) and Claudio Lucifora (CRELI).



Foreword

Equal access to economic resources is not just a matter of ensuring equal economic independence between women and men, but it has also been recognised as a prerequisite for the achievement of economic growth, prosperity and competitiveness. The recent economic downturn has brought unprecedented challenges for many Member States and for the European Union as a whole, and has resulted in a reduction in public funding and resources in some Member States, including in areas that are important for the pursuit of gender equality. Increasing women's participation in the labour market and their economic empowerment is therefore crucial in order to foster economic growth and, more importantly, to ensure that the EU makes full use of available talent and human resources.

This publication is the sixth report in EIGE's review of the implementation of the BpFA in the EU and was prepared to support the Greek Presidency of the Council of the European Union. Developed in close cooperation with the Greek government and the European Commission, the report focuses on the importance of gender equality in economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources. Through an analytical focus on part-time work and self-employment, the report demonstrates their effect on the economic independence of women and men, as well as on gender equality more broadly. On the basis of this analysis, EIGE proposed a set of indicators and sub-indicators in the area of women and the economy that were endorsed by the Council in June 2014.

The report emphasises several important trends. It illustrates that part-time work is an important way of facilitating labour-force participation, for both women and men, since it expands opportunities to meet a variety of life demands

and interests over the course of a life. However, one of the strongest gender differences in today's participation in the labour market is the prevailing over-representation of women in part-time work, which has a significant negative effect on women's economic independence. The quest for work-life balance in employment is therefore very detrimental to women.

In contrast, self-employment provides an opportunity to work on a flexible basis and enhance opportunities to obtain a work-life balance without reducing working hours. However, self-employment can also lead to much lower earnings and income for women, and thus greater risk of poverty over the course of life.

Overall, the report shows substantial gender gaps in the labour market. More transformative measures are needed to tackle the structural obstacles that women face when accessing and/or participating in the labour market.

On behalf of the Institute, I would like to thank all the institutions and experts who contributed to this publication, and especially the Greek Presidency of the Council of the European Union, the European Commission Directorate-General for Justice and its High-Level Group on Gender Mainstreaming, and EIGE's staff. We hope that the findings and recommendations of this study will give impetus for broader debates on the importance of women's economic independence and empowerment and will contribute to realising *de facto* gender equality in the European Union.

Virginija Langbakk
Director
European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE)

Country abbreviations

BE	Belgium
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czech Republic
DK	Denmark
DE	Germany
EE	Estonia
IE	Ireland
EL	Greece
ES	Spain
FR	France
HR	Croatia
IT	Italy
CY	Cyprus
LV	Latvia
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
HU	Hungary
MT	Malta
NL	Netherlands
AT	Austria
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
FI	Finland
SE	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom
EU-28	The 28 EU Member States
EU-27	The 27 EU Member States

Glossary

ALMP	Active Labour Market Policy
BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CoE	Council of Europe
EC	European Commission
EEO	European Employment Observatory
EES	European Employment Strategy
EGGE	EU Expert Group on Gender and Employment
EGGSI	Expert Group on Gender Equality and Social Inclusion, Health and Long Term Care
EHH	Education, Health and Welfare, Humanities and the Arts
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
EP	European Parliament
EU	European Union
EU-LFS	European Union Labour Force Survey
EU-SILC	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
EWCS	European Working Conditions Survey
ESS	European Statistical System
FTE	Full-time Equivalent
GPG	Gender Pay Gap
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ISCO	International Standard Classification of Occupations
MS	Member States
NACE	Nomenclature générale des activités économiques dans les Communautés européennes (General industrial classification of economic activities within the European Communities)
NUTS	Nomenclature des unités territoriales statistiques (Classification of territorial units for statistics)
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
SES	Structure of Earning Survey
WB	World Bank
WHO	Working Health Organization

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Introduction



Introduction

Gender equality has increasingly been recognised as a prerequisite for the achievement of economic growth, prosperity and competitiveness. In 1957, the right to equal pay was enshrined in the Treaty of Rome and ever since, the EU has been reinforcing its commitment to promote equality between women and men. It is now a fundamental value of the EU underpinned by the Treaty of Amsterdam: the incorporation of gender equality into all policies is no longer an option but an obligation. The European Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015 highlights the contribution of gender equality to economic growth and sustainable development, and supports the implementation of the gender equality dimension in the Europe 2020 Strategy.

At the level of the United Nations, the Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, saw the launch of a ground-breaking worldwide strategy for gender equality, namely the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action for Equality, Development and Peace (BPfA). This agenda for women's empowerment affirms the fundamental principle whereby the human rights of women and girls are an inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights. The BPfA established twelve critical areas of concern that need to be addressed in order to achieve political, social, economic, cultural, and environmental security, sustainable development and social justice. These high priority areas are inter-related and require collective action by national governments, regional socio-political structures and civil society.

In December 1995, the European Council acknowledged the European Union's commitment to the BPfA and to its monitoring on an annual basis. Starting in 1999, simple sets of quantitative and qualitative indicators have been developed or improved for 11 out of 12 critical areas of concern under successive Presidencies of the Council of the EU. Since 2011, the European Institute for Gender Equality has been supporting the Presidency countries in the follow-up of the implementation of the BPfA in the EU.

The BPfA makes a clear commitment to 'promote women's economic independence, including employment, and eradicate the persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women by addressing the structural causes of poverty through changes in economic structures, ensuring equal access for all women, including those in rural areas, as vital development agents, to productive resources, opportunities and public services' (BPfA, 1995). One of its critical areas of concern (Area F) specifically addresses 'Women and the Economy' and covers six objectives.

Since 1995, Area F, 'Women and the Economy', has been monitored and reviewed at EU level five times, in addition to the Beijing +10 review carried out by the Luxembourg Presidency and the Beijing +15 by the Swedish Presidency. The reports of 2000, 2008 and 2011 focused on the issues of work-life balance. In 2001 and 2010, the reviews addressed pay inequalities between women and men. Greece, which holds the Presidency of the Council of the EU in the first semester of 2014, has decided to review the implementation of the first strategic objective of area F — to promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources.

The question of economic independence concerns both economic development and the goal of gender equality. A key issue is the lack of recognition and valuing of unpaid work. To understand the meaning and interplay of paid and unpaid work, from a gender equality perspective, it is important to analyse working hours and their distribution between women and men. In particular, part-time work should be analysed as a possible way to transform gender relations and allow people to fully realise their potential, but also as a phenomenon that can exacerbate gender differences or worsen working conditions.



The question of part-time work in the context of equal economic independence is also central to policy at the EU level, including the Europe 2020 headline target on employment (75 % of the population aged 20-64 to be employed by 2020). Reaching this target without considering women's and men's propensity to work on a part-time basis would provide an incomplete picture. Access to employment is indeed a prerequisite for ensuring sufficient financial resources and decent living conditions. However, these can be at risk when patterns of employment involve high part-time rates, involuntary choices and limited possibilities for transitions from part-time to full-time employment. Indeed, when part-time work is taken into account in some Member States, the participation of women in employment drops significantly; this demonstrates the importance of measuring employment in full-time equivalent terms. In the context of the economic crisis, which has affected the lives of women and young people, the topic of gender-based poverty remains more relevant than ever to strive for equal economic independence.

In reviewing the BPfA's area F, 'Women and the Economy', and its strategic objective F1, this report explores the relevance of part-time work and self-employment in relation to women's and men's economic independence. In addition, it also considers the challenges and opportunities afforded by part-time work, and its potential effects on economic independence as well as on gender equality. The report also proposes a set of new indicators and sub-indicators on full-time equivalent employment, part-time employment and self-employment. The analysis covers the period between 2008 and 2012.

The report is divided into four chapters. Chapter 1 sets out the conceptual framework of the study and presents the academic debate and policy aspects related to women's economic independence. Chapter 2 presents an overview of the main trends in various areas related to women's economic independence, providing evidence for the most important findings on part-time employment, full-time equivalent (FTE) employment and self-employment. Chapter 3 proposes three new indicators and sub-indicators for objective F1 of the BPfA. Chapter 4 provides some concluding remarks and recommendations. The report also contains Annexes which present the main data sources and a set of tables and graphs.

1 Economic independence:
gendered labour force results
in differences in economic
outcomes



1 Economic independence: gendered labour force results in differences in economic outcomes

The purpose of this report is to examine the relevance of part-time work and self-employment in relation to women's and men's economic independence. In particular, the challenges and opportunities that part-time work and self-employment present for economic independence and the goal

of gender equality are central to the analysis. Economic independence can generally be achieved through access to, and control over, critical economic resources and opportunities, and through equal access to employment.

1.1 Rationale for examining economic independence

Many studies identify a relationship between gender equality and economic growth. The Gender Equality Index shows a clear positive relationship between gender equality and GDP in the EU Member States in 2010 (EIGE, 2013). This positive relationship with economic growth also holds true of the domains measuring gender equality in labour market participation (the domain of *work*) and the domain examining gender equality in financial resources and economic situation (the domain of *money*). Nevertheless, correlation is not causation, and studies do not necessarily agree on the direction of this relationship. Some suggest that direction of causality goes mainly from economic growth to gender equality (Lofstrom, 2001; Duflo, 2012), but others contend that greater gender equality leads to economic growth (Loko and Diouf, 2009; Dollar and Gatti, 1999).

There is ample evidence that when women are able to develop their full labour market potential, there can be significant macroeconomic gains (IMF, 2013). The loss in GDP per capita attributable to gender gaps in the labour market has been estimated to reach as much as 27 % in certain parts of the EU (Cuberes and Teignier, 2012). Increasing women's labour market participation to the same level as men's could thus increase GDP tremendously (Aguirre, 2012). In addition, women make a substantial contribution to the economy by performing large amounts of unpaid work, such as child-rearing and household tasks, which often remain unaccounted for in the GDP (IMF, 2013).

In terms of gender equality and poverty, the greater participation of women in the labour market has the potential to reduce poverty among women (European Parliament, 2011). In the longer term, an increase in the number of women who have secured their own right to a pension (rather than relying on pension rights derived through their husband) will reduce one of the main causes of poverty in old age. A greater number of women in the labour force will widen the tax base, while the

tax take will increase further especially if the gender pay gap is also reduced. Moreover, improving gender equality is also a way of promoting convergence between Member States and regions; this is an area where there is scope for considerable 'European value added' (European Commission, 2013b).

Poor work conditions, such as lower pay, discontinuous earnings and occupational gender segregation as well as poor job prospects and limited training opportunities can also lead to increased risk of poverty. It also can deny people access to social security benefits and result in reduced pension entitlements, thus further increasing the risk of poverty and social exclusion in old age (European Parliament, 2011). The extent to which quality of work affects women and men in the labour force is therefore important.

In summary, addressing differences between women and men in economic independence therefore not only represents a major economic opportunity and stimulus for economic growth in the long term, but also an opportunity to achieve greater levels of gender equal society.



1.2 Policy and legislative background

Providing a brief overview of the policy and regulatory background pertinent to the area of women and the economy is a difficult task given that it covers a wide range of different issues that have been the focus of much attention.

The European Employment Strategy (1997) was a significant policy development, promoting participation of women and men in the labour market and recognising women as an under-used source of labour in the context of EU's economic and demographic challenges. It contributed to moving the policy focus away from managing the unemployed population towards mobilising both women and men for the labour market. In doing so, the Strategy relied on a greater awareness of women's potential economic contribution and the extent to which gender inequality could be detrimental to jobs and growth (Villa and Smith, 2009). It also marks the moment when policy at the EU level began to focus on the quality as well as the quantity of employment. Prior to this, the quality of work was largely considered in terms of wage levels alone.

The year 2010 was a further important turning point in the evolution of the European Employment Strategy as the European Council launched the Europe 2020 Strategy which aims to achieve smarter, more sustainable and more inclusive economic growth and which sets a number of EU headline targets, including an employment target. It aims to create more and better jobs and achieve a higher employment rate for women as part of the overall employment target of 75 % for all 20-64 year-olds by 2020. The Europe 2020 Strategy targets are built upon the earlier Lisbon Strategy (2000-2010) ((EC) (2010) 114) targets which aims for 70 % of the population of working age to be in employment and specifically to reach 60 % of employment for women. The specific reference to gender was lost in the Europe 2020 targets, although the linked Employment Guidelines for Member States' economic policies state that gender equality should be integrated into all relevant policy areas and national policies should improve the situation of women in the labour market and combat discrimination in order to increase women's labour force participation.

The European Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015 (COM(2010a) 491) acknowledged equal economic independence as 'a prerequisite for enabling both women and men to exercise control over their lives and to make genuine choices' (1) and placed it among the key priority areas. The Strategy identifies specific measures to support the economic independence of women, which include:

- promoting equality as part of the Europe 2020 Strategy and through EU funding;
- promoting women's entrepreneurship and self-employment;

- assessing workers' rights with regard to taking time off for family reasons;
- assessing Member States' performance with regard to childcare facilities;
- supporting gender equality in matters of immigration and the integration of migrants.

In addition, the European Pact for Gender Equality (2011-2020) reaffirms the EU's commitments to closing gender gaps in employment, education and social protection, promoting better work-life balance for women and men and combating all forms of violence against women.

Given that women are generally disadvantaged financially and exposed to greater risks of social exclusion, the elimination of the gender pay gap has long been a priority for the EU in a number of policy areas. The principle of equal pay for equal work or work of equal value has been enshrined in the Treaties since 1957 and is incorporated in the Directive 2006/54/EC (Recast Directive). A legal basis for EU action exists under the Treaty of Lisbon, together with the commitment to gender equality found in the Charter of Fundamental Rights. The Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council on the application of Directive 2006/54/EC, however, pointed out that its most problematic area was the practical application of equal pay provisions in Member States. Indeed, pay discrimination and the lack of challenges by individuals in national courts remain among the main causes of the persistent gender pay gap (EC, 2013c). The European Commission's Communication of 2007 on the gender pay gap (2) proposed a series of actions to tackle this problem. These included a better application of existing legislation, fighting the gender pay gap in employment policies, promoting equal pay among employers and through social partnership, and supporting the exchange of good practices across the EU. A new measurement methodology (based on the SES — Structure of Earnings Survey) has been implemented in order to obtain a harmonised and comparable data on the unadjusted gender pay gap across Member States. Moreover, a major communication campaign (3) was launched on International Women's Day 2009 including exchanges of good practice between Member States on counselling services for employers and employees and on awareness-raising.

Another key priority of the EU, related to the current economic situation, is the promotion of social inclusion in particular through the reduction of poverty (European Pact for Gender Equality 2011-2020). Europe 2020 has a strong focus on poverty, the aim being to reduce the number of individuals living below the national poverty line by 25 %, thereby decreasing the number of individuals at risk of poverty and

social exclusion by 20 million. Ample evidence exists to show that women find themselves in more precarious situations throughout the EU in terms of access to financial resources and economic situation, mostly stemming from the discrimination experienced by women in the labour market. Ultimately, gender inequalities translate over the lifecycle into a higher risk of poverty for women. The economic crisis brought new challenges, reducing economic opportunities, with a particularly negative effect on the lives of women and young people. Tackling gender-based poverty is an important prerequisite to strive for equal economic independence.

Recently a strong stand has been taken at the European level to improve working conditions. The increasing relevance of 'atypical' or 'non-standard' forms of employment (including part-time, casual, fixed-term and temporary agency work, self-employment, independent work, work at home and teleworking) prompted the EU institutions and Member States to 'modernise' labour regulations and to support the development of a flexicurity approach, the exchange of good practices and financial support through the European Structural Funds. In response to the need for a fairer balance between quantity (more jobs) and quality (i.e. stable and better paid jobs), the European Commission launched common principles of flexicurity (4). They are meant to serve as a common framework for the implementation of integrated flexicurity strategies in the Member States and are also intended to improve the employment and professional opportunities for women. The Commission's Communication on Flexicurity (2007) also proposed a list of indicators, which should serve as a basis to observe developments on the four components of flexicurity as well as more general labour market outcomes (5). The flexicurity approach needs to work in synergy with improvements in quality of work, such as skills, training and human capital formation, together with effective organisation of work, which are key elements for improving both workers' adaptability and labour productivity. However, not all is positive about the flexicurity approach, not least in terms of gender equality. Interruptions in career-paths, labour market segregation, compounded by inequalities between the time spent in caring activities, largely fall outside of flexicurity provisions. As a result, the flexicurity agenda fails to tackle gender equality by its narrower focus on paid work and the labour market only (Jepsen, 2014).

The Europe 2020 Strategy complements flexicurity approach, as it includes a commitment to fostering high levels of employment and productivity. This implies a renewed emphasis on the earlier Lisbon Strategy goals of 'more and better jobs' — more jobs to remedy the sharp increase in unemployment in times of financial crisis; better-quality work (in terms of training, knowledge content and employment conditions) to improve productivity levels and to maintain and improve living conditions (Eurofound, 2011).

As for the regulation of atypical work in the EU, the principle of non-discrimination between 'atypical' (including based on working hours, duration of employment, place of work

or the nature of the employment relationship) and 'standard' workers was enforced. Equal treatment is at the centre of the directives on part-time work (Directive 1997/81/EC) (6) and fixed-term work (Directive 1999/70/EC) (7). The Directive on part-time work establishes a framework to eliminate discrimination against part-time workers and to promote the quality of part-time work. It also aims to facilitate the development of part-time work on a voluntary basis and to contribute to the flexible organisation of working time in a manner which takes into account the needs of both employers and workers (EIGE, 2012). Both directives are based on Framework Agreements between EU social partners.

Another area of legislative action was the adoption of the directive on temporary agency work (Directive 2008/104/EC) defining a general framework applicable to the working conditions of temporary workers in the EU. It aims to guarantee a minimum level of effective protection to temporary workers and to contribute to the development of the temporary work sector as a flexible option for employers and workers. The Directive lays down the principle of non-discrimination, as regards the essential conditions of work and of employment, between temporary workers and workers who are recruited by the user company.

The gender equality directives that complement this employment legislation include Directive 2006/54/EC on the implementation of the principle of equal opportunities and equal treatment of women and men in matters of employment and occupation (recruitment, access to employment and self-employment; dismissals; vocational training and promotion; membership in workers' or employers' organisations); Directive 79/7/EEC for equal treatment of women and men in matters of social security and Directive 2004/113/EC which covers equal treatment in the access to and supply of goods and services. In relation to parenthood, two directives were introduced. Directive 1992/85/EC focused on the introduction of measures to encourage improvements and establish minimum standards in the safety and health at work of pregnant workers and workers who have recently given birth or are breastfeeding. The other, Directive 2010/18/EU, implementing the revised Framework Agreement on parental leave concluded by EU Social Partners and repealing Directive 96/34/EC aims at improving the reconciliation of work, private and family life for working parents and equality between men and women with regard to labour market opportunities and treatment at work across the EU.

The principle of equal treatment between women and men has also been extended to self-employment (Directive 2010/41/EU). This Directive considerably improves the protection of self-employed women workers and assisting spouses or life partners of self-employed workers, including in the case of maternity: they are granted a maternity allowance and a leave of at least 14 weeks. At the EU level, this is the first time a maternity allowance has been granted to self-employed workers. Improving the social protection available to



women in the labour market is expected to increase the share of women entrepreneurs, which would justify the additional regulatory burden placed on micro-businesses.

The principle of equal treatment with respect to employees and self-employed persons applies to several discrimination grounds, not just gender. Council Directive 2000/43/EC implements the principle of equal treatment between persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin in relation to conditions for access to employment, self-employment and occupation, including selection criteria and recruitment conditions, whatever the branch of activity and at all levels of the professional hierarchy, including promotion. Council Directive 2000/78/EC establishes a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation.

Atypical work represents one of those areas in which regulatory competences between the European Institutions and the Member States are intertwined. Furthermore, it has been the object of both 'soft law' regulatory interventions in the sphere of the so-called open method of coordination, and 'hard' harmonising legislative interventions via the 'classic EU method'. In these directives, while hard law rights for non-standard workers are established, ample margins of choice and derogation are left to the Member States to decide on how the norm is to be applied — in other words, a reasoned and proportionate perspective of diversification of the national norms is recognised. In this context, the role played by the Court of Justice of the European Union has been fundamental in safeguarding and strengthening social rights of EU origin when conflicts have arisen between the supra-national norms, which guarantee them, and the legislation of the Member States. For example, in applying the principle of non-discrimination between women and men in pay and working conditions (relying in particular on the notion of indirect discrimination), the Court was able to guarantee equal treatment to part-time workers, even before the adoption of the two directives.

In relation to women's entrepreneurship, three lines of action have been developed: better access to finance for women, development of entrepreneurial networks for women and targeted support measures envisaged in the 'Small Business Act' ⁽⁸⁾. In particular, the Commission has recently adopted a Regulation which extends the granting of state aid to new enterprises created by women ⁽⁹⁾ and has supported the creation of a network of women entrepreneurs. In 2009 the Commission inaugurated the European Network of Female Entrepreneurship Ambassadors to serve as inspirational role models for potential women entrepreneurs. The Network is made up of around 270 entrepreneurs coming from 22 European countries. This was followed in 2011 by the European Network of Mentors for Women Entrepreneurs, who voluntarily provide counselling services to women starting and running new businesses. The Mentors Network enforces and complements the actions to promote, support and encourage women's entrepreneurship. The Commission has also opened a Women's Entrepreneurship Portal with links

to contacts, events and networking opportunities within and between Member States. The European Network to Promote Women's Entrepreneurship (WES) brings together government representatives from 30 European countries to provide advice, support and information for women entrepreneurs, helping them to raise their profile and expand their businesses. Furthermore, in 2013 the Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan — Reigniting the entrepreneurial spirit in Europe — was adopted ⁽¹⁰⁾. It suggests further promotion of women's entrepreneurship, as women are considered the most underused source of entrepreneurial potential in Europe. The Action Plan invites Member States to design and implement national strategies for women's entrepreneurship in order to:

- increase the share of women-led companies;
- collect sex-disaggregated data and produce annual updates on the state of women entrepreneurs nationally;
- continue and expand the existing networks of Female Entrepreneurship Ambassadors and Mentors for Women Entrepreneurs;
- implement policies enabling women to achieve an adequate work-life balance, by establishing appropriate and affordable care for children and elderly dependents, notably by taking full advantage of support options under the EAFRD, ERDF and ESF.

In several countries self-employment and entrepreneurship are promoted as an alternative route into the labour market, even if the effects of the economic crisis on self-employed workers have been particularly hard. The main measures are aimed at facilitating access to finance, providing subsidies or reduced contribution rates, alleviating the administrative burden, and providing training and coaching to new entrepreneurs. Some measures are specifically targeted to women, encouraging them to run small firms (through micro-credit provisions). Pilot projects addressing 'soft' factors and training or networking form a great majority of measures, tackling the lack of information. Measures to facilitate access to financial support are less available. Most of these initiatives support the creation of networks among women entrepreneurs and government agencies and other support organisations; provide training and business services; and promote information and awareness-rising initiatives. An example is the Swedish national programme to promote women's entrepreneurship (2007-2010) which promotes support services and mentoring to start-ups run by women. A national network of women ambassadors was set up and inspired the creation of the European Network of Female Entrepreneurship Ambassadors.

Regardless of their different starting positions, all Member States have adopted legislation guaranteeing equal treatment for part-time and full-time, temporary and permanent workers, in full accordance with the principle of non-discrimination and the relevant EU Directives. Furthermore, in many

countries, fixed-term contracts constitute an exception only allowed for explicitly prescribed reasons in line with Directive 1999/70/EC (fixed-term work) intended to eradicate abuse arising from successive fixed-term employment contracts. However, notwithstanding the above-mentioned principle, the 'creative' use of self-employment and temporary contracts has, in many cases, been increasing to the disadvantage of women and young workers.

Since the early 1990s, most EU Member States have introduced laws aimed at encouraging high-quality part-time work opportunities and reducing involuntary part-time work by: i) requiring that part-time workers receive comparable wages and working conditions as full-time workers; ii) allowing full-time workers to reduce their hours in certain circumstances; and iii) giving existing part-timers preferential treatment when hiring full-time.

Besides legislation, all countries have also put in place policies that support work-life balance, such as the provision of care services, awareness raising measures to enhance gender equality at the work place and reduce stereotyping and discrimination⁽¹⁾, targeted employment incentives and business support, and strengthening active labour market policies (ALMPs) and social security buffers for vulnerable groups, including women and young people.

In more recent years, to mitigate the negative employment effects of the crisis, many Member States have strengthened unemployment insurance systems and active labour market policies (ALMPs), including start-up incentives, training and work experience programmes, publicly sponsored short-time working arrangements. However, the extension of unemployment insurance and the recent large investments in ALMPs risk being phased out, at least in part, in a context of generalised budget retrenchment.

1.3 Differences in economic independence between women and men

Differences in labour force participation between women and men have been attributed to various causes ranging from individual choices to the effect of structural constraints.

Research on the participation of women and men in the labour force, including in employment, entrepreneurship and self-employment, has tended to reproduce patterns of gender bias reflecting the predominant norms, attitudes and stereotypes in society. However, there are also more critical and reflective studies of how knowledge of gender has been constructed in the fields of economics, the labour force or entrepreneurship. This means questioning the gender processes at play behind sex differences, together with recognising the built-in androcentricity in the concepts. It also stresses the importance of not systematically looking for differences between women and men, who are in fact often more similar than different (Gustafsson, 2000, Ahl, 2006).

Human capital

Early studies on gender aspects of the labour force explained differences in human capital linked to women's reproductive role leading to a weaker attachment to the labour force (Polachek, 1981). Women's human capital is considered lower than that of men's because of their initial educational and occupational choices and the unbalanced division of housework and care activities in the household. Therefore, gender differences in human capital tend to increase with age, as women experience more and longer

out-of-work periods than men, especially in households with children (Goldin, 2006).

Discrimination at work

Other studies suggest that gender inequalities in the labour force result from gender discrimination on the part of individual employers (Becker, 1971), possibly based on adopting group characteristics, such as group averages in education, to make judgements about the suitability of all members of that group for particular jobs (Arrow, 1973). These approaches successfully addressed the extent of differences but not the potential causes behind gender differences.

Social norms and gender identity

More recent studies have attempted to explain how social identity and norms play a role in dictating what is appropriate for women and men to do, and how these factors may influence behaviours in labour force participation or the allocation of work within the household (Akerlof and Kranton 2000, 2002, 2005). Social norms, combined with gender identity, are used to explain gender differences in educational choices and the differences in the number of women and men working in different occupations, as well as the different decisions about participating in the labour force, and the gender pay gap.

2 Examining economic independence in the perspective of part-time work and self-employment



2 Examining economic independence in the perspective of part-time work and self-employment

Making gender equality a reality relies largely on being able to achieve equal economic independence between women and men. This entails access to, and control over, economic resources and opportunities, and through equal access to employment. Thus far, this report has shown that despite strong commitments at the policy and regulatory level, some outstanding gender differences remain in this area. Despite an increase in women's employment, data show that part-time work remains a strong feature of labour

market participation for women. From a gender equality perspective, it is important to monitor and address these differences. Another area of difference between women and men is the extent to which they engage in self-employment, with women much less likely to do so than men. This section presents main trends on gender and the labour force in relation to women's and men's economic independence.

2.1 Participation in the labour force

The labour force consists of all active people engaged in employment, unemployment or self-employment and is experienced very differently by women and men. The last few decades have witnessed an increase in women's employment opportunities and greater economic independence in most EU Member States. These trends are the result of the interplay of a number of factors, particularly the increase in women's educational attainment, the expansion of the service sector, and the increase in part-time jobs. A crucial role has also been played by equal opportunities policies and work-life balance policies, particularly the provision of childcare services (OECD, 2013). However, although women in employment represent a critical mass, stern differences in terms of working time and segregation patterns remain. The progress of women in employment is not mirrored in entrepreneurship or self-employment where women remain a large minority, particularly when it comes to running large scale businesses. This section provides an overview of the main patterns of labour force participation for women and men.

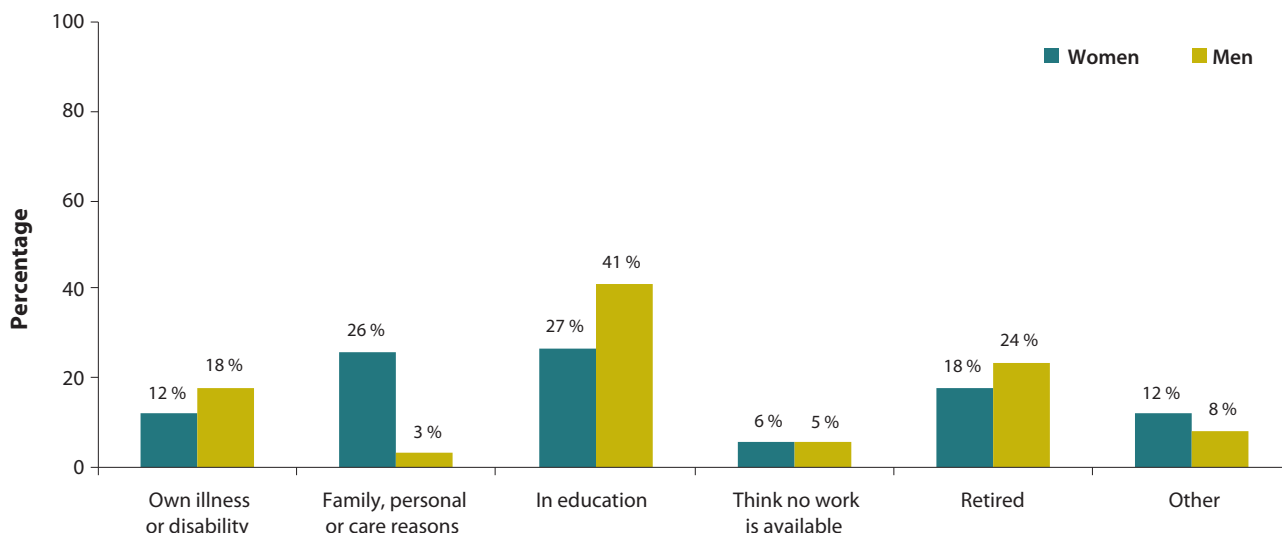
2.1.1 Activity

In 2012, figures for the EU-28 show that 46 % of the EU's economically active population are women. However, it has been observed that the recent economic downturn has interrupted the general trend of increase in women's labour

market participation (EP, 2011). Activity rates have slightly increased for women between 2008 and 2012 from 64 % to 66 %. Men's activity rate has remained stable over the same time period at the level of 78 %.

However, the EU-28 average activity rates hide high heterogeneity across different countries. A comparison of activity rates in each of the EU-28 Member States reveals that in the majority of Member States there were few changes. However, the activity rate for men between 2008 and 2012 decreased by as much as 3 percentage points in Denmark and 4 percentage points in Croatia and Ireland. Activity rates for women at the Member State level show much more variation. Although changes remain small or in-existent in the majority of Member States, activity rates for women have increased between 2008 and 2012 by 3 percentage points in four Member States (CZ, EL, HU, PL); 4 percentage points in Luxembourg; 5 in Lithuania and Spain; and as much as 8 percentage points in Malta (Figure 5.1 in Annex III).

The two main reasons for women and men in the EU not seeking employment are being in education and for family/personal reasons or care. In 2012, just above a quarter (27 %) of women did not seek employment because of their involvement in education compared with 41 % of men. Strikingly, a further 26 % of women opted out for family/personal reasons or care, although very few men did (3 %) reflecting the gendered patterns of time use and tasks' allocations in society more generally.

Figure 2.1: Main reason for not seeking employment in the EU-28 (15-64), 2012

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_igar), extracted on 3 December 2013.

2.1.2 Employment

Even though there has been a slight increase in women's activity rates, this does not translate into greater employment rates, which have remained relatively stable between 2008 and 2012. In parallel, there has been a gradual convergence in women's and men's employment rates largely driven by a relative decrease of the employment rates for men of 3 percentage points over the same time period.

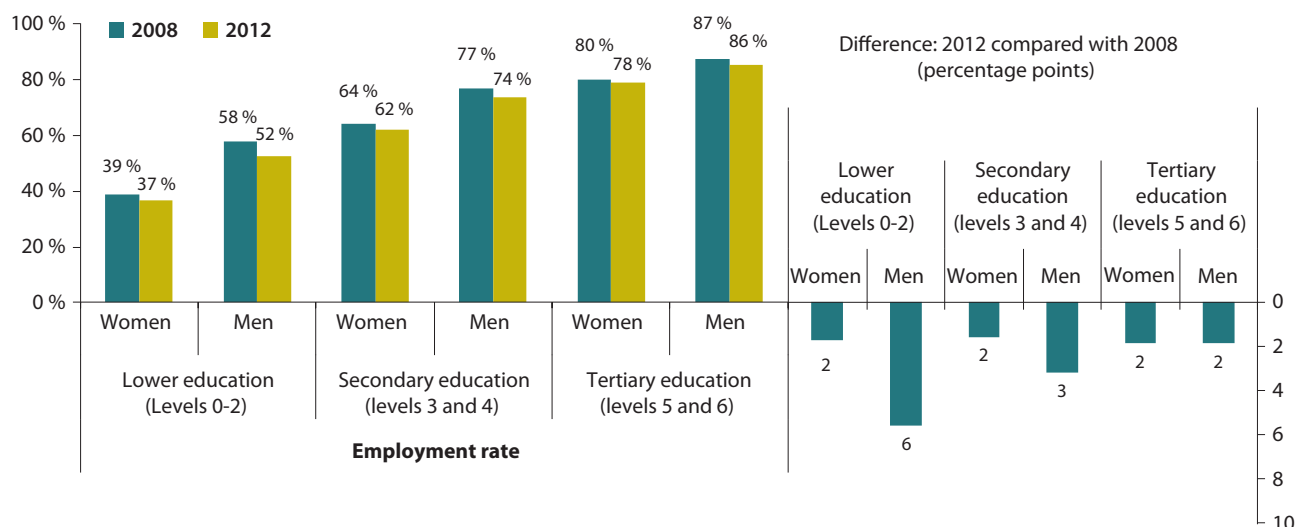
Although employment rates on average in the EU have not changed dramatically between 2008 and 2012, the situation of some Member States is very different (Figure 5.2 in Annex III). The employment rates of women decreased in 17 Member States (less than 2 percentage points in EE, FR, IT, NL, SK, FI, UK; 3 percentage points in BG, 4 percentage points in DK, ES, CY, LV, PT, SI; 5 percentage points in IE, HR; and 7 percentage points in EL). Men's employment rates were affected to an even greater degree dropping in 23 Member States (less than 2 percentage points in BE, CZ, FR, HU, AT, SE; 2 percentage points in UK; 3 percentage points in SK, FI; 4 in EE, IT, NL, 5 in LT, SI; 6 in DK; 7 in BG, 8 in LV; 9 in CY, PT, 10 in HR; 12 in IE; 13 in ES; 14 in EL). Despite the crisis, positive developments were observed in the remaining Member States, where employment rates for women have increased by 4 percentage points in Germany and Luxembourg, and by 7 in Malta.

The extent to which women are under-represented in employment also varies greatly among groups with different educational attainment. In 2012, the EU average employment gender gap was greater than 15 percentage point for those with lower educational level (ISCED levels 0-2),

decreasing to 12 percentage points for people with secondary education (ISCED 3 and 4); to just above 7 percentage points for people with tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6). However, there has been a more pronounced convergence in employment rates between women and men among people with a lower education level, since the economic crisis has affected lower educated men more severely than women. This is a possible consequence of loss of employment in some men-dominated industries such as construction and manufacturing. Between 2008 and 2012 in the EU-28, the employment rates among those with lower education declined from 58 % in 2008, to 52 % in 2012 for men compared with a decline from 39 % in 2008 to 37 % in 2012 for women. In contrast, for tertiary education employment rates for men over the same time period slightly decreased from 87 % to 86 % and for women from 80 % to 78 % (Figure 2.2). The differences among Member States between 2008 and 2012 in employment rates are presented in Figure 5.3 in Annex III.

The economic crisis has disproportionately affected young people in the EU, regardless of sex (EC, 2013). The employment rates of young women and men have both declined, however, young men experienced it to a higher degree (Figure 5.4 in Annex). Despite a smaller gender gap, it nevertheless remained relatively high, particularly among young people aged 25-29 with a difference of 10 percentage points compared to 4 percentage points among people aged 15 to 24.

Despite important and encouraging advances towards equality between women and men across European labour markets in the last several decades, significant gender gaps still persist throughout the EU.

Figure 2.2: Employment rate for women and men in the EU-28 (15-64) by level of education, 2008 and 2012

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_ergaed), extracted on 3 December 2013.

Note: Lower education includes pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education: ISCED levels 0-2; secondary education includes upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education: ISCED levels 3 and 4; Tertiary education includes first and second stage of tertiary education: ISCED levels 5 and 6. The employment rate represents employed persons as a percentage of the same group in the total population. The difference is calculated in percentage points of the employment rate in 2012 minus the employment rate in 2008.

2.1.3 Unemployment

Changes in the labour force affected the situation of unemployment. Increasing activity rates among women, combined with declining employment rates disproportionately affecting men, have translated into higher unemployment rates for both women and men. Between 2008 and 2012, the EU unemployment rate increased by 3 percentage points for women and 4 for men, eliminating the unemployment gender gap in the process. Among people aged 15-24, unemployment rates have increased dramatically between 2008 and 2012. This increase has been higher for men, with an additional 8 percentage points compared to 7 percentage points for women (Figure 5.5 in Annex III).

The relatively small increase of unemployment at EU level masks the extent to which some Member States have been afflicted by large increases in unemployment rates. In Spain, women's unemployment rates have increased by 12 percentage points and that of men's by 15. In Greece these figures reach 17 percentage points for both women and men. The rates of men's unemployment have been particularly affected, compared to that of women in Bulgaria, Croatia, Ireland and Lithuania (Figure 5.5 in Annex III).

Increasing unemployment rates may be less of an issue if they are characterised by simultaneous inflows and outflows of the labour force, resulting in relatively short average unemployment duration. The main problem during an economic downturn is that increased inflows into unemployment are

associated with decreased outflows into employment, which may lead to a consequent increase in the average duration of unemployment. Increasing long-term unemployment may be very harmful in terms of both individual employability and potential economic growth in the medium to long-term perspective. For both women and men, the proportion of unemployed people who are long term unemployed increased from some 37% in 2008 to more than 44% in 2012.

However, in some Member States, there have been very strong increases in long-term unemployment. Increases exceeded 20 percentage points, for both women and men, in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Spain. In Ireland, an increase of 30 percentage points among women and 37 among men that are in long-term unemployment as a percentage of unemployment was recorded. Gender differences in the evolution of long-term unemployment between 2008 and 2012 were significant. In Romania, the increase in long-term unemployment was higher for women by 5 percentage points and in Estonia by 8 percentage points.

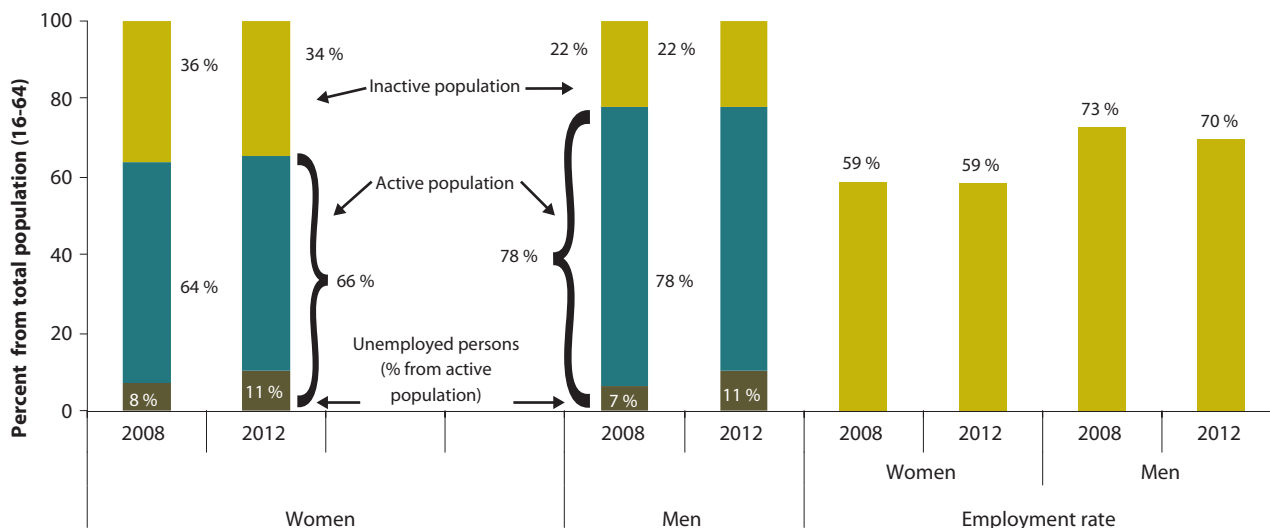
Other Member States saw a larger increase among men in long-term employment, including Greece, Latvia and Spain (6 percentage points difference compared to women); Bulgaria and Lithuania (7 percentage points); Ireland (8 percentage points); and finally Malta (10 percentage points) (Figure 5.6 in Annex III).

In summary, between 2008 and 2012 in the EU-28, more women have become active in the labour force. However, this has not translated into higher employment rates,

predominantly because the percentage of unemployment has also increased in the same time period. As for men, activity rates have remained the same, however, due to higher

unemployment rates, there has been a decline in employment rates (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3: Activity rate and employment rate for women and men in EU-28 (15-64), 2008 and 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_ipga, lfsa_argan, lfsa_ergan, lfsa_urgan), extracted on 3 December 2013.

Note: The economically active population (labour force) comprises employed and unemployed persons and the activity rate represents active persons as a percentage of the same age total population; the employment rate represents employed persons as a percentage of the same age total population; the unemployment rate represents unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population.

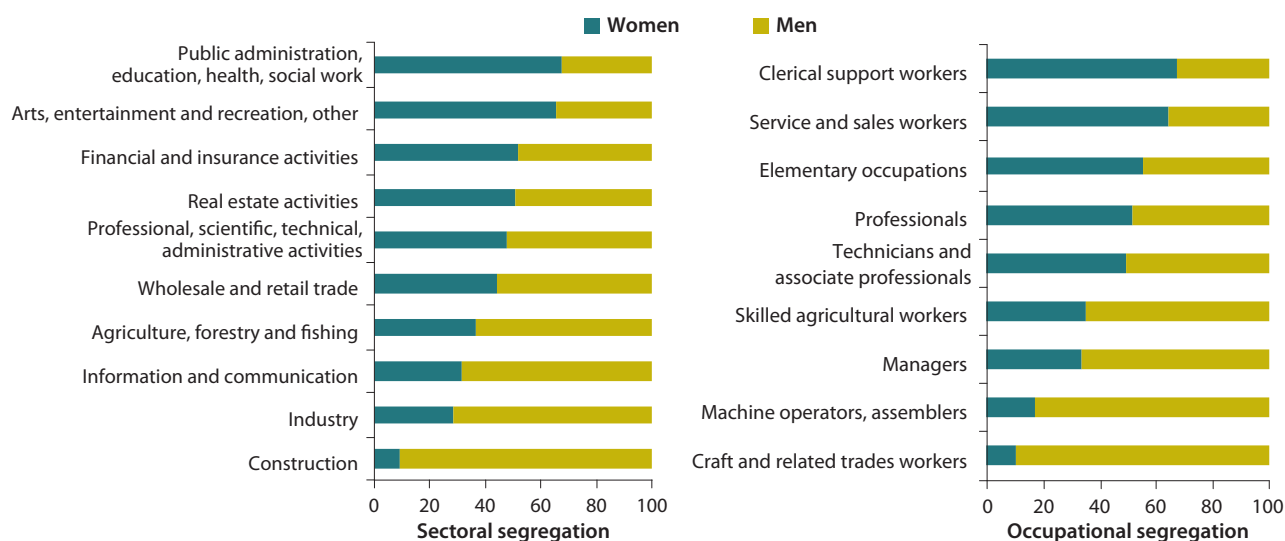
2.1.4 Segregation

Gender-based segregation in employment is a still pervasive phenomenon, with women and men over/under-represented in various sectors and occupations. In 2012, although women represented 46 % of the labour force, they only accounted for 9 % of workers in the construction sector, 29 % in industry, and 32 % in information or communication. In contrast, women represented over 66 % of those in the arts, entertainment and recreation and 67 % of those in public administration, education, human health and social work. As for occupations, in 2012 in the EU-28 on average, there were only 11 % of women as craft and related trades workers, 17 % as plant and machine operators or assemblers, and 33 % as managers. Feminine-dominated occupations include service and sales workers (64 % are women) and clerical support workers (67 % are women). Information of segregation, both sectoral and occupational, could be further improved by revising classifications that are based on rather masculine ways of conceptualising work in the first place.

Gender-based occupational segregation is linked to a number of factors. These include: differences in human capital stemming from education and training; differences in the fields of tertiary education; differences

in household roles and in the distribution of unpaid work within the household; entry barriers and organisational culture and practices; gender identity; norms, attitudes and stereotypes. Occupational and educational segregation in the EU was partly reduced by the evolution and enforcement of equal opportunities legislation; increasing women's educational attainment; technological progress and the subsequent changes in available work, including the decline of physically-demanding jobs; and changes in family roles (EC 2009a).

Descriptive indices can be used to show the extent to which women and men are over-represented or under-represented in occupations (occupational segregation) or the extent to which women and men are concentrated in a limited number of economic sectors (sectoral segregation). One of the most commonly used indices of segregation is the Index of Dissimilarity (ID) which takes values between 0 (no segregation) and 100 (full segregation, meaning that some sectors consists fully of women or men). Among employed 15-64 year old women and men in 2012, the ID for sectoral segregation stood at 27.8 showing no real change compared with 2008 where this value was 27.2. Occupational segregation appears to be higher than sectoral segregation with an ID score of 30.9 in 2012. However, this has declined since 2008 when the ID score for occupational segregation stood at 34.3 (Table 5.1 in Annex III).

Figure 2.4: Sectoral and occupational segregation in the EU-28, 15-64, 2012

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_epgn62; lfsa_epgais), extracted on 8 January 2014.

Note: For sectoral segregation, the NACE Rev. 2 (A10) classification was used; for occupational segregation, the ISCO-08 1 digit classification was used with Armed forces excluded

Sectoral segregation has meant that women and men may have experienced the crisis differently and at different times. Larger concentration of women in the public sector and in the non-tradable service sector might have spared women from a rise in unemployment in the initial stages

of the crisis. However, recent and more restrictive government fiscal policies and the delayed effects of cuts in public budgets have also led to employment losses in the women-dominated sectors, such as the service sector and public administration (EP 2011).

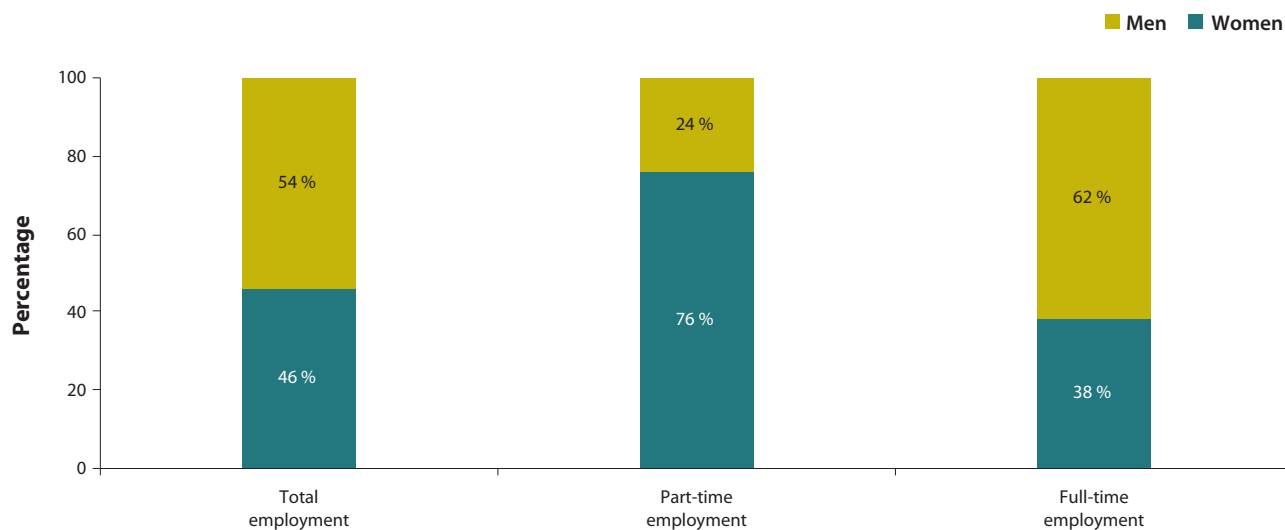
2.2 Part-time work

Although women have entered labour force in great numbers, their working hours constitute a fundamental difference in their participation in the labour market compared to that of men's. Women are more likely to work on a part-time basis across all Member States. With the economic crisis unfolding in the EU, distinguishing between voluntary and involuntary part-time work is important. Many part-time employees are trapped in part-time jobs because full-time employment options are insufficient (OECD, 2010) making it more necessary than ever to analyse this aspect from a gender equality perspective. It is to these aspects that this section turns to.

2.2.1 Main characteristics of part-time work

Women's propensity to work on a part-time basis forms one of the strong structural characteristics of gender in the labour force in many Member States. The distribution

of part-time work between women and men is a useful measure from a gender equality perspective since it is both derived from, and reinforces, norms attached to the roles of women and men and how these relate to their participation in the labour force. Indeed in the EU-28 on average in 2012, although women represented 46 % of those in employment, they accounted for 76 % of those working on a part-time basis and conversely only 38 % of those working full-time (Figure 2.5). This distribution has barely changed since 2008, when women represented 78 % of part-time workers and 38 % of full-time workers. At Member State level, women represent less than 60 % of part-time workers in Bulgaria, Croatia and Romania, but more than 80 % in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and Luxembourg (Figure 5.8 in Annex III).

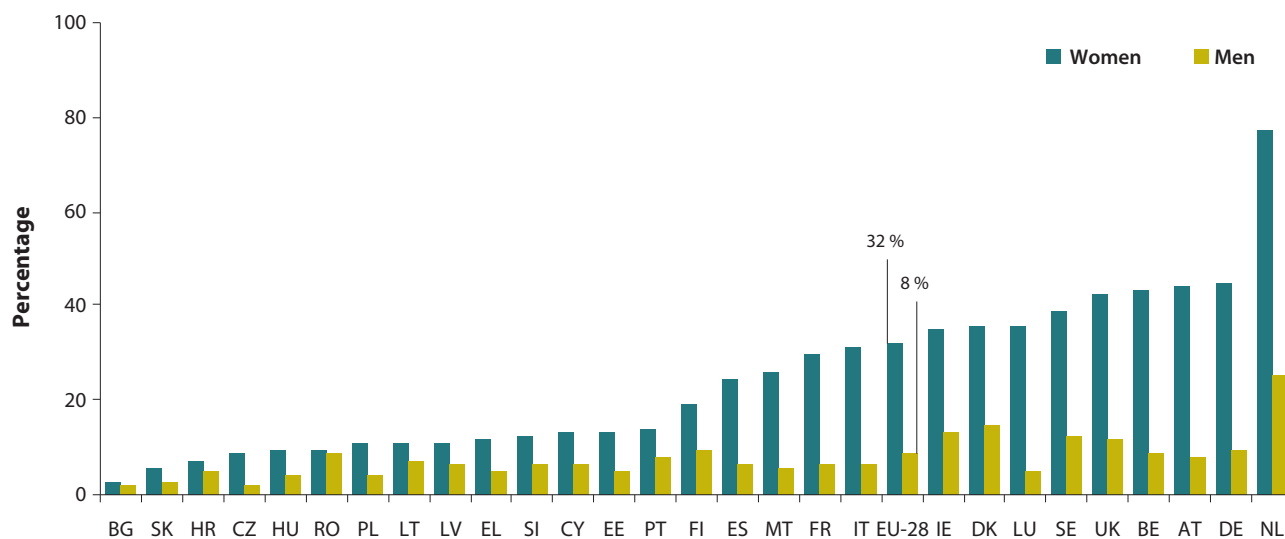
**Figure 2.5: Share of women and men by type of employment in the EU-28, 15-64, 2012**

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_epgaed), extracted on 9 January 2014.

Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL).

In the EU-28, 32 % of employed women were part-time workers in 2012, compared to only 8 % of employed men. At the national level, a substantially higher proportion of women in the labour market were working in part-time jobs in the Netherlands (77 %), Germany (45 %), Austria (44 %), and Belgium (44 %). For the same year, the proportion of men in the labour market on part-time basis was highest in the Netherlands (25 %), Denmark (15 %) and Ireland (13 %)

(Figure 2.6). Such large differences between Member States can be explained by a combination of factors including differences in the structure of the economy, in educational attainments, in the functioning of labour markets, in the provision of childcare, and also in the tax and social security systems (O'Reilly and Fagan, 1998).

Figure 2.6: Part-time employment as a percentage of the total employment in the EU-28 by sex and MS, 15-64, 2012

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_eppgacob), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL).

Part-time work has increased slightly for both women and men from 2008 to 2012 (for women from 31 % in 2008 to 32 % in 2012 and for men from 7 % in 2008 to 8 % in 2012), possibly due to shorter hours of work adopted to minimise employment cuts during the economic crisis (ILO, 2013). For women the most notable increases recorded in Estonia and Latvia (4 percentage points, from 9 % to 13 % in EE, from 7 % to 11 % in LV). For men, rates have nearly doubled in a number of Member States over the time period (IE, EL, CY, LU, PT, SK) (Figure 5.7 in Annex III).

The prevalence of a part-time culture can be measured as the difference between women's participation in the labour force on a full-time and on a part-time basis. In 2012, on average in the EU-28, this stood at 38 percentage points, lowest in Romania (3 percentage points), Bulgaria (6 percentage points) and Croatia (10 percentage points). However, in Luxembourg and the Netherlands, differences reached 51 and 52 percentage points respectively (Figure 5.8 in Annex III).

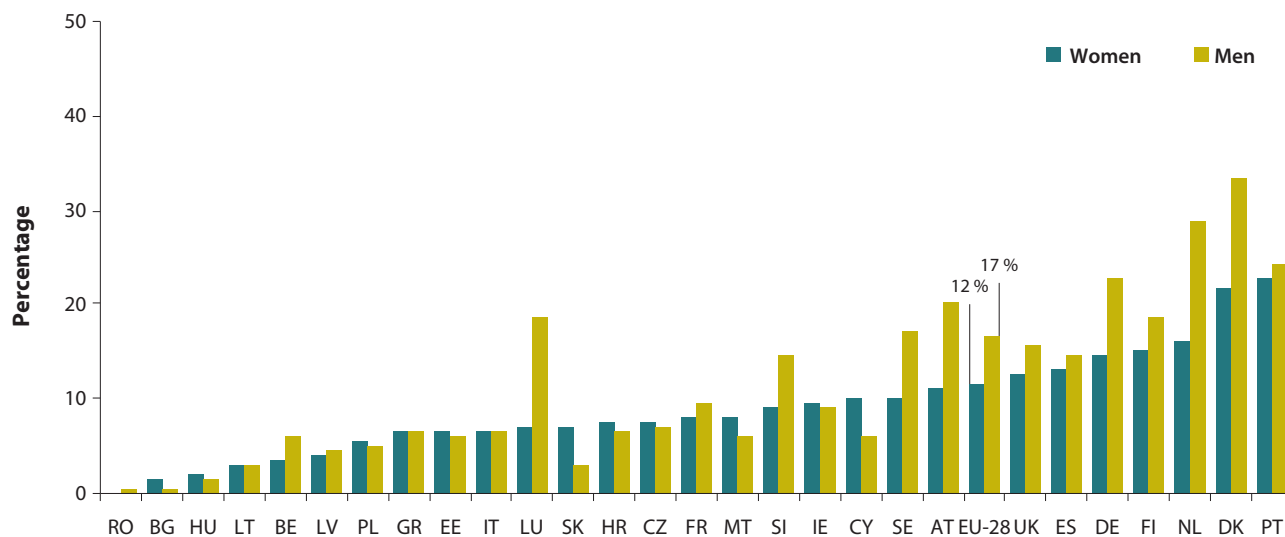
What is commonly defined as part-time can vary substantially in terms of working hours. Working hours vary considerably, from very few to nearly full-time job, with an average of 20 hours in the EU. A distinction in the category of part-time

work, between 'marginal' part-time work (up to 19 hours per week) and 'substantial' part-time work (20 to 34 hours per week) was suggested (O'Reilly and Fagan, 1998). Among 'marginal' part-time work, a further distinction can be made with 'micro' jobs, that is, fewer than 10 hours per week.

Marginal jobs account for 38 % of women in part-time employment and 43 % of men in part-time employment. This includes 12 % of women and 17 % of men in 'micro' jobs. Although the proportion of women in marginal and micro employment is lower than men, their overall number is much greater since women are much more likely to work on a part-time basis. To put these figures in context, women actually represented more than two-third (68 %) of micro jobs workers in the EU-28 in 2012.

In 2012 part-time work of less than 10 hours per week was widespread among women in Denmark (22 %) and Portugal (23 %); but also among men in Austria (20 %), Germany (23 %), Portugal (24 %), the Netherlands (29 %), and Denmark (33 %). In Portugal, more than half of women part-time workers (54 %) were in marginal part-time employment. This also concerned more than half of men in part-time employment in the United Kingdom (51 %), Portugal and Germany (56 %) and Denmark (66 %).

Figure 2.7: Part-time workers who work less than 10 hours, by sex, 2012



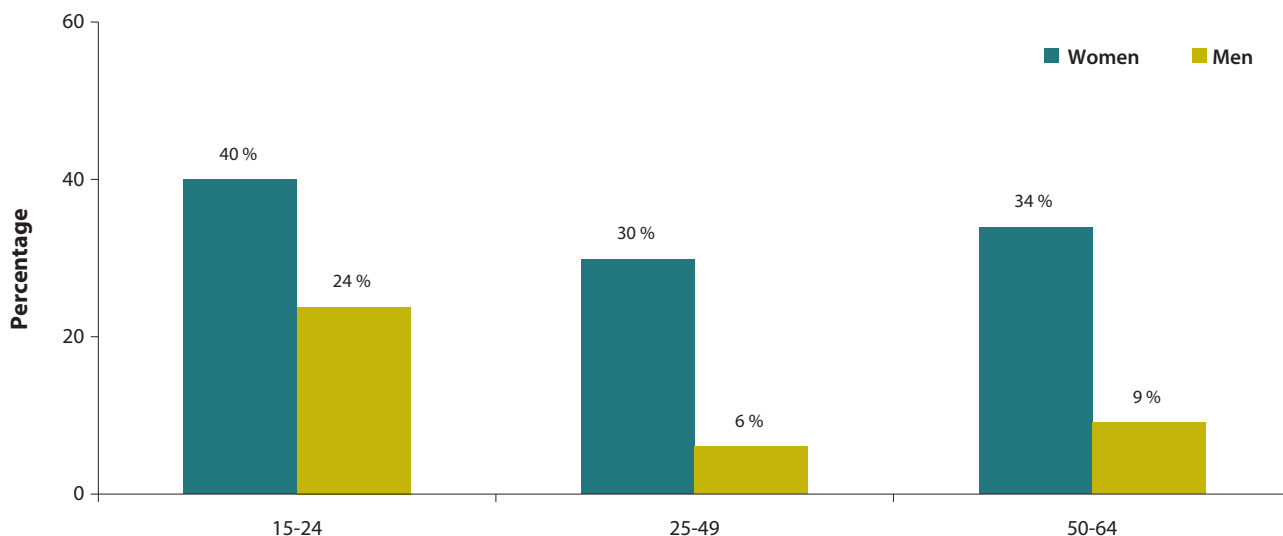
Source: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 15 January 2014.

Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL).

Part-time work is unevenly distributed over the life course of individuals. It tends to be more concentrated at the beginning and at the end of people's working lives, especially in the case of men, while it is more evenly distributed and remains relatively high for women. Young adults make up

a significant proportion of part-time workers, with 40 % of women and 24 % of men working on a part-time basis in the age bracket 15-24, 30 % of women and 6 % of men in the age bracket 25-49, and 34 % of women and 9 % of men in the age bracket 50-64 (Figure 2.8).

Figure 2.8: Part-time employment as a percentage of total employment in the EU-28, by sex and age groups, 2012



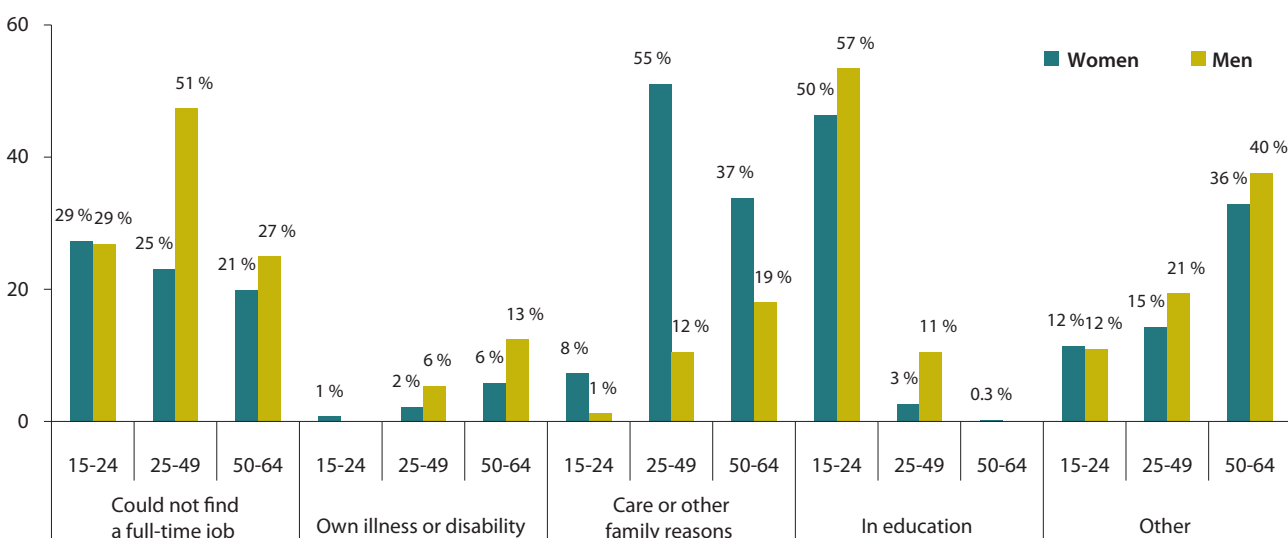
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_eppga), extracted on 8 January 2014.

Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL).

An examination in 2012 of the main reasons given for working on a part-time basis, broken down by age and sex, in the EU-28 provides some interesting results. It seems that part-time work among those aged 15-24 mostly coincides with a period of education with a few differences between women (50%) and men (57%). It is not until the next cohort, when people typically become parents that stronger gender differences appear. In the age group 25-49, women are much more likely

to cite working on a part-time basis for care or other family reasons (55% of women compared with 12% of men), reflecting the effects of reproduction on women’s labour force participation. However, for men in the age group 25-49, working part-time is most likely to be attributed to not being able to find a full-time job (25% of women compared with 51% of men). Finally, for workers in the age group 50-64, similar but more subtle patterns as the previous mentioned cohort can

Figure 2.9: Main reason for part-time work by age and sex, 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_eppga), extracted on 8 January 2014.

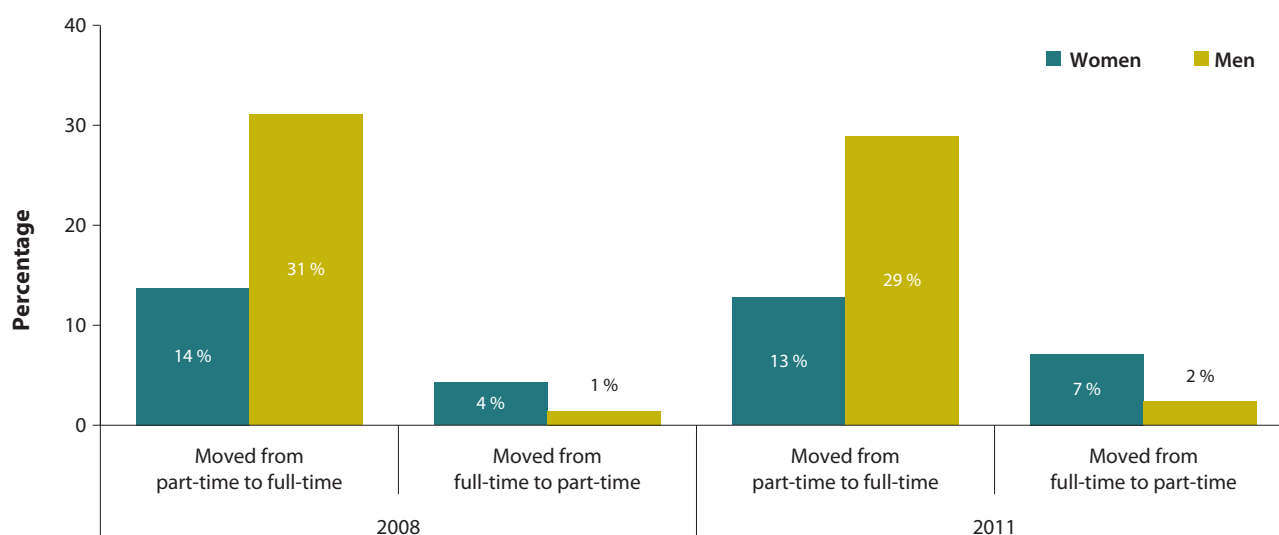
Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL); ‘Care and other family reasons’ includes ‘Looking after children or incapacitated adults’ and ‘Other family or personal responsibilities; ‘Care and other family reasons’ for men aged 15-24 includes only ‘Other family or personal responsibilities.’

be observed. Women are more likely to claim that the main reason for working part-time is care or other family reasons (37 % of women compared with 20 % of men), however, not being able to find full-time work for men diminishes significantly (21 % for women and 27 % for men). Instead, for both women and men in this age group, there is a consequent increase in invoking own illness or disability (6 % for women and 13 % for men) as well as other reasons (36 % of women and 40 % of men) for working part-time.

Labour transitions from part-time to full-time jobs and vice versa are also very different between women and men. On average in the EU-28 Member States, men working on a part-time basis have a much higher probability to move to full-time jobs than women. In 2011, 29 % of men part-time

employees moved to a full-time job, compared with only 13 % of women working part-time. This is in line with the data above showing that although some young men (15-24) were working on a part-time basis, this proportion dropped significantly at a later stage. Comparatively, women's already higher part-time rate does not transition to a lower rate in later life as much as that of men's. Transition rates during the crisis have coincided with a decline in transition rates from part-time to full-time jobs both for women and men: in 2008 transition rates were respectively 14 % for women and 31 % for men (EU-27 average). There are large differences across Member States: the transition rate for men working part-time in 2011 goes from 15 % in Denmark to 50 % in Latvia, while for women it ranges from 4 % in the Netherlands to 50 % in Latvia (Figure 5.9 in Annex III).

Figure 2.10: Labour transition between full-time and part-time work by sex at EU level, 2008 and 2011



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_lvh130), extracted on 13 January 2014.
Note: EU average: for year 2011 EU-28, for year 2008, EU-27.

Gender differences are high also when considering transitions from full-time to part-time jobs. In the EU-28, only 2 % of men moved to part-time contract from a full-time contract, while this percentage was three times higher for women (7 %). Countries where more women moved to part-time jobs are the Netherlands (13 %), United Kingdom (13 %) and Italy (12 %) (Figure 5.9 in Annex III). Transitions from full-time to part-time have been increasing with the crisis from 1 % for men and 4 % for women in 2008, possibly as a way to contain reductions in employment (Figure 2.10).

2.2.2 Full-time equivalent employment

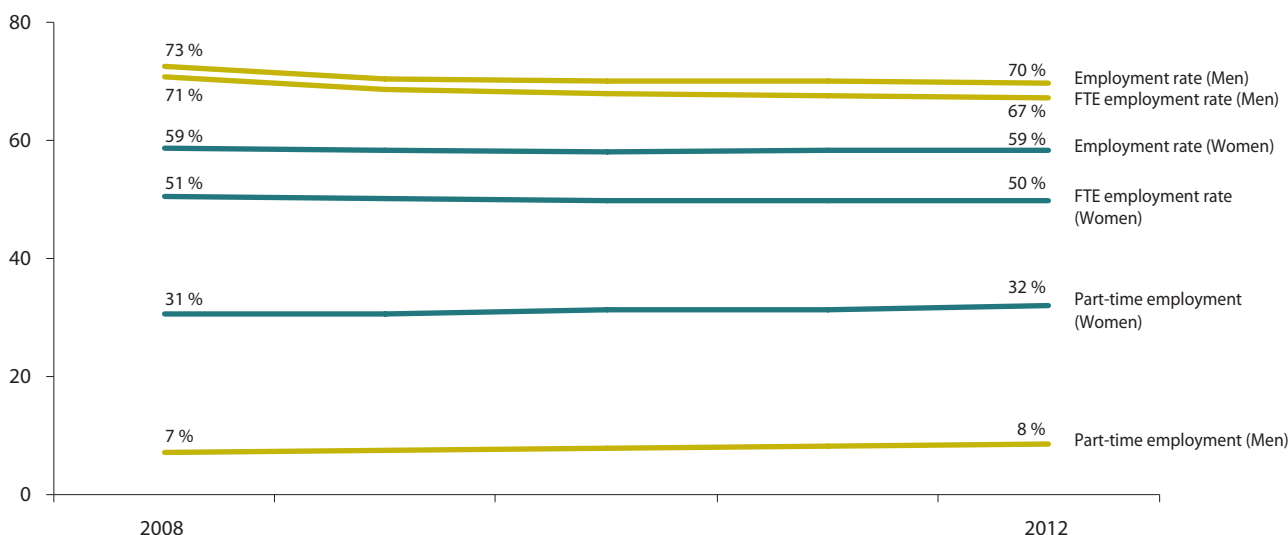
Comparisons of national differences in labour market engagement are usually based on employment rates, which do not fully reflect the variations, for example, in the numbers of hours worked. This can have an important effect on women's economic independence, such as current and future earnings, living standards and economic situation. Employment rate figures therefore do not fully reflect the proportionality of women's participation in the labour market or the role of women's employment in boosting economic growth and economic development. Headcount measures of employment tend to overestimate women's employment and to underestimate the gender employment gap,

as the headcount measure of employment takes no account of a higher incidence of part-time employment among women. In fact, employment rates represent men's employment better than women's and overestimate women's employment. In the process, by disregarding a higher incidence of part-time employment among women, it also tends to underestimate the true gender gap in labour market participation.

While employment rates measure the number of people who have a job, regardless of the number of hours worked, the use of a full-time equivalent indicator takes into account the higher incidence of part-time employment among women. It is obtained by comparing each worker's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours worked by a full-time worker. A full-time worker is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker is in proportion to the hours worked.

The increasing use of part-time employment, particularly for men aged 15-64, has led to a decline in full-time equivalent employment rate (FTE), which dropped by 3 percentage points between 2008 and 2012 to 67 % for men. In the same time period, women's FTE rate only decreased by 1 percentage point to reach 50 % by 2012 (Figure 2.11). The EU level figures mask the amplitude of the drop in FTE employment in some Member States. FTE employment rates have dropped for women by 5 percentage points in Denmark, Ireland, Latvia and Spain as well as by 7 percentage points in Greece between 2008 and 2012. The situation worsened for men during the same time period. FTE rates have dropped by 5 percentage points in Lithuania and Slovenia, 7 in Denmark, 8 in Bulgaria and 9 in Latvia. The situation is worst in Croatia with a drop of 10 percentage points, Cyprus and Portugal with 11 percentage points, Ireland and Spain with 14 percentage points and 16 percentage points in Greece (Figure 5.10 in Annex III).

Figure 2.11: Full-time equivalent and headcount employment rate in EU-28, 15-64, 2008 and 2012



Source: for full-time equivalent, Eurostat calculation upon EIGE's request; for employment rate and part-time employment rate, Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_ergan; lfsa_eppgacob), extracted 9 December 2013.

Note: The employment rate represents employed persons as a percentage of the same group of total population; the FTE employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons by average number of hours worked: a full-time person is counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours he or she works; part-time employment as percentage of the total employment.

A comparison of these two employment indicators is very relevant to in the context of employment target of 75 % of the Europe 2020 Strategy. Differences are lower for men than women, as men are less likely to be employed in part-time jobs. In the EU-28, men's FTE employment rate is 72 % for the 20-64 age group, only 3 percentage points below the headcount employment rate of 75 % in 2012. Only the Netherlands presents relatively high differences between the FTE rate and the headcount rate for men: six percentage points, because of relatively high levels of part-time work among men. Women's FTE employment

rate is 54 % for the 20-64 age group in the EU-28, which is 21 percentage points lower than the Europe 2020 target. The Netherlands present the highest difference between FTE rate and the headcount rate for women (24 percentage points), with differences above 10 percentage points in another four Member States (BE, DE, AT, UK).

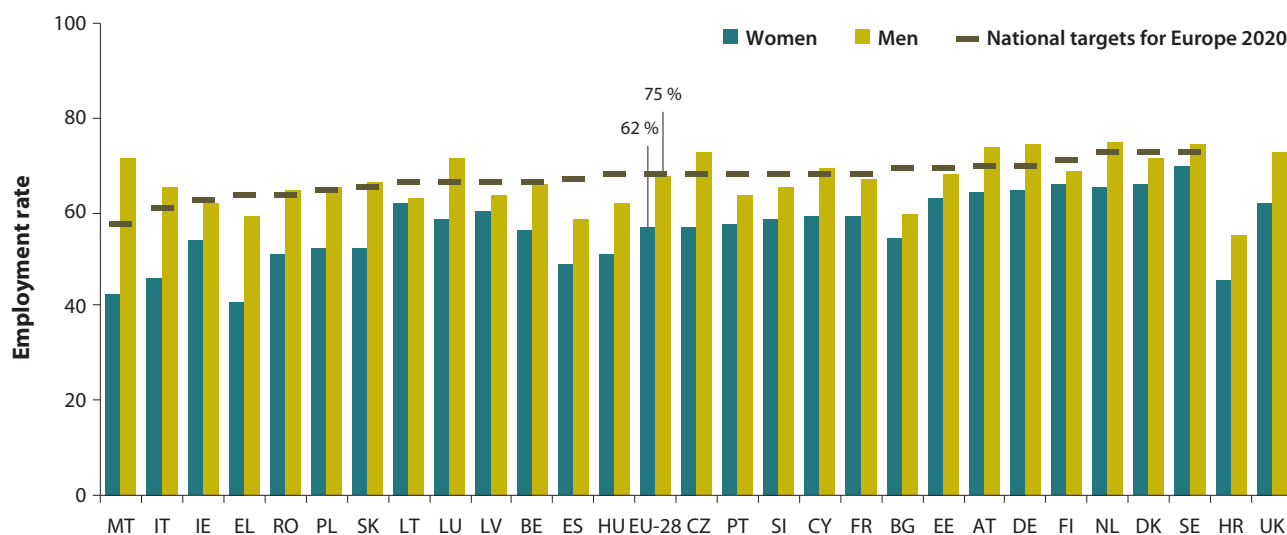
In addition to the overall EU key target for employment, in 2011, country-specific targets were set in the National Reform Programmes by the majority of Member States: they range from an employment target of 63 % for Malta to

a target of 80 % for Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden. This target of Europe 2020 has almost been achieved by 2012, in terms of the men's employment rate which was just shy of 75 %, however women's employment rate stands at only 62 % (for the age group 20-64). Similarly, although some of the national targets have been achieved by 2012 in terms of men's employment rates, women's employment rates remain below the national targets in all Member States (Figure 2.12).

A number of Member States achieved more than their national employment target in terms of men's employment, including Belgium, Cyprus, Poland, Romania, Slovakia (1 percentage

point above the national target), Sweden (2 percentage points), the Netherlands (3 percentage points), Austria (4 percentage points), the Czech Republic, Germany and Italy (5 percentage points), Luxembourg (6 percentage points) and Malta (16 percentage points). Others need to increase men's employment, some by as much as 10 percentage points such as Bulgaria and Spain, in order to meet their national targets. Nevertheless, all Member States without any exception fail to meet their national targets when it comes to women's employment. As many as 14 Member States (BE, BG, CZ, IE, FR, IT, CY, HU, MT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK) need to increase these rates by 10 to 19 percentage points, with a further two needing to increase by 20 (ES) and 25 (EL) percentage points.

Figure 2.12: Headcount employment rate and Europe 2020 targets in EU-28, 20-64, 2012



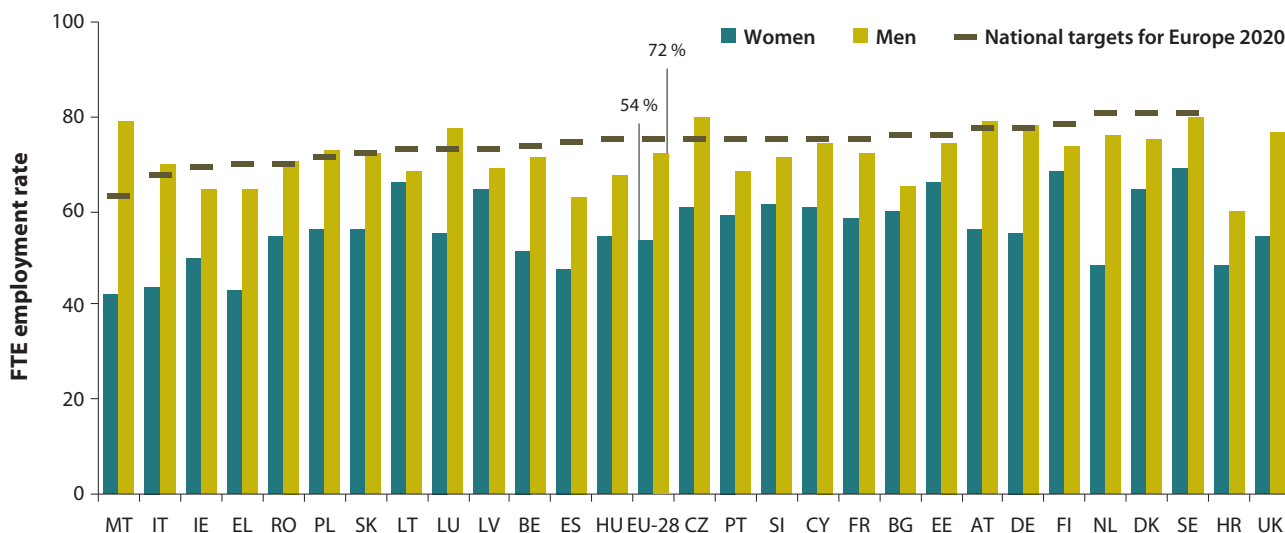
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_ergan), extracted on 9 December 2013, for Europe 2020 targets, http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/targets_en.pdf.

Note: The employment rate represents employed persons as a percentage of the same group of total population.

Measuring the shortfall from national employment targets in full-time equivalent rather than headcount employment provides similar results in terms of men's employment, however, it highlights the gap that exists between women's participation in the labour force and the Europe 2020 targets because of prevalence of part-time work. According to full-time equivalent employment rates for women, all Member States fall short of meeting their national targets. A total

of 15 Member States obtain a difference between the headcount and the full-time equivalent employment rate that is between 10 and 19 percentage points (BG, CZ, DK, EE, IE, FR, CY, LU, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI, SE). A further 8 would need to increase women's full-time equivalent employment rates by between 20 and 29 points to meet their national targets (BE, DE, EL, ES, IT, HU, MT, AT). The biggest gap, with 32 percentage points, can be found in the Netherlands.

Figure 2.13: Full-time equivalent employment rate and Europe 2020 targets in EU-28, 20-64, 2012



Source: Eurostat calculation upon EIGE’s request; for Europe 2020 targets, http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/targets_en.pdf.
 Note: FTE employment is a unit to measure employed persons by average number of hours worked: a full-time person is counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours she or he works.

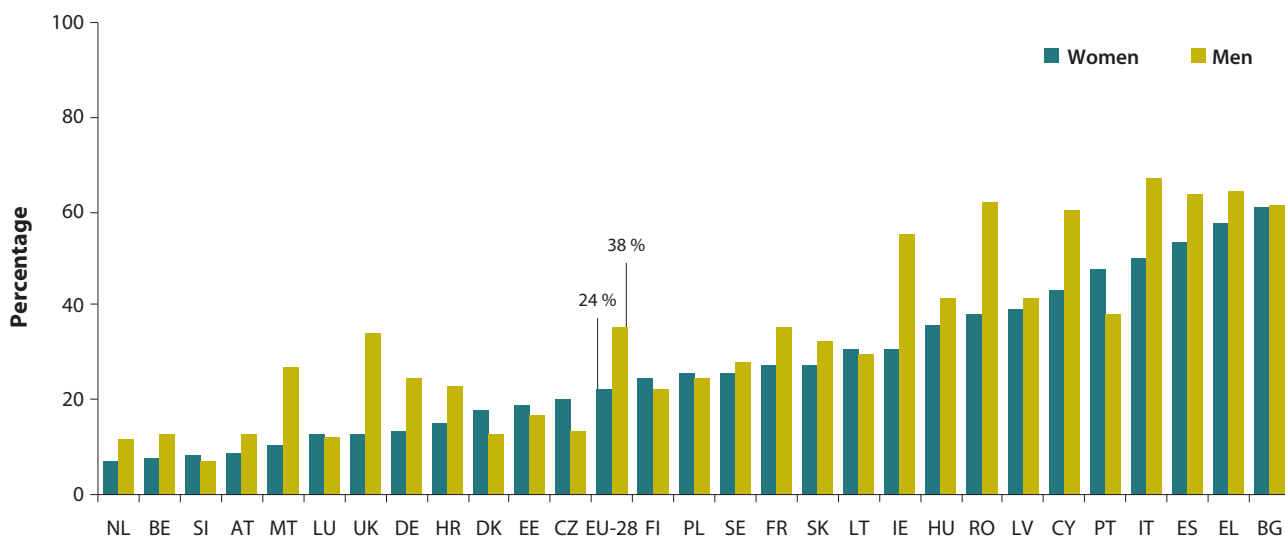
2.2.3 Involuntary part-time work

typically increases, due to the reduction in demand for labour that drives down the number of hours worked, and increases the unemployment rate.

Part-time is considered involuntary when respondents report that the main reason for working part-time is that they are unable to find full-time work. During economic downturns, the involuntary component of part-time work

The share of involuntary part-time employment out of total part-time employment in the EU-28 increased from 25 % in 2008 to 28 % by 2012. In general, men working part-time are on average more likely to be involuntary part-time workers compared to women. Men working on a part-time basis have

Figure 2.14: Inability to find a full-time job as the main reason for working part-time as a percentage of total part-time employment in the EU-28, 15-64, 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_eppgai), extracted on 8 January 2014.
 Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL); the main-reason for part-time employment is collected and the reason ‘Could not find a full-time job’ is included in the graph.

been particularly affected: for them involuntary part-time employment increased from 32 % in 2008 to 38 % in 2012. Corresponding figures for women showed only a marginal increase from 23 % in 2008 to 24 % in 2012. Despite a strong difference in terms of percentage, there is a smaller number of men involved in involuntary part-time work compared with women, since proportionally much fewer men work on a part-time basis (Figure 5.11 in Annex III).

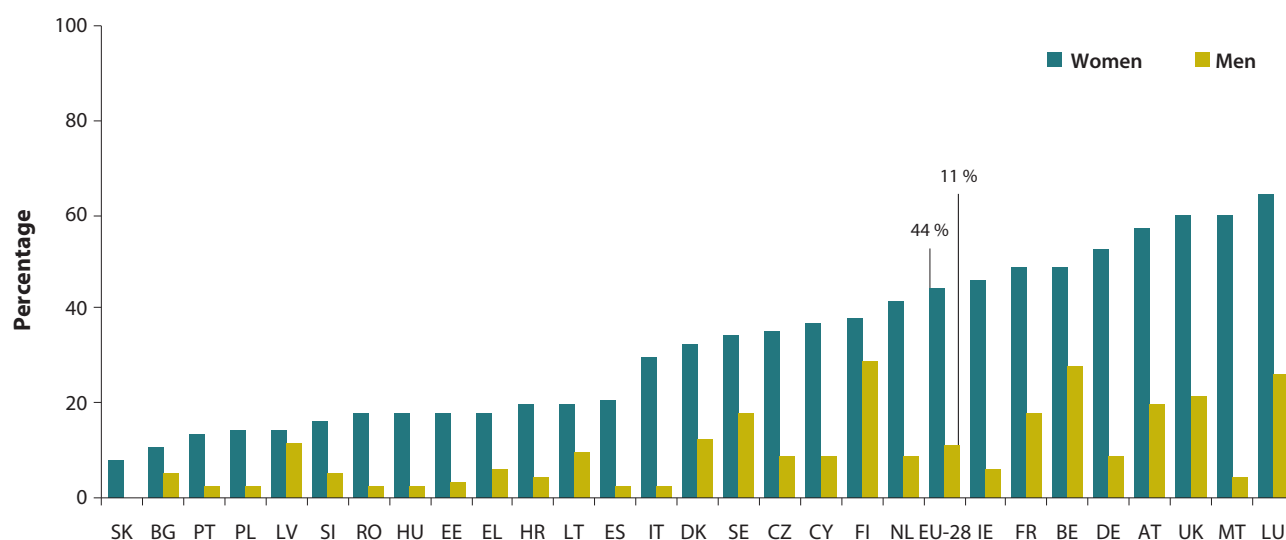
Across Member States, the share of involuntary part-time employment is highest in Bulgaria (around 66 % for both women and men) and in Greece (62 % for women and 70 % for men). The lowest share of involuntary part-time employment is found in the Netherlands (8 % for women and 13 % for men).

Involuntary part-time rates have increased dramatically in some Member States. Women's involuntary part-time employment is more than 20 percentage points higher in 2012 than in 2008 in Greece (20 p.p.), Ireland (24 p.p.) and Spain (24 p.p.). For men, it is above 20 percentage points

in Greece (22 p.p.) and goes past 30 percentage points in Spain (30 p.p.), Cyprus (34 p.p.) and Ireland (36 p.p.). In contrast, in Luxembourg, men's involuntary part-time work dropped by 15 percentage points between 2008 and 2012 (Figure 5.12 in Annex III).

Family or personal responsibilities are another reason that may also be related to working on a part-time basis involuntarily but are not included under the concept of involuntary part-time work. Although care activities can be understood as a choice, they can also act as a constraint particularly where childcare is too expensive, of insufficient quality, not suitable or not available. Part-time jobs are then often a way to tackle difficulties in balancing work and family responsibilities. In these cases, women are more likely than men to give up searching for a full-time job because of childcare and other family responsibilities attributed to them by societal norms. At the EU-28 level, the share of part-time work due to personal and family responsibility is 44 % for women, whereas for men it represents only 11 %.

Figure 2.15: Family and care reasons as the main reason for working part-time as a percentage of total part-time employment in the EU-28, 15-64, 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS, calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 30 January 2014.

Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL); the main-reason for part-time employment is collected and the reasons 'Looking after children or incapacitated adults' and 'Other family or personal responsibilities' are included in the graph; SK: data are not available for men.

Involuntary part-time work needs a careful analysis since the way in which the data is collected relies on asking part-time workers for their perception of main reason. The process of selection of the best fitting answer between several possibilities is obscure, and has the potential to be significantly altered by gendered processes including norms, stereotypes or adapted preferences.

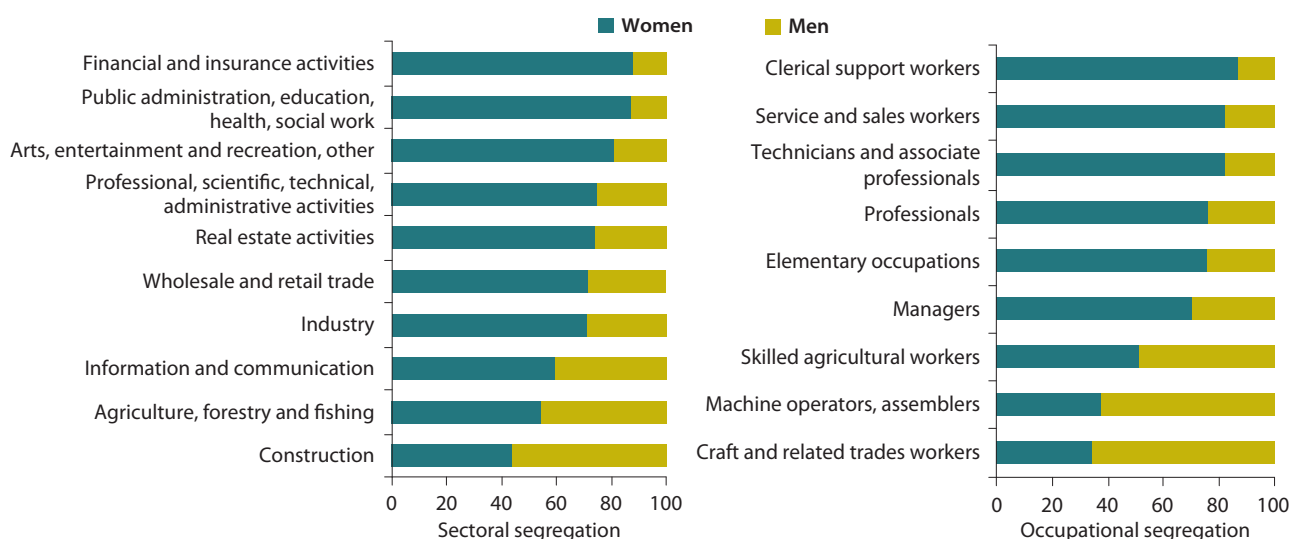
2.2.4 Segregation patterns in part-time work

Patterns of segregation observed in overall employment in the EU-28 are also present in part-time employment and even stronger due to the over-representation of women in part-time employment (76 % of part-time workers are women).

In terms of sectoral segregation, women in part-time employment are over-represented in the arts, entertainment and recreation sectors (81 % are women); public administration, education, health and social work (87 %); and financial and insurance activities (88 %). In contrast, they are under-represented in construction (44 %). A similar pattern

emerges in terms of occupational segregation in part-time work. Women make-up 35 % of craft and related trades workers, as well as 38 % of plant, machine operators and assemblers, but represent 87 % of clerical support workers when working on a part-time basis (Figure 2.16).

Figure 2.16: Sectoral and occupational segregation in part-time work in the EU-28, 15-64, 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_epgn62; lfsa_epgais), extracted on 8 January 2014.

Note: Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL); for sectoral segregation, classification NACE Rev. 2 (A10) was used; for occupational segregation, classification ISCO-08 1 digit was used and Armed forces have been excluded.

Actual sectoral and occupational differences between part-time and full-time employment for women and men can be summarised using the Index of Dissimilarity (ID). An advantage of this approach is that it allows for the monitoring of the transition an employee would have to make between full-time and part-time work. The ID in this case can be interpreted as the percentage of employed workers that would need to change economic sector (or occupation) in order to obtain the same sectoral (or occupational) pattern between full-time and part-time employment. In other words, the ID is measuring how different the sectors (or occupations) are between those that work full-time and part-time.

At EU-28 level in 2012, women wanting to switch between full and part-time work would be more likely to have to change occupation (ID value of 19) than sector (ID value of 10), showing low to moderate differences between the two. However, differences are much more acute among men, showing that for them making a transition between full and part-time work is much harder, from a segregation point of view. In order to switch between full and part-time work, a greater proportion of men than women would need to change sectors (ID value of 25) and/or occupation (ID value of 27).

Sectors between full-time and part-time work for women are most similar in Belgium and Austria with an Index score of 8 each. This is well below the most similar sectors for men with a score of 15 in Hungary. Sectors differences for full-time and part-time work are most different in Romania, for both women and men, with respective scores of 73 for women and 59 for men, highlighting that this can potential make for difficult transitions between the two. The situation is similar when it comes to occupation differences between full-time and part-time work. Differences are lowest for women in Latvia (12) and for men in Cyprus (16). Romania, in line with high differences in sectors, also has wide occupation differences between full-time and part-time employment for women (70) and men (62). These data show that overall, it is more difficult for men to transit between part-time and full-time employment while remaining in the same sector and/or occupation.

2.2.5 Consequences of part-time work

Part-time work may have positive effects both for employers and employees. For example, evidence suggests that women part-timers with young children report higher job satisfaction than men part-timers with young children, owing to a better work-life balance (Bonney, 2005; Booth and van Ours, 2009; Walsh, 2007). Earlier sociological studies on part-time jobs focused on the fact that part-time has a positive effect on the employment rate as it may facilitate the labour participation and employment of women with care responsibilities. In particular, women in part-time jobs were essentially perceived as 'family-oriented employees with little expectations from work' (Siltanen, 1994). Although part-time employment can be constructed as positive outcome, many negative aspects to consider have been flagged.

Reduction of earnings and income

One of the main consequences of part-time work is reduction in earnings (Connolly and Gregory 2008). Working hours are particularly important to take into consideration. Compared with part-time jobs of more hours, part-time jobs that provide employees with less than 20 hours work per week, means lower earnings and higher risks of occupational segregation and employment instability as well as lower access to social security benefits (Leschke, 2007; Grimshaw and Rubery, 1997).

Low earnings and high poverty risks

Recent analyses of the part-time pay gap (Bardasi and Gornick, 2008; Jepsen *et al.*, 2005; Hu and Tjens, 2003; Manning and Petrongolo, 2005), show that a negative pay gap is systematically observed for women who decide to work

part-time, when differences in the job characteristics are controlled. However, the magnitude of this pay gap differs substantially across the different studies undertaken for different countries (Hardoy and Schöne, 2006; Jepsen *et al.*, 2005; O'Dorchai *et al.*, 2007). The poverty risk is also associated with the working hours of part-time employment: when working hours are short, monthly earnings and pension contributions are too low to guarantee economic independence. Furthermore, in some countries, access to social security benefits depends on the number of hours worked.

Difficult transitions

Part-time employment is also associated with the risk that it will not be possible for a part-time worker to go back to a full-time job when the life course reaches a new stage (Buddelmeyer *et al.*, 2005), thus increasing the risk of being trapped in low paid work, with lower career perspectives, which affects lifelong income and pension levels (OECD 2012). Particular attention needs to be paid to women re-entering the labour market after maternity leave, through part-time jobs with restricted opportunities for successful career development (Connolly and Gregory 2008).

In many countries, once people are employed in a part-time job, it is very difficult for them to switch into full-time employment, to meet changing life-course needs. Results from Eurofound's European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) indicate that women's propensity to work on a part-time basis increases with age and that this largely reflects gender inequalities in transitions from part-time to full-time work (Eurofound, 2009a).

Gender roles

Perhaps one of the strongest criticisms from a gender equality perspective is that, while often still considered a prerequisite for women's labour market participation, part-time work arrangements if not equally shared between women and men can be seen as a way of perpetuating gender roles, resulting in disadvantages for career development (OECD, 2012).

2.3 Entrepreneurship and self-employment

Entrepreneurship as a concept needs to be clearly outlined. Within the EU framework, it is defined as a multi-dimensional concept that can take place in different contexts (for instance economic or social) and in different types of organisations. It is described as a mindset which allows

individuals to engage their motivation and capacity into the identification of an opportunity and the drive to pursue it to its full realisation. The required tool-kit to do so satisfactorily is creativity and innovation together with sound management (COM(2003) 27).



2.3.1 Gender and entrepreneurship

Examining the motives for starting up in business is a popular topic in entrepreneurship research (e.g. Blackburn, 2001; Davidsson, 1995) and evidence suggests that there are general similarities between women and men. One notable difference, however, is the propensity that women have to want to become self-employed to achieve better work-life balance, particularly among women who have dependent children. Thanks to greater time flexibility and increased opportunities to work at home, self-employment can be a more viable option than salaried employment for women with dependent children, as it can reduce the cost of child-care (Connelly, 1992). It can therefore represent an attractive alternative to part-time employment or to being out of the labour force altogether.

Women are less inclined to start-up in business than men do (EC, 2009). Nevertheless, evidence suggests that once in business, and when factoring for social capital (education, age, income) and firm characteristics (age, sector, size) women actually outperform men (Marlow *et al.*, 2012). When they become self-employed, women then tend to operate smaller businesses in sectors that are different from that of men and largely mirror segregation patterns in the labour market. These factors can then translate into lower levels of labour productivity and earnings (Piacentini, 2013) and a greater risk of poverty for women who are self-employed compared with women employees.

Although much has been written about the additional barriers and obstacles faced by women entrepreneurs, women's entrepreneurship is less about these than the norms, attitudes and stereotypes that affect women's potential as entrepreneurs. An exception is the group of women aged 25-34, who because of the combined effects of lack of structures and norms, attitudes and stereotypes associated to women and motherhood are more likely to opt out of entrepreneurship (Marlow *et al.*, 2012). Indeed, the lack of social protection or the reduced level of protection available to self-employed women, notably in the case of maternity protection, constitutes an additional obstacle to the participation of women in self-employed activities (COM(2008) 394).

Finally, growth intentions tend to be more moderate for women entrepreneurs compared with men entrepreneurs. One of the main reasons behind this is linked to the fact that popular media, education and government policy project a vision of entrepreneurship that reflects a strong masculine bias, often by picturing only men as entrepreneurs. The context created by norms, attitudes and stereotypes damages women's entrepreneurial intentions and aspirations.

2.3.2 Entrepreneurs and self-employed workers

The borders between self-employment and entrepreneurship itself are blurred, with a range of situations, summarised by Eurofound (2009) as:

- a) self-employed workers that run their business with the help of employees (in this case the most likely category to overlap with entrepreneurs) or work with partners;
- b) own-account workers and free professionals without employees in regulated and unregulated occupations;
- c) craft workers, traders and farmers often working with family members which may maintain women in a more invisible position (Hamilton, 2006).

This heterogeneity in terms of who the self-employed category represents should therefore be considered, particularly when the data is extrapolated to entrepreneurship.

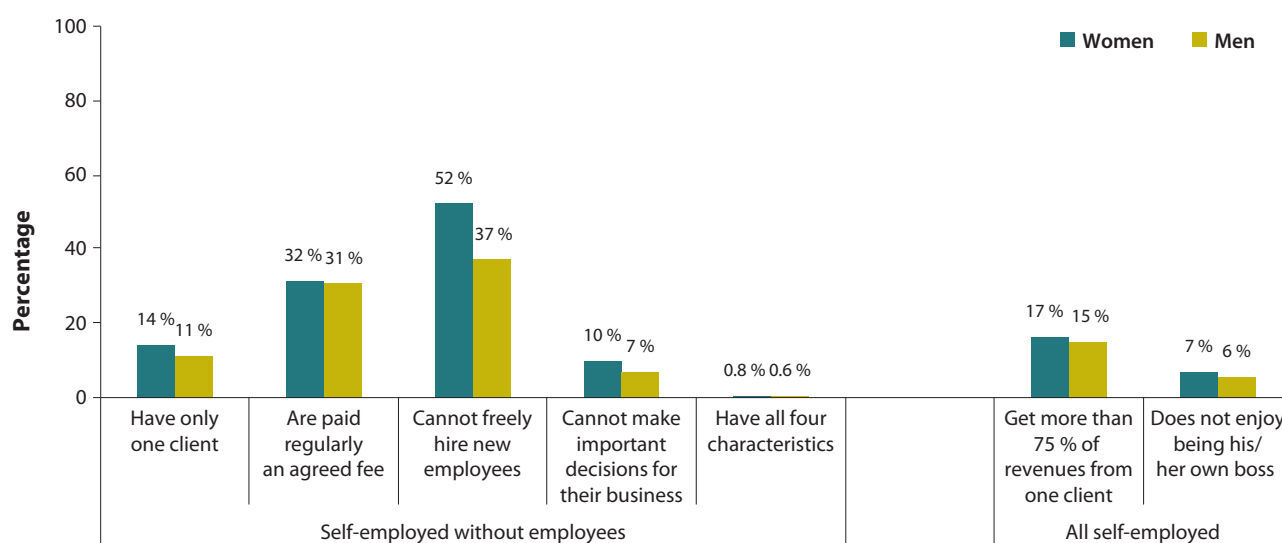
At EU level, Eurostat's Labour Force survey measures self-employment, which consists of persons meeting at least one of the following criteria: works for the purpose of earning profit, spends time on the operation of a business or is in the process of setting up his/her business. The extent to which this overlaps with entrepreneurship is unclear. For example, using self-employment variables to assess the progress made in the Europe 2020 Strategy which identifies entrepreneurship as key to achieve smart, sustainable and inclusive growth would not provide a suitable picture. This is because it partly cover entrepreneurship, but also captures other forms, such as the so-called 'bogus' form of self-employment. This particular form of self-employment is generally characterised by dependency of only one client, the presence of regular payments and the lack of capacity to freely hire new workers and/or make important decisions related to the business (Eurofound, 2010a). Since the outcomes of 'bogus' self-employment can lead to precarious situations, contrary to other forms of self-employment it is important not to collude entrepreneurship and self-employment. As a result this report focuses on self-employment rather than entrepreneurship.

Companies can use 'bogus' self-employment to save on labour costs, to increase work flexibility and to avoid compliance with labour regulation or collective bargaining (EEO, 2010; Eichhorst *et al.* 2013). For the workers, this type of employment entails less employment protection and social security provisions. Hence, it may be more widespread among those with less bargaining power and the most vulnerable in the population. In this perspective bogus self-employment may be a concern for women, since from 2008 to 2012 they accounted for the majority of the increase in self-employment without employees.

In the EU-28 in 2010, over half (52 %) of self-employed women without employees could not freely hire new workers compared with 37 % of self-employed men without employees. This represents the largest single difference between women and men in respect of possible markers of 'bogus' self-employment, showing that women are much more at risk than men. In others respects, differences are consistently either higher or marginally higher for self-employed women without employees than for self-employed

men without employees. Nearly a third (32 %) of self-employed women without employees were paid regularly an agreed fee compared with 31 % of self-employed men without employees; 14 % and 11 %, respectively, of self-employed women without employees and self-employed men without employees had only one client; and 10 % of self-employed women without employees compared with 7 % of self-employed men without employees could not make important decisions for their business.

Figure 2.17: Percentage of women and men at risk of 'bogus' self-employment, EU-28, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: Included who answered yes to question 6_1a: Generally, my firm has more than one client; answered yes to the question 6_1b: I am paid an agreed fee on a regular, for example on a monthly basis; answered yes to question 6_1c: If my workload requires I could hire employees who work for me; answered yes to question 6_1d: I make the most important decisions on how to run my business; answered more than 75 percent in question EF8: What proportion of revenue do you receive from your most important client?; answered no to question EF12b: I enjoy being my own boss.

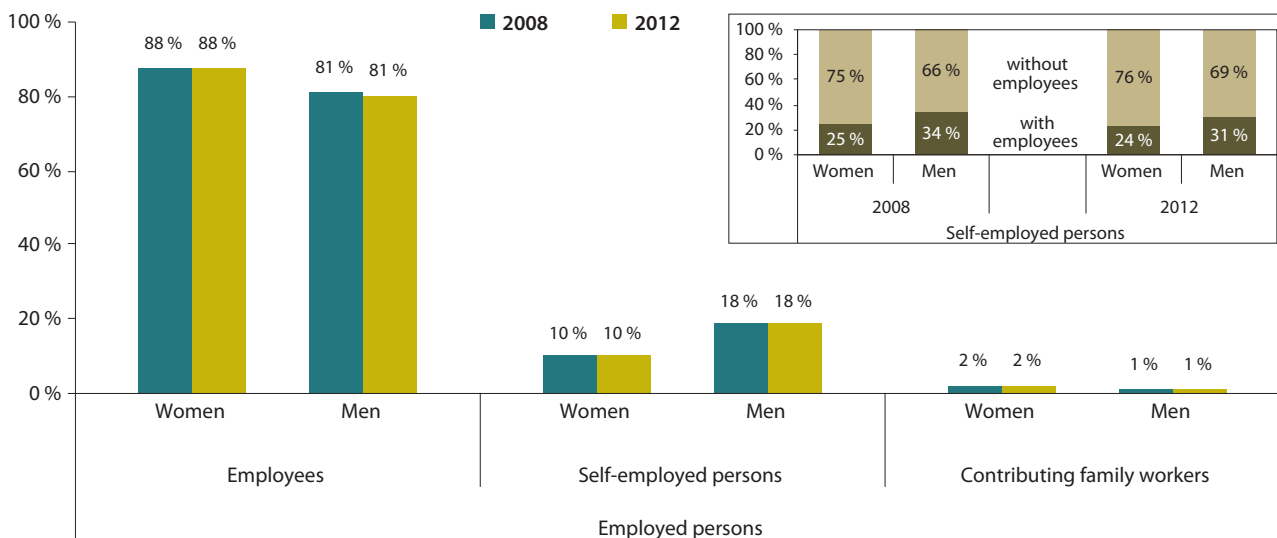
Overall, these figures show that although 'bogus' self-employment may be more widespread among women, it applies to a minority of self-employed people. This suggests that genuine self-employment remains the norm, making a stronger case for its use as a proxy measure of entrepreneurship.

2.3.3 Participation in self-employment

Despite women's increasing participation in the labour market, women remain substantially under-represented among self-employed workers. On average, during the 2008-2012 period, the share of self-employed women compared to the total number in employment is much smaller than the corresponding share for men, across the EU-28 Member States: 10 % compared with 18 % (Figure 2.18).

There have been no or moderate changes in terms of self-employment in the majority of Member States. Rates of self-employment for men have most progressed in Greece, going from 34 % of employed men in self-employment in 2008 to 37 % in 2012 and Slovenia, going from 13 % of employed men in self-employment in 2008 to 15 % in 2012, together with the Netherlands with an increase going from 15 % to 17 % and Luxembourg with an increase going from 7 % to 9 %. In contrast, a progress with women in self-employment has been made in a greater number of Member States: from 8 % to 10 % in Slovakia between 2008 and 2012; 21 % to 23 % in Greece; and 9 % to 12 % in the Czech Republic. On the other hand of the spectrum, however, self-employment rates have decreased from 23 % to 19 % for men in Cyprus between 2008 and 2012 and between 17 % and 13 % for women in Portugal (Figures 5.13 and 5.14 in Annex III).

Differences between women and men in self-employment increase with age: there is 3 percentage points for age 15-24, 8 percentage points for age 25-54 and 13 percentage points

Figure 2.18: Employed persons by professional status and sex (15-64), in EU-28, 2008 and 2012

Source: Calculations based on Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_egaps), extracted on 4 December 2013.

Note: Employed persons are persons aged 15 and over who performed work, at least one paid hour per week or had a job or business which they were temporarily absent; employees are defined as persons who work for a public or private employer and who receive compensation; self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice.

for age 55-64 in EU-28 in 2012. There are however wide national differences. In some Member States, where there is high unemployment and segregated labour markets, self-employment is promoted as an alternative route into employment, especially for young people (EEO, 2010). For example, Italy, Slovakia and Romania have a relative high share of self-employment among young workers (both women and men), while the incidence of self-employment among young people is below 2% in some Member States that have a well-developed system supporting the 'school to work' transition (DK, DE, AT). Greece shows the highest share of older self-employed workers (45.9 % for women and 55.3 % for men).

As for the overall employed population, self-employed women tend to be more educated than men: 37 % of self-employed women in the EU-28 have a tertiary educational attainment, compared with only 28 % of self-employed men. In terms of country differences, the percentage of self-employed women with a tertiary education is higher than men in all but three of the EU-28 Member States (Figure 5.15 in Annex III), the exceptions being Austria, Lithuania and Luxembourg. This evidence reflects gender segregation by sector and occupation, with self-employed women more likely to be employed in occupations and sectors requiring a tertiary degree. When considering fields of study, however, women are under-represented in such fields as engineering, computing, and business administration, that are particularly useful for starting a business in growing sectors (OECD, 2012).

Self-employment embraces a wide range of economic statuses and activities with varying degrees of economic conditions and independence. It is important to distinguish between

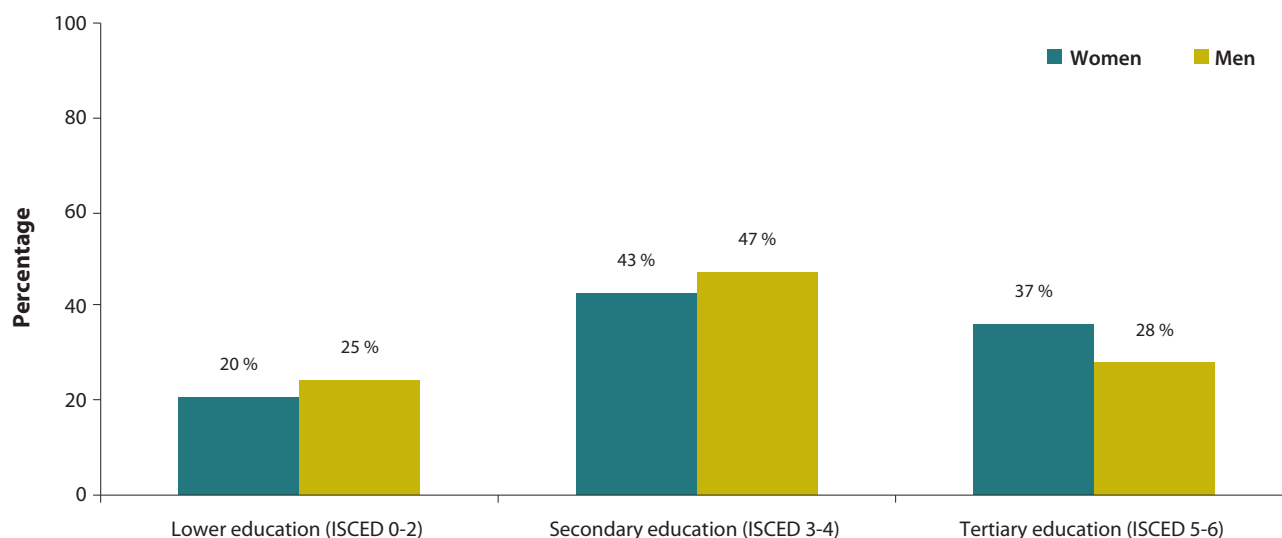
self-employed people who are employers or entrepreneurs and have employees and self-employed people who work on their own account and have no employees. Women are more likely to be self-employed on their own account, without employees, than employers: in 2012 only 24 % of self-employed women in the EU-28 were employers, compared to 31 % of self-employed men (Figure 2.19).

The share of self-employed women with employees among total employment for women is low in all EU-28 Member States: from 0.8 % in Romania to 4.1 % in Greece (Figure 5.16 in Annex III). Across the EU-28, women who are self-employed on their own-account (without employees) represent 8 % of total employment for women, whereas men who are self-employed on their own account represent 13 % of total employed men. The highest ratio of women who are self-employed on their own-account is reported in Greece (19%), while the ratio is significantly lower in Denmark, Estonia and Sweden.

Working hours

In general, self-employed individuals worked on average 7 hours more per week than employees in 2012. Self-employed women in the EU-28 in 2012 worked considerably fewer hours (37 hours weekly) compared with self-employment men (46 hours weekly). Differences are also substantial between those with and without employees. Working hours are, however, much higher for those with employees (44 hours for women and 51 for men) but much lower for those without (35 for women and 43 for men).

Figure 2.19: Self-employed women and men by education as a percentage of self-employment (15-64) in the EU-28, 2012

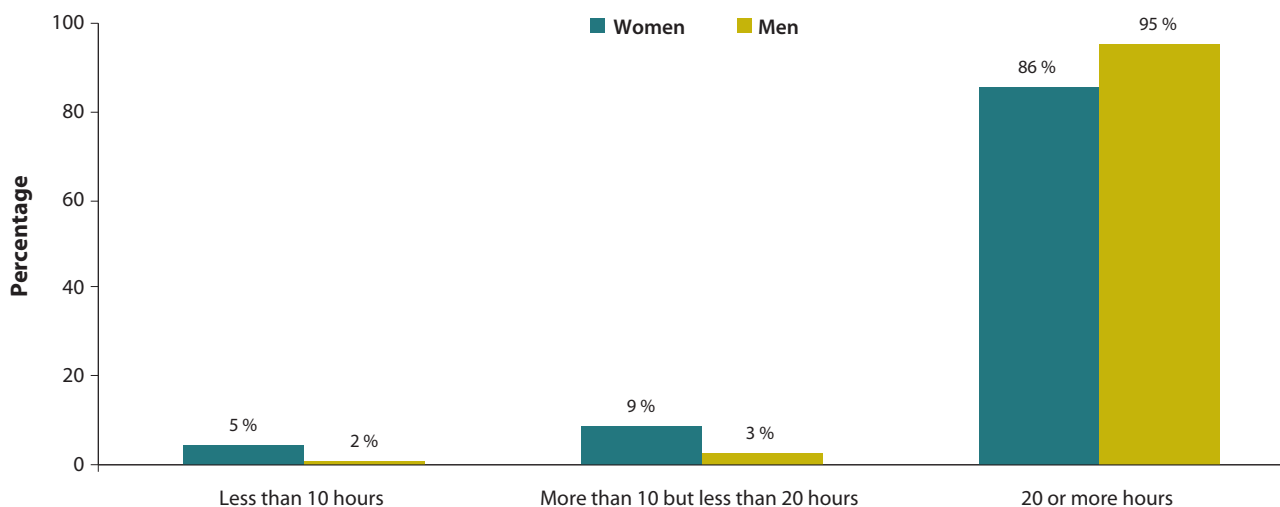


Source: Calculations based on Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_esgaed), extracted on 10 January 2014.

Note: Self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice; lower education consists of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education: ISCED levels 0-2; secondary education consists of upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education: ISCED levels 3 and 4; tertiary education consists first and second stage of tertiary education: ISCED levels 5 and 6; employment rate represent employed persons as a percentage of the same group of total population.

At national level, working hours were highest in Belgium with 46 hours weekly for self-employed women and 55 hours for self-employed men (with employees: 52 hours for women and 59 hours for men; without employees: 43 hours for women and 52 hours for men). The largest difference in working hours was in the Netherlands, where in 2011 self-employed women worked on average 28 hours weekly compared with 43 hours for self-employed men. Breaking down these numbers between those with and without employees shows that the prevalence of part-time hours is mostly among self-employed women without employees. Self-employed women without employees work 26 weekly hours for women compared with 40 for men in the same category. In contrast, among the self-employed with employees, women worked 39 hours weekly and men 51 hours.

In the EU-28 in 2012, 5 % of self-employed women worked fewer than 10 hours a week, compared with 3 % of self-employed men. However, in some Member States, the proportion involved in 'micro-jobs' in self-employment is higher and concerns predominately women. At least 10 % of self-employed women work fewer than 10 hours weekly in Portugal (10 %), Luxembourg (11 %), the United Kingdom (12 %) and the Netherlands (13 %). There are no Member States where self-employed men represent more than 10 % of those working fewer than 10 hours weekly, with the maximum proportion to be found in Portugal with 8 % of self-employed men. Similarly, more than a quarter of self-employed women work fewer than 20 hours in Portugal (25 %), the Netherlands (27 %) and the United Kingdom (33 %). For men, the maximum proportion is also in Portugal, with 19 % of self-employed men working fewer than 20 hours weekly (Figure 5.17. in Annex III; Table 5.2 in Annex III).

Figure 2.20: Self-employed by working hours and by sex, EU-28, 2012

Source: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 15 January 2014.

Note: Self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice.

The above patterns suggest that women seem more likely to resort to self-employment as an alternative to part-time employment, in order to balance work and life: not because of shorter working hours, but because of the greater autonomy and flexibility in choosing the allocation of working time (Boden, 1999; Hundley, 2000; Lombard, 2007). For example, comparative research between mothers in self-employment and employment in Spain found that self-employed mothers would devote more time to childcare during mornings and afternoons, and more time to market work during the evenings compared to employed mothers. This suggests that self-employed offer greater control over the timing of work and a greater propensity to work at less usual times, such as in the evening, when partners are available to care for the children (Gimenez-Nadal *et al.*, 2012).

Segregation

Sectoral gender segregation is also an issue among the self-employed in the EU-28. Traditional indicators of sectoral segregation, such as the Gini and the ID indexes, show that women tend to start their business in different sectors from men. The Gini and ID indexes for total self-employment in 2012 are, respectively, 42.39 and 28.19; and they have both been increasing since 2008. Sectoral segregation is higher

among the self-employed working on their own account than among the self-employed with employees: the corresponding Gini indexes in 2012 were 45.06 and 37.53, and it is only the index for sectoral gender segregation among self-employed people without employees that has been increasing. This may be related to the substantial increase in the number of self-employed people without employees between 2008 and 2012, especially among women. Furthermore, women-owned enterprises show a lower decline in birth rates than those owned by men during the economic crisis, also because women are less likely to operate in sectors, such as manufacturing and the financial sector, that have been more adversely affected by the crisis (OECD, 2012).

Figure 2.21 shows the share of women in total self-employment by sector in the EU-28 in 2012 and the extent to which segregation also exists in self-employment. Women represent the majority of the self-employed in public administration, education, health and social work (59 %); arts, entertainment and recreation (58 %). In contrast, women represent one-fifth or less of self-employed people working in industry (19 %) and the information and communication sector (20 %). Furthermore, women account for less than 4 % self-employment in construction. These segregation patterns are replicated more or less equally among women who are self-employed on their own account and those with employees.

Figure 2.21: Segregation in self-employment: share of women in total self-employment by industry and by type of self-employment in the EU-28, 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_esgan2), extracted on 10 January 2014.

Note: For sectoral segregation, classification NACE Rev. 2 (A10) was used.

2.4 Quality of work

Although much work has been done on the participation patterns of women and men in the labour market, there has been since the European Employment Strategy, a growing importance given not only to increasing labour force participation but also focusing on quality of work. At international level, the Decent Work Agenda developed by the International Labour Organisation (ILO) also echoes quality of work as the main policy objective.

A number of economic and institutional factors have greatly influenced quality of work in the EU. Private sector organisations have become more exposed to international competition which, in turn, has increased turbulence in the markets, job insecurity, and work intensity. In addition, the spread of information technology and skills-based technical change has contributed to a growing mismatch between workers' competencies and job requirements, with implications for workers' training and skills development. The increasing use of incentive schemes, shift-work, and pay-for-productivity reward systems, may also have placed increased pressure on workers to achieve high levels of work performance. In addition, the greater participation of women on the labour market may have exacerbated pressures to balance work and life. Of course the economic crisis is also a relevant factor, prolonged unemployment and job insecurity (affected women and men to different degrees) may have created long-term effects such as stress-related problems and other psychological issues.

There is a widespread perception that the increase in the number of jobs available, especially the increase in part-time jobs, may have been at the expense of quality of work (Leschke *et al.*, 2008). It has also been suggested that patterns of educational and occupational gender segregation may heighten the differences in the quality of jobs available for women and for men (EC 2009a; EIGE, 2013).

Unfortunately, the concept of quality of work remains to date a much debated topic, characterised by problematic measures and uncertain conclusions. Previous cross-country studies of quality of work have examined various factors, including: pay, working time, job security, job satisfaction, promotion, training, skills development, health and safety conditions, gender equity, job content, representation, and work-life balance (e.g. Davoine *et al.*, 2008).

Initially, the focus was firmly on quality of work and employment, examining the outcomes of working conditions on individuals. More recently, this has been supplemented by an emphasis on the quality of the jobs themselves, aiming at examining inputs rather than outcomes. The strength of the first approach is to examine the consequences that lower/higher levels of quality of work have for example on well-being or economic development, while the second can point to what needs to be improved in working conditions to increase levels of quality of jobs. From a gender equality perspective, the report prefers to adopt the perspective of quality of work, given its focus on outcomes for individuals.



At EU level, the work of Eurofound has made significant progress on the topic, not least thanks to EU the harmonised and comparable data collected through their EWCS. Over the years, Eurofound has created two frameworks to

examine, respectively, quality of work and quality of jobs as outlined below. The box below provides an overview of these two concepts.

Quality of work (Eurofound, 2002)	Quality of job (Eurofound, 2012)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Career and employment security - Health and well-being - Skills and competences - Work-life balance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Earnings - Prospects - Intrinsic job quality - Working-time quality

The gendered aspect of quality of work is of particular interest given that inequalities in time spent in care or other family activities shape the working conditions of women and men. For example, because women are more likely to work on a part-time basis, they also have less access to promotion (Eurofound, 2013a).

2.4.1 Career and employment security

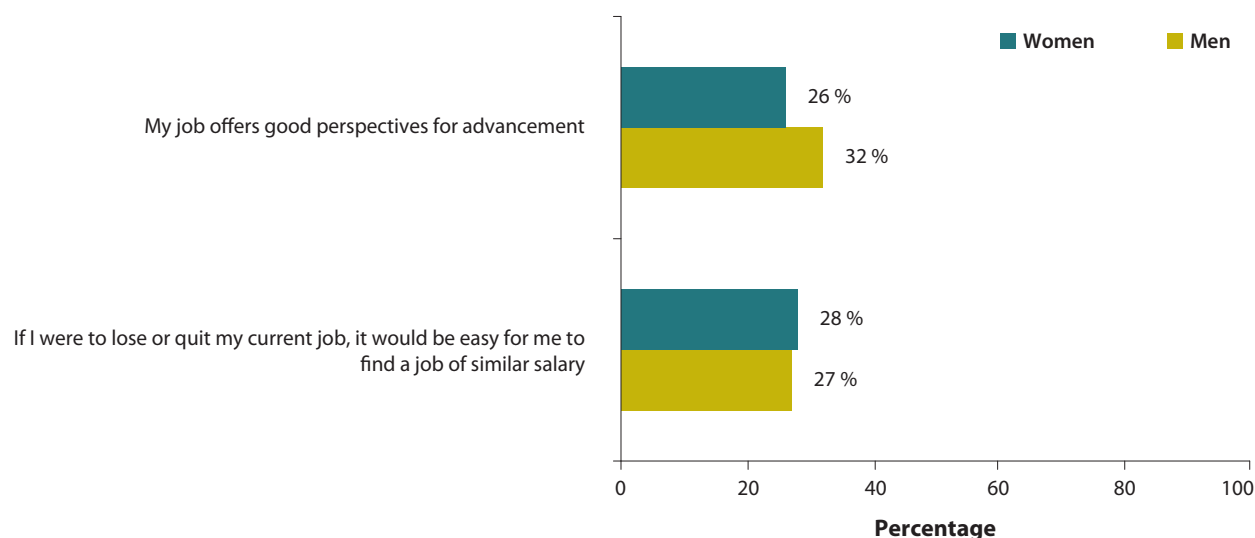
The first pillar of quality of work concerns career and employment security, which can be examined from the perspective of advancement at work. There are important differences in the extent to which women and men perceive that their job offers good prospects for advancement. In 2010, this concerned 32 % of men workers in the EWCS compared with

only 26 % of women workers. Career prospects ranged from an average of 14 % in Lithuania (13 % for women and 15 % for men) up to 43 % in Malta (45 % for women and 42 % for men).

In the majority of Member States, men workers are more likely to perceive greater career prospects, with the largest differences in Sweden where 24 % of women workers feel their job offers good prospects for advancement compared with 35 % of men workers, representing an 11 percentage point difference. This is tightly followed by Spain (20 % of women compared with 30 % of men) and Austria (18 % of women compared with 28 % of men), each with a 10 percentage point difference. The United Kingdom, however, bucks the trend, with more women workers (44 %) perceiving good prospects than men workers (39 %) (Figure 5.18 in Annex III).

The ease with which it is possible to find a job of similar salary in the event of redundancy or resignation is another relevant aspect of career and employment security. In 2010, just over

Figure 2.22: Career and employment security in the EU-28, by sex, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: Includes who answered 'agree' or 'strongly agree' to question 77c: 'My job offers good prospects for career advancement'; 'agree' or 'strongly agree' to question 77f: 'If I were to lose or quit my current job, it would be easy for me to find a job of similar salary'.

a quarter (28 %) of workers on average in the EU perceived that it would be easy for them to find a job of similar salary should they lose or quit their current job, with few differences between women workers (28 %) and men workers (27 %). The extent to which workers felt able to secure new employment is however very different across Member States, ranging from just 10 % of women workers and 13 % men workers in Hungary to 46 % of women workers and 40 % of men workers in Finland.

Furthermore, there existed some large gender differences in a number of Member States. In Slovenia, men workers felt more secure in employment by as much as 9 percentage points (26 % for women workers compared with 35 % of men workers). However, the situation was reversed in Malta and the United Kingdom, where women workers were more likely to report that it would be easy for them to find a job of similar salary should they lose or quit their current job. In Malta, this concerned 37 % of women workers compared with 26 % of men workers (an 11 percentage point difference) and in the United Kingdom, 44 % of women workers compared with 34 % of men workers (a 10 percentage point difference) (Figure 5.19 in Annex).

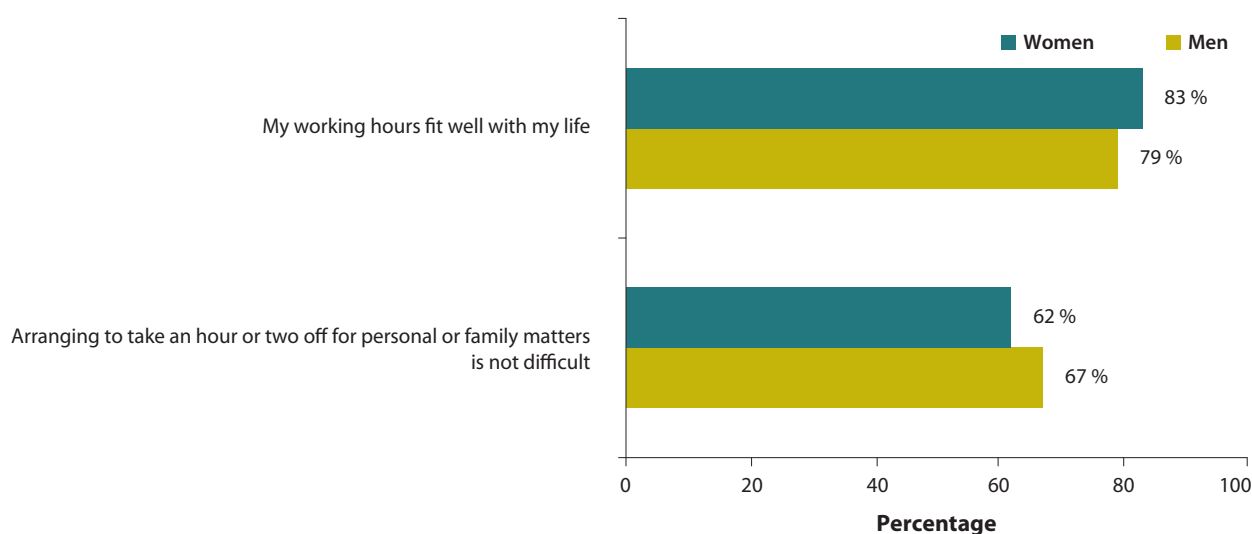
2.4.2 Work-life balance

The second pillar of quality of work examined is that of work-life balance. This is measured, not without difficulties, through the extent to which working hours fit with life. In 2010, the EWCS shows that there are small differences

between how well working hours fit with life for women and men, albeit in an unexpected order given women's disproportionate responsibilities for caring and domestic activities in all Member States. On average in the EU, 83 % of women workers report a good work-life fit compared with only 79 % of men workers. This reversal is associated with a number of factors, including the high level of segregation in the labour market and associated patterns of flexibility in the labour market (EC, 2009a, EIGE, 2013). This results largely from an adaptive strategy used by women in order to combine work and life (Eurofound, 2012). From a gender equality perspective, it is this capacity to adapt, often with detrimental consequences for economic independence that needs to be examined. There is a general good fit between working hours and life for workers in the EU, ranging among workers from 64 % of women and 63 % of men in Greece, to 94 % of women and 93 % of men in Denmark (figure 5.20 in Annex III).

Equally, it appears that on average in the EU in 2010, it is easier for men workers (67 %) than women workers (63 %) to arrange taking an hour or two off for personal or family matters. This degree of flexibility is very different across Member States. For example, in the Czech Republic or in Germany, fewer than half of workers (40 % of women and 46 % of men for CZ; 47 % of women and 48 % of men for DE) are able to do so. In contrast, in Sweden, 84 % of women workers and 88 % of men workers can take a couple of hours off relatively easily. Throughout all Member States, it is men who unambiguously find it easier, with the exception of the United Kingdom (74 % of women workers and 71 % of men workers) and Slovakia (51 % of women workers and 47 % of men workers) (Figure 5.21 in Annex III).

Figure 2.23: Work-life balance in EU-28, by sex, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

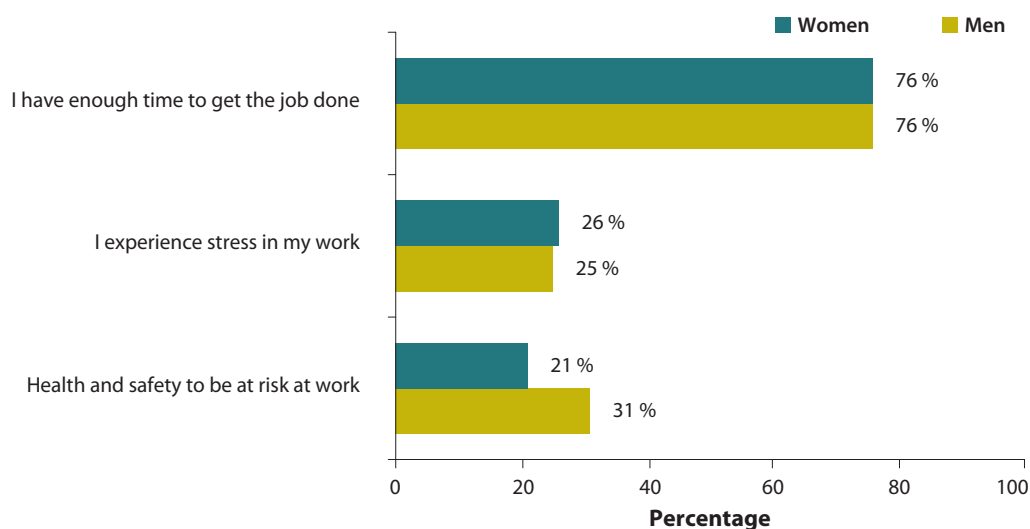
Note: Includes who answered well or very well to the question 41: In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well?; not difficult at all or not too difficult to the question 43: Would you say that for you arranging to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters is ...?

2.4.3 Health and well-being

The third pillar of quality of work takes health and well-being into consideration. An important aspect of this pillar is gender differences in the intensity and stress perceived by workers. Overall in the EU in 2010, three-quarters of workers (76 % for both women and men) felt that they had enough time to get their job done. However, if there are no gender differences at EU level, the situation in Member States can be very different.

In Austria, for example, 68 % of women workers perceive having enough time to get the job done compared with 60 % of men, representing an 8 percentage point gap. However, it is striking to see that in the Nordic Member States the situation is reversed with men more likely to report they have sufficient time to get their job done. There is a 6 percentage point gap among workers in Denmark (72 % for women and 78 % for men), 7 percentage points in Finland (75 % for women and 82 % for men) and 12 percentage points in Sweden (62 % for women and 74 % for men) (Figure 5.22 in Annex III).

Figure 2.24: Health and well-being in EU-28, by sex, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: Includes who answered most of the time or sometimes to the question 51g: You have enough time to get the job done; always or most of the time to the question 51n: You experience stress in your work; yes to the question 66: Do you think your health or safety is at risk because of your work?

Stress at work is another important part to examine in terms of quality of work under the health and well-being pillar. On average in the EU in 2010, the EWCS shows that about a quarter (26 % of women and 25 % of men) report experiencing stress at work. There is a wide range across Member States with the smallest proportion of workers experiencing stress in the Netherlands (11 % of women and 11 % of men) and the largest in Greece (50 % of women and 52 % of men).

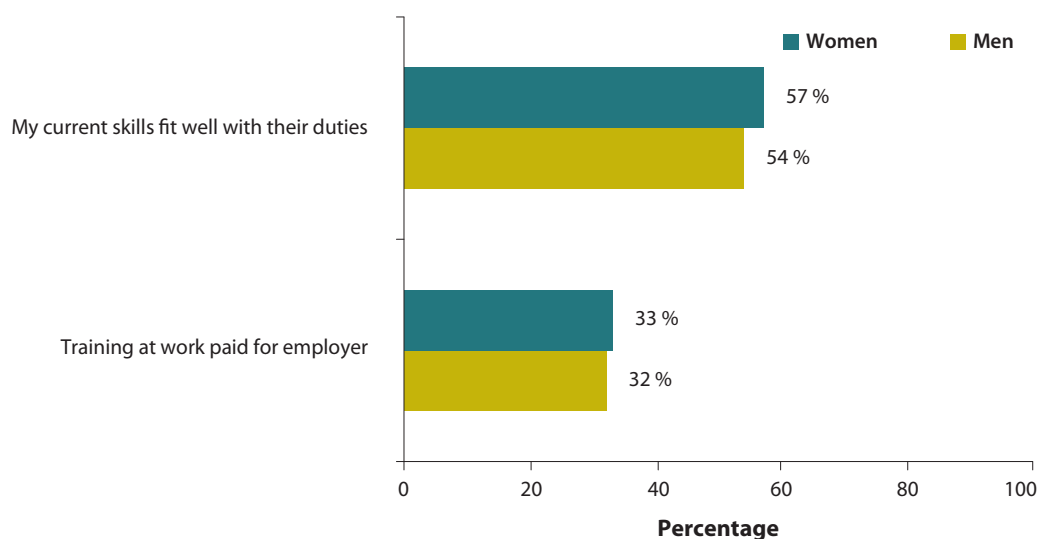
If gender differences are small on average in the EU, there are a number of Member States where women experience greater stress with a difference above 5 percentage points (LV, LU, HU, FI, SE). Cyprus is an exception, with a greater proportion (5 percentage points) of men workers experience stress compared with women workers (Figure 5.23 in Annex III).

A final aspect of the health and well-being pillar is that of the perception of health and safety risks at work, which shows very large differences between women and men. In 2010, on average in the EU, 31 % of men workers perceived their health and safety to be at risk at work compared to

21 % of women workers, representing a 10 percentage point difference. With the exception of Finland, this perception is higher among men workers than women workers in all Member States. The maximum this difference reaches as many as 20 percentage points in Bulgaria (25 % of women and 45 % of men) and Greece (29 % of women and 48 % of men) (Figure 5.24 in Annex III).

2.4.4 Skills development

The final pillar in measuring quality of work is that of skills development. Over half of workers (57 % of women and 54 % of men), on average in the EU in 2010, perceive that their current skills fit well with their duties. This perception is worst in Romania with 40 % of women workers and 39 % of men workers perceived a good fit, while on the other end of the spectrum, in Portugal this concerns 64 % of women workers and 72 % of men workers (Figure 5.25 in Annex III).

Figure 2.25: Skills developments in EU-28, by sex, 2010

Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: Includes who answered my present skills correspond well with my duties to the question 60: Which of the following alternatives would best describe your skills in your own work?; yes to the question 61a: Training paid for or provided by your employer or by yourself if self-employed.

Women workers are more likely to report a good fit of skills to work in a number of Member States. There is a difference of 5 percentage points in Belgium, Greece and Italy; 6 percentage points in Luxembourg and Slovenia; 7 percentage points in France and Latvia; and finally 8 percentage points in Austria. Nevertheless, the opposite can be observed in a number of other Member States. Men workers are thus more likely to perceive their skills fit their current job in Finland (5 percentage points) and in Portugal (8 percentage points).

In 2010, in the EU on average, approximately a third of workers (33 % of women and 32 % of men) benefit from training that is paid for by their employer (or themselves if self-employed) in the EU on average in 2010. This ranges from as little as 11 % of women workers and 8 % of men workers in Bulgaria, to 51 % of women and 50 % of men in Sweden and 53 % of women and 45 % of men in Finland.

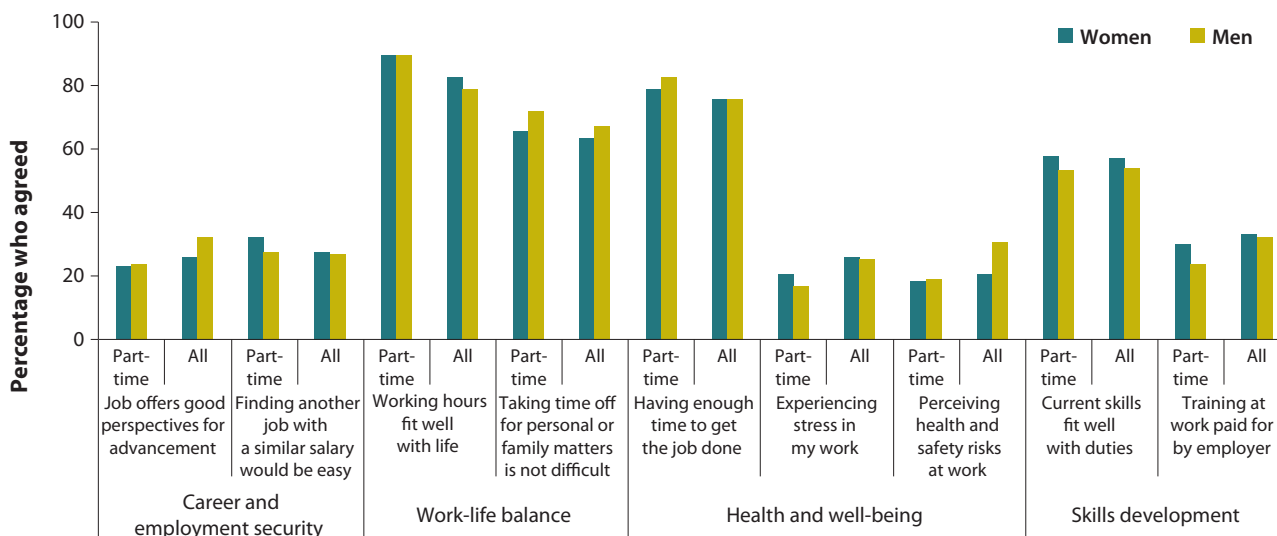
Gender differences across Member States are important. Men are more likely to receive training at work, by more than 5 percentage points in the Czech Republic, Ireland, Spain and Portugal. On the contrary, the opposite is true in Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovenia. Indeed in Latvia, the difference reaches 14 percentage points with 35 % of women compared with 21 % of men benefiting from training at work (Figure 5.26 in Annex III).

2.4.5 Consequences of working part-time on quality of work

In general, studies on working conditions and quality of work largely fail to take into account differences that may arise from working on a part-time or full-time basis. The few existing studies which have examined this aspect generally focused on one aspect only: either wages, or training, or job security (Bardasi and Gornick, 2008; O'Dorchai *et al.*, 2007).

Concerns have also been raised over discriminatory promotion practices, poor workplace support and the intensification of workload (McDonald *et al.*, 2009). Empirical research on part-time work shows that part-time employees have lower hourly earnings and, on average, fewer opportunities for career progression, as they are less likely to receive training. This suggests that the quality of part-time jobs is often lower than the quality of full-time jobs, although the job satisfaction of part-time workers is generally similar to that of full-time workers (Eurofound, 2009). Part-time work can also greatly restrict access to training opportunities (Mumford and Smithy, 2008). In addition, part-time employees in low-paid jobs are viewed as workers with fewer opportunities than their counterparts in higher-ranking occupations (Batt *et al.*, 2010; Pape, 2008).

This section provides an account of quality of work among part-time workers within the framework relying on career and employment security; work-life balance; health and well-being; and skills development.

Figure 2.26: Quality of work for part-time workers and all workers, 2010

Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: Includes who answered agree or strongly agree to the question 77c: My job offers good prospects for career advancement; agree or strongly agree to the question 77f: If I were to lose or quit my current job, it would be easy for me to find a job of similar; well or very well to the question 41: In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well?; not too difficult to the question 43: Would you say that for you arranging to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters is ...?; most of the time or sometimes to the question 51g: You have enough time to get the job done; always or most of the time to the question 51n: You experience stress in your work; yes to the question 66: Do you think your health or safety is at risk because of your work?; my present skills correspond well with my duties to the question 60: Which of the following alternatives would best describe your skills in your own work?; yes to the question 61a: Training paid for or provided by your employer or by yourself if self-employed.

Career and employment security, the first pillar of quality of work, seems to be affected by working on a part-time basis. Research suggests that part-time workers may be less likely to be promoted compared to full-time workers, since part-time jobs tend to offer more limited career opportunities (McGovern *et al.*, 2004). At EU-28 level, on average in 2010 among part-time workers, nearly 23 % of women and 24 % of men perceived their job offered good perspectives for advancement (compared with, among all workers, 26 % of women and 32 % of men). This confirms that part-time employment is perceived as offering limited career prospects in part-time employment, particularly so for men with a drop of 8 percentage points compared with overall employment.

Overall in the EU-28 in 2010, finding a job with a similar salary when losing or resigning from a current job is not perceived to be harder for men, when comparing those working on a part-time basis to all men workers (28 % for part-time workers and 27 % for all). For women, however, making the transition from one part-time job to another was perceived as slightly easier than for all women workers (32 % of part-time women workers compared with 28 % of all women workers).

The second pillar of quality of work, work-life balance, is very relevant to the issue of part-time work. The question of whether the perception of a 'good' or 'very good' fit is higher among those working part-time is therefore an important one. Data suggest that 90 % of part-time workers,

both women and men, perceive a good or very good fit between their working time and their family life or social commitments. This represents a 7 percentage point increase for women working on a part-time basis, and an even higher increase of 10 percentage points for men working on a part-time basis. Although this finding can appear somewhat surprising, it is in line with the adapted preferences displayed by women as opposed to men in employment in general. Working on a part-time basis also slightly increases opportunities to be able to take an hour or two off for personal or family matters. This means that 66 % of women working on a part-time basis do not find it difficult (an increase of 3 percentage points compared with all women workers) and an equivalent figure of 72 % for part-time men workers (an increase of 5 percentage points compared with all men workers).

Health and well-being, as the third pillar of quality of work, is positively affected by part-time work. Working on a part-time basis appears to be associated to a greater extent with having enough time to get the job done, with 79 % of women part-time workers (76 % of overall women workers) and 83 % of men part-time workers (76 % of overall men workers). Working on a part-time basis is therefore most beneficial for men in terms of ensuring that work is not too intense. Equally, working on a part-time basis has a positive effect on the level of stress experienced at work, particularly for men. On average in the EU-28 in 2010 among part-time workers, 21 % of women and 17 % of men reported experiencing stress

at work (compared with 26 % and 25 % for women and men respectively in overall work). Finally, perceptions of health and safety risks at work also drop among part-time workers, particularly for men. Among women part-time workers, 18 % perceive a health and safety risk, compared with 21 % of overall women workers, representing a 4 percentage point drop. For men, the drop is a significant one of 12 percentage points, with 19 % of men part-time workers perceiving a health and safety risk compared with 31 % for overall men workers. This is in line with a study by the OECD which found that part-time workers report better health compared to full-time workers (OECD 2010). The shorter number of hours worked, on average, contributes to the existence of a health and safety premium for part-time workers.

The final pillar of quality of work deals with skills development at work, such as increasing the percentage of individuals participating in training a central policy goal since the Lisbon summit in 2000. Data show that working on part-time basis does not affect the extent to which workers, both women and men, feel that their current skills fit well with their duties. This is perceived by over half, 58 % of women part-time workers and 53 % of men part-time workers. However, data confirm the findings of studies that show that part-timers are less likely to receive training compared with full-time workers (OECD, 2010). In the EU-28 on average in 2010, 30 % of women part-time workers had received training paid for their employers compared with just 24 % of men part-time workers. This

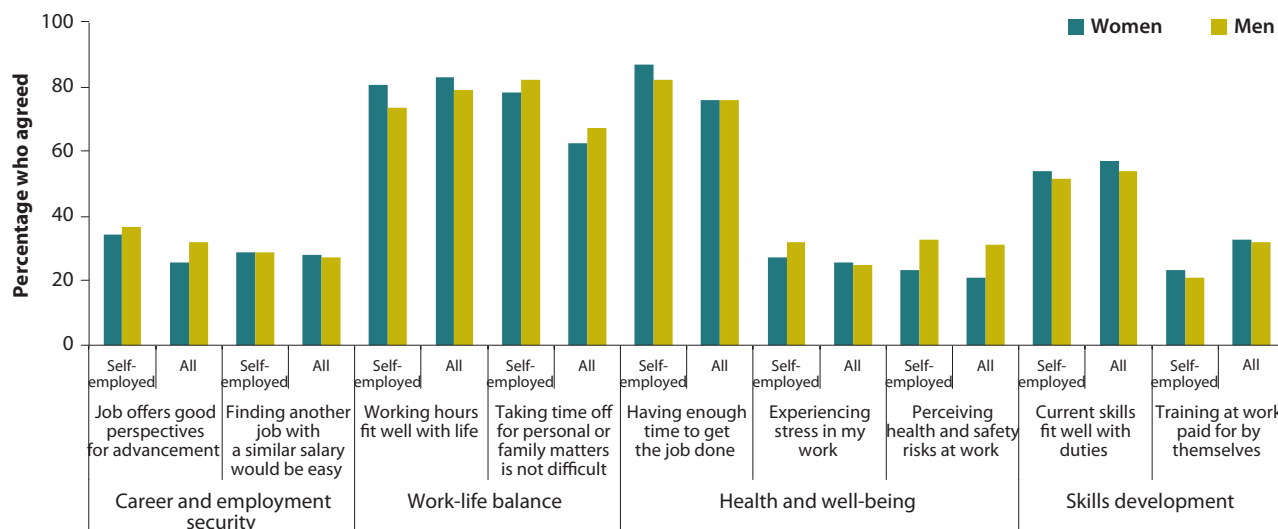
represents a decrease between overall workers and part-time workers of 3 percentage points for women and 8 percentage points for men.

A number of features of part-time jobs and part-time workers can partly explain this result, for example the prevalence of short-term employment relations, lower academic qualifications, or less complex-task jobs, reduce the incentive for an employer to train a part-time employee (Gómez *et al.*, 2002). Overall, despite better outcomes in terms of health and well-being as well as work life balance, there is a penalty connected to part-time work, in terms of career prospects and training and adequate compensation for work: part-time workers experience lower promotion opportunities and reduced access to training, which may influence their level of labour market attachment and reduce their expectations and prospects for future full-time work (Kauhanen, 2003).

2.4.6 Consequences of self-employment on quality of work

Working on a self-employed capacity can also impact quality of work. This section reviews quality of work

Figure 2.27: Quality of work for self-employed and all workers, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: Includes who answered agree or strongly agree to the question 77c: My job offers good prospects for career advancement; agree or strongly agree to the question 77f: If I were to lose or quit my current job, it would be easy for me to find a job of similar; well or very well to the question 41: In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work; very well, well, not very well or not at all well?; not difficult at all or not too difficult to the question 43: Would you say that for you arranging to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters is ...?; most of the time or sometimes to the question 51g: You have enough time to get the job done; always or most of the time to the question 51n: You experience stress in your work; yes to the question 66: Do you think your health or safety is at risk because of your work?; my present skills correspond well with my duties to the question 60: Which of the following alternatives would best describe your skills in your own work?; yes to the question 61a: Training paid for or provided by your employer or by yourself if self-employed.



within self-employment with the four following pillars: career and employment security; work-life balance; health and well-being; and skills development.

Perspectives for advancement among self-employed workers are higher than for workers overall, with an 8 percentage points increase for self-employed women (from 26 % of overall women workers to 34 %) and a 5 percentage points increase for self-employed men (from 32 % of overall men workers to 37 %). Although the practical nature of advancement is bound to be different between self-employment and being an employee, it appears that the former offers greater opportunities for development. There is, however, only a marginal difference between self-employed and overall workers, as well as between women and men: 29 % of self-employed workers feel that it would be easy to find a job paying a similar salary should they need it.

Work-life balance is a particularly pertinent aspect of quality of work in the context of self-employment, since it is often cited as an important motivational factor. For example, choice in terms of the place and time of working is one of the main reasons people give for starting their own business in the EU Member States (Eurobarometer, 2009). However, data does not support the fact that self-employment affords greater work-life balance. Self-employed women are slightly less likely (81 %) to feel that there is a good fit between their working hours and their life compared with overall women workers (83 %). The difference is, however, much larger for men in self-employment with 74 % reporting a good fit compared with 79 % of overall men workers. A possible explanation resides in the greater number of hours involved in self-employment, particularly given that, on the contrary, self-employed workers are much more likely not to find it difficult to take a couple of hours off to deal with a personal or family matters. There is, for both women and men, a percentage point difference of 15 percentage points: 78 % of women in self-employment and 82 % of men in self-employment can take a couple of hours off to deal with personal or family matters without difficulty (compared with 63 % and 67 % respectively for women workers and men workers). If self-employment does not appear to improve overall work-life balance, however, the data

suggests that it provides much more flexibility in terms of working time.

This flexibility is reflecting in the extent to which self-employed workers feel that they have sufficient time to get their work done, with both women and men being better off in self-employment than overall workers in this respect. Self-employed women appear to be the ones benefiting most, with an 11 percentage points difference: 87 % of self-employed women feel they have enough time to get their job done compared with 76 % of overall women workers. For men, these figures go from 82 % in self-employment to 76 % in overall work. This coincides with stress that is not only higher for self-employed men than self-employed women but is also higher than for men in overall work. There is a 7 percentage points difference between self-employed men (32 %) and overall men workers (25 %). At the same time, 32 % of self-employed men experience stress compared with 27 % of self-employed women. If self-employment is more stressful for men than overall work, this is not shared by women where the difference between the two is marginal (27 % for self-employed women and 26 % for overall women workers). On a final note, there are few differences between the level of health and safety risks perceived by women and men in self-employment and in overall work, with men having higher perceptions of these risks than women. In self-employment, 33 % of men and 23 % of women report such as risk, compared with 31 % of overall men workers and 21 % of overall women workers.

There is a slight decrease in terms of how skills fit between self-employment and overall work, with few differences between women and men. Among the self-employed, 54 % of women and 52 % of men find that their skills fit in well with their current duties. This is slightly higher among overall workers with 57 % of women and 54 % of men. Finally, self-employed people are less likely to avail of training compared to overall workers, without significant differences between women and men. In self-employment, 23 % of women and 21 % of men avail of training compared with approximately a third of overall workers (33 % of women and 32 % of men). Having to pay for training themselves, instead of having it paid by their employers, is a possible explanation for this drop in training.

2.5 Income and earnings

Equal access to economic and financial resources is very important for a number of economic outcomes, including poverty reduction and social inclusion. Long-term inequalities in the gender distribution of economic and financial resources have placed women at a disadvantage relative to

men in terms of their ability to participate in the broader processes of economic development. This disadvantage tends to initially take place in access to pay and income, which translates into different circumstances in terms of poverty and income distributions in society.

Figure 2.28: Gender Pay Gap in EU-28 Member States, 2011

Source: Eurostat, SES (earn_gr_gpgr2), extracted on 13 January 2014.

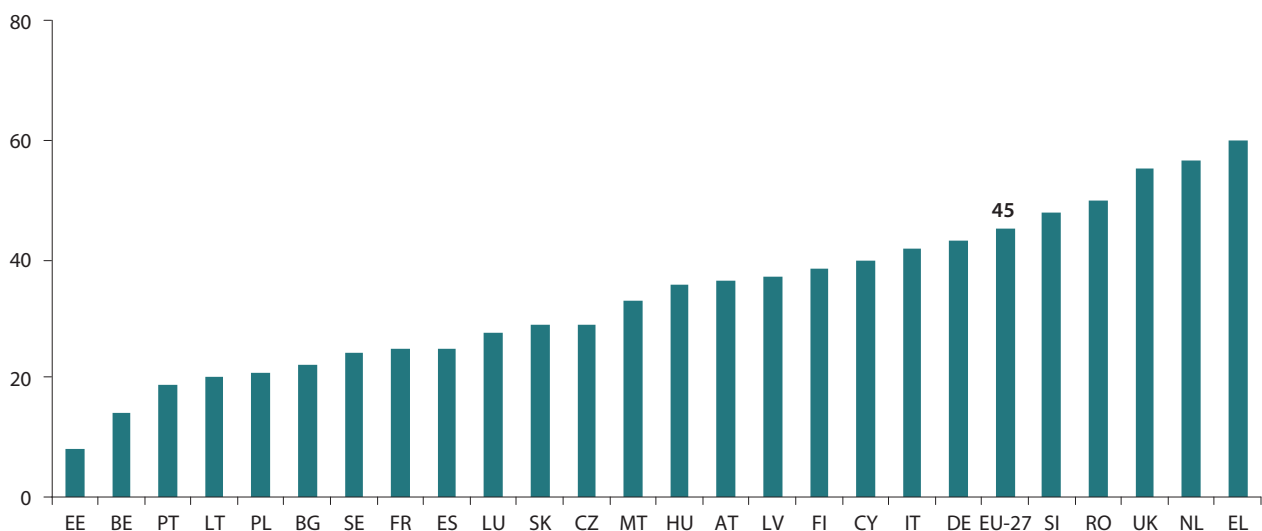
Note: Gender Pay Gap represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees; data for IE and EL from year 2010.

2.5.1 Earnings

At the heart of gender differences in economic independence is the gender pay gap, largely caused by a combination of educational and labour market segregation, part-time work, career interruptions and greater demands on time for domestic and care activities. It is calculated as the proportion that women earn in gross hourly earnings compared with men. On average, women in the EU earned around 16 % less

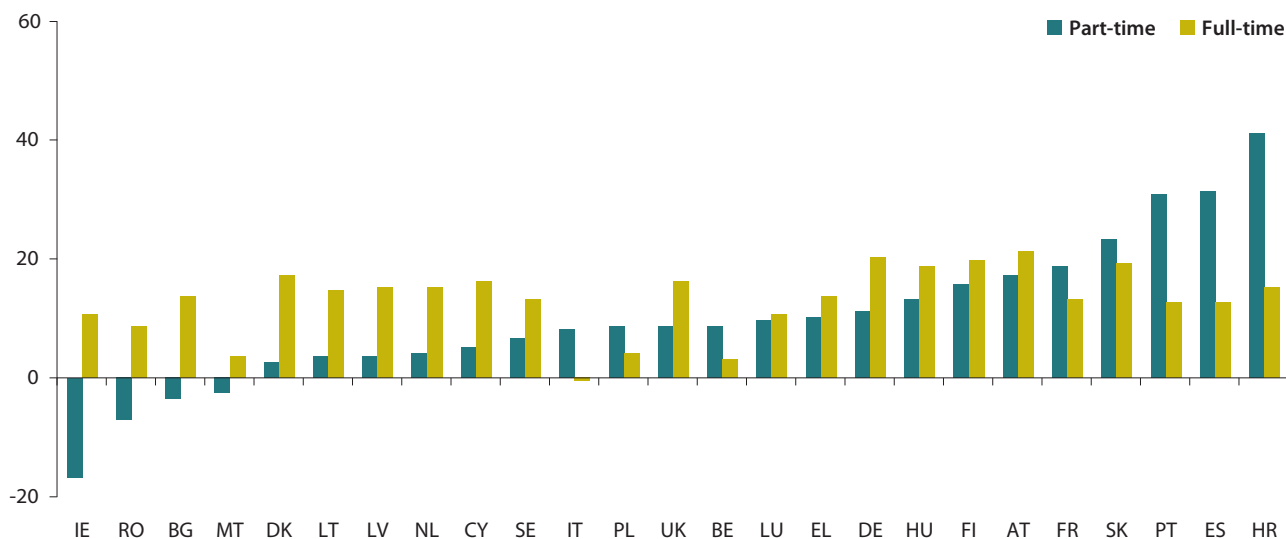
per hour than men in 2011. The highest gap in earnings are in Estonia (27 %) and Austria (24 %) while they are most equal in Slovenia, where women earn 2 % less per hour than men.

Gender gaps in earnings from self-employment are wider than those observed for employees working in paid employment. In 2011, the average gender gap in gross annual median earnings for the EU-28 was 45 %, compared to 30 % for employees. Self-employed women earn significantly less than self-employed men in all Member States, with the gender pay

Figure 2.29: Gender Gap in gross annual median earnings of self-employed by Member States, 2011

Source: Calculations based on Eurostat microdata, EU-SILC (PY050G).

Note: DK and IE are not available because of low number of observations, HR data are not available.

**Figure 2.30: Gender Pay Gap by type of working time (full-time/part-time) in EU-28 Member States, 2011**

Source: Eurostat, SES (earn_gr_gpgr2wt), extracted on 13 January 2014.

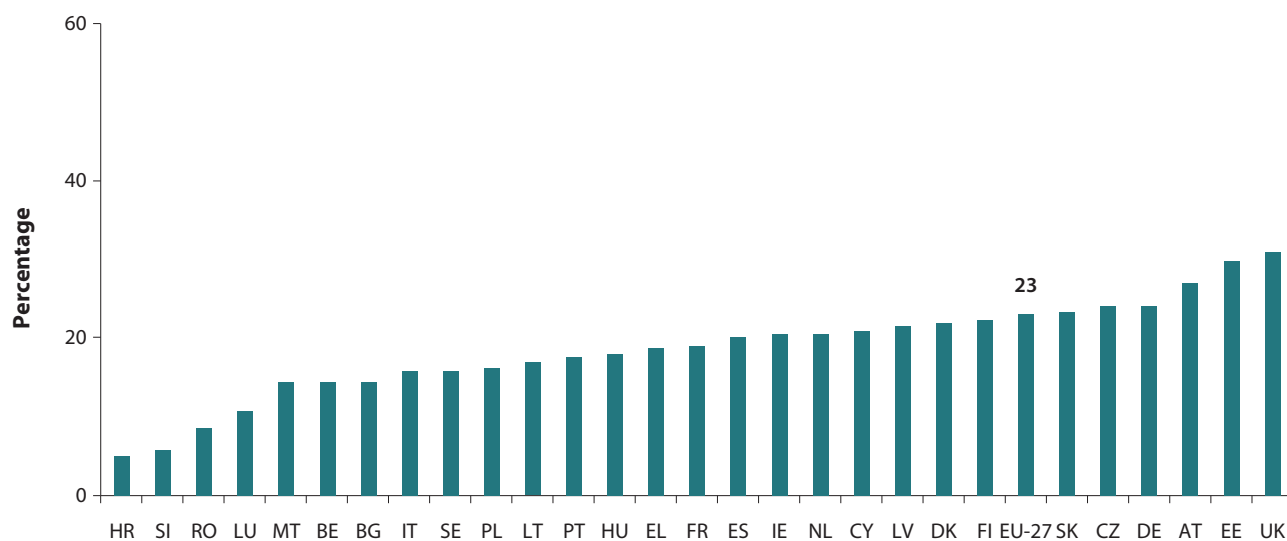
Note: Gender Pay Gap represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees; data for IE, EL, FR, HR, CY, LU, AT, RO, FI from year 2010; data are not available for CZ, EE, SI.

gap ranging from 8 % in Estonia to 60 % in Greece (Figure 2.20). The gender gap in self-employment earnings is likely to be narrower when calculated on the basis of earnings per hour worked, as self-employed women tend to work fewer hours than men.

Lower earnings among self-employed women can be linked to a number of reasons, including low-growth propensity and thus smaller businesses, segregation and operating in less profitable sectors, greater proportions of ‘bogus’

self-employment, unequal share of time and activities related to care as well as different starting points in terms of social and human capital. On average, women-owned enterprises register lower profits and labour productivity than men-owned enterprises. This is mainly due to the size of the enterprise, the levels of capital, and the more limited access to external finance and productive resources (OECD, 2012).

The 2011 gender pay gap for full-time and part-time work is not available for all Member States nor the EU-28 average.

Figure 2.31: Gender gap in mean annual earnings by Member States, 2010

Source: Calculations based on Eurostat, SES (earn_ses10_28), extracted on 16 January 2014.

Note: Gender Pay Gap represents the difference between mean annual earnings of men and of women as a percentage of men’s mean annual earnings.

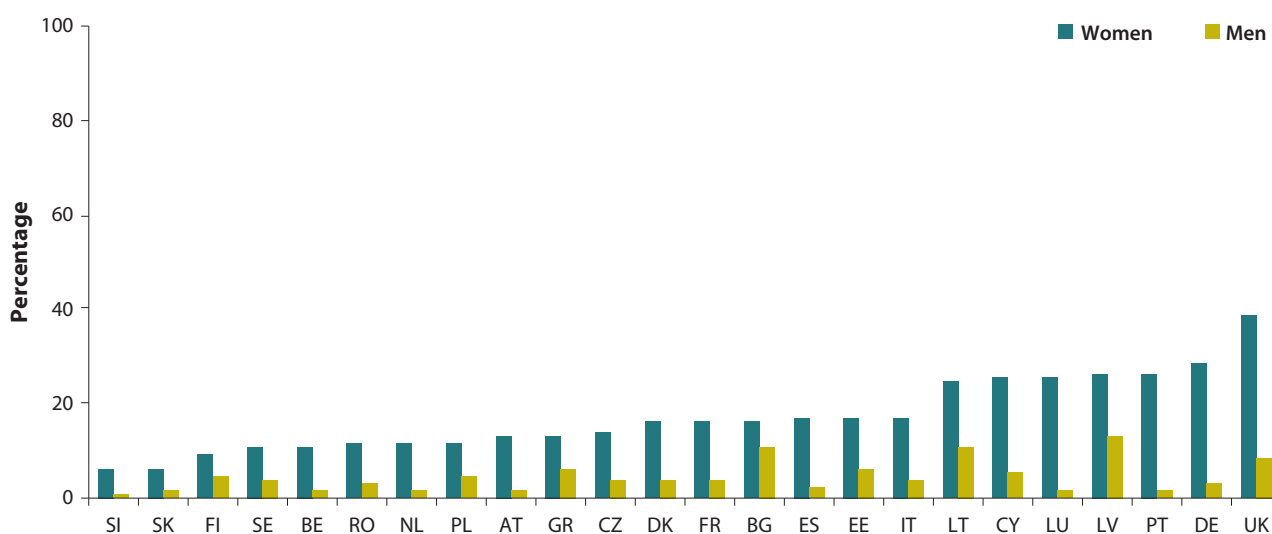
For those Member States where data were available, the gender pay gap for part-time workers showed substantial differences across Member States: this ranged from a negative pay gap recorded in four EU Member States: Ireland (-17 %), Romania (-7 %), Bulgaria (-4 %) and Malta (-2 %), to a high positive pay gap in Portugal (31 %), Spain (32 %) and Croatia (41 %) (Figure 2.30). For full-time workers, gender pay gaps also varied widely across EU-28 Member States: the highest gender pay gap is observed in Germany (20 %) and Austria (22 %), while no pay gap is recorded in Italy.

It is difficult to assess the income of self-employed individuals, because income data are less reliable for self-employed than for employed people, due to under-reporting and also to income fluctuations from one year to another. Nevertheless, available data show substantial gender gaps in earnings from self-employment, as well as higher in-work poverty risks for self-employed people and family workers.

Differences between women and men in hours worked make a comparison in yearly earnings a very relevant topic. In 2010, on average in the EU-27, women earned EUR 26 513 and men EUR 34 495 per annum. This represents a 23 % gap in earnings, compared with only 16 % when this is calculated on an hourly basis (7 percentage points lower). Differences between the two measures are highest in Italy (10 percentage points) as well as in Poland and the United Kingdom (12 percentage points).

Low pay, defined as pay that falls below two-thirds of the median wage of the overall wage distribution, affected approximately 12 % of part-time workers in 2011 in the EU, with women more likely than men in all Member States to fall below this threshold. The highest proportions of women in low pay are found in Germany (29 %) and the United Kingdom (39 %); the highest proportions of men below the low pay threshold are found in Bulgaria (11 %), Lithuania (11 %) and Latvia (13 %). The percentage of part-time workers below the low pay threshold is higher for women than for men in all Member States.

Figure 2.32: Incidence of low pay among part-time workers by sex (15-64) in Member States, 2011



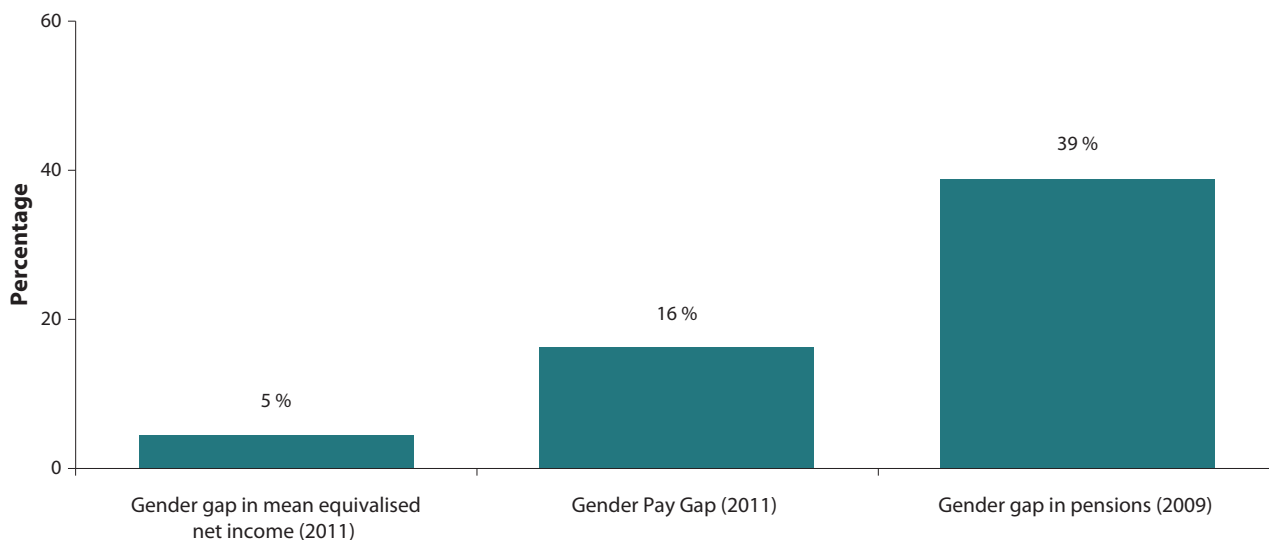
Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC microdata.

Note: Low pay rates are estimated for the whole population. The low pay threshold is set at two thirds of the median wage of the overall wage distribution. The two thirds threshold is derived from the median calculated over the whole population. For IE, HR, HU, MT data are not available.

It is not just low pay, per se, that is reported to be of concern; it is the effects of low pay in terms of in-work poverty that also need to be examined. In this context, the characteristics of those workers who are more likely to be working for low pay are a key factor. Low pay is generally highly concentrated not just in particular sectors of the economy, but among particular types of worker, such as: people with low levels of education; people working part-time; non-nationals; women; and young people.

2.5.2 Income

Women tend to have lower **mean equivalised net income** than men (Figure 5.27 in Annex III). In 2011 the mean equivalised net income for men, on average in the EU was EUR 17 409 for men and EUR 16 621 for women per annum. However, this indicator is likely to underestimate the true extent of the gender gap in overall income, as it assumes that income is equally shared among household members, ignoring gender norms and power relations that may lead to inequalities.

Figure 2.33: Gender gap in income, earnings and pension

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_di03), SES (earn_gr_gpgr2), extracted on 13 January 2014; report: The Gender Gap in Pensions in the EU, European Commission 2013.

Note: Gender gap in mean equivalised net income is calculated as difference between women and men income as percentage of men income. Gender Pay Gap represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. Gender gap in pensions is calculated as difference in pensions between women and men excluding zero pensions.

The consequence of lower earnings and income over a lifetime leads to a large gender gap in pensions. It is a very pertinent aspect to examine from a gender equality perspective, given that the gender pension gap has been estimated to stand at 39 % on average in the EU-27, with in some Member States up to a third of women that have no pension. The two largest figures can be found in Luxembourg (47 %) and Germany (44 %) although there is a relatively small gap in Slovakia (8 %) and Estonia (4 %). Pension levels are linked to human and social capital, which affects the extent to which women and men are able to build up their pensions. Despite historical differences between women and men in educational attainment, differences should start disappearing over time. The most striking differences that drive down the levels of women's pensions are strongly related to gender patterns of inequalities. They include the effects of interrupted careers, self-employment, being married and what is termed the 'motherhood penalty' which shows that gender gaps in pensions tend to increase with the number of children (EC, 2013c).

The median net equivalised income was EUR 4 167 lower for the self-employed than that for employees per annum on average in the EU-28 in 2012. The poverty rate was slightly higher for self-employed men (24 %) than for self-employed women (22 %). However, a comparison based on equivalised income is difficult to make since this indicator is calculated on household level and assumes that income is equally shared among household members. This causes serious concerns since this indicator is likely to underestimate the true extent of the gender gap in overall income.

Self-employed people are entitled to (or in some instances required to) contribute to the state pension system however, insuring themselves against periods of unemployment or sickness is often optional for self-employed people, and they may opt to make lower contributions with lower levels of protection compared to employees (EEO, 2010). For self-employed women, this lack of social protection is especially penalising in relation to maternity leave benefits, which even if available cannot always be implemented because of the necessity to ensure business continuity.

2.5.3 Poverty

Gender disparities in earnings and income are important to analyse because they are closely related to the risks faced by individuals in terms of being at risk of poverty and social exclusion, itself an important focus of the Europe 2020 Strategy. Although being in employment is an effective way for people to protect themselves against the risk of poverty and social exclusion, it is not always a sufficient condition to ensure an escape from poverty. People who are 'in-work at-risk-of-poverty' are defined as those individuals, in either part-time or full-time employment, who have been working during the reference period, and whose household equivalised disposable income is below 60 % of the median of their country's income distribution.

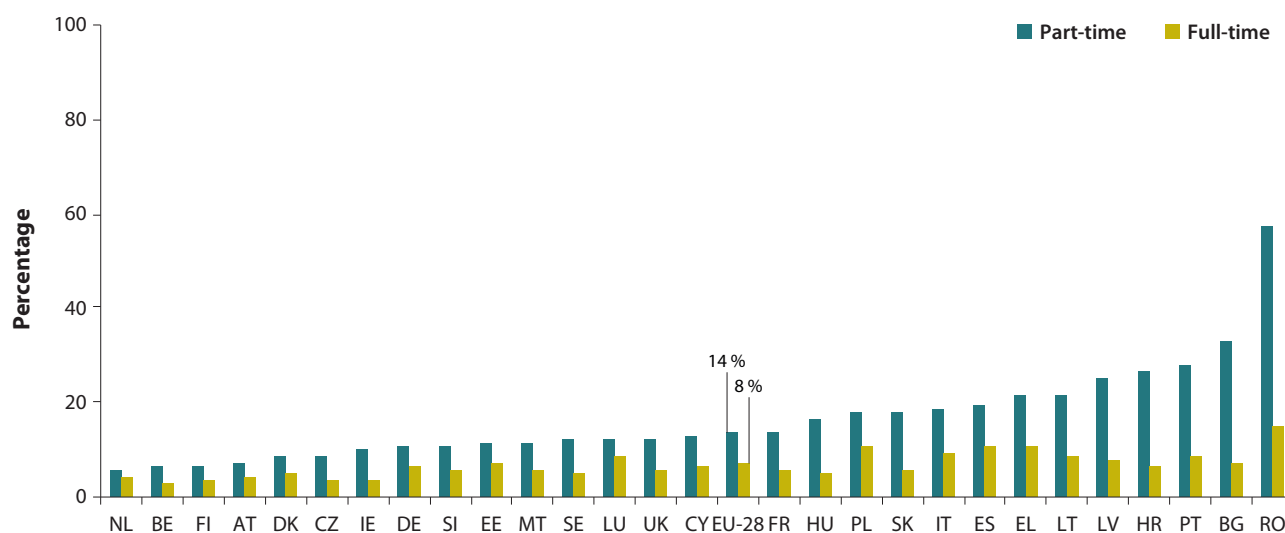
In 2012, the in-work poverty rate in the EU-28 was similar for women (9 %) and men (10 %) (Figure 5.28 in Annex III). The

higher poverty risks among men compared to women may be explained by the fact that in-work poverty indicator is influenced by household characteristics and thus do not fully reflect the individual economic situation of women and men. Since women are often secondary earners, they will not be counted as being at-risk-of-poverty if they belong to a household where the primary worker (typically a partner) brings the total household income above the threshold of the indicator. Nevertheless, their poverty risk is potentially higher than that resulting from household-based data as they face a high risk of poverty in the event of break-up, divorce or death of their partner.

In-work poverty is most frequently associated with single-earner households and low number of working hours,

as well as with temporary work and part-time employment. Among part-time workers, women are more likely to be adversely affected. On average, for the EU-28, the share of part-time workers in-work at-risk-of-poverty is almost double the proportion of individual full-time workers who are in-work at-risk-of-poverty. There are also significant differences between countries in terms of the proportions of in-work poverty for part-time workers: the figures range from the lowest proportion in the Netherlands (5 %), followed by Belgium, Finland and Austria (all below 8 %), through to the highest proportions in Bulgaria (33 %) and Romania (58 %). The considerable variation between Member States depends largely on the effectiveness of each country's welfare support policies in redistributing income (Horemans and Marx 2012).

Figure 2.34: In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate for full-time and for part-time workers (18+) in EU-28, 2011



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (), extracted on 13 January 2014.

Note: The in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate, is defined as the share of the population in work (according to the definition of the most frequent activity status) aged 18 or over with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers.

Poverty is also more common among self-employed workers as their income is smaller compared with employees (EEO, 2010). In 2012, the at-risk-of poverty rate for self-employed and family workers stood at 23 %, which was more than three times as much as the at-risk-of-poverty rate for employees (7 %) on average in the EU-28. Income measurements are not very effective indicators of living conditions among the self-employed compared with employees. This is because they tend to underestimate certain factors that contribute to household income such as benefits in kind, and in addition, do not account for possible under-reporting of income to the tax authorities, which is more widespread among self-employed people and can partly explain their ability to live on a relatively low income. Indeed, Fusco *et al.* (2009) show that self-employed people tend

to present a higher risk of poverty but a lower material deprivation. Thus, for countries where a large proportion of the population is self-employed, or where benefits in kind are frequent, or where the role of the informal economy is important, an approach based on an absolute poverty threshold that is based on household consumption rather than income, may be more effective in measuring poverty risks for self-employed people (Carvalho and White 1997).

Nevertheless, in some countries, self-employment acts as a form of under-employment in which individuals work but do not earn enough to keep the household above the poverty line. Unpaid family workers, who are mainly women in the agricultural sector, or dependent self-employed, are at particular risk of poverty (Blanchflower, 2000). They often face



increased risks of social exclusion in the long term, particularly as in many Member States, self-employed people are not eligible for the same social security coverage as employees.

More broadly in society, differences in earnings and income also matter in terms of income distribution. The income distribution indicator S80/S20, compares incomes for the wealthiest 20 % (quintile) of adults with the poorest 20 % (quintile) of adults. On average across the EU-28,

the distribution of income is marginally more equal among women than among men in 2012 with the wealthiest 20 % of women received 5 times the income of the poorest 20 % of women compared with a figure of 5.2 times for men. Across Member States, women's income distribution in 2012 ranged from only 3.5 in the Czech Republic and Slovenia to as much as 6.9 times in Spain. The range is wider for men, starting from 3.4 in Slovenia and 3.5 in the Czech Republic to 7.4 in Spain (Figure 5.29 in Annex III).

2.6 Summary

Women's participation in the labour market and women's economic independence are necessary not only to improve gender equality and women's well-being and autonomy, but also to foster economic growth. Women's economic independence can be achieved through improved access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources. The elimination of structural gender inequalities in the labour market and patterns of inequality in gender relations within households, including more equal share of unpaid care work, is crucial for social change.

Women's activity rate increased steadily between 2008 and 2012, but did not result in an increase in employment rates. At the same time there has been a decline in men's employment leading to convergence between employment rates of women and men and higher unemployment rates for both women and men. The severity and persistence of the economic crisis has substantially increased the average duration of unemployment as well as high levels of youth unemployment.

The Gender Pay Gap (GPG) still remains high in the EU-28 and represents a significant factor leading to women's lower economic independence compared with men over the life course. This is reflected in pension gender gaps and a higher poverty risk for women.

Part-time employment, mainly involuntary, has increased for both women and men over the 2008-2012 period. Despite important differences in the prevalence of overall part-time work across EU Member States, women without exception represent a large majority of those working on a part-time basis. Around one in three women workers in EU-28 were employed part-time in 2012. A life course perspective of part-time work shows an uneven distribution of working hours at different stages. Many European women and men work part-time at some point in their life: part-time work is concentrated at the beginning and at the end of men's working lives while women tend to work part-time at all stages of their lives.

There are diverse reasons for working on a part-time basis, some of which include involuntary aspects. Men aged 25-49 claim more often than women that they choose to work part-time because full-time employment options are not available. Women of the same age group are much more likely to indicate working on part-time basis is because of care and other family responsibilities. These findings provide an important indication of the norms and expectations attributed to women and men and how these impact on their participation on the labour market.

As regards transitions from part-time to full-time jobs, men are much more likely to move to full-time jobs than women. However, due to prevailing segregation, men find it more difficult to transit between part-time and full-time employment in the same sector and/or occupation.

There are widespread concerns that there may be a quantity-quality trade-off in terms of employment, especially for part-time jobs. However, the data suggests that working on a part-time basis actually offers a number of benefits mostly linked to work-life balance and health and well-being. There is a tendency for part-time workers to report a better fit between work and life, greater opportunities to take a couple of hours off if needed to deal with a family or personal matter, less intensity in work with more time to get the job done, less stress and fewer health and safety risks at work. However, training is less often availed of in part-time work.

In terms of work-life balance, women often resort to atypical work and self-employment as a means to better balance work and life. This represents a compromise with significant disadvantages, as atypical employment and self-employment are less likely to provide career progression and adequate income and pensions. The incidence of low pay among part-time jobs is, on average, double for women compared to men. The share of part-time workers in-work at-risk-of-poverty is almost double compared to individuals working full-time.

Recent academic and policy debate has focused on whether part-time employment is a solution or a trap for

women, especially in circumstances where people working in part-time employment cannot move to full-time employment when the life course allows or requires a change in working hours. Involuntary part-time work, where employees who would prefer to full-time work are only offered part-time work, is also an issue of concern, especially since it has registered a general upward trend during the economic crisis.

By taking into consideration the number of hours worked, the full-time equivalent employment rate (FTE) offers a more realistic picture of gender differences in labour market participation than the headcount employment rate. FTE takes into account the high incidence of part-time employment among women and provides a better measure to estimate the gender gap in employment. It also helps to better capture the actual contribution of labour to economic growth. More part-time employment in the period of 2008-2012 led to a substantial decline in the FTE rates: these showed larger decreases in employment compared with the traditional employment rates.

Despite important and encouraging advances towards equality between women and men across European labour markets in the last several decades, significant gender gaps still persist throughout the EU. The target of Europe 2020 of 75 % for the employment rate of both women and men aged 20 and 64 raises a big challenge for the Member States in the field of employment and social cohesion in the nearest future. As women are much more likely to work on a part-time basis than men, their FTE participation rate stands at only 50 % on average in the EU-28 in 2012 (compared with 59 % for the headcount employment rate),

well below the Europe 2020 target of 75 %. For men, the situation improves as the headcount employment rates is just shy of the 75 % target, while in FTE this drops only by 3 percentage points to 72 %.

Self-employment rates have been increasing in the EU-28 for both women and men. Even though across the EU there are wide country differences in the proportions of self-employed, women are less likely than men to be self-employed in all Member States. They mainly work on their own account, without employees and in the low income service sectors that are more labour intensive and less profitable.

Self-employed women and men without employees report better opportunities for work-life balance relative to full-time employees. More women than men tend to choose self-employment for the greater autonomy and flexibility of working hours which it allows. Self-employment is therefore considered as an alternative to part-time employment: they both increase women's participation in the labour market. However, self-employment can also be associated with long working hours, fewer opportunities for training and career progression. Self-employed workers in many countries are not eligible for social security benefits, including maternity benefits. The new EU directive on self-employed workers and on assisting for spouses is expected to partly address these challenges. Finally, self-employment is also associated with a bigger gender gap in earnings and greater risk of poverty relative to salaried employees. Income data for the self-employed are however less reliable than those for employees due both to under-reporting and to income fluctuations from one year to another.

3 Proposed indicators



3 Proposed indicators

Since 1999, the EU has identified 17 indicators for measuring the integration of women in the economy. In 2000, the Council took a note on nine indicators on work-life balance proposed by the French Presidency, which were then reduced to seven in the 2008 review by the same French Presidency. In 2010, a further ten indicators on the gender pay gap were proposed by the Belgium Presidency and endorsed by the Council. In 2011, during the Polish Presidency, a report reviewing the progress made in the area F 'Women and the Economy', with an emphasis on the reconciliation of work and family life was prepared. The report reviewed the developments and indicators in that area.

Building upon these 17 indicators, an additional set of indicators and sub-indicators is presented below to address the first strategic objective of the BPfA in the area of Women and the Economy, F.1 'Promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources'. Indicators 18, 19 and 20 focus on full-time equivalent employment, part-time employment and self-employment.

Indicator 18: Full-time equivalent employment rate for women and men by age groups (15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54, 55-64)

Concept: Employment can be measured in terms of the number of persons or jobs, in terms of full-time equivalent employment or in hours worked. The Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours worked by a

full-time worker. A full-time worker is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours she or he works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE.

One key target of the Europe 2020 Strategy is that 75 % of 20-64 years olds should participate in the labour force. As discussed in Chapter 3.2, comparing the two employment indicators to this target is very pertinent from a gender equality perspective since men are less likely to be employed on part-time basis.

The FTE employment rate is preferable to the standard headcount employment rate because it takes into consideration the heterogeneity of working hours among employed people, which is particularly relevant when addressing gender gaps in employment rates.

The indicator is calculated by sex for the following age groups: 15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54 and 55-64. The 20-64 age group is included in order to allow comparison with the Europe 2020 target.

Data source: The calculation of the indicator is based on data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) ⁽¹²⁾, coordinated by Eurostat.

Data overview: The full-time equivalent employment rate was consistently higher for men than for women in all Member States in 2012 for both age groups: 15-64 and 20-64. Regardless of the age group taken, FTE employment rates are significantly higher for men than for women. In 2012 the FTE employment rate for women in the EU-28 was equal to 50 % for the employed population aged 15-64, compared to 67 % for men. FTE employment rates are lowest for the age group 15-24, with 24 % among women and 30 % among men. It then rises significantly for those aged 25-54, with FTE employment rates of 62 % for women and 82 % for men. However, for those aged 55-64 FTE employment rates drop sharply to 34 % for women and 53 % for men.

Table 3.1: Full-time equivalent employment rate by sex and age, EU-28, 2012

	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	47.3	65.1	55.8	51.5	70.9	60.7	18.7	26.0	22.3	62.6	83.1	72.3	24.3	42.8	33.2
BG	55.7	60.8	58.2	59.5	65.2	62.4	18.3	24.4	21.5	71.2	73.8	72.5	40.5	50.2	45.1
CZ	56.3	74.3	65.4	60.5	79.9	70.3	19.4	28.2	23.9	72.7	91.0	82.0	36.8	59.4	47.7
DK	59.7	69.4	64.2	64.3	75.0	69.3	27.9	34.3	31.0	72.9	82.7	77.3	49.6	63.6	56.4
DE	52.4	74.0	63.0	55.2	78.3	66.4	36.6	42.9	39.9	60.4	85.3	72.4	40.4	64.4	51.9
EE	61.8	68.9	65.2	66.2	74.4	70.1	29.0	32.7	30.9	72.7	82.6	77.5	57.5	58.8	58.0
IE	46.1	59.0	52.0	50.0	64.5	56.7	21.7	20.1	20.9	55.6	71.5	62.9	32.6	52.3	41.9
EL	39.6	59.6	49.6	42.7	64.2	53.4	8.8	14.9	11.9	51.0	72.8	62.0	24.3	47.2	35.4
ES	44.6	58.6	51.5	47.7	62.8	55.1	13.5	15.5	14.5	54.4	69.6	61.9	31.9	51.6	41.4
FR	53.7	66.4	59.6	58.2	72.1	64.6	22.7	29.5	26.1	68.8	84.5	76.1	35.5	45.1	39.9
HR	44.6	54.3	49.4	48.5	59.6	54.0	12.9	19.3	16.4	63.8	71.2	67.5	25.8	44.9	34.8
IT	41.1	64.7	52.6	44.0	69.7	56.5	11.9	20.1	16.1	51.5	79.8	65.2	28.1	48.7	37.9
CY	55.5	68.5	61.6	60.6	74.1	67.1	23.0	28.3	25.4	69.6	81.5	75.2	35.2	61.5	48.2
LV	60.2	63.5	61.7	64.7	69.2	66.8	23.4	30.3	27.0	73.8	77.2	75.4	50.2	51.7	50.8
LT	60.3	61.6	60.9	66.2	68.5	67.3	18.5	21.5	20.0	77.8	77.5	77.6	46.4	54.9	50.1
LU	50.7	71.2	60.6	55.1	77.3	65.9	17.7	21.5	19.6	64.7	90.1	77.0	27.6	45.9	36.7
HU	50.6	62.0	56.2	54.8	67.5	61.0	16.2	19.5	17.9	67.2	80.0	73.6	30.5	41.5	35.4
MT	39.8	72.5	56.2	42.5	78.5	60.5	36.4	42.2	39.4	49.9	90.1	70.0	14.1	49.9	31.7
NL	45.3	70.9	57.4	48.1	76.1	61.3	31.3	35.4	33.1	54.4	84.8	68.7	29.6	60.8	44.9
AT	53.4	75.6	63.9	55.6	78.7	66.5	42.3	54.8	48.5	64.5	88.1	75.6	24.5	49.2	36.4
PL	51.5	66.5	58.9	55.8	72.4	64.0	17.9	27.7	22.9	70.2	84.0	77.1	26.7	48.1	36.7
PT	54.7	62.9	58.7	58.8	67.8	63.3	19.0	23.3	21.2	68.7	77.1	72.9	35.8	46.8	41.0
RO	51.1	65.4	58.3	54.8	70.4	62.5	18.9	25.7	22.4	66.5	81.0	73.8	30.7	49.8	39.6
SI	57.6	66.5	62.1	61.6	71.0	66.4	17.4	26.0	21.9	78.7	85.6	82.2	22.5	39.0	30.8
SK	51.5	65.9	58.7	56.0	71.9	64.0	15.1	23.4	19.4	68.2	82.2	75.3	32.4	52.7	42.0
FI	62.9	68.0	65.3	67.8	73.4	70.4	31.3	34.4	32.6	76.1	83.7	79.8	54.3	52.5	53.3
SE	63.7	72.9	67.9	69.1	79.5	73.9	29.0	32.4	30.6	75.8	86.5	80.6	61.3	73.0	66.9
UK	51.4	70.8	60.5	54.8	76.2	64.9	33.8	38.3	36.0	60.6	84.0	71.6	37.6	59.1	47.8
EU-28	50.0	67.2	58.4	53.5	72.3	62.6	23.9	30.1	27.0	61.8	81.5	71.4	34.3	53.4	43.4
EU-27	50.0	67.3	58.4	53.6	72.4	62.7	24.0	30.2	27.1	61.8	81.6	71.4	34.4	53.5	43.5

Source: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 10 December 2013.

Note: Data for years 2008-2011 are available in the table 5.3 in Annex III.

Published: Data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 10/12/2013.

Indicator 19. Part-time employment as percentage of total employment for women and men by age groups (15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54, 55-64)

Concept: This indicator provides information on the participation of women and men in part-time work as a percentage of total employment. It is calculated by dividing

the number of part-time workers by the total number of employed persons. Employed persons are individuals aged 15 and over who perform work, even for just one hour per week, for pay, profit or family gain during the reference week or are not at work but have a job or business from which they are temporarily absent because of, for instance, illness, holidays, industrial dispute, and education or training (Eurostat, LFS). The distinction between full-time and part-time work is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent. Establishing a more exact distinction between part-time and full-time work on the basis of working hours is impossible, due to differences across Member States and by branches of industry (as well as in the private vs the public sector) in the number of hours, used to define a part-time job by law or in collective agreements. The indicator is calculated by sex for the following age groups: 15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54 and 55-64. It is an important indicator

as it captures one of the main differences in labour force participation between women and men.

Data source: The calculation of the indicator is based on data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) ⁽¹³⁾, coordinated by Eurostat.

Data overview: The data show that the EU-28 average share of part-time work for women is 32 %, much higher than the one for men (8 %) in the age group 15-64. The highest share of part-time workers is in the Netherlands with 77 % of women and 25 % of men working on a part-time basis. On the other side of the spectrum, Bulgaria represents the lowest

share, with 3 % of women and 2 % of men. The age group of 15-24 is most likely to work on a part-time basis. The percentage of women aged 15 to 24 working on a part-time basis is 40 % compared with 32 % of women aged 15 to 64. The difference for young men is much wider: 24 % of men aged 15 to 24 work on a part-time basis compared with 8 % of men aged 15 to 64. Denmark and the Netherlands have rates of part-time work among young people above 75 % for women and above 55 % for men, while Bulgaria and Croatia have the lowest incidence of young part-time workers. Data for the other age groups confirm that part-time employment is more common at the beginning and at the end of the working life, especially in the case of men.

Table 3.2: Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment by sex and age, EU-28, 2012

MS	15-64			20-64			15-24			25-54			55-64		
	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	43.5	9.0	24.7	43.3	8.7	24.5	39.2	14.7	25.6	42.2	7.1	23.3	55.7	17.3	33.6
BG	2.5	2.0	2.2	2.5	2.0	2.2	5.0	3.6	4.2	2.0	1.7	1.8	4.2	2.6	3.3
CZ	8.6	2.2	5.0	8.5	2.1	4.9	14.6	6.7	9.9	7.4	1.3	3.9	13.1	4.8	8.2
DK	35.8	14.8	24.8	31.9	10.9	20.9	75.2	55.1	65.0	27.8	7.6	17.3	33.3	10.0	20.7
DE	45.0	9.1	25.7	45.4	8.7	25.7	27.4	16.8	21.7	46.3	7.5	25.5	50.6	11.0	29.0
EE	13.2	5.1	9.2	13.0	4.9	9.0	24.2	13.6	18.6	10.8	3.8	7.2	17.2	6.4	12.6
IE	34.9	13.3	23.5	34.0	12.5	22.6	52.2	43.7	48.2	30.8	9.9	19.8	47.5	15.3	29.3
EL	11.8	4.7	7.6	11.7	4.6	7.5	25.3	15.8	19.4	11.1	4.3	7.1	12.6	3.7	6.9
ES	24.4	6.5	14.6	24.3	6.3	14.5	45.1	26.7	35.6	23.6	5.6	13.9	21.0	4.6	11.5
FR	30.0	6.4	17.7	29.9	6.3	17.6	34.0	14.0	23.1	28.8	4.9	16.3	34.1	10.6	22.0
HR	7.5	5.2	6.3	7.5	5.2	6.2	7.4	4.5	5.6	6.0	3.9	4.9	14.8	10.1	12.0
IT	31.0	6.7	16.8	30.9	6.6	16.7	42.5	17.8	27.5	31.7	5.8	16.7	22.1	7.4	13.2
CY	13.1	6.4	9.7	12.8	6.3	9.4	22.3	15.4	18.8	11.9	5.2	8.5	15.7	8.1	11.0
LV	11.0	6.7	8.9	10.9	6.6	8.8	18.5	12.3	15.0	9.7	5.5	7.6	13.8	9.6	12.0
LT	10.7	6.9	8.9	10.6	6.9	8.8	19.1	12.3	15.4	9.4	6.1	7.8	13.8	8.6	11.3
LU	36.1	4.7	18.5	35.9	4.3	18.3	31.5	15.2	22.7	35.5	3.6	17.7	44.4	7.9	22.8
HU	9.3	4.3	6.6	9.3	4.3	6.6	13.4	6.7	9.7	8.1	3.5	5.6	14.8	8.3	11.4
MT	26.0	5.7	13.2	24.8	4.9	12.2	25.0	17.1	20.6	25.7	2.9	11.4	31.1	10.2	15.2
NL	76.9	24.9	49.2	75.4	20.8	46.2	85.3	68.1	76.7	74.2	15.4	43.0	80.7	26.6	49.2
AT	44.4	7.8	24.9	45.4	7.8	25.4	27.3	11.6	18.8	46.7	6.4	25.5	49.7	13.0	27.9
PL	10.6	4.5	7.2	10.3	4.1	6.9	23.1	12.6	16.7	8.1	2.8	5.2	20.2	9.0	13.5
PT	14.1	8.2	11.0	13.9	8.0	10.8	24.2	16.8	20.1	11.4	5.9	8.6	25.5	17.5	21.3
RO	9.7	8.6	9.1	9.3	8.3	8.8	17.2	18.2	17.8	7.6	7.1	7.3	19.6	12.0	15.2
SI	12.2	6.3	9.0	11.8	5.8	8.5	50.8	29.9	38.3	8.7	3.6	6.0	21.0	10.3	14.4
SK	5.5	2.8	4.0	5.4	2.8	3.9	9.9	5.6	7.3	4.8	2.3	3.4	8.2	4.1	5.8
FI	19.4	9.1	14.1	17.6	8.1	12.7	49.7	28.1	39.2	13.8	4.8	9.1	21.0	15.3	18.3
SE	38.6	12.5	25.0	37.2	11.5	23.8	62.4	34.4	48.5	34.2	8.8	20.9	40.0	14.1	26.4
UK	42.3	11.5	25.9	41.0	10.0	24.4	48.5	32.5	40.3	39.7	6.7	22.1	50.2	18.0	32.4
EU-28	31.9	8.4	19.2	31.4	7.8	18.6	39.8	23.5	31.0	30.2	6.1	17.2	36.4	11.4	22.5
EU-27	32.1	8.4	19.2	31.5	7.8	18.6	40.0	23.6	31.1	30.3	6.1	17.2	36.6	11.4	22.6

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_eppgacob), data extracted on 09 December 2013.

Note: Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL).



Published: The data are available in the Eurostat online database (lfsa_eppgacob: 'Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment, by sex, age and country of birth (%)' ⁽¹⁴⁾).

Note: Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries, except for the Netherlands, where part-time is determined on the basis of whether the usual hours worked are fewer than 35, while full-time — on the basis of whether the usual hours worked are 35 or more, and in Sweden where this criterion is applied to self-employed persons as well.

Sub-indicators for Indicator 19: part-time employment

Indicator 19 on part-time employment is complemented with six sub-indicators which need to be monitored in addressing gender differences in part-time work:

- gender differences among part-time workers;
- gender differences in the reasons for working part-time;
- sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time work for women and men;
- usual weekly working hours in part-time jobs;
- low pay share in part-time employment;
- gender differences in transitions between part-time and full-time jobs.

The sub-indicators are as follows:

A. Share of women part-time workers out of total part-time workers by age groups (15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54, 55-64);

B. Main reason for part-time employment for women and men (15-64);

C. Usual weekly working hours in part-time jobs for women and men (15+);

D. Low pay share in part-time employment for women and men (15-64);

E. Sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time employment for women and men (15-64);

F. Transition between part-time and full-time work for women and men (15+).

Concept: Sub-indicator A measures the percentage of women out of total part-time employment. This new sub-indicator is useful to underline the predominance of women in part-time work. The distribution of part-time work between women and men is a useful measure from a gender equality perspective since it provides information on the norms attached to the roles of women and men and how these relate to their participation in the labour force. From a policy perspective, the objective related to this sub-indicator is simple: parity in part-time work.

Sub-indicator B captures the main reasons that can lead to part-time work. In the Labour Force Survey, the main reason for part-time can be one the following ⁽¹⁵⁾:

- undergoing school education or training;
- own illness or disability;
- looking after children or incapacitated adults;
- other family or personal reasons;
- could not find a full-time job;
- other reasons.

While the survey originally includes six main reasons, the sub-indicator focuses on the reasons most likely to lead to involuntary part-time work and most relevant from the perspective of gender equality. This includes 'could not find a full-time job' and 'looking after children or incapacitated adults' together with 'other family or personal reasons'. The first category is already often used to capture involuntary part-time work. However, although caring activities can be understood as a choice as well as a constraint, in some circumstances they can also lead to involuntary part-time work. Parental responsibilities have a strong influence on the type of job sought, in particular because of social norms attributed to women. Part-time jobs are often chosen as a way to tackle difficulties in balancing work and family responsibilities. Furthermore, this reason may be indirectly related to involuntary part-time, particularly when childcare and other services for the household are lacking or are very expensive. In these cases, women are more likely than men to give up searching for a full-time job because of childcare and other family responsibilities attributed to them by societal norms.

Sub-indicator B is calculated by dividing the number of total part-time workers in the age group 15-64 by the following main reasons:

- respondents who report that they work part-time because they could not find a full-time job;

- respondents who report that they work part-time to look after children or incapacitated adults and other family or personal responsibilities.

Sub-indicator C measures the average weekly working hours in the main job on a part-time basis and persons working 10 hours or less. It covers all hours including extra hours, either paid or unpaid, which a person normally works.

The distinction between full-time and part-time work is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent. This sub-indicator has the advantage of being simple and parsimonious. It captures gender differences in 'micro' job (up to 10 hours per week) that might affect economic independence. The sub-indicator is presented by sex and for the age group 15 and over.

Sub-indicator D presents the low pay threshold, based on the same criteria used by several other international institutions (e.g. ILO, OECD, Eurostat), namely hourly wages falling below two thirds of the median of the overall wage distribution. The indicator is calculated by sex by dividing the number of part-time workers who fall below the low pay threshold by total part-time in the population aged 15-64. The share of low paid employment is particularly relevant when addressing the overall effects of the gender pay gap also combined with gender segregation.

Sub-indicator E measures sectoral and occupational differences between part-time and full-time employment for women and men. It has been calculated on the basis of the Duncan and Duncan Index of Dissimilarity (ID). This is calculated by taking the sum of the absolute differences, in each sectors (or occupations), between full-time and part-time employment. It can be interpreted as the percentage of employed workers that would need to change economic sector (or occupation) in order to obtain the same sectoral (or occupational) distribution between full-time and part-time employment. The Index of Dissimilarity (ID) is computed for sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time employment for both women and men aged 15 to 64. The sub-indicator is particularly relevant to monitor the theoretical transition an employee would have to make between full-time and part-time work.

Sub-indicator F measures the transition between full-time and part-time work. It measures the ability that women and men have to make transitions between full-time and part-time employment. This is an important aspect to measure in order to ensure that it is possible to move from one to the other, without remaining trapped.

Data source: The calculation of the sub-indicators is based on Labour Force Survey (LFS) ⁽¹⁶⁾ and Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) ⁽¹⁷⁾, coordinated by Eurostat.

Data overview: Women's propensity to work on a part-time basis, throughout all Member States, forms one of the strong structural characteristics of gender in the labour force. In the EU-28 on average in 2012, although women represented 46 % of those in employment, they accounted for 76 % of those working on a part-time basis and conversely only 38 % of those working full-time. At Member State level, women represented less than 60 % of part-time workers in Bulgaria, Croatia and Romania, but more than 80 % in Austria, Germany and Luxembourg.

In general, men working part-time are, on average, more likely to do so on an involuntary basis compared with women. At the EU-28 level, the percentage of women who have part-time jobs because they could not find a full-time occupation is 24 %, while it increases to 38 % for men. The share of part-time work due to personal and family responsibility is 44 % for women, whereas for men it represents only 11 %.

The average number of usual weekly hours in part-time work is 19.9 hours, broken down into 20.2 hours for women and 19.0 hours for men. The average number of weekly hours in part-time jobs for women is generally higher than those of men, particularly in Denmark (higher for women by 5.3 hours) or Sweden (by 4.4 hours). From all women who work part-time, 12 % work fewer than 10 hours, on average in the EU-28 compared with 17 % of men. However, women represent more than two-thirds (68 %) of those working in 'micro' jobs.

In all Member States, the percentage of part-time workers below the low pay threshold is higher for women than for men with the highest proportions of women below the low pay threshold found in Germany (29 %) and in the United Kingdom (39 %).

The Index of Dissimilarity (ID) shows important gender differences. For women, sectors in full-time and part-time employment are relatively similar, since only 10 % of women would need to change sectors in order to make the two sectoral distributions equal. This suggests that it is relatively easy for women to make the transition between full-time and part-time employment and remain employed in the same sector. For men, however, the ID is much higher, showing that 25 % of them would need to change sector. This suggests that sectors in which men are employed may be less prone to part-time working, resulting in men not being able to avail of part-time work while remaining in their sector of employment.

In terms of occupational differences, working on a full-time or part-time basis appears to have consequences for both women and men. Differences in occupations between full-time and part-time employment for women show that 19 % would need to switch to a different occupation to achieve the same occupational distribution. This is even more pronounced for men, as 27 % of them would need to

work in a different occupation if they decide to move from full-time to part-time employment. These data suggest that there is a difference in terms of occupational level for those that opt to work on a part-time basis, with men affected slightly more.

Taken together, sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time employment suggest that women seem to be able to work on a part-time basis within the same sector to some extent, although it is less possible to do so without changing occupational level. For men, the sub-indicator suggests that working on a part-time basis is more likely to result in them working in a different occupation and/or sector.

Labour transitions from part-time to full-time jobs and vice versa are very different for women and men. On average in the EU-28 Member States, men working on a part-time basis are much more likely to move to full-time jobs than women. In 2011, 29 % of men part-time employees moved to a full-time job, compared with only 13 % of women working part-time and only 2 % of men moved to part-time contract from a full-time contract, while this percentage was three times higher for women (7 %). This is in line with the data showing that although some young men (15-24) were working on a part-time basis, this proportion dropped significantly at a later stage. Comparatively, women's already higher part-time rate does not transition to a lower rate in later life as much as that of men's.

Table 3.3: Sub-indicator A: Share of women part-time workers out of total part-time workers by age groups (15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54, 55-64), 2012

MS	15-64	20-64	15-24	25-54	55-64
BE	80.3	80.8	67.9	83.7	70.2
BG	53.4	53.4	50.0	51.6	59.4
CZ	75.1	75.3	60.1	82.0	65.3
DK	69.0	72.7	57.1	77.2	74.0
DE	81.0	81.8	58.4	84.3	79.3
EE	72.2	72.5	61.2	73.2	78.7
IE	70.0	70.8	57.2	73.4	70.6
EL	63.2	63.7	49.8	64.4	66.4
ES	75.9	76.2	61.3	78.0	76.8
FR	80.9	81.4	66.9	84.4	75.2
HR	55.0	54.8	49.0	58.8	49.4
IT	76.9	77.1	60.9	79.9	66.0
CY	65.5	65.5	57.9	69.5	53.7
LV	63.1	63.5	53.7	64.4	65.6
LT	62.0	62.2	56.6	62.4	64.1
LU	85.9	86.8	63.3	88.8	79.2
HU	65.3	65.4	62.9	66.7	62.2
MT	72.8	74.6	54.9	83.9	50.0
NL	73.0	75.9	55.6	81.0	68.6
AT	83.2	83.7	67.0	86.8	72.5
PL	65.5	66.9	54.0	71.4	60.1
PT	61.1	61.5	54.0	64.3	56.7
RO	47.2	47.1	40.1	46.3	54.7
SI	62.2	63.4	53.4	68.6	55.5
SK	61.0	60.8	52.8	63.0	58.2
FI	67.1	67.4	65.0	72.3	59.9
SE	73.9	74.6	64.8	77.8	72.1
UK	76.2	78.0	58.9	83.7	69.5
EU-28	76.2	77.3	59.0	80.9	71.6
EU-27	76.2	77.3	59.0	80.9	71.7

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_epgaed), data extracted on 13 January 2014; for age group 25-54: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 15 January 2014.

Note: The full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL).

Table 3.4: Sub-indicator B: main reason for part-time employment (15-64) by sex, EU-28, 2012

MS	Could not find full-time job			Family or personal responsibilities		
	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	8.4	14.0	9.5	49.1	27.8	44.9
BG	66.2	66.8	66.5	10.9	4.9	8.1
CZ	22.0	14.6	20.0	35.4	9.1	28.3
DK	19.2	13.8	17.5	32.8	12.8	26.6
DE	14.4	26.6	16.6	52.2	8.5	44.3
EE	20.8	18.4	20.2	18.1	3.5	14.1
IE	33.6	59.9	41.2	46.4	6.5	35.0
EL	62.2	69.9	65.0	18.1	5.8	13.6
ES	58.2	69.3	60.9	20.7	2.1	16.0
FR	29.9	38.3	31.5	48.4	17.7	42.8
HR	16.1	24.8	20.0	19.3	4.6	12.7
IT	54.5	73.0	58.8	29.8	2.6	23.5
CY	46.8	65.2	53.1	37.0	9.0	27.4
LV	42.5	45.2	43.5	14.3	11.8	13.4
LT	33.5	32.3	33.0	19.7	9.4	15.8
LU	13.9	13.0	13.7	64.4	26.0	58.9
HU	38.9	45.2	41.1	17.7	2.7	12.5
MT	11.5	29.5	16.4	59.7	4.5	44.6
NL	7.8	12.9	9.1	41.5	9.1	33.5
AT	9.3	13.8	10.1	56.7	19.4	50.5
PL	27.9	26.9	27.5	13.9	2.7	10.0
PT	51.9	41.7	47.9	13.6	2.2	9.2
RO	41.7	67.1	55.1	17.5	2.6	9.6
SI	9.2	7.5	8.6	16.2	4.8	12.0
SK	30.0	35.4	32.1	7.5	:	4.7
FI	26.5	24.1	25.7	37.8	29.0	34.9
SE	28.3	30.2	28.8	34.1	18.1	30.1
UK	13.9	37.5	19.4	59.3	21.8	50.6
EU-28	24.3	38.4	27.6	44.4	11.2	36.7
EU-27	24.3	38.5	27.6	44.4	11.3	36.7

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_epgar), data extracted on 9 December 2013; data about family or personal responsibilities were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 30 January 2014.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available; data about family or personal responsibilities for years 2008-2011 are available in the table 5.4 in Annex III.

Table 3.5: Sub-indicator C: Usual weekly working hours in part-time jobs for women and men (15+), 2012

MS	Average number of weekly hours			Share of part-time workers working less than 10 hours		
	Women	Men	Total	% from total part-time workers		% of women from all part-time workers working less than 10 hours
				Women	Men	
BE	23.9	23.9	23.9	3.6	6.2	69.4
BG	20.0	20.7	20.2	1.6	0.9	72.2
CZ	21.2	20.8	21.1	8.0	7.5	72.7
DK	20.2	14.9	18.4	21.9	33.7	57.3
DE	18.6	16.5	18.2	14.6	23.1	70.1
EE	20.6	20.2	20.5	6.7	6.5	73.9
IE	18.8	20.3	19.2	10.0	9.2	73.6
EL	19.9	20.6	20.2	6.6	6.7	62.1
ES	18.6	18.3	18.5	13.1	14.8	73.8
FR	23.4	21.6	23.0	8.1	9.6	78.3

MS	Average number of weekly hours			Share of part-time workers working less than 10 hours		
	Women	Men	Total	% from total part-time workers		% of women from all part-time workers working less than 10 hours
				Women	Men	
HR	20.0	21.5	20.7	7.7	7.0	56.4
IT	21.4	21.4	21.4	6.9	6.9	75.2
CY	19.9	20.0	19.9	10.2	6.4	72.4
LV	21.1	21.3	21.2	4.5	5.0	60.3
LT	21.0	20.4	20.8	3.5	3.1	69.6
LU	22.1	19.1	21.7	7.2	19.1	67.4
HU	23.2	23.7	23.4	2.2	1.8	70.2
MT	21.4	20.8	21.2	8.4	6.2	75.1
NL	:	:	:	16.3	28.8	58.8
AT	21.0	18.5	20.6	11.5	20.4	71.0
PL	21.9	22.4	22.1	5.7	5.1	65.9
PT	16.4	16.4	16.4	22.8	24.3	56.1
RO	22.2	24.9	23.4	:	0.4	:
SI	20.6	19.3	20.1	9.1	14.9	49.2
SK	19.7	20.3	19.9	7.4	3.3	77.6
FI	20.3	18.7	19.7	15.3	18.8	60.2
SE	25.1	20.7	23.8	10.4	17.3	59.8
UK	19.0	18.3	18.9	12.8	15.6	70.7
EU-28	20.2	19.0	19.9	12.0	16.9	68.3
EU-27	20.2	19.0	19.9	12.0	16.9	68.3

Source: Average number of weekly hours: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_eppgacob), data extracted on 9 December 2013; for part-time workers who work less than 10 hours: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 15 January 2014.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available.

Table 3.6: Sub-indicators on part-time employment (D, E) EU-28, 2012

MS	D: low-paid (15-64) (%), 2011			E: differences between full-time and part-time employment (15-64), 2012			
	W	M	T	Sectoral		Occupational	
				W	M	W	M
BE	11.2	1.9	13.1	8.0	19.7	23.0	18.7
BG	16.7	10.7	27.3	32.7	41.1	36.0	41.4
CZ	13.7	3.8	17.5	12.6	28.3	14.1	29.8
DK	16.2	4.0	20.2	12.7	27.7	27.5	46.6
DE	28.8	2.9	31.6	11.1	30.7	22.0	28.6
EE	17.0	6.3	23.3	18.6	42.7	21.6	43.1
IE	:	:	:	20.6	23.3	30.1	28.6
EL	13.2	6.1	19.3	17.4	18.7	25.7	23.1
ES	16.9	2.7	19.5	21.8	21.5	24.8	21.0
FR	16.2	4.0	20.2	12.5	24.3	19.6	20.9
HR	:	:	:	64.1	56.9	62.0	60.5
IT	17.4	3.8	21.2	23.7	24.1	22.7	26.7
CY	25.6	5.3	30.8	10.8	23.2	15.1	15.7
LV	26.6	13.0	39.6	13.7	23.6	12.4	18.4
LT	25.2	10.7	35.9	22.7	30.6	22.8	40.6
LU	25.8	1.6	27.4	12.5	28.2	19.2	27.4
HU	:	:	:	17.5	14.6	22.5	23.1
MT	:	:	:	20.8	23.3	26.1	27.2
NL	11.6	1.5	13.1	12.2	20.1	23.3	26.2
AT	13.1	1.4	14.4	7.9	27.8	16.2	25.4
PL	11.7	5.0	16.8	22.0	28.6	26.0	32.3

MS	D: low-paid (15-64) (%), 2011			E: differences between full-time and part-time employment (15-64), 2012			
	W	M	T	Sectoral		Occupational	
				W	M	W	M
PT	26.8	1.7	28.5	42.3	35.1	44.2	34.9
RO	11.4	2.9	14.3	73.3	59.2	70.4	61.5
SI	6.5	0.7	7.2	23.7	30.6	26.5	37.2
SK	6.6	1.8	8.4	24.7	59.1	40.2	57.8
FI	9.2	4.9	14.2	20.0	25.5	23.8	30.3
SE	10.9	4.3	15.2	13.7	25.3	27.8	31.4
UK	38.9	8.7	47.6	14.0	28.0	24.9	35.3
EU-28	:	:	:	10.4	25.0	19.2	27.4
EU-27	:	:	:	10.5	25.0	19.3	27.4

Source: Low-paid: data were calculated from EU-SILC microdata; segregation: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_epgn62) for sectoral and Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_eggais) for occupational, data extracted on 16 December 2013.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available; calculations for NL of sectoral differences between part-time and full-time employment base on data on 2011.

Table 3.7: Sub-indicator F: Labour transition between full-time and part-time work by sex in EU-28, 2011

MS	From part-time to full-time			From full-time to part-time		
	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	10.4	19.5	12.1	9.5	2.9	5.2
BG	39.0	29.0	34.0	0.7	0.5	0.6
CZ	22.4	22.4	22.4	0.8	0.1	0.4
DK	38.5	15.0	30.5	6.9	1.7	4.0
DE	6.0	22.4	7.7	10.2	4.2	6.3
EE	42.0	44.0	42.5	3.3	1.5	2.4
IE	:	:	:	:	:	:
EL	21.9	27.1	23.5	2.6	1.9	2.2
ES	29.7	37.4	32.6	5.3	1.4	2.1
FR	:	:	:	:	:	:
HR	21.9	38.3	27.5	0.7	0.4	0.5
IT	18.6	42.3	23.7	11.5	2.4	5.6
CY	12.5	15.8	13.5	1.5	0.9	1.2
LV	49.9	49.8	49.9	2.8	2.0	2.4
LT	26.7	27.6	27.1	2.2	1.7	1.9
LU	7.9	30.0	9.7	5.9	1.3	2.8
HU	46.7	47.8	47.2	1.8	0.7	1.2
MT	21.1	48.1	28.3	2.4	0.7	1.2
NL	4.1	18.7	7.4	12.7	3.4	5.7
AT	11.8	41.5	17.5	7.1	2.4	4.0
PL	22.1	25.8	23.4	2.3	1.2	1.7
PT	21.5	27.3	22.9	3.6	1.5	2.4
RO	34.0	35.7	34.9	1.5	1.8	1.7
SI	21.7	38.4	27.9	2.2	0.6	1.4
SK	21.4	45.0	29.7	1.1	0.4	0.7
FI	28.7	25.7	27.7	3.9	2.4	3.1
SE	17.9	37.4	21.5	9.1	1.9	4.9
UK	14.0	25.3	16.1	12.5	3.4	6.9
EU-28	12.9	29.1	16.1	7.1	2.4	4.2
EU-27	12.9	29.1	16.1	7.2	2.5	4.2

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_lvhl30), data extracted on 13 January 2014.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available.

**Published:**

Data for sub-indicator A: Share of women part-time workers out of total part-time workers by age groups) are available in the Eurostat online database (lfsa_epgaed: 'Full-time and part-time employment by sex, age and highest level of education attained (1 000) ⁽¹⁸⁾ except age group 25-54, which is calculated by Eurostat based on EIGE's request.

Data for sub-indicator B: Main reason for part-time for women and men (15-64) are available in the Eurostat online database (lfsa_epgar: 'Main reason for part-time employment — Distributions by sex and age (%) ⁽¹⁹⁾. Data about family or personal responsibilities were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 30 January 2014

Data for sub-indicator C: Average number of usual weekly hours of work in part-time jobs for women and men (15+) are available in the Eurostat online database (lfsa_ewhun2: 'Average number of usual weekly hours of work in main job, by sex, professional status, full-time/part-time and economic activity [from 2008 onwards, NACE Rev. 2] — hours ⁽²⁰⁾. Data about 'micro' jobs were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 10 December 2013

Data for sub-indicator D: Low pay share in part-time employment for women and men (15-64) are calculated based on microdata.

Data for sub-indicator E: Sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time employment for women and men are available in the Eurostat online database (lfsa_epgn62: 'Full-time and part-time employment by sex, age and economic activity — NACE A10 (from 2008 onwards, NACE Rev. 2) — 1 000 ⁽²¹⁾ and lfsa_eggais: 'Full-time and part-time employment by sex, age and occupation (1 000) ⁽²²⁾.

Data for sub-indicator F: Labour transition data between full-time and part-time work are available in the Eurostat online database (ilc_lvhl30: 'Labour transitions by employment status ⁽²³⁾.

Note: Main reason for part-time work due to family or personal responsibilities include (a) respondents who report that they work part-time to look after children or incapacitated adults and (b) other family or personal responsibilities and is calculated as follows:

- if both variables are available: (a) respondents who report that they work part-time to look after children or incapacitated adults + (b) other family or personal responsibilities;
- if neither variables are available but all other variables on main reason are available: 100 % — sum of other variables;
- if a value is provided for either (a) respondents who report that they work part-time due to looking after

children or incapacitated adults or (b) other family or personal responsibilities, with the remaining variables also unavailable, then only that available variable is presented and a note added.

For the average number of usual weekly hours in part-time work, the table published on the Eurostat online database referring to workers aged 15+ should be used, because microdata present a large number of non-reliable or weakly reliable data (microdata are only available for BG (Women and Total), HU, LV and PT (Men) all of which (except PT) are only weakly reliable), are only available up to 2011 and not for Croatia. In addition, calculations based on microdata show that data for the 15-64 age group are very similar to the age group 15+.

For the calculation of the ID index for sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time employment, the following calculation steps have been used:

- share of employed women and men on a full-time or part-time basis in each sector or occupation from all employed women and men on a full-time or part-time basis;
- calculating absolute differences between full-time and part-time values for each sector or occupation for women and men;
- adding up the absolute differences for sector or occupation and dividing by 2.

The missing values are treated as follows:

- if one value for women or for men by sector or occupation is missing, then this is calculated based on the other available value (for example subtracting the value for women from the total to derive an estimate of the value for men, depending on what is available);
- if both values for women or for men by sector or occupation are missing, then these values are taken to be equal to zero.

Indicator 20. Self-employment as percentage of total employment for women and men by age groups (15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54, 55-64)

Concept: This indicator provides information on the proportion of self-employed as a percentage of total employed persons. Self-employed persons are those who work in their own business, farm or professional practice. A self-employed person is considered to be working if she/he meets one of the following criteria: works for the purpose of earning profit, spends time on the operation of a business or is in the process of setting up her/his business. The indicator is calculated by sex for the following age groups: 15-64, 20-64, 15-24, 25-54 and 55-64.

Data source: The calculation of the indicator is based on Labour Force Survey (LFS) ⁽²⁴⁾, coordinated by Eurostat.

Data overview: In 2012, the percentage of self-employed persons (15-64) in the EU-28 was 10 % among women and 18 % among men in employment. For women, this percentage ranges from 5 % in Estonia to 23 % in Greece, while for men it varies from 9 % in Luxembourg to 37 % in Greece.

Self-employment among young people (15-24) is relatively low for both women (3 %) and men (6 %) in employment. The highest percentage of self-employment for young people (12 %) can be found in Italy, while less than 2 % of young people (women and men) in employment are self-employed in Austria, Denmark, Germany and Ireland. The percentage of self-employed people in the 55-64 age group is considerably higher (EU average for men — 27 %, for women — 14 %).

Table 3.8: Self-employment as percentage of the total employment by sex and age, EU-28, 2012

MS	15-64			20-64			15-24			25-54			55-64		
	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	8.9	16.5	13.0	9.0	16.6	13.1	3.8	5.0	4.5	9.0	16.2	12.9	11.8	25.0	19.4
BG	7.5	13.2	10.5	7.5	13.2	10.5	:	4.6	3.4	7.3	13.0	10.3	10.3	17.9	14.3
CZ	12.2	21.6	17.5	12.2	21.7	17.6	7.5	11.2	9.7	11.8	21.8	17.4	16.1	24.8	21.3
DK	4.9	11.4	8.3	5.2	12.1	8.8	:	1.8	1.2	5.3	12.3	9.0	7.1	15.8	11.8
DE	7.2	13.2	10.5	7.4	13.6	10.7	1.2	2.1	1.7	7.6	13.6	10.8	9.4	18.7	14.4
EE	4.6	11.8	8.2	4.6	11.8	8.2	:	4.8	3.6	5.2	12.6	9.0	3.8	12.4	7.3
IE	6.4	21.7	14.5	6.5	22.0	14.7	:	:	1.3	6.5	20.5	13.9	10.4	40.0	27.1
EL	23.3	36.9	31.4	23.3	37.0	31.5	6.9	10.7	9.2	20.8	34.9	29.1	45.9	55.3	51.8
ES	11.8	20.4	16.5	11.8	20.5	16.6	4.1	7.2	5.7	11.1	19.1	15.5	19.3	32.2	26.8
FR	6.8	14.3	10.7	6.8	14.5	10.9	1.5	2.7	2.1	6.8	14.1	10.6	9.2	23.2	16.4
HR	13.2	19.1	16.4	13.1	19.2	16.4	8.9	8.3	8.6	12.2	17.0	14.7	19.1	30.2	25.8
IT	15.8	27.2	22.4	15.8	27.3	22.5	12.4	12.1	12.2	15.9	26.5	22.0	16.5	36.8	28.8
CY	8.2	18.8	13.7	8.2	18.9	13.7	:	5.9	4.0	8.1	17.2	12.7	13.9	33.4	26.0
LV	8.0	12.6	10.2	8.0	12.6	10.3	:	:	3.3	8.3	13.4	10.8	8.7	14.5	11.2
LT	7.3	12.0	9.6	7.3	12.1	9.6	:	:	:	7.1	12.1	9.5	10.1	14.6	12.3
LU	7.1	8.7	8.0	7.1	8.8	8.1	:	:	:	7.1	8.5	7.8	10.4	14.6	12.8
HU	8.0	13.5	10.9	8.0	13.5	11.0	2.9	3.4	3.2	7.7	12.7	10.4	11.5	23.2	17.6
MT	6.4	16.6	12.9	6.6	17.1	13.2	:	7.4	5.2	6.6	16.5	12.8	12.8	26.0	22.8
NL	10.4	17.2	14.0	10.9	18.1	14.8	3.0	4.6	3.8	11.2	18.2	14.9	14.9	23.8	20.1
AT	8.4	13.3	11.0	8.7	13.9	11.5	1.6	1.9	1.8	8.7	14.1	11.5	15.4	20.7	18.6
PL	13.8	22.2	18.4	13.9	22.3	18.5	3.9	6.6	5.5	13.7	22.3	18.4	20.3	30.1	26.2
PT	13.3	20.0	16.8	13.4	20.1	16.9	4.9	4.8	4.8	11.3	17.5	14.5	28.4	41.4	35.2
RO	11.2	23.6	18.1	11.3	23.8	18.2	6.3	13.9	10.7	9.8	21.9	16.5	23.5	39.8	32.9
SI	7.3	15.3	11.6	7.3	15.4	11.7	:	3.9	2.6	6.9	14.6	11.0	15.4	26.1	22.0
SK	9.7	19.7	15.3	9.8	19.8	15.4	6.7	13.4	10.8	9.7	20.4	15.6	11.6	19.4	16.2
FI	8.0	16.4	12.3	8.3	16.8	12.7	2.3	4.4	3.3	8.4	16.2	12.5	10.1	24.4	17.0
SE	5.3	12.8	9.2	5.4	13.0	9.4	1.6	3.1	2.3	5.4	12.9	9.3	7.2	17.9	12.8
UK	8.7	17.7	13.5	9.0	18.1	13.9	2.6	7.1	4.9	9.0	17.5	13.6	12.9	26.8	20.6
EU-28	9.9	18.4	14.5	10.0	18.7	14.7	3.0	5.5	4.3	9.9	18.3	14.4	13.8	26.7	21.0
EU-27	9.8	18.4	14.5	10.0	18.7	14.7	3.0	5.4	4.3	9.9	18.3	14.4	13.7	26.7	21.0

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_egaps), data extracted on 10 December 2013.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available.



Published: The data are available in the Eurostat online database (lfsa_egaps: 'Employment by sex, age and professional status' ⁽²⁵⁾).

Note: Percentages are calculated based on absolute figures available in the Eurostat online database.

Sub-indicators for Indicator 20: self-employment

Indicator 20 on self-employment is complemented by three sub-indicators measuring relevant features of self-employment that have to be monitored from a gender equality perspective:

- self-employment with and without employees;
- income from self-employment;
- work-life balance in self-employment;

Sub-indicators are as follows:

A. Share of self-employed women and men with and without employees (15-64);

B. Median income in Euros from self-employment for women and men (15+);

C. Fit of working hours with family or social commitments for self-employed women and men (15+).

Concept: Sub-indicator A is calculated as the percentage of self-employed persons with employees (employers) and without employees (own-account workers) from total employment. Self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice. A self-employed person is considered to be working if she/he meets one of the following criteria: works for the purpose of earning profit, spends time on the operation of a business or is in the process of setting up her/his business.

Self-employment embraces a wide range of work statuses and activities with different degrees of economic conditions and independence. Thus, it is important to distinguish among the self-employed with employees (employers) from those who work on their own (own-account workers). The share of self-employed with employees may be considered a better proxy for entrepreneurship than the share of overall self-employed in total employment although it remains unclear whether it adequately measures the concept. Moreover, the share of self-employed without employees can also incorporate a number of 'bogus' self-employed persons. This is characterised by a number of factors, including: dependency of one main client; presence of regular payments; lack of capacity to hire new workers and/or

to make important decisions related to the business (Eurofound, 2010a). The sub-indicator is calculated by sex and for 15-64 age group.

Sub-indicator B is defined as the annual income received, in the reference period, as a result of current or former involvement in self-employment. To calculate the indicator the negative values (losses) were excluded from the calculations and considered income before taxes. Income from self-employment is of particular relevance to monitor the gender gap in earnings and compare it with earnings in employment. Given the considerable variance over-time and across individuals, and to reduce the impact of outliers, the median (instead of the mean) is reported. The indicator is calculated in Euros, by sex and for those aged 15+.

Sub-indicator C shows differences by sex in workers' perceptions of how working time fits with family and social needs for self-employed workers. The exact wording of the question out of which the indicator is constructed is: 'In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well?' with 4 possible answers: 1. Very well, 2. Well, 3. Not very well, 4. Not at all well. The indicator is defined as the percentage of women and men reporting that their working hours fit well or very well with family or social commitments (values 1 and 2 set equal to 1). It can be used as a proxy to measure work-life balance, which is one of the main reasons given by women to explain why they are working as self-employed. Hence it is relevant to evaluate and monitor whether the work schedule of individuals (and women in particular) actually fits with family and other commitments outside work. The indicator is calculated by sex and for those aged 15+.

Data source: The calculation of the sub-indicators is based on Labour Force Survey (LFS) ⁽²⁶⁾, Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) ⁽²⁷⁾, coordinated by Eurostat and on the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) ⁽²⁸⁾, developed by Eurofound.

Data overview: The EU-28 percentage of women employers represents only 2 % of women in total employment, a well below the corresponding percentage for men employers (6 %). The proportion of women employers is generally low in all EU Member States: the percentage ranges from 0.8 % in Romania to 4 % in Greece. In contrast, the percentage of own account workers over total of employment for women amounts to 8 % on average in the EU-28, representing a lower percentage than the corresponding value for men (13 %). Overall, the data show that women are less likely to be in self-employment than men, although when they enter self-employment they are more likely to become own account workers than men. Given the risk of 'bogus' self-employment, this is an important indicator from a gender equality perspective.

Income from self-employment is generally higher for men as compared to women and shows large variation across countries. The biggest difference in median income from self-employment between women and men is in Greece, where median is more than two times smaller for women than for men (13,410 for men and 5,414 for women).

On average at EU-28 level, 80 % of self-employed women report very well/well fit between working time and family or social commitments while for men the percentage is 73 %.

Table 3.9: Sub-indicator A: self-employed as percentage from total employment (15-64), 2012

MS	With employees (employers)			Without employees (own-account workers)		
	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	2.1	5.7	4.0	6.9	10.8	9.0
BG	2.2	4.7	3.5	5.3	8.5	7.0
CZ	1.7	4.5	3.3	10.4	17.1	14.2
DK	1.5	5.2	3.4	3.4	6.2	4.8
DE	2.4	6.4	4.5	4.9	6.9	5.9
EE	1.3	6.0	3.6	3.3	5.8	4.6
IE	2.2	6.5	4.5	4.1	15.2	10.0
EL	4.1	9.0	7.0	19.2	27.9	24.3
ES	3.3	6.6	5.1	8.5	13.8	11.4
FR	2.2	6.2	4.3	4.6	8.1	6.4
HR	3.2	5.9	4.7	9.9	13.2	11.7
IT	3.7	8.1	6.3	12.1	19.0	16.2
CY	1.4	6.3	3.9	6.8	12.5	9.7
LV	2.5	5.3	3.9	5.5	7.3	6.4
LT	1.2	3.2	2.2	6.0	8.9	7.4
LU	1.8	4.0	3.0	5.3	4.8	5.0
HU	3.1	6.9	5.1	4.9	6.6	5.8
MT	1.9	5.7	4.2	4.6	11.0	8.6
NL	2.0	5.3	3.8	8.4	11.8	10.2
AT	2.4	6.5	4.6	6.0	6.8	6.4
PL	2.8	5.2	4.1	11.0	17.0	14.3
PT	3.3	6.3	4.9	10.0	13.7	11.9
RO	0.8	1.6	1.3	10.4	22.0	16.9
SI	1.9	4.7	3.4	5.3	10.5	8.2
SK	1.8	3.9	3.0	7.9	15.9	12.4
FI	1.9	5.9	3.9	6.2	10.6	8.4
SE	1.7	5.5	3.7	3.6	7.3	5.5
UK	1.4	3.3	2.4	7.4	14.3	11.1
EU-28	2.4	5.7	4.2	7.5	12.7	10.3
EU-27	2.3	5.7	4.2	7.5	12.7	10.3

Source: A: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_egaps), data extracted on 10 December 2013.

Note: '-' indicates data were not available.

Table 3.10: Sub-indicator B: median income from self-employment (15+) and median equivalised net income (16+) (€), 2011

MS	With employees (employers)			Without employees (own-account workers)		
	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	19,136	22,324	21,335	19,323	20,600	20,063
BG	2,812	3,600	3,375	2,856	3,030	2,945
CZ	6,170	8,701	8,182	7,319	7,738	7,528

MS	With employees (employers)			Without employees (own-account workers)		
	W	M	T	W	M	T
DK	:	:	:	25,644	27,127	26,306
DE	12,000	21,000	16,000	18,845	19,809	19,297
EE	959	1,042	945	5,311	5,740	5,514
IE	:	:	:	19,670	20,614	20,117
EL	5,414	13,410	12,414	10,756	11,200	11,014
ES	9,462	12,647	12,000	12,106	12,665	12,376
FR	13,850	18,490	17,410	19,952	20,923	20,473
HR	:	:	:	5,488	5,762	5,627
IT	14,236	24,416	19,652	15,653	16,902	16,307
CY	9,720	16,200	12,960	16,575	17,436	17,002
LV	1,940	3,069	2,822	4,060	4,308	4,166
LT	2,580	3,223	2,683	3,755	4,024	3,874
LU	24,700	34,075	30,000	32,855	33,919	33,336
HU	2,777	4,320	4,138	4,538	4,723	4,617
MT	9,265	13,812	13,200	10,784	11,389	11,089
NL	8,756	20,199	13,806	20,125	21,150	20,708
AT	13,435	21,082	17,600	21,252	22,547	21,834
PL	3,481	4,416	4,416	5,007	5,173	5,081
PT	5,985	7,350	6,825	8,393	8,733	8,560
RO	430	855	700	2,145	2,219	2,184
SI	1,425	2,725	2,725	11,818	12,337	12,048
SK	4,985	7,000	6,975	6,272	6,537	6,392
FI	11,443	18,499	8,542	21,340	22,656	22,001
SE	1,797	2,367	1,981	21,960	23,450	22,706
UK	8,066	17,975	13,089	16,960	18,357	17,533
EU-28	:	:	:	14,535	15,466	14,987
EU-27	:	:	:	14,614	15,549	15,067

Source: Data about income from self-employment, data were calculated from EU-SILC microdata; data about equivalised net income, Eurostat, EU-SILC (ilc_di03), data extracted on 14 January 2014.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available; to take into account the impact of differences in household size and composition, the total disposable household income is 'equivalised'. The equivalised income attributed to each member of the household is calculated by dividing the total disposable income of the household by the equivalisation factor according to the OECD-modified scale which gives a weight of 1.0 to the first person aged 14 or more, a weight of 0.5 to other persons aged 14 or more and a weight of 0.3 to persons aged 0-13.

Table 3.11: Sub-indicator C: working hours fit (very) well (%) with family or social commitments (15+), 2010

MS	Self-employed			Total		
	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	83.8	76.1	78.7	85.8	81.8	83.7
BG	75.8	68.2	71.4	80.6	74.9	77.9
CZ	76.2	71.8	73.0	82.6	76.3	79.6
DK	87.1	91.3	90.2	94.0	92.6	93.3
DE	80.9	63.1	71.1	85.2	79.2	82.1
EE	86.5	84.7	85.2	80.8	76.6	79.2
IE	89.2	80.4	83.0	88.2	82.9	85.5
EL	56.1	50.7	52.5	64.0	63.4	63.6
ES	74.0	64.4	67.8	76.1	72.3	74.2
FR	84.3	71.1	75.7	78.7	77.4	78.1
HR	74.2	74.0	74.0	81.7	76.8	79.2
IT	69.4	69.4	69.4	77.1	70.8	74.0
CY	79.2	68.5	72.2	80.4	80.2	80.3
LV	90.6	79.4	83.9	80.7	73.1	77.9

MS	Self-employed			Total		
	W	M	T	W	M	T
LT	98.0	84.3	92.4	76.5	76.0	76.3
LU	75.5	66.1	69.9	84.3	79.9	81.9
HU	75.9	69.2	71.3	80.7	77.5	79.1
MT	70.2	70.3	70.3	82.2	79.7	80.6
NL	84.2	88.7	87.3	90.8	90.6	90.7
AT	91.7	85.4	87.5	88.3	82.1	85.4
PL	87.6	81.9	83.8	85.9	80.9	83.5
PT	83.6	78.0	80.7	81.5	81.7	81.6
RO	82.8	82.3	82.5	85.2	83.0	84.0
SI	85.8	68.8	72.5	78.6	72.7	75.9
SK	86.7	72.2	77.1	86.3	79.3	82.9
FI	85.1	81.2	82.7	85.8	85.6	85.7
SE	86.9	79.7	81.8	86.3	86.9	86.6
UK	90.0	82.7	85.1	91.3	82.1	87.0
EU-28	80.0	73.0	76.5	83.0	79.2	81.1
EU-27	80.4	73.7	76.3	83.0	79.3	81.2

Source: EWCS, 2010.

Note: Includes those who answered 'Well' or 'Very well' to question 41: In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well?

Published: Data for sub-indicator A: Share of self-employed women and men with and without employees (15-64) are available in the Eurostat online database (lfsa_egaps: 'Employment by sex, age and professional status' ⁽²⁹⁾).

Data for sub-indicator B: Median income in Euros from self-employment for women and men (15+) are calculated based on microdata and for equivalised net income, data are available in the Eurostat online database (ilc_di03: 'Mean and median income by age and sex (source: SILC) ⁽³⁰⁾).

Data for sub-indicator C: Fit of working hours with family or social commitments for self-employed women and men (15+) are calculated based on EWCS, 2010.

Note: Percentages for sub-indicator A are calculated based on absolute figures available in the Eurostat online database. Data for Denmark for sub-indicator B are not reliable since the number of observations is very low. Particular care should be used in interpreting information on income for self-employment since the data are likely to be affected by serious under-reporting, and the latter may differ significantly by country.

4 Conclusions and recommendations



4 Conclusions and recommendations

The strategic objective F1 'Women and the Economy' of the BPfA — to promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources — spans two complementary areas. One of them is women's empowerment and gender equality and the second one is the emphasis on economic independence, which is at the heart of current EU policy, aiming at steering societies and economies in the EU beyond the economic crisis. Women's economic independence is an important prerequisite for gender equality and for economic growth in the EU.

As shown by the Gender Equality Index launched in 2013 by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE, 2013), there is a clear positive relationship between gender equality and GDP in EU Member States. There is ample evidence that the use of women's full labour market potential can lead to significant macroeconomic gains (IMF, 2013).

Despite the considerable advancement of gender equality in the labour market in the EU over the past decades, gender gaps remain prevalent in many areas. In addition, the consequences of the recent economic crisis challenge the progress that has been made to date. The focus of this report is to provide an assessment of the key issues of women's and men's economic independence. It examines from a gender equality perspective women's and men's participation in the labour force in the EU-28. It carries out a gender analysis of part-time work and self-employment, areas where women are, respectively, over- and under-represented. It focuses on the potential differences between women and men in terms of quality of work, and whether it is impacted by working on a part-time basis or in self-employment. It concludes with the consequences of different patterns of labour market participation upon incomes and earnings, and crucially, on the effects of these differences on women and men in terms of being at risk of poverty. On the basis of the analysis of these critical issues, the report proposes additional indicators for the monitoring of the implementation of the BPfA in the EU.

Since considering economic independence from a gender equality perspective represents a major opportunity for growth in terms of both gender equality and the economy, this section presents the main conclusions and policy recommendations arising from the study.

4.1 Conclusions

Equal access to the labour market and to economic resources can increase the economic independence of women

Women's and men's working lives lie at the heart of the EU policies on gender equality. It has been acknowledged that significant macroeconomic gains can be achieved when both women and men are equally able to fulfil their labour market potential. So far, patterns of transformation in the labour force have seen a convergence of women towards the masculine norms of labour market participation. This means that women's economic independence has been the subject of a great deal of change, while men's has remained largely unchanged (activity rates for women have risen from 64 % to 66 % between 2008 and 2012, while for men it has remained stable over the same time period at 78 %). Meanwhile, unpaid work and more particularly domestic and care responsibilities, have mostly been shouldered by women. A serious consequence is the constraint that this represents for women's equal access to the labour market and equal control over economic resources.

The over-representation of women in part-time work represents one of the strongest gender differences in labour market participation

Part-time work is an important way of facilitating labour force participation. It also represents an opportunity to enhance well-being and to contribute to a more gender equal society, by ensuring that both women and men equally avail of opportunities to work on a part-time basis to meet life demands over the life course. Even though there has been progress in women's involvement in the labour market, there have been few adjustments to the division of time and responsibilities between women and men, resulting in very imbalanced ways of working when both paid and unpaid work is taken into consideration. Women are nearly four times more likely to work on part-time basis than men, predominantly due to care responsibilities. They are also more likely to remain in part-time jobs for most or all of their employment life.



Part-time work can have significant negative effects on women's economic independence

Working on a part-time basis can be detrimental in terms of access to economic and financial resources. It is necessary to ensure that part-time work involves the possibility to make transitions between part-time and full-time work, equal career prospects and protection from precariousness, poverty and social exclusion. One of the strongest risk of poverty arising from gender differences in part-time work is the pension gap estimated at 39 % in the EU-27 (EC, 2013).

Low numbers of working hours (including micro-jobs with fewer than 10 hours per week) are mainly associated with women, and often lead to lower earnings, lower access to social security benefits, lower pensions and higher risk poverty. In all Member States the percentage of part-time workers below the low pay threshold is higher for women than for men. Moreover, on average, for the EU-28, the share of part-time workers at-risk-of-poverty is almost double the proportion of individual full-time workers who are at-risk-of-poverty.

Different levels of engagement of women and men in part-time work reflect the level of gender (in)equality in society

Measuring the difference between women's participation in the labour force on a part-time basis and a full-time basis provides a valuable assessment of the extent to which part-time cultures exist in Member States. Part-time cultures are associated with high levels of part-time work among women compared to those that work on a full-time basis. The higher the proportion of women working on a part-time basis, the greater the potential impact of norms and attitudes that reinforce the role of women, particularly as mothers and/or carers, on their participation in the labour market. It is important to ensure that care responsibilities and part-time work are equally shared between women and men so that both women and men can equally develop their full labour market potential. Not doing so can reinforce gender inequality more generally.

Women's greater responsibilities for care can represent an important source of involuntary part-time work

Involuntary part-time is usually equated with cases where 'not being able to find a full-time job' is cited as the main reason for working on a part-time basis. However, other reasons could also act as markers of the involuntary nature of part-time work, particularly within a gender perspective. This includes declaring to work on a part-time basis for family or personal responsibilities since, although being involved in care activities can be understood as a choice as

well as a constraint, it can also be a barrier to full-time employment where childcare (or care for other dependents) is too expensive, of insufficient quality, not suitable or not available.

From a gender equality perspective, the current measure of 'involuntary part-time' work is therefore problematic since it might underestimate the extent to which individuals, and particularly women, are unable to work on a full-time basis because of care and family responsibilities.

Full-time equivalent participation offers a more accurate measure of labour market participation

Traditional measures of employment, including one of the indicators of the Europe 2020 Strategy, rely on measuring the number of individuals with a job. However, this only provides partial information, since the number of hours worked by women and men differs substantially. Employment rates are somewhat representative of men's employment; however, they tend to over-estimate women's employment and therefore under-estimate the true gender gap for participation in the labour market. Not only does the standard headcount measure of employment not provide a full-picture at macro-level, for example in terms of economic growth or gender equality, it also fails to provide information at micro-level, that is on how women and men fare when it comes to their economic situation and living standards.

Full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rates are obtained by comparing a worker's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours of a full-time worker taking into account the higher incidence of part-time employment among women. In 2012 the gender gap in the FTE employment rates reached 17 percentage points, relative to 11 when considering the headcount employment rate. In the EU-28, men's FTE employment rate is 72 % for the age group 20-64, which is only 3 percentage points below the headcount employment rate of 75 % and the same 3 percentage points below the key target of the Europe 2020 (75 % of individuals aged 20-64 in employment by 2020). Women's FTE employment rate is 54 % for the 20-64 age group in the EU-28, which is 8 percentage points below headcount employment rate (62 %) and 21 percentage point lower than the Europe 2020 target.

Lower participation of women in the labour market seriously endangers reaching the national targets of Europe 2020

Participation in the labour force is one of the key targets of the Europe 2020 Strategy. However, if men's employment in the EU on average is just shy of the target of 75 %, women's employment lies well below this level. Although nearly half

of Member States meet or exceed their national employment targets for men, none without exception do so for women. It is therefore important that future targets are disaggregated by sex in order to monitor the progress made in closing the gender gap in access to the labour market.

Access to economic and financial resources is more limited for women

Labour market participation is an effective way to prevent poverty and social exclusion, however, women have less access to financial and economic resources. Differences in earnings show a 16 % pay gap at the EU level when calculated on an hourly basis, which increases to 23 % when working hours are taken into account (the gap in earnings is calculated on a yearly basis). The consequences of these differences can be very severe for women in the present, but also over the life course. Differences in income mirror those in earnings. However, the data is first calculated at household level, and then divided between its members based on the assumption that income is shared equally between them. This causes problems in estimating the true extent of the gender gap is difficult since gender relations may mean that this does not hold true.

An opportunity exists to promote greater gender equality when exiting the economic crisis

At a general level, the crisis caused an increase in the level and average duration of unemployment as well as to an increase in the use of involuntary part-time work both among women and men. The gender gap in activity and employment rates has been narrowing during the crisis, not due to improvement of women's labour market conditions, but rather due to the relative worsening of men's employment and activity rates. Rising unemployment, reduced working hours, increasing downward pressure on pay levels and the increase in the number of low paid workers, have contributed to an increase in the risk of poverty, especially for women, who are over-represented in atypical and flexible jobs. A positive side of the crisis may be that the downward levelling of gender differences in labour market participation has provided a more equal basis on which to build upon when emerging from the economic crisis.

Few gender differences exist in quality of work at EU level

Quality of work relates to ways of working and the development of new technology, in the context of changing demographic patterns such as the aging population. This report examined quality of work from the perspective of the four pillars developed by Eurofound (2002), and found

few gender differences at the EU level between career and employment security; health and well-being; skills and competences; and work-life balance. Low differences in quality of work at EU level mask the extent to which there can be strong gender differences at the level of the Member States.

Despite the view that part-time work has the potential to lower quality of work, the data suggest the opposite, with few differences between women and men at EU level. Part-time work represents, on balance, a slight improvement on employment when it comes to quality of work. The most striking differences are in the increased perceptions of being able to balance work and life.

Work in a self-employed capacity, compared to work overall, is also linked to slightly better work-life balance and health and well-being with few differences between women and men at EU level. In particular, both women and men in self-employment feel that there is a slight improvement in how working hours fit with life, and that there is a strong increase in the flexibility of their work.

The implementation and monitoring of policies to promote greater women's representation in entrepreneurship are hampered by the lack of differentiation between the concepts of entrepreneurship and self-employment

The concepts of entrepreneurship and self-employment at EU level are often blurred and not sufficiently differentiated. Statistically, the Labour Force Survey measures self-employed workers only, which can capture a number of different cases. It measures self-employed workers running business with the help of employees the category most likely to overlap with entrepreneurs (defined as individuals with a mindset which allows them to engage their motivation and capacity into the identification of an opportunity and the drive to pursue it to its full realisation) among which women are under-represented. However, it also includes own account workers without employees as well as family workers, affording lower possibilities for economic growth, and in which the majority of self-employed women can be found. This lack of clarity is problematic from a policy perspective since it creates much ambiguity as to which type of self-employment is being targeted.

Policy efforts directed towards forms of self-employment that are closely aligned with entrepreneurship are most likely to foster growth

The greatest difficulty lies in differentiating between entrepreneurship, self-employment and 'bogus' self-employment. Measurement relies on the concept of self-employment,



which does not allow analysing entrepreneurship. As a result, the analysis provided in this report focuses on self-employment. Women are under-represented among self-employed individuals with employees (the category most likely to overlap with entrepreneurs) and, on the contrary, over-represented among the self-employed on their own account (most likely to overlap with 'bogus' self-employment). 'Bogus' self-employment is generally characterised by dependency on only one client, the presence of regular payments and the lack of capacity to freely hire new workers and/or make important decisions related to the business (Eurofound, 2009). 'Bogus' self-employment is more likely to affect women than men, since from 2008 to 2012 women accounted for the majority of the increase in self-employment without employees. Its potential to lead to precarious situations makes it an important policy area from a gender equality perspective. Furthermore, ensuring that efforts are directed towards supporting women and men in entrepreneurship, rather than in 'bogus' self-employment, can contribute significantly to the pursuit of the headline targets of the Europe 2020 Strategy.

Self-employment provides an opportunity to work on a more flexible basis and enhance opportunities for work-life balance without reducing working hours

Self-employment is usually linked to the opportunity to achieve a better work-life balance. However, average working hours are high, particularly among employers. The number of women in the EU-28 work fewer hours (37 hours per week) compared with for men (46 hours per week), largely because a greater proportion of self-employed women work on a part-time basis. Indeed, the data show that self-employment is less about working fewer hours, and more about providing increased opportunities for flexibility in the allocation of hours worked. Self-employment may therefore be used as an alternative to part-time work, maximising hours worked, while at the same time increasing flexibility in order to combine work and life more efficiently.

Self-employment leads to much lower earnings and income for women and can lead to greater risk of poverty over the life course

Women are more likely to be segregated into more labour intensive and less profitable sectors than men, adding to their risk of precariousness, poverty and social exclusion. The gender pay gap for self-employment stands at 45 % at EU level, which vividly illustrates the extent of the disparities between women and men in this type of employment. Because they have smaller incomes compared to employees, self-employed workers are three times more at risk of poverty. In addition to the lower levels of social protection, including in terms of unemployment or sickness benefits, self-employment is particularly discouraging in relation to maternity leave provision,

since even if it is available, it may not conform to the needs to ensure that business is not interrupted or can recover to an operational state within a relatively short period. Overall, self-employment is associated with no or little eligibility for social protection and social assistance, even though the new EU Directive on self-employed workers and assisting spouses is expected to partly address these issues.

Data on income in self-employment is less reliable than that on employment due to under-reporting and fluctuations from one year to the next. As with other measures of income, the collection of data at household level as opposed to the individual level is a strong impediment to estimating the true gender gap.

Gender norms are linked to different patterns of labour force participation for women and men over the life course

Despite the progress made in women's economic empowerment through increases in educational attainment and the share of paid work, deeply entrenched inequalities persist as a result of discriminatory norms and attitudes and the unequal distribution of care responsibilities in the household.

Patterns of work are relatively similar for women and men as young adults. For example, both women and men work on a part-time basis while in education. After that stage, women tend to keep working on a part-time basis, while men tend to shift to full-time work. These paths are strongly associated with gender roles during years of potential reproduction and care, whereas men are associated with financial provision is expected from men, in line with prevalent gender norms. Towards the end of their professional careers, differences between women and men reduce considerably: women remain in a part-time work, and more men also tend to choose this option.

The extent to which it is possible to make transitions between full and part-time work is very telling from a gender equality perspective. Over the life course, women can more easily than men move from full-time to part-time work. On the contrary, for men, it is the transition from part-time to full-time work that is more frequent. This shows that not only are women more likely to enter part-time work, but they are also more likely to remain in this type of arrangement throughout their professional life.

Gender segregation in employment and education hinder equal access to economic resources for women and men

Gender segregation in the labour market and in education is still a pervasive phenomenon. Employed women are

over-represented in the services sectors and in occupations that are characterised by lower status, career opportunities and pay. Gender-based occupational segregation is the result of a number of factors: segregation in education; distribution of unpaid work within the household; entry barriers and organisational practices; gender identity; and stereotypes.

Patterns of segregation are even stronger in part-time work, which can hamper transitions for workers between full-time and part-time employment. These transitions for are harder to make for men because differences between sectors/occupations in full and part-time work are more pronounced than for women. To promote equal access to the labour market and better transitions between full-time and part-time employment, these differences in sectors and occupations must be addressed.

Measuring segregation is problematic from a gender equality perspective since the classification used by statistics institutes (NACE rev. 2 for sectors; ISCO 88 for occupations) were first developed based on very masculine conceptualisations of work that relied on the breadwinner model. Revising these classifications would provide improved measures of gender-related phenomena, such as the true extent of vertical segregation between women and men in the labour market.

The strong and prevailing segregation patterns need to be tackled since they exacerbates deeper patterns of gender inequality in terms of access to economic resources, career advancement, quality of work and eventually on economic independence of women and men.

4.2 New indicators for monitoring progress in promoting women's economic independence

Three indicators and a set of sub-indicators have been proposed for monitoring strategic Objective F.1 of the BPfA on women's economic independence including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources. The indicators focus on full-time equivalent employment, part-time employment and self-employment.

Indicator 18 provides information on full-time equivalent (FTE) employment rates for women and men by age groups. FTE provides a more realistic picture of employment from a gender equality perspective since it takes into account the number of hours worked by women and men and the higher incidence of part-time employment among women. In this way, FTE reflects the differences in proportions and

gender gap in labour market participation. The data shows that FTE was consistently higher for men than for women in all Member States. In 2012 the FTE rate for women in the EU-28 was 50 % compared to 67 % for men for the employed population aged 15-64.

Indicator 19 captures part-time employment as a percentage of total employment for women and men by age groups. This indicator includes six sub-indicators which address relevant gender differences in part-time work:

- i) share of women part-time workers out of total part-time workers;
- ii) main reasons for part-time employment;
- iii) usual weekly working hours in part-time jobs;
- iv) low pay share in part-time employment;
- v) sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time employment and
- vi) transitions between part-time and full-time work.

The EU-28 average share of part-time work for women aged 15-64 is almost four times higher (32 %) than for men (8 %). Women account for 76 % of those working on a part-time basis in the EU-28. This distribution reflects one of the most striking forms of gender imbalance in the labour force. Men are more likely to work on a part-time basis because they could not find a full-time occupation (38 % for men, 24 % for women) while the share of part-time work due to personal and family responsibility is four times higher for women (44 %) than for men (11 %). The average number of weekly hours in part-time jobs for women is slightly higher than for men. However, women represent the majority (68 %) of 'micro' job holders (working less than 10 hours per week). Therefore the percentage of part-time workers below the low pay threshold is much higher for women than for men in all Member States. Sectoral and occupational differences between full-time and part-time work show that it is more difficult for men to move between part-time and full-time employment while remaining in the same sector and/or occupation. As regards transitions from part-time to full-time employment, on average in the EU-28, men working on a part-time basis are much more likely to move to full-time jobs than women.

Indicator 20 provides information regarding women and men on the share of self-employed workers among all employed persons by age groups. This indicator includes three sub-indicators measuring relevant features of self-employment from a gender equality perspective: i) share of self-employed women and men with and without employees; ii) median income in Euros from self-employment for women and men and iii) the extent to which working hours



fit with family or social commitments for self-employed women and men.

Overall, the data show that women are substantially under-represented among self-employed workers in the EU-28. In 2012 the percentage of women (aged 15-64) among self-employed persons was twice as low as the share of self-employed men in employment (10 % and 18 % respectively). Furthermore, women are more likely to be self-employed on their own account, without employees, than employers. Women employers represent only 2 % of women in total employment in the EU-28 (6 % for men). Income from self-employment is generally higher for men as compared to women and shows large variations across the countries. The majority of self-employed women (80 %) and men (73 %) reported that their working hours fitted very well/well with their family or social commitments.

4.3 Recommendations

Despite the considerable progress made in advancing gender equality in the EU, substantial gender gaps remain in the labour market. A set of different measures is needed in order to tackle the structural obstacles that women face when accessing and/or participating in the labour market, from cultural norms and stereotypes to socioeconomic (dis)incentives. The main policy recommendations resulting from the study are as follows.

Support initiatives encouraging women's labour force participation and economic independence for macroeconomic growth and poverty reduction

The Europe 2020 Strategy and the headline target of 75 % employment rate for women and men aged 20-64, requires specific conditions in place to ensure equal participation for women and men in the labour market. As noted in the Commission's Strategy for Equality between Women and Men 2010-2015, getting more women on to the labour market helps counterbalance the effects of a shrinking working-age population, thereby reducing the strain on public finances and social protection systems, widening the human capital base and raising competitiveness. The lower participation of women in the labour market and their restricted access to economic resources means that women constitute a large pool of under-utilised labour. At the same time it is important to intensify efforts in awareness-raising on cultural and institutional barriers for equal participation in the labour market among policy-makers, the business community, other social and economic institutions (including the media), and also the general public.

Support work-life balance for women and men

The impact of parenthood on labour market participation is very different for women and men in the EU. Women's disproportionate responsibility for care of dependent family members and household tasks continue to represent serious obstacles to their full participation in the labour market.

Different measures are needed to support work-life balance for women and men and a more equal share of caring duties in households:

- provision of accessible, affordable and high quality services for child (in line with Barcelona targets), elderly care or other dependents with flexible operating hours;
- introduction of non-transferable paternity leave and incentives for men to strengthen their responsibility for care and family work. In addition, the provision of fully or near-fully paid family or care leave available to all workers, whatever the form of employment, is essential;
- promotion of organisational cultures that embrace work-life balance needs, provision of incentives for flexible working arrangements and promotion of part-time work to be shared equally between women and men. The negotiation for flexible working arrangements in the workplace could be supported by a balanced approach to companies' needs and workers' preferences taking into consideration the changing life course needs of workers. It is important that negotiations lead to collective solutions rather than individual ones. Part-time work should be considered an opportunity for all (women and men) at specific phases of the life course when work has to be balanced with other life needs (i.e. education and training, care responsibilities, health, etc). The choice should be reversible when the life course needs change and should not involve a penalty in terms of pay, career opportunities and access to social protection. However, the negative forms of part-time work, for example micro-jobs or other forms of marginal part-time work, should be measured and addressed;
- implementation of targeted financial incentives and awareness raising programmes for employers/ social partners and public institutions which promote: i) a positive image of fathers assuming family responsibilities; ii) enabling parents to fulfil family-related duties; iii) supporting a working model that accommodates the different needs arising over the life course;

European institutions, in collaboration with their stakeholders, have an important role to play in supporting

comparative research, data gathering and good practice exchange on the gender dimension of flexible working arrangements and gender sensitive management and working patterns, as well as in monitoring the application of EU legislation on the equal treatment of women and men, on working conditions and on parental leave and maternity rights.

Reduce gender segregation in education and employment

Despite the changes in educational attainment of women and men, segregation patterns in education remain deeply entrenched throughout Member States with women highly under-represented in technical sciences and engineering and men highly under-represented in caring and teaching. It is important to tackle gender segregation in education as it translates into further inequalities in the labour market and contributes to differences in economic independence of women and men (EIGE, 2013). To reduce segregation in education and employment the following measures could be taken:

- review of curricula, particularly regarding challenging gender stereotypes from a young age;
- address educational segregation through vocational guidance and counselling to encourage women and men into a wider choice of educational paths and occupations;
- setting targets in key strategic documents for gender balance in political and economic decision-making;
- undertake media campaigns to tackle gender stereotyping in education and employment.

Support and improve conditions for women in self-employment and entrepreneurship

Self-employed women are more likely than men to be own-account workers, and particularly 'bogus' self-employed workers. It is important to better define and analyse this phenomenon in order to develop specific measures to support the working conditions and the access to social protection of own account workers and 'bogus' self-employees. In particular social security coverage and labour law should become less focused on the employment status and provide instead a more universal social protection regime. The application of the EU directive on maternity rights in self-employment should be closely monitored.

Women's presence in entrepreneurship should be strengthened through the diffusion of new role models particularly at a high level, through awareness-raising campaigns

aiming at dispelling the norms, attitudes and stereotypes in the media. Training and funding programmes that take into consideration the impact of norms, attitudes and stereotypes of women's aspirations and intentions in entrepreneurship should be developed to contribute to breaking traditional patterns. Access to childcare services, which may be particularly unaffordable during the business start-up phase, should also be provided.

Invest in data gathering, research and gender impact assessment

The topic of gender and economic independence is complex and covers different dimensions. The Gender Equality Index of the European Institute for Gender Equality is an important step towards a better understanding of the various dimensions of gender equality that are pertinent to the EU.

In order to support gender research it is necessary to:

- improve the quantity and quality of sex-disaggregated data and support further research on gender relevant issues and indicators on gender differences in the labour market and economic conditions;
- support the implementation of surveys and studies to further explore the cultural factors influencing women and men's perceptions of their role in the labour market and the sharing of responsibilities within the household, as well as their perceptions of working conditions and factors that limit opportunities in the labour market;
- support the application of gender impact assessment of policy reforms, in order to avoid the introduction of measures that provide disincentives to more equal labour participation and employment.

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Annexes



Annexes

Annex I: Glossary of terms and definitions

The **active population** includes both employed and un-employed people, but not the economically inactive, defined as individuals not working at all and not available or looking for work either; and which may or may not be of working-age (source: Eurostat, Glossary).

The **activity rate** represents active persons as a percentage of the same age total population (source: Eurostat, LFS metadata).

'Bogus' self-employment can be captured through a set of specific questions, particularly among the self-employed without employees (developed by Eurofound's EWCS). These questions measured:

- the degree of dependency on only one client (assuming that income for 'genuine' self-employment usually comes from different sources);
- the presence of regular payments;
- the capacity to freely hire new workers;
- the possibility to make important decisions related to the business.

An **employed person** is a person aged 15 and over who during the reference week performed work — even if just for one hour a week — for pay, profit or family gain. Alternatively, the person was not at work, but had a job or business from which he or she was temporarily absent due to illness, holiday, industrial dispute or education and training (source: Eurostat, Glossary).

Entrepreneurship is defined as a multi-dimensional concept that can take place in different contexts (for instance economic or social) and in different types of organisations. It is described as a mindset which allows individuals to engage their motivation and capacity into the identification of an opportunity and the drive to pursue it to its full realisation. The required tool-kit to do so satisfactorily is creativity and innovation together with sound management (COM(2003) 27).

The **employment rate** represents employed persons as a percentage of the same age total population (source: Eurostat, LFS metadata).

Equivalentised disposable income is the total income of a household, after tax and other deductions, that is available for spending or saving, divided by the number of household members converted into equalised adults; household members are equalised or made equivalent by weighting each according to their age, using the so-called modified OECD equivalence scale: 1.0 to the first adult; 0.5 to the second and each subsequent person aged 14 and over; 0.3 to each child aged under 14. Disposable household income includes: 1) all income from work (employee wages and self-employment earnings); 2) private income from investment and property; 3) transfers between households; 4) all social transfers received in cash including old-age pensions. (Source: Eurostat, Glossary)

Full-time equivalent (FTE), is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of hours of a full-time worker. A full-time person is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours he or she works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE. (Source: Eurostat, Glossary)

The **full-time/part-time** distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries, except for the Netherlands, Iceland and Norway, where part-time is determined on the basis of whether the usual hours worked are fewer than 35, while full-time on the basis of whether the usual hours worked are 35 or more, and in Sweden where this criterion is applied to the self-employed persons as well. (source: Eurostat, LFS metadata).

The **gender gap in pensions** is calculated as the difference in pensions between women and men excluding zero pensions (Source: European Commission 2013).

The **gender pay gap (GPG)**, refers to the difference in average wages between women and men. The unadjusted gender pay gap is calculated as the difference between the average gross hourly earnings of women and men paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of men paid employees. (Source: Eurostat, Glossary)



The **income quintile share ratio (S80/S20 ratio)** is a measure of the inequality of income distribution. It is calculated as the ratio of total income received by the 20 % of the population with the highest income (the top quintile) to that received by the 20 % of the population with the lowest income (the bottom quintile) (Source: Eurostat, Glossary).

The **Index of Dissimilarity (ID)** is the index of segregation which takes values between 0 (no segregation) and 100 (full segregation, meaning that some sectors consists fully of women or men) and is calculated by taking the sum of the absolute differences, in each sectors (or occupations), between women and men using the following calculation steps: (1) share of employed women and men in each sector or occupation from all employed women and men; (2) calculating absolute differences for each sector or occupation between women and men; (3) adding up the absolute differences for sector or occupation and dividing by 2.

The **in work at-risk-of-poverty rate** is defined as the share of persons who are in work and have an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income (after social transfers) (Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC).

The **long-term unemployment rate** is the share of persons who have been unemployed for 12 months or more in the total number of active persons in the labour market. (Source: Eurostat, LFS metadata).

The **main reason for inactivity** is collected with the variable 'SEEKREAS': reasons for not searching employment: awaiting recall to work (persons on lay-off); own illness or disability; looking after children or incapacitated adults; other personal or family responsibilities; education or training; retirement; belief that no work is available; other reasons. (Source: Eurostat, EU Labour Force Survey database, User Guide)

The **main reason for part-time employment** is collected with the variable 'FTPTREAS': reasons for part-time work: undergoing school education or training; own illness or disability; looking after children or incapacitated adults; other family or personal reasons; could not find a full-time job; other reasons. (Source: Eurostat, EU Labour Force Survey database, User Guide)

Segregation provides information of the distribution of women and men in different areas. **Sectoral segregation** shows the extent to which women and men are concentrated in a number of economic sectors according to NACE Rev. 2 classification in 10 groups (A10).

Occupational segregation shows the extent to which women and men are over-represented or under-represented in certain occupations according to the ISCO-08 classification (since 2011) and ISCO-88 classification (until 2010) on

a 1 digit level in 8 groups (Armed forces occupations have been excluded).

Self-employed persons are those who work in their own business, farm or professional practice. A self-employed person is considered to be working if she/he meets one of the following criteria: works for the purpose of earning profit, spends time on the operation of a business or is in the process of setting up her/his business (Source: Eurostat, LFS metadata).

The **unemployment rate** represents unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population (Eurostat, LFS metadata).

Work-life balance is a term used to describe a state of equilibrium between an individual's work and personal life. A satisfactory work-life balance is achieved when an individual's right to a fulfilled life inside and outside paid work is accepted and respected as the norm, to the mutual benefit of the individual, business and society. (Source: Eurofound, EWCS).

ANNEX II: Methodology: data sources

EU-LFS (European Union Labour Force Survey)

EUROPEAN UNION LABOUR FORCE SURVEY (EU-LFS)

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_lfs/introduction

The European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) provide basic data on economic activity status and employment characteristics, working time, including reasons for working part-time, together with demographic characteristics and household composition, which are one component of the balance between work and family life. The EU-LFS is conducted in the 28 Member States of the European Union, 2 candidate countries and 3 countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA).

The EU LFS is a large household sample survey providing quarterly results on labour participation of people aged 15 and over as well as on persons outside the labour force. All definitions apply to persons aged 15 years and over living in private households. Persons carrying out obligatory military or community service are not included in the target group of the survey, as is also the case for persons in institutions/collective households.

The national statistical institutes are responsible for selecting the sample, preparing the questionnaires, conducting the direct interviews among households, and forwarding the results to Eurostat in accordance with the common coding scheme. The Labour Force Surveys are conducted by the national statistical institutes across Europe and are centrally processed by Eurostat: 1) Using the same concepts and definitions; 2) Following International Labour Organisation guidelines; 3) Using common classifications (NACE, ISCO, ISCED, NUTS); 4) Recording the same set of characteristics in each country

Specification	Value
Type of data	Survey
Periodicity	Quarterly / Yearly
Last release	Quarterly: 2Q2013, Yearly: 2012
Time domain	From 1983 to 2012. Data for single countries are available depending on their accession date
Geographic domain	EU-28 + Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey
Microdata	<p>Available: On demand, from 1983-2011</p> <p>Data cover all 28 EU Member States as well as Iceland, Norway and Switzerland subject to data availability with the exception of Germany (anonymised microdata is provided from 2002 onwards only) and Malta (from 2009 onwards only). Besides core LFS data, the database also includes the corresponding ad-hoc modules for the reference years 1999 and 2002 to 2010.</p>
	<p>Conditions/problems</p> <p>Comma-Separated Value (CSV) files listing all datasets included in this release, which consists of 2207 standard LFS data files — 1623 quarterly and 584 yearly files — plus 22 special files with household data and 263 ad hoc module files, and providing additional information on sample size and relevant reliability limits per file. SAS import programs allowing the loading of the data into SAS datasets. The EU LFS User Guide available:</p> <p>http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/microdata/lfs</p>
Storage/ dissemination	<p>Availability: free</p>
	<p>Where/How: http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_lfs/data/database</p> <p>Format: Excel, CSV, SPSS, HTML, PDF</p>
Quality assessment: potentiality and limit for the analysis of women's economic independence	<p>A significant amount of data from the European Labour Force Survey (EU LFS) is also available in Eurostat's online dissemination database, which is regularly updated and available free of charge. The EU LFS is the main data source for the domain 'employment and unemployment' in the database. The contents of this domain include tables on population, employment, working time, permanency of the job, professional status etc. The data is commonly broken down by age, sex, education level, economic activity and occupation where applicable.</p> <p>Several elements of indicator sets for policy monitoring are also derived from the EU LFS and freely available in the online database. The structural indicators on employment include the employment rate, the employment rate of older workers, the average exit age from the labour force, the participation in life-long learning and the unemployment rate. The sustainable development indicators also include employment rates by age and educational attainment as well as the population living in jobless households and the long-term unemployment rate.</p>



EU-SILC (EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions)

EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/income_social_inclusion_living_conditions/introduction

The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) is an instrument aiming at collecting timely and comparable cross-sectional and longitudinal multidimensional microdata on income, poverty, social exclusion and living conditions. EU-SILC was launched in 2003 in seven countries under a gentleman's agreement and later was gradually extended to all EU Member States and beyond. EU-SILC has been implemented in 31 countries, i.e. the 28 EU Member States, Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, Turkey — and tested in two further countries (the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia). The survey design is nevertheless flexible in order to allow countries to anchor EU-SILC within their national statistical systems. Two types of annual data are collected through EU-SILC and provided to Eurostat:

- cross-sectional data pertaining to a given time period, including variables on income, poverty, social exclusion and other living conditions. The data for the survey of Year N are to be transmitted to Eurostat by November of Year (N+1);
- longitudinal data pertaining to changes over time at the individual level are observed periodically over a four-year period. Longitudinal data are confined to income information and a reduced set of critical qualitative, non-monetary variables of deprivation, designed to identify the incidence and dynamic processes of persistent poverty and social exclusion among subgroups of the population. The longitudinal data corresponding to the period between Year (N-3) and Year N are to be transmitted to Eurostat by March of Year (N+2).

The way to implement the EU-SILC legal basis is agreed between Eurostat and the national statistical institutes. This includes common procedures and concepts, as well as an increasing number of recommendations on how to word the underlying questions. EU-SILC consists of primary (annual) and secondary (ad hoc modules) target variables, all of which are forwarded to Eurostat.

The survey unit are the households and household members. To highlight the target of this study it is necessary to collect microdata, which provide detailed information on the family composition and on the socioeconomic characteristics of each member. In particular, all different sources of income (labour income, pension, social benefits, allowances, income from interests and dividends, alimonies, inter-household transfers) are recorded and several measures of wealth (home ownership, house characteristics, mortgage) and poverty (ability to pay bills, unexpected expense, buy fish/meat, holiday, etc.) are surveyed.

EU-SILC survey is the main source of information on poverty and socioeconomic exclusion together with EU-LFS and EUROFOUND Working conditions survey. Recent modules have explored issues such as banking exclusion and social participation, access to social benefits, housing, public services and facilities etc. The longitudinal dimension of the EU-SILC survey can also help assessing the relations between labour market transitions and poverty dynamics. And to assess the persistence of poverty.

Specification	Value
Type of data	Survey EU-SILC is organised under a framework regulation and is thus compulsory for all EU Member States. EU-SILC is based on a 'common framework'. The common framework is defined by harmonised lists of target primary (annual) and secondary (every four years or less frequently) variables, by a recommended design for implementing EU-SILC, by common requirements (for imputation, weighting, sampling errors calculation), common concepts (household and income) and classifications (ISCO, NACE, ISCED) aiming at maximising comparability of the information produced.
Periodicity	Yearly
Last release	The last release currently available is 2012 or 2011.
Time domain	2003-2011 (2012 available for all EU28 Member States mid-December 2013). Data for single countries are available depending on their accession date and on time of launch of the survey. The length of time series can also vary depending on indicator concerned. Since 2005 comparability over time is ensured by a common data source (EU-SILC). Due to transition between end-ECHP and start-EU-SILC, there are further disruptions in series between 2001 and 2005.
Geographic domain	EU-28 + Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey
Microdata	Available: free, on demand Conditions/problems Due to the confidential character of the EU-SILC microdata, direct access to the anonymised data is only provided by means of research contracts. Access is in principle restricted to universities, research institutes, national statistical institutes, central banks inside the EU, as well as to the European Central Bank. Individuals cannot be granted direct access.

EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC)

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/income_social_inclusion_living_conditions/introduction

Storage/ dissemination	Availability: free Datasets and indicators are updated on Eurostat website as soon as new data become available. Following the Framework regulation MS shall transmit to Eurostat the cross-sectional data of Year N by 30 November (N+1) and the longitudinal data of Year N by 31 March (N+2). For scientific purposes only, access to anonymised microdata is possible under specific conditions. New users' databases are released in March and August of each year.
	Where/How http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/income_social_inclusion_living_conditions/data/database
	Format: Excel, CSV, SPSS, HTML, PDF, other
Quality assessment: potentiality and limit for the analysis of women's economic independence	<p>The domain 'Income and living conditions' covers four topics: people at risk of poverty or social exclusion, income distribution and monetary poverty, living conditions and material deprivation, which are again structured into collections of indicators on specific topics.</p> <p>The collection 'People at risk of poverty or social exclusion' houses the main indicator on risk of poverty or social inclusion included in the Europe 2020 Strategy as well as the intersections between sub-populations of all Europe 2020 indicators on poverty and social exclusion.</p> <p>The collection 'Income distribution and monetary poverty' houses the collections of indicators relating to poverty risk, poverty risk of working individuals as well as the distribution of income.</p> <p>The collection 'Living conditions' hosts indicators relating to characteristics and living conditions of households, characteristics of the population according to different breakdowns, health and labour conditions, housing conditions as well as childcare related indicators.</p> <p>The collection 'Material deprivation' covers indicators relating to economic strain, durables, housing deprivation and environment of the dwelling.</p>

SES (Structure of Earnings Survey)

EU Structure of Earnings Survey (SES)

http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/labour_market/earnings

SES survey is the basis for collecting data on Earnings and Gender Pay Gap in EU28 Member States. It provides comparable information at EU-level on relationships between the level of earnings, individual characteristics of employees (sex, age, occupation, length of service, educational level) and their employer (economic activity, size of the enterprise, etc.) from 2003 to 2011. The data collection is based on legislation and data become available approximately 2 years after the end of the reference period. Earnings statistics vary with regard to periodicity of the data collection (biannual, annual and four-yearly), coverage (economic activity, enterprise size) and units of measurement (hourly, monthly or yearly earnings). In particular SES provide information on:

- Annual gross earnings — It cover remuneration in cash paid by the employer before tax deductions and social security contributions payable by wage-earners and retained by the employer. Countries provide earnings data and number of employees by sex and by economic activity. The data collection is based on an agreement between Eurostat and the MS and data become available approximately 12 months after the end of the reference period.
- Net earnings and tax rates — The transition from annual gross to annual net earnings requires the deduction of income taxes and employees' social security contributions from the gross amounts and the addition of family allowances. The amount of these components, and therefore the ratio of net to gross earnings, depends on the personal situation of the worker. Different family situations are considered, all referring to an 'average worker'. Differences exist with respect to marital status (single vs. married), number of earners (only for couples) and number of dependent children. Annual net earnings are collected according to an agreement and data become available approximately 12 months after the end of the reference period.
- Gender Pay Gap — The unadjusted Gender Pay Gap (GPG) represents the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. GPG data are released approximately 12 months after the end of the reference period.
- Minimum wages — Minimum wage statistics refer to minimum wages set by national legislation and applicable to the majority of full-time salaried workers in each country. According to a gentlemen's agreement, data is provided biannually to Eurostat, in January and in July.

Data are broken down by economic activity (NACE: Statistical Classification of Economic Activities in the European Community), form of economic and financial control (public/private) of the enterprise and age classes of employees.



EU Structure of Earnings Survey (SES) http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/labour_market/earnings	
Specification	Value
Type of data	Survey
Periodicity	Yearly
Last release	2010
Time domain	1995, 2002, 2006, 2010
Geographic domain	EU-28 + Iceland, Norway, Switzerland, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey
Microdata	<p>Available: free, on demand</p> <p>Conditions/problems The 4-yearly SES microdata sets are available for reference years 2002, 2006 and 2010. The SES anonymised microdata (scientific-use files) can be accessed via CD-ROMs. SES 1995 is also available for a limited set of EU MS (IE-ES-FR-IT-LU-SE). http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/microdata/ses</p>
Storage/ dissemination	<p>Availability: free</p> <p>Where/How Data and indicators available on Eurostat website http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/labour_market/earnings</p> <p>Format: Excel, CSV, SAS, SPSS, STATA</p>
Quality assessment: potentiality and limit for the analysis of women's economic independence	<p>Eurostat collects the Structural Indicator Gender pay gap (GPG) in unadjusted form on an annual basis. From reference year 2006 onwards, the new GPG data is based on the methodology of the Structure of Earnings Survey carried out with a four-yearly periodicity</p> <p>As an unadjusted indicator, the GPG gives an overall picture of gender inequalities in terms of pay and measures a concept which is broader than the concept underlying the principle of equal pay for equal work. In addition, the overall GPG figure does not take into account differences in individual characteristics of employed women and men, nor can it give an indication of the incidence and level of discrimination or segregation in the labour market.</p> <p>However, SES data do not cover employees in the public sector, in enterprises with less than 10 employees or self-employed. Moreover, it does not collect information related to personal characteristics such as marital status, number of children or work history and does not cover inactive or unemployed, which might be relevant for women's decisions to participate in education or the labour market.</p> <p>Hence, in order to investigate such a possible measurement of an adjusted GPG (based on the SES) that can be better interpreted and compared between countries, as well as to recommend the most appropriate methods to measure the extent of the pay gaps, Eurostat launched in 2008 a study on the 'Development of econometric methods to evaluate the Gender pay gap using Structure of Earnings Survey data'. More specifically, the goal was to evaluate the SES data in the light of its above shortcomings and to propose a framework in which econometric analyses of the GPG using SES data can meaningfully be interpreted.</p> <p>Hourly, monthly, annual earning, hours paid data and indicator are also available, and can be used for the analysis of gender differences in the control over economic resources domain.</p>

EWCS (The Eurofound European Working Conditions Survey)

European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS)

<http://discover.ukdataservice.ac.uk/>

This Survey provides an overview of working conditions in Europe in order to i) assess and quantify working conditions of both employees and the self employed across Europe on a harmonised basis; ii) analyse relationships between different aspects of working conditions; iii) identify groups at risk and issues of concern as well as of progress; iv) monitor trends by providing homogeneous indicators on these issues.

Themes covered include employment status, working time duration and organisation, work organisation, learning and training, physical and psychosocial risk factors, health and safety, work-life balance, worker participation, earnings and financial security, as well as work and health.

In each wave a random sample of workers (employees and self-employed) has been interviewed face to face. Following the European enlargements the geographical coverage of the survey has expanded and in 2010 it regards almost 44,000 workers interviewed in the EU-27, Norway, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey, Albania, Montenegro and Kosovo.

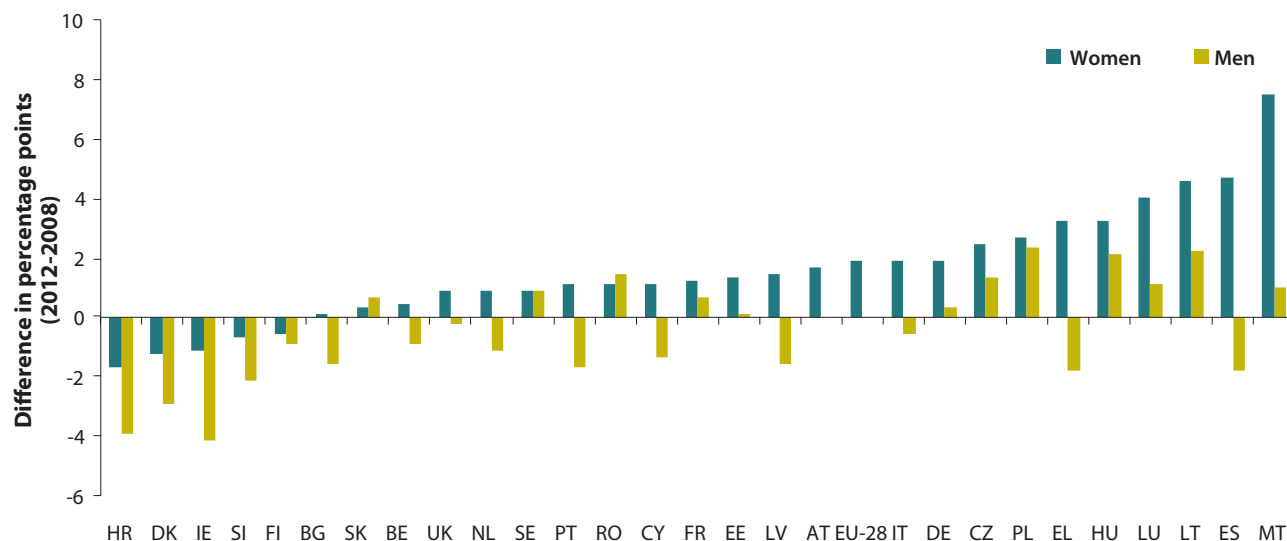
The 2010 wave is particularly interesting for our purpose, as it collects more information about family members (gender, age, employment status, part-time), some information on the effects of the crisis (e.g.: change of time and wages compared to January 2009), more questions about reconciling work and private life (e.g. possibility to take short leave (1 or 2 hours) to deal with personal issues or family), and financial difficulties of the family (and self-employed).

The scope of the survey questionnaire has widened substantially since the first edition, aiming to provide a comprehensive picture of the everyday reality of women and men at work. Gender mainstreaming has been an important concern in recent reviews of the questionnaire.

Specification	Value
Type of data	Survey
Periodicity	5 years
Last release	2010
Time domain	1990/1991, 1995/1996, 2000, 2005, 2010
Geographic domain	<p>EU-28 + Turkey, the Former Yugoslavian Republic of Macedonia, Norway, Albania, Kosovo, and Montenegro. Following the European enlargements the geographical coverage of the survey has expanded:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ First EWCS in 1990/1991: EC12 ▪ Second EWCS in 1995/1996: EU-15 ▪ Third EWCS in 2000: the EU-15 and Norway. The survey has been extended to cover the 12 'new' MS in 2001, and Turkey in 2002 ▪ Fourth EWCS in 2005: EU-27, plus Norway, Croatia, Turkey and Switzerland ▪ Fifth EWCS 2010: EU-28, Norway, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey, Albania, Montenegro and Kosovo
Microdata	<p>Available: free, on demand</p> <p>Conditions/problems</p> <p>The data is available free of charge to all those who intend to use it for non-commercial purposes. Requests for use for commercial purposes will be forwarded to EUROFOUND for authorisation. In order to download the data, you must register with the UK Data Service via their website.</p>
	<p>Availability: free, on demand</p> <p>Where/How</p> <p>Microdata are available on the UK Data Archive. The EUROFOUND datasets and accompanying materials are stored with the UK Data Service in Essex, UK and promoted online via their website.</p> <p>http://discover.ukdataservice.ac.uk/</p> <p>Format: SPSS, STATA, Text, Excel, SAS, Access</p>
Storage/ dissemination	
Quality assessment: potentiality and limit for the analysis of women's economic independence	<p>Themes covered include employment status, working time duration and organisation, work organisation, learning and training, physical and psychosocial risk factors, health and safety, work-life balance, worker participation, earnings and financial security, as well as work and health.</p>

ANNEX III: Statistical annex

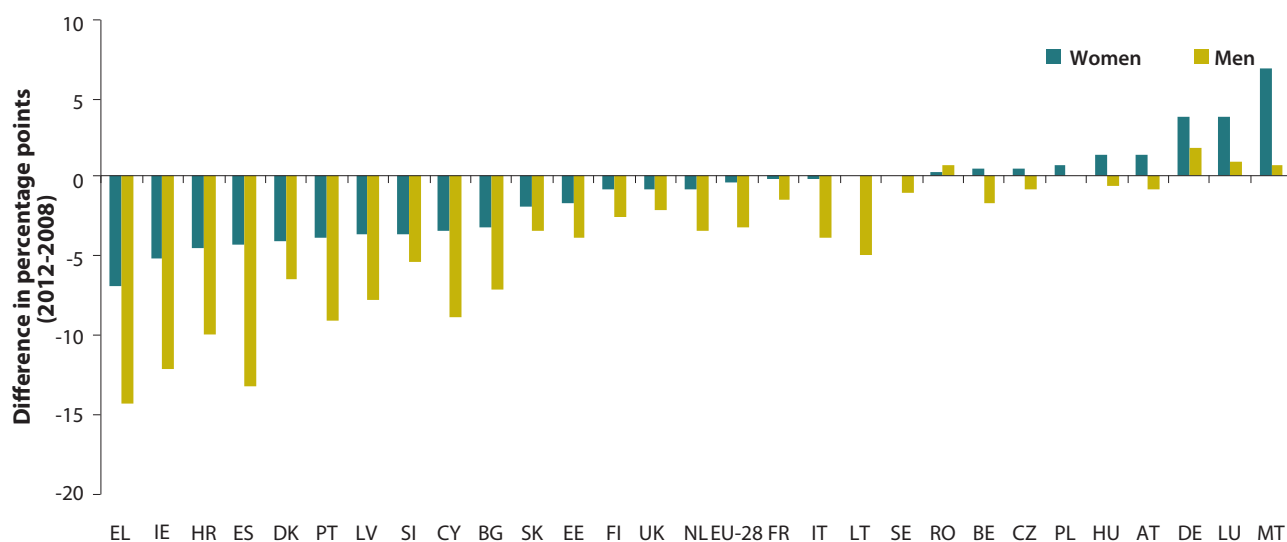
Figure 5.1: Differences in activity rates between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex, 15-64



Source: Eurostat, Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_argan), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: Economically active population (labour force) comprises employed and unemployed persons and activity rate represent active persons as a percentage of same age total population; difference is calculated in percentage points, activity rate in 2012 minus activity rate in 2008.

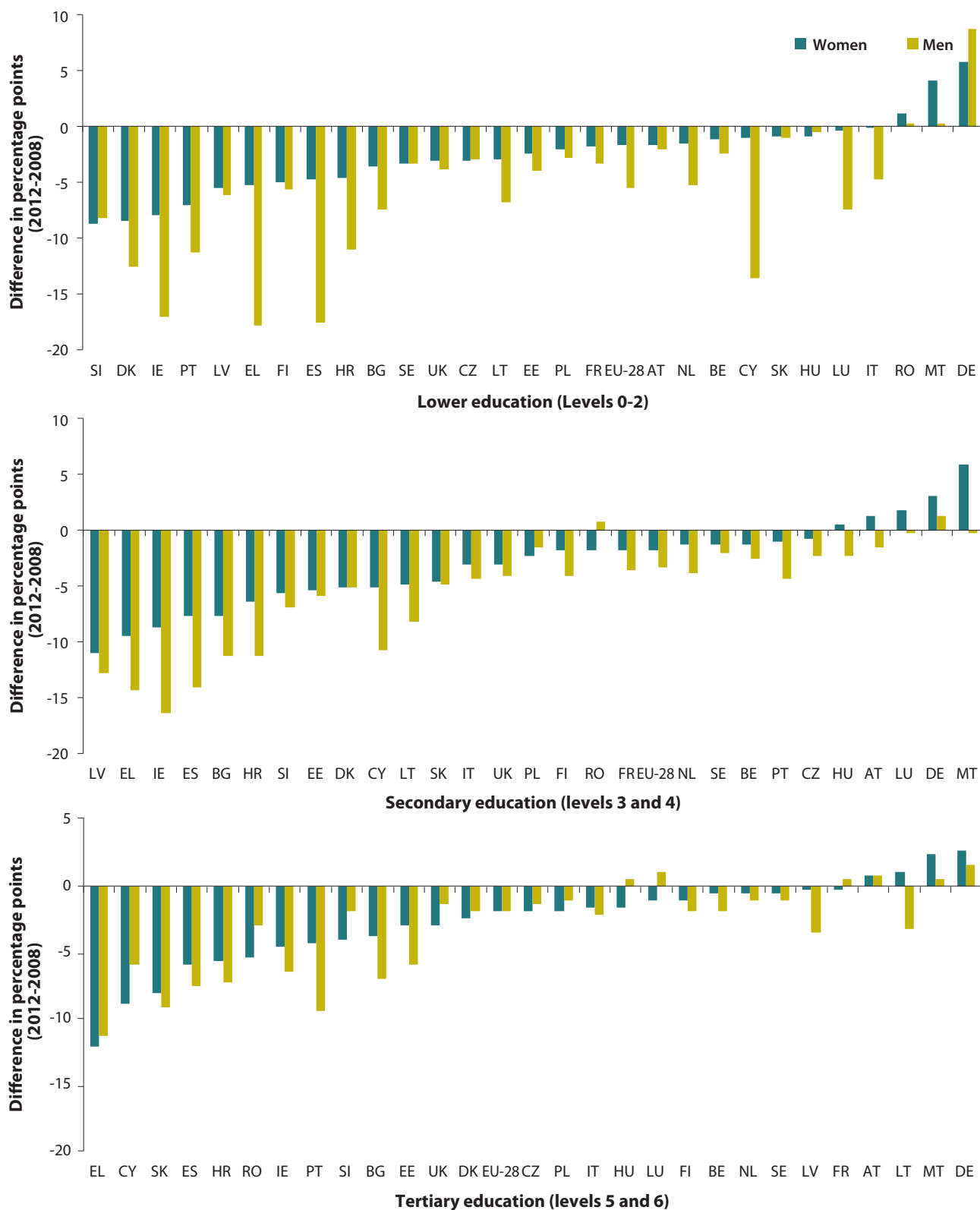
Figure 5.2: Differences in employment rates between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex, 15-64



Source: Eurostat, Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_argan), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: Employment rate represent employed persons as a percentage of same age total population; difference is calculated in percentage points, employment rate in 2012 minus employment rate in 2008.

Figure 5.3: Differences in employment rates between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by highest level of education attained, 15-64

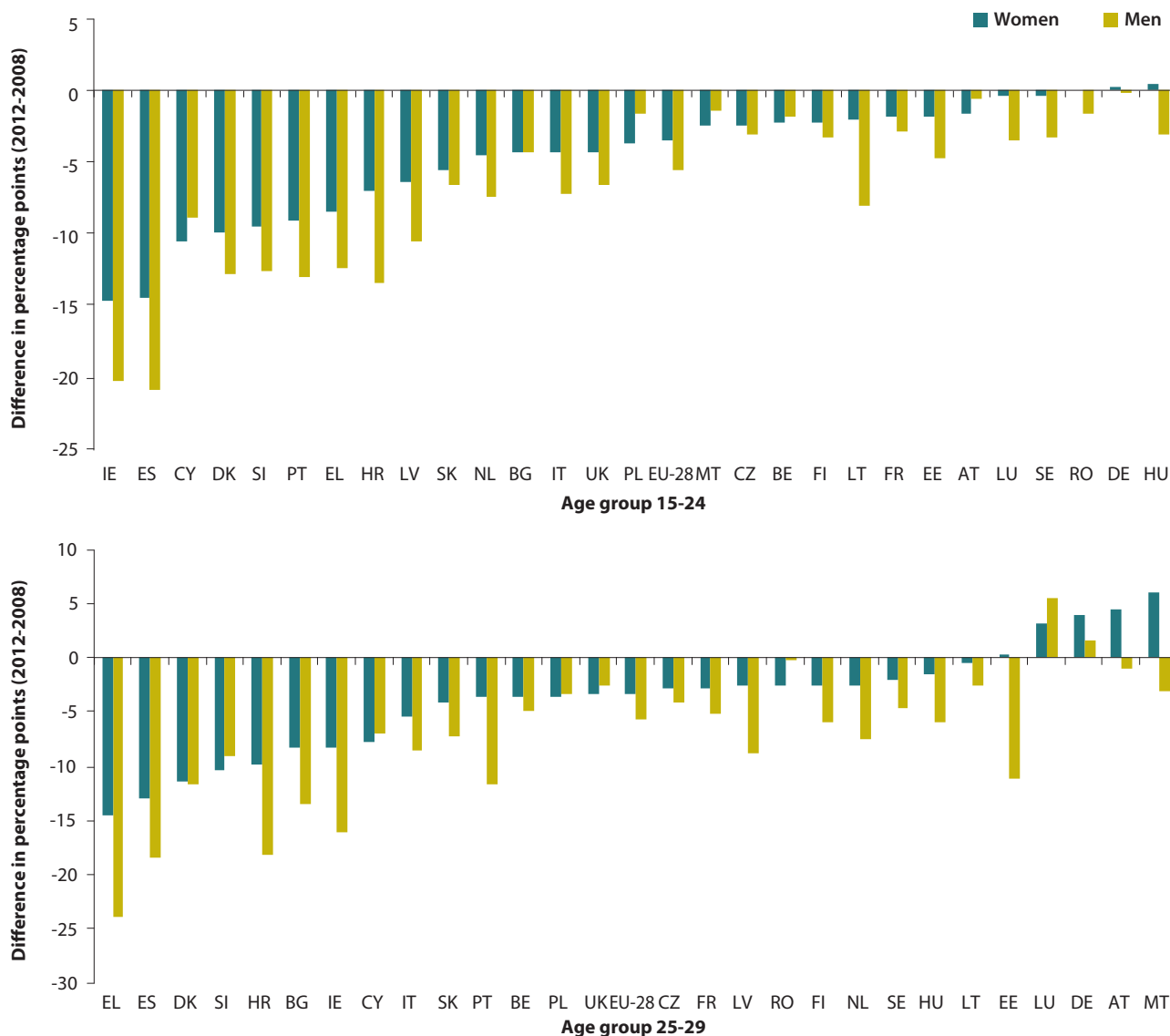


Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_ergaed), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: Lower education consists of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education: ISCED levels 0-2; secondary education consists of upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education: ISCED levels 3 and 4; tertiary education consists of first and second stage of tertiary education: ISCED levels 5 and 6; employment rate represent employed persons as a percentage of same group of total population. Difference is calculated in percentage points, employment rate in 2012 minus employment rate in 2008.



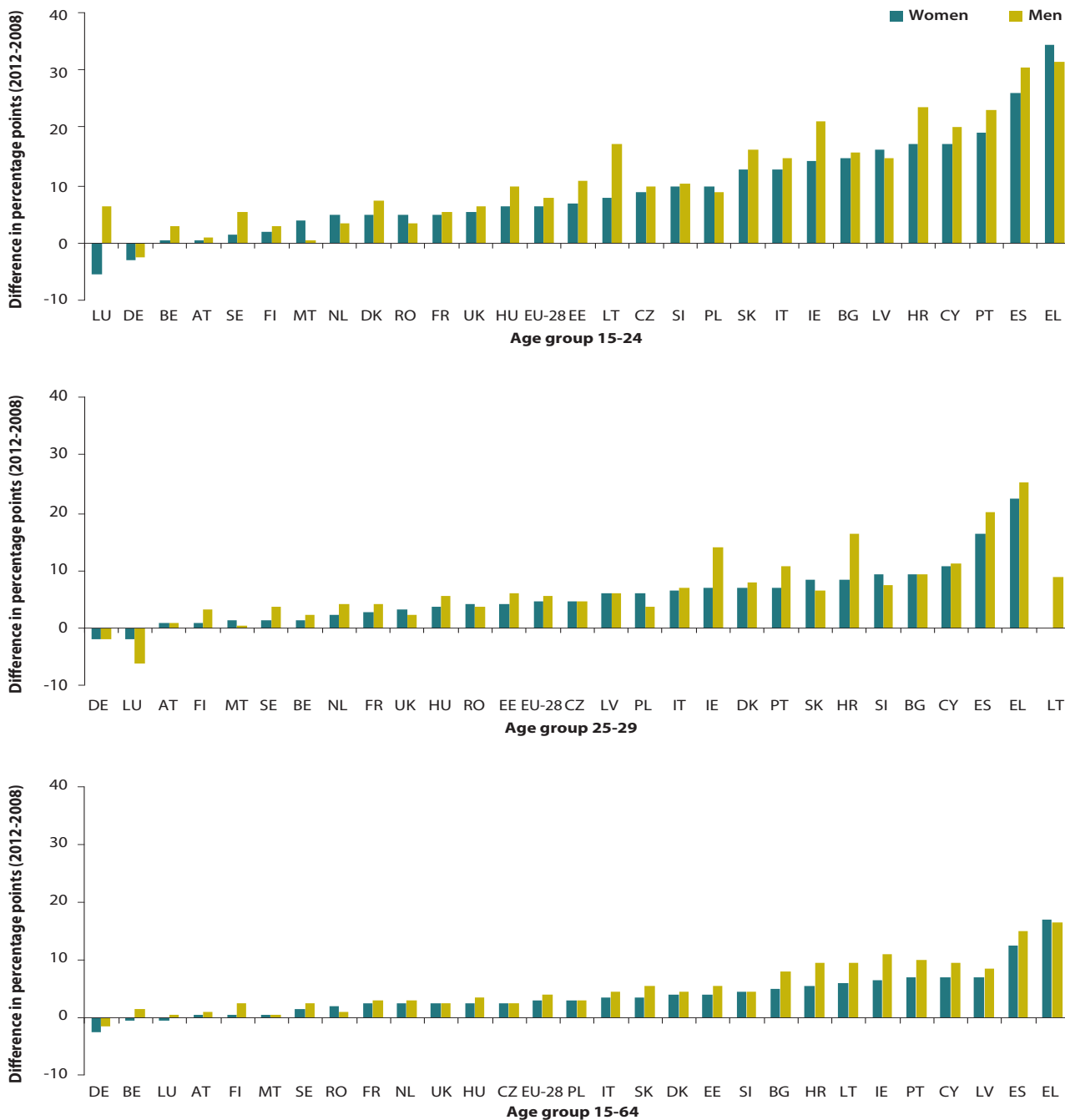
Figure 5.4: Differences in employment rates between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex, 15-24 and 25-29



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_ergan), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: Employment rate represent employed persons as a percentage of same group of total population. Difference is calculated in percentage points, employment rate in 2012 minus employment rate in 2008.

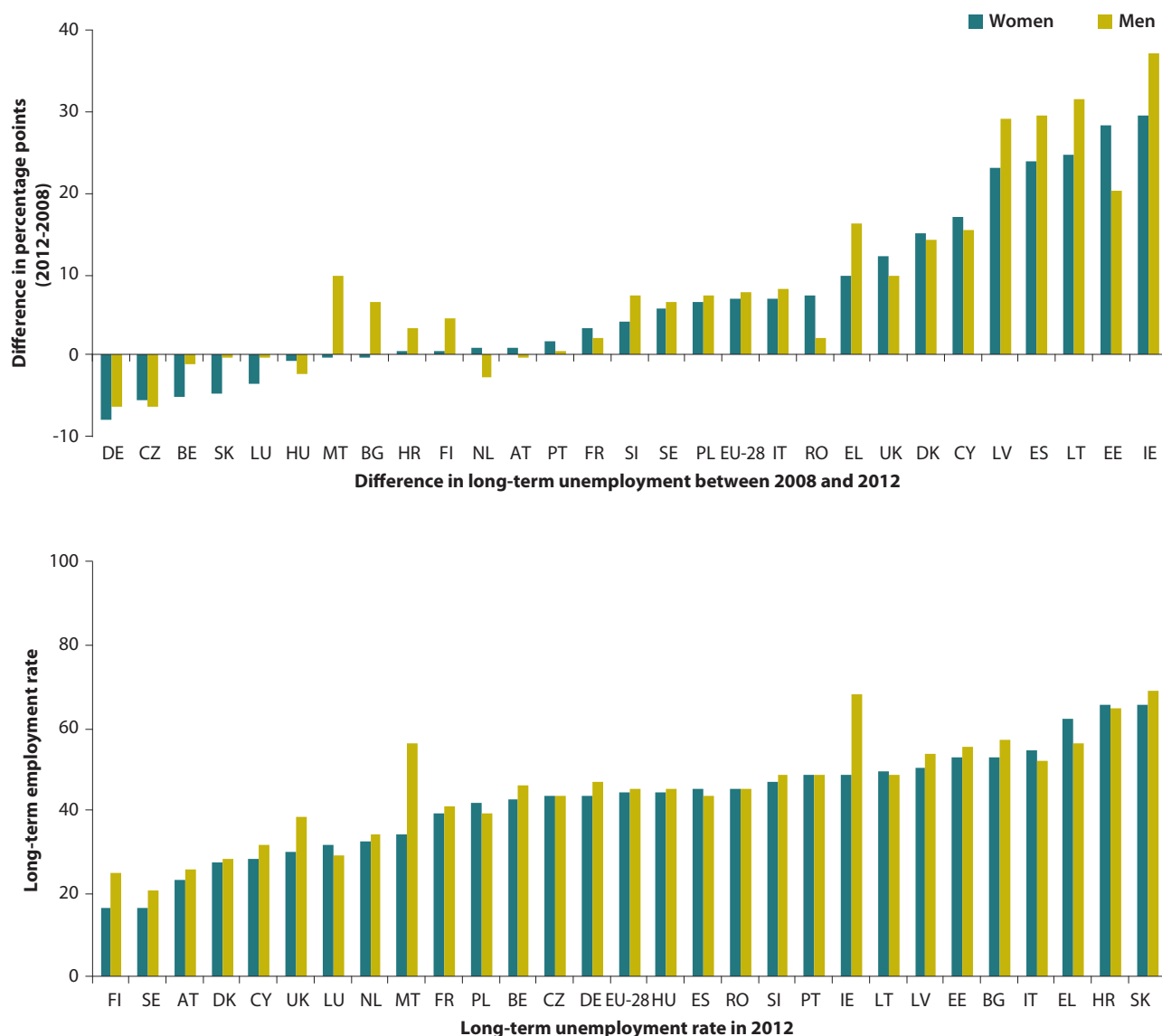
Figure 5.5: Differences in unemployment rates between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex and age groups



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_urgan), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: Unemployment rate represent unemployed persons as a percentage of the active population. Difference is calculated in percentage points, unemployment rate in 2012 minus unemployment rate in 2008. Data for LT in 2008 about unemployment rate for 25-29 aged women are not available.

Figure 5.6: Long term unemployment as percentage of unemployment in EU Member States by sex, 15-64, 2008 and 2012



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_upgan), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: Long-term unemployed persons are persons who have been unemployed for one year or more. Difference is calculated in percentage points, long-term employment rate in 2012 minus long-term employment rate in 2008.

Table 5.1: Index of Dissimilarity (ID) in the EU-28 (15-64), 2008-2012

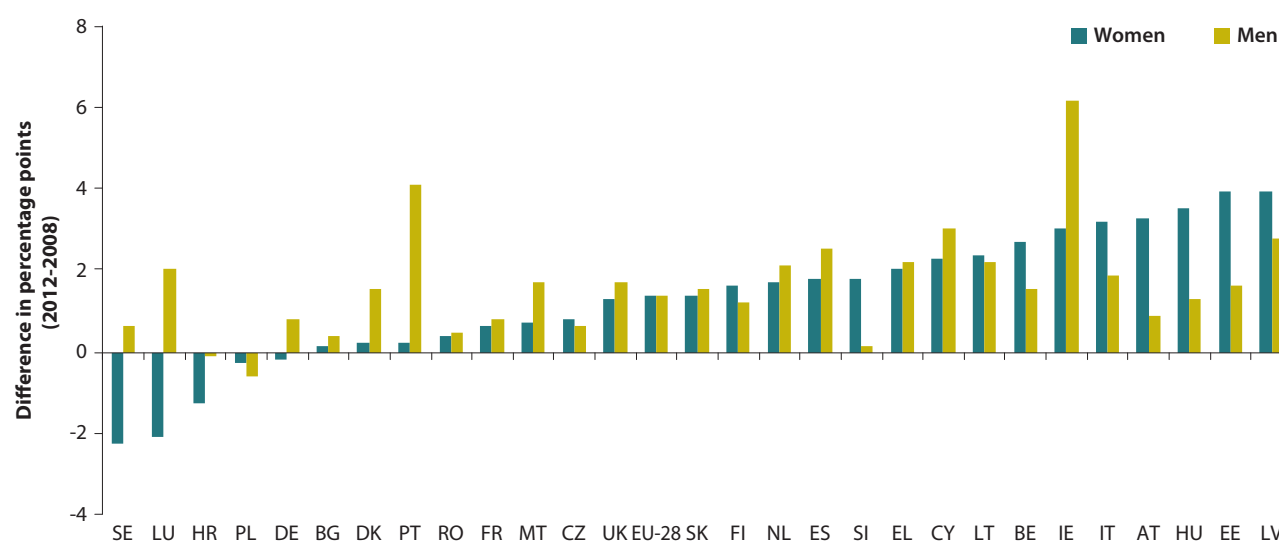
Member States	Sectoral segregation					Occupational segregation				
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
BE	32.7	33.1	32.9	33.4	33.8	36.4	34.9	34.7	34.5	32.8
BG	18.7	19.5	19.5	19.2	17.6	29.8	30.9	31.0	31.0	29.5
CZ	27.0	28.8	29.8	29.6	29.8	36.8	36.6	37.8	37.9	38.2
DK	31.9	33.1	33.3	33.2	33.0	36.6	34.5	34.4	27.9	27.7
DE	28.6	28.7	28.6	28.8	28.9	39.0	39.0	38.7	33.7	33.5
EE	29.4	29.0	30.4	32.4	32.1	44.2	45.9	42.2	39.9	42.7
IE	35.2	31.9	30.7	31.7	31.1	41.2	38.4	36.5	37.2	36.4
EL	22.2	22.5	22.6	20.2	18.7	34.5	33.5	32.1	28.8	27.3

Member States	Sectoral segregation					Occupational segregation				
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
ES	32.4	30.2	29.1	28.2	26.9	39.8	37.9	36.6	37.2	36.3
FR	30.5	31.5	31.5	31.0	31.4	35.7	35.5	35.8	28.5	28.3
HR	23.7	24.8	25.5	24.1	23.0	33.2	32.6	32.1	32.0	30.6
IT	27.2	28.6	29.2	29.2	28.6	30.2	31.1	32.3	32.7	32.8
CY	28.2	28.2	27.3	29.3	25.9	38.4	39.5	37.9	37.2	36.2
LV	29.4	26.6	29.6	27.2	28.1	40.9	36.8	37.8	36.6	36.0
LT	27.8	25.6	24.5	24.0	25.4	40.2	39.9	38.1	36.7	38.0
LU	23.9	25.3	24.3	25.6	25.5	28.6	25.1	26.6	27.0	23.5
HU	26.1	27.0	26.2	26.0	26.2	38.0	38.2	36.8	33.7	34.4
MT	27.3	29.1	28.6	27.3	27.1	31.7	32.5	32.9	33.2	31.2
NL	29.5	29.7	30.9	31.1	:	31.5	31.1	31.3	28.7	28.2
AT	27.4	27.3	27.4	28.0	27.5	34.4	33.9	33.1	35.0	33.3
PL	26.7	27.5	27.6	27.7	28.6	36.6	37.5	36.7	35.8	36.2
PT	26.9	26.8	27.5	26.6	26.5	35.9	35.4	34.4	35.5	34.0
RO	15.1	15.5	16.2	16.7	15.9	27.0	27.8	27.2	25.9	25.7
SI	25.4	24.3	25.0	28.1	27.7	31.9	31.0	30.8	32.3	30.9
SK	32.2	32.2	33.1	33.4	33.8	39.4	38.8	38.8	39.2	39.8
FI	35.9	35.8	35.3	35.4	36.6	40.9	39.3	37.5	36.2	35.4
SE	38.2	37.9	37.1	37.2	36.5	34.5	33.2	33.4	35.9	34.5
UK	29.8	30.3	31.1	31.1	30.5	37.4	36.6	35.6	29.2	28.9
EU-28	27.2	27.6	27.9	27.7	27.8	34.3	34.0	33.7	31.2	30.9

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_epgn62;lfsa_epgais), extracted on 8 January 2014.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available; for sectoral segregation, classification NACE Rev. 2 (A10) was used; for occupational segregation, classification ISCO-08 1 digit was used and Armed forces have been excluded; the ID index is calculated: (1) share of women and men in each sector or occupation from all women and men, (2) absolute differences between women and men in each sector or occupation, (3) adding up the absolute differences for sector or occupation and dividing by 2; the missing values are treated: if one value for women or for men by sector or occupation is missing, then this is calculated based on the other available value (for example subtracting the value for women from the total to derive an estimate of the value for men, depending on what is available); if both values for women or for men by sector or occupation are missing, then these values are taken to be equal to zero.

Figure 5.7: Differences in part-time employment as percentage of total employment between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex, 15-64



Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_eppgacob), extracted on 9 December 2013.

Note: Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL); Difference is calculated in percentage points, part-time employment rate in 2012 minus part-time employment rate in 2008.

Figure 5.8: Percentage of women in part-time and full-time work in EU Member States, 15-64, 2012

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_epgaed), extracted on 9 January 2014.

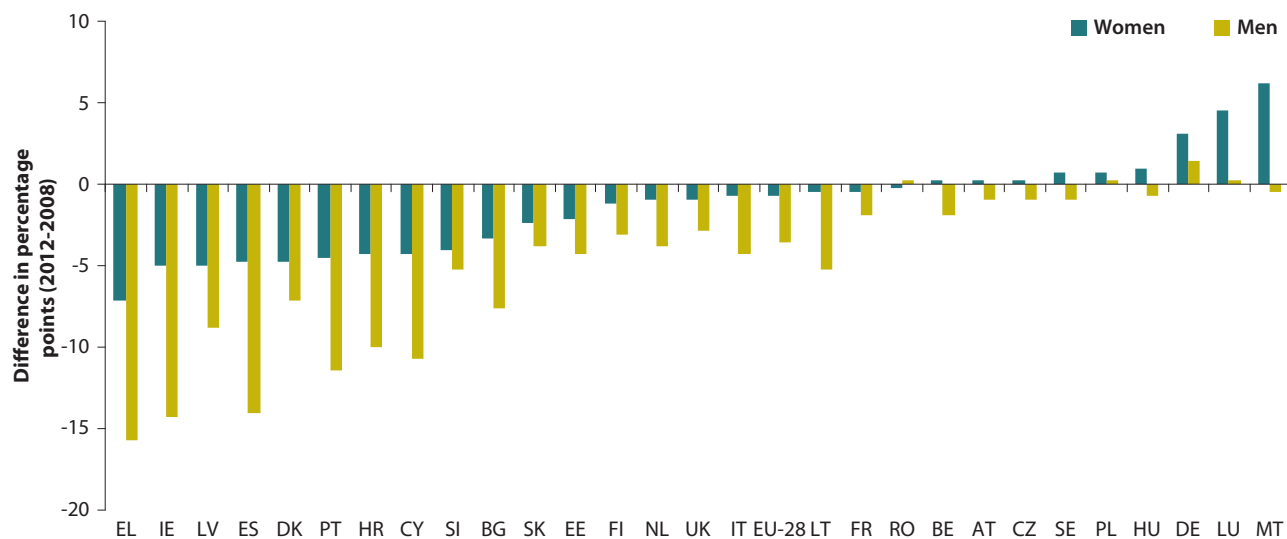
Note: Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL)

Figure 5.9: Labour transition between full-time and part-time work by sex in EU Member States, 2011

Source: Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_epgaed), extracted on 13 January 2014.

Note: Data for IE and FR for 2011 are not available, therefore data from 2007 is used for IE and from 2010 for FR.

Figure 5.10: Differences in full-time equivalent employment rate between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex, 15-64



Source: Eurostat calculation upon EIGE's request.

Note: FTE employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons by average number of hours worked: a full-time person is counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours he or she works; Difference is calculated in percentage points, full-time equivalent employment rate in 2012 minus full-time equivalent employment rate in 2008.

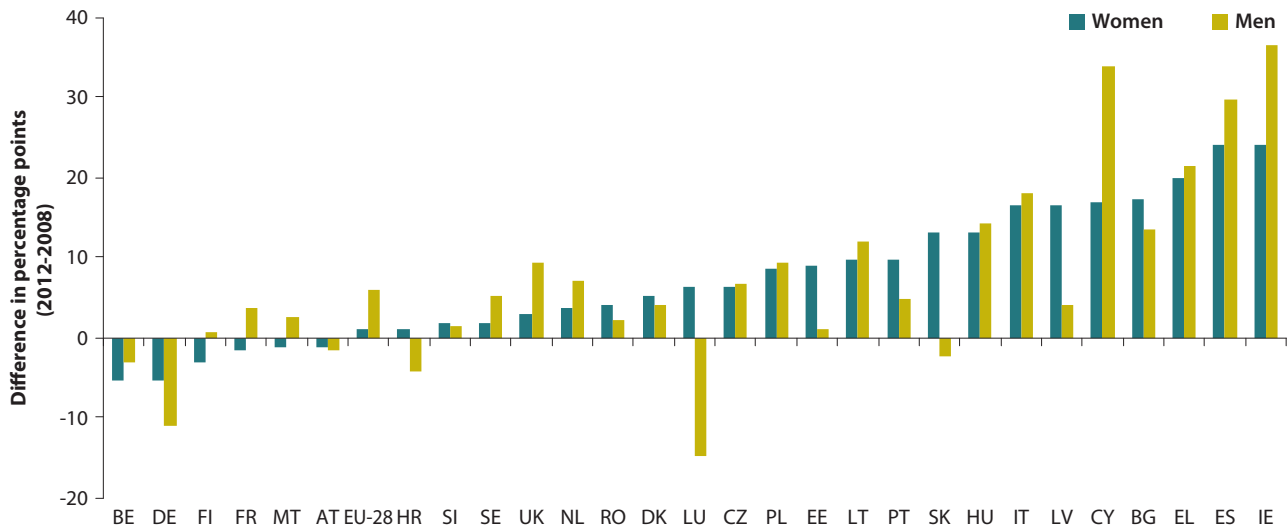
Figure 5.11: Part-time employment as percentage of total employment in EU Member States by main reason for working part-time and sex, 15-64, 2012



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_eppgai; lfsa_eppgacob), extracted on 8 January 2014.

Note: Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL); the main-reason for part-time employment is collected and the reason 'Could not find a full-time job' is taken account.

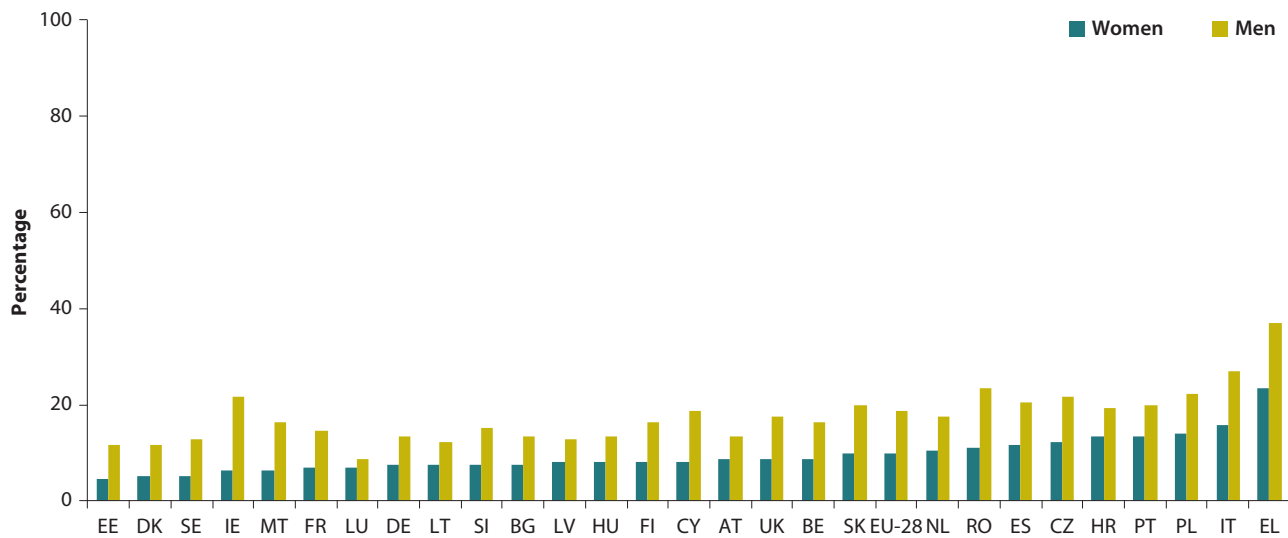
Figure 5.12: Differences in inability to find a full-time job as the main reason for working part-time as a percentage of total part-time employment between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex, 15-64



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS (lfsa_eppgai), extracted on 8 January 2014.

Note: Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is made on the basis of a spontaneous answer given by the respondent in all countries (except for the NL); the main-reason for part-time employment is collected and the reason 'Could not find a full-time job' was included here; UK data for 2008 is from 2009; Difference is calculated in percentage points, inability to find a full-time job in 2012 minus inability to find a full-time job in 2008.

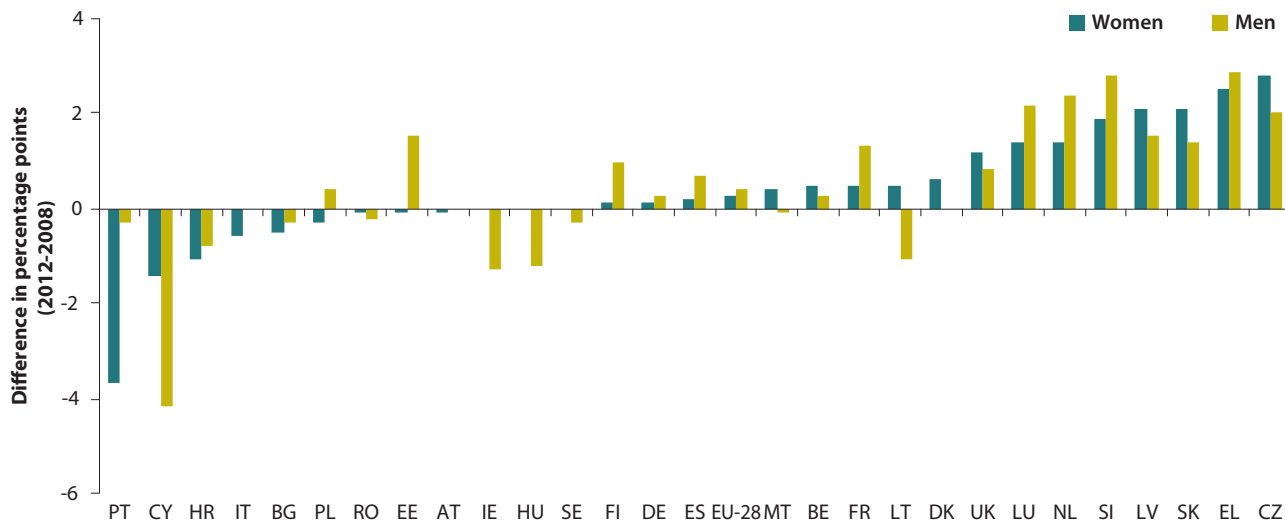
Figure 5.13: Self-employment as percentage of total employment in EU Member States by sex, 15-64, 2012



Source: Calculations based on Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_egaps), extracted on 10 December 2013.

Note: Employed persons are persons aged 15 and over who performed work, at least one paid hour per week or had a job or business which they were temporarily absent; self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice.

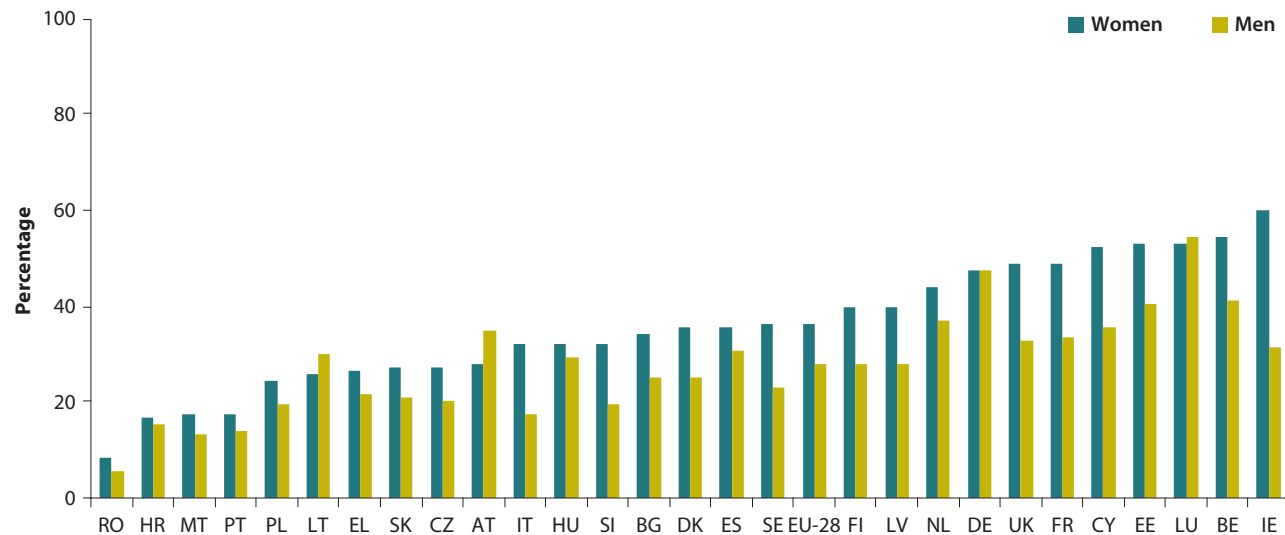
Figure 5.14: Differences in self-employment as percentage of total employment between 2008 and 2012 in EU Member States by sex, 15-64



Source: Calculations based on Eurostat, LFS (Ifsa_egaps), extracted on 10 January 2014.

Note: Employed persons are persons aged 15 and over who performed work, at least one paid hour per week or had a job or business which they were temporarily absent; self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice; Difference is calculated in percentage points, self-employment in 2012 minus self-employment in 2008.

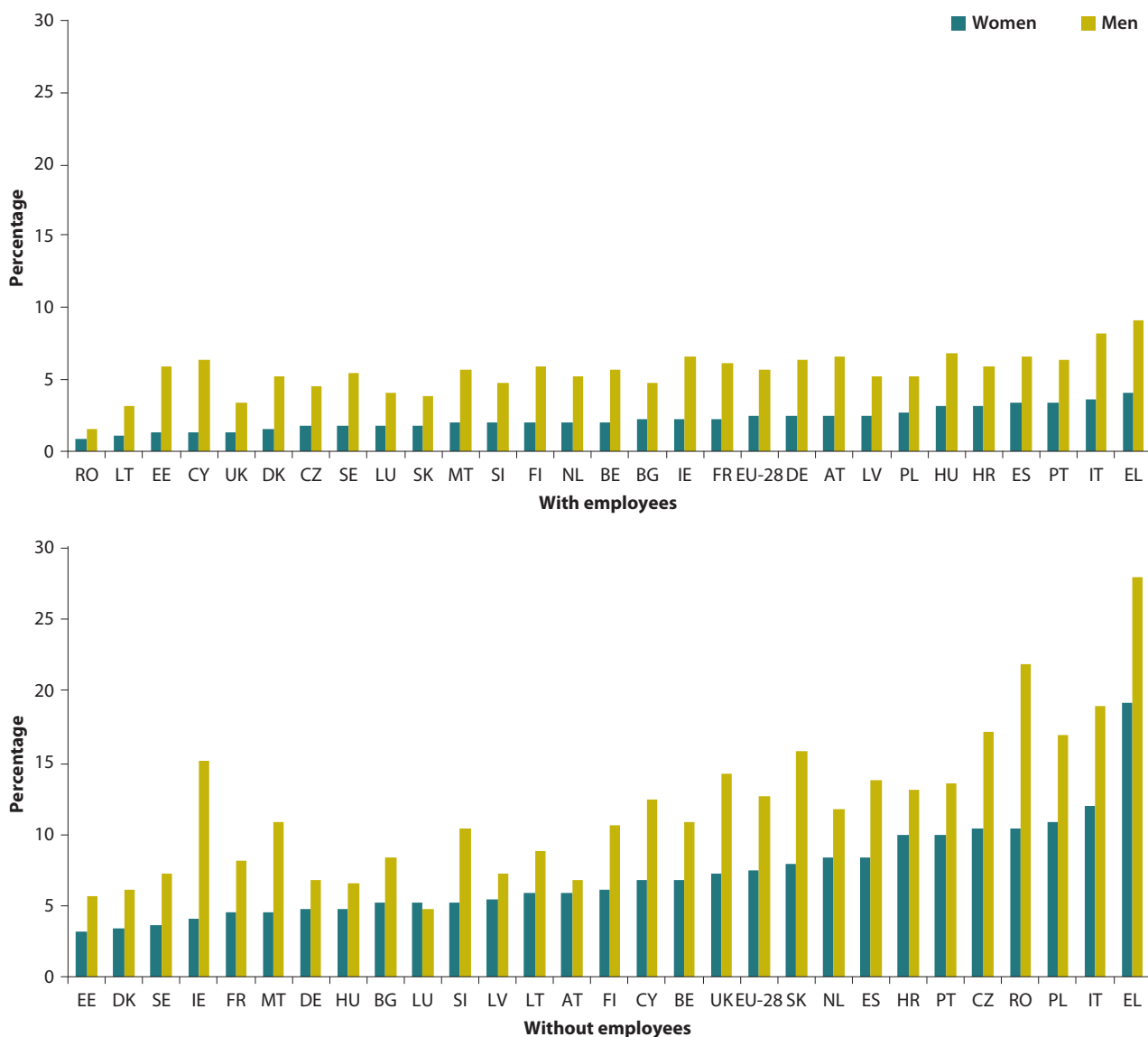
Figure 5.15: High educated self-employed women and men (ISCED 5-6) as a percentage of self-employment (15-64) in the EU-28, 2012



Source: Calculations based on Eurostat, LFS (Ifsa_esgaed), extracted on 10 December 2013.

Note: Employed persons are persons aged 15 and over who performed work, at least one paid hour per week or had a job or business which they were temporarily absent; self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice.

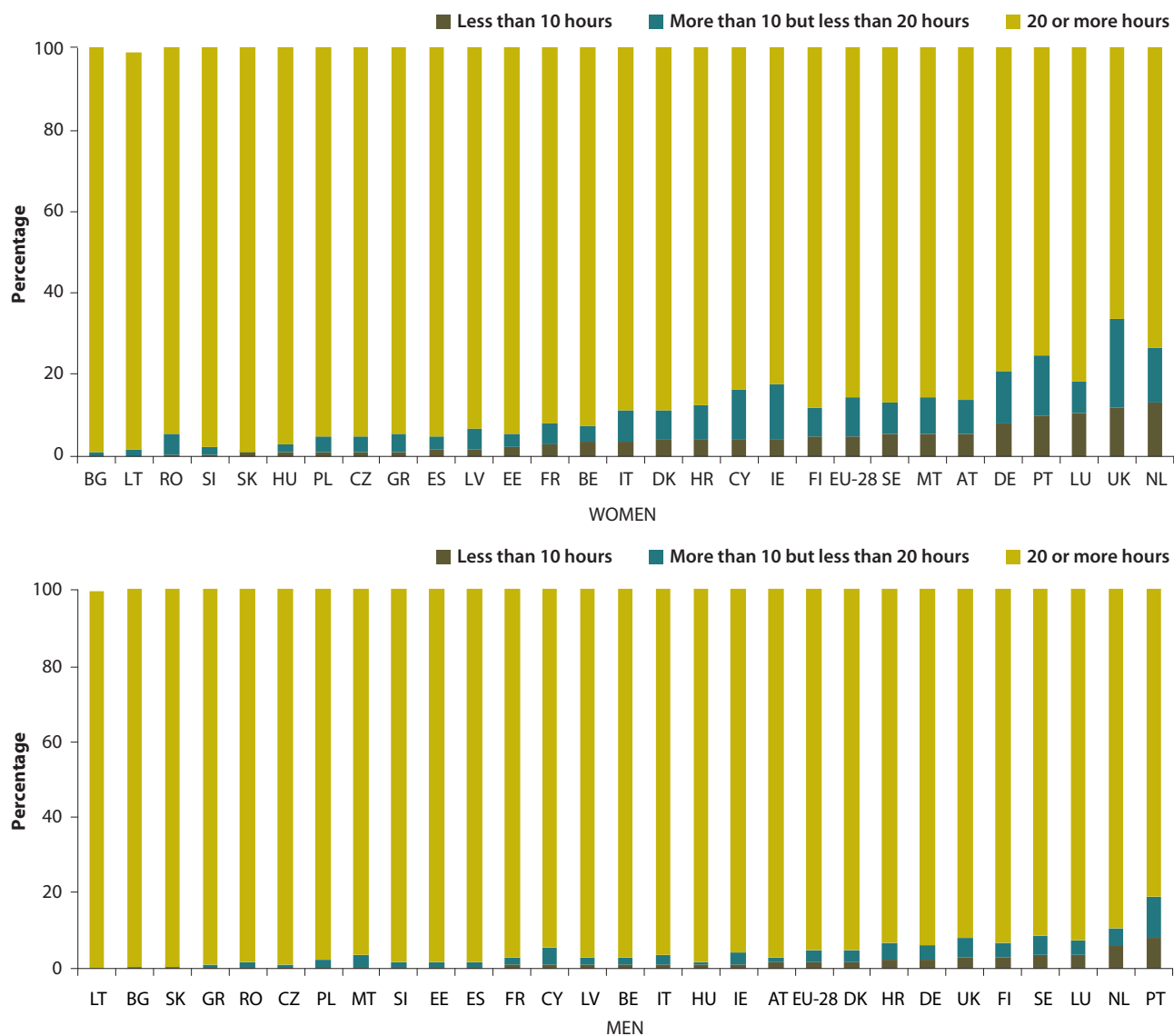
Figure 5.16: Self-employed with and without employees as percentage of total employment (15-64), in the EU-28, by sex and MS, 2012



Source: Calculations based on Eurostat, LFS (lfsa_egaps), extracted on 10 December 2013.

Note: Employed persons are persons aged 15 and over who performed work, at least one paid hour per week or had a job or business which they were temporarily absent; self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice.

Figure 5.17: Working time for self-employed in EU Member States by sex, 2012



Source: Eurostat LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 15 January 2014.

Note: Self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice.

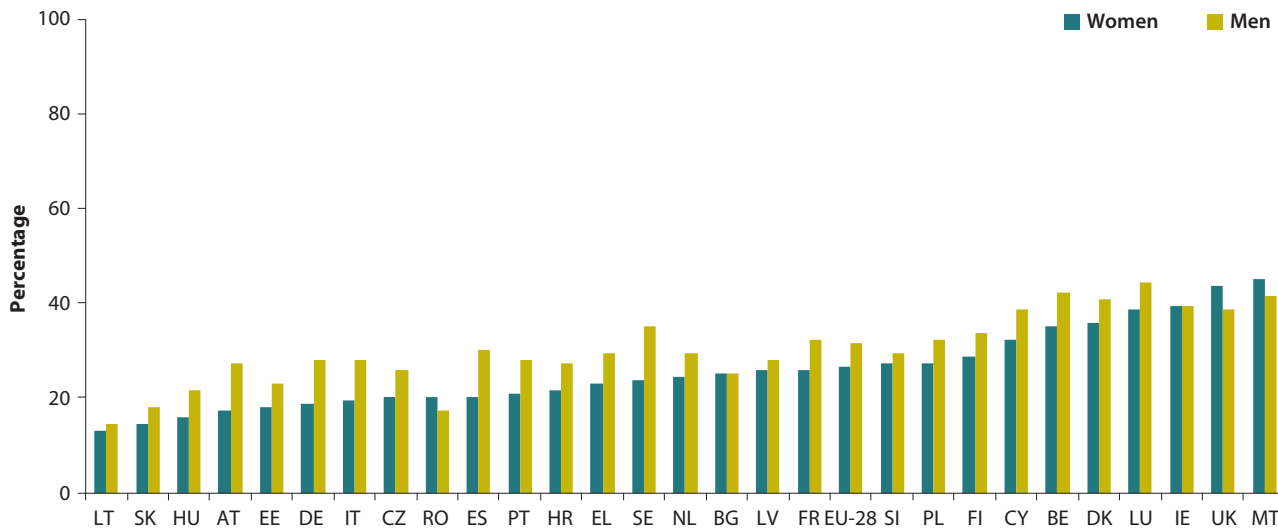
Table 5.2: Percentage of self-employed women and men by working time in EU Member States (15+), 2008-2012

MS	2008						2009						2010						2011						2012					
	>10		10-19		20+		>10		10-19		20+		>10		10-19		20+		>10		10-19		20+		>10		10-19		20+	
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M
BE	2.5	0.9	3.5	1.9	94.0	97.2	2.3	1.2	3.6	1.4	94.1	97.4	2.1	1.0	5.8	1.6	92.1	97.5	3.0	1.5	3.7	1.7	93.3	96.7	3.4	1.1	4.3	1.8	92.3	97.1
BG	:	:	0.7	0.3	99.1	99.6	0.2	:	0.4	0.4	99.4	99.5	:	0.2	0.4	0.6	99.5	99.2	:	:	0.9	0.8	99.1	99.1	:	:	0.8	0.5	99.2	99.5
CZ	1.2	0.2	2.3	0.6	96.4	99.2	1.2	0.4	2.9	0.8	95.9	98.8	1.1	0.4	3.4	0.9	95.5	98.8	1.0	0.3	2.3	0.7	96.6	99.0	1.3	0.3	3.4	0.9	95.4	98.9
DK	2.8	1.3	3.7	3.2	93.5	95.6	2.3	1.8	4.9	3.2	92.8	95.0	3.2	1.7	4.7	3.3	92.0	94.9	3.1	2.1	5.6	3.1	91.2	94.7	4.2	1.7	7.1	3.2	88.7	95.1
DE	8.0	1.8	12.1	2.8	80.0	95.4	7.8	1.8	12.0	2.8	80.2	95.4	7.8	1.7	12.2	2.8	80.0	95.4	8.7	2.4	12.2	3.3	79.1	94.3	8.4	2.5	12.5	3.6	79.1	93.9
EE	:	0.7	1.7	3.3	96.9	96.0	:	:	5.4	2.7	93.7	96.6	1.8	:	3.5	3.1	94.6	96.7	2.8	:	5.2	4.5	92.1	95.4	2.6	0.7	3.2	1.2	94.2	98.1
IE	4.8	0.8	13.1	1.7	82.1	97.5	5.0	0.9	12.7	2.3	82.4	96.8	5.8	1.0	15.2	2.7	79.0	96.3	6.5	1.0	13.1	2.8	80.4	96.2	4.4	1.2	13.2	2.9	82.4	95.9
EL	0.7	0.1	3.9	0.8	95.4	99.1	0.8	0.2	4.1	0.8	95.1	99.1	0.6	0.2	4.6	0.8	94.8	99.0	0.9	0.3	4.6	1.0	94.5	98.7	1.3	0.2	4.2	0.8	94.4	98.9
ES	1.5	0.4	3.4	0.8	95.1	98.8	1.4	0.4	3.4	0.9	95.2	98.6	1.5	0.5	2.9	1.0	95.6	98.5	1.4	0.6	2.9	1.0	95.7	98.4	1.8	0.7	3.4	1.2	94.8	98.1
FR	2.1	0.6	3.8	1.0	94.1	98.4	1.7	0.6	4.1	1.0	94.3	98.4	1.6	0.8	5.0	1.4	93.4	97.8	2.7	1.0	5.4	1.7	91.9	97.3	2.7	0.8	5.5	2.0	91.8	97.2
HR	2.6	1.0	10.6	5.6	86.8	93.4	2.6	1.1	10.3	4.1	87.1	94.8	3.9	1.5	9.3	3.9	86.8	94.6	5.0	1.5	6.5	4.8	88.6	93.7	4.2	2.1	8.1	4.9	87.7	93.0
IT	3.8	1.0	7.2	1.8	89.0	97.2	3.4	0.8	6.4	1.7	90.2	97.6	3.6	1.0	7.4	1.9	89.1	97.2	3.0	0.9	6.5	2.0	90.4	97.1	3.8	1.1	7.4	2.3	88.8	96.6
CY	2.4	0.3	9.0	2.3	88.6	97.4	2.1	:	11.0	1.8	86.8	98.1	3.5	0.5	13.4	3.5	83.1	96.1	4.2	0.6	13.9	4.7	82.0	94.7	4.2	0.8	12.2	4.6	83.6	94.6
LV	1.0	0.3	3.8	1.1	95.2	98.6	1.3	0.4	3.2	1.8	95.4	97.8	1.8	:	4.7	1.8	93.5	98.1	2.6	1.1	5.4	1.2	92.1	97.7	2.0	1.0	4.6	1.7	93.3	97.3
LT	:	0.3	1.2	0.7	98.8	99.0	:	1.1	0.7	0.4	98.6	98.6	:	:	2.2	1.1	97.6	98.7	:	:	1.7	0.5	97.7	99.4	:	:	1.4	:	97.6	99.8
LU	:	:	:	:	91.4	98.7	17.2	5.1	10.2	3.9	72.6	91.1	12.0	3.5	8.4	4.1	79.6	92.4	14.0	4.0	6.9	3.4	79.1	92.6	10.6	3.9	7.6	3.6	81.9	92.5
HU	0.7	1.1	1.8	0.3	97.5	98.7	0.6	1.0	1.1	0.5	98.3	98.4	1.7	1.1	0.9	1.1	97.4	97.8	1.6	1.3	0.4	0.8	98.0	97.9	1.1	1.2	1.9	0.6	97.0	98.2
MT	4.4	0.5	9.6	1.6	85.9	97.9	3.4	0.7	13.4	1.6	83.1	97.7	6.0	0.9	12.3	1.2	81.8	97.9	5.6	0.6	9.5	2.6	84.9	96.7	5.4	0.5	8.8	3.2	85.7	96.4
NL	16.7	5.3	15.2	4.3	68.1	90.4	16.7	5.5	14.8	4.1	68.5	90.4	15.9	4.7	13.6	4.5	70.4	90.8	14.2	5.2	14.0	4.5	71.7	90.3	13.4	5.9	13.5	4.6	73.1	89.5
AT	5.0	1.4	6.0	1.8	88.9	96.8	5.0	1.1	6.4	2.4	88.6	96.4	6.5	1.4	8.2	2.1	85.4	96.4	5.3	1.3	9.0	1.7	85.7	97.0	5.8	1.4	8.0	1.7	86.3	96.9
PL	1.2	0.4	4.9	1.8	93.9	97.8	1.0	0.4	4.9	1.9	94.0	97.7	1.0	0.5	4.9	1.9	94.1	97.7	0.9	0.4	4.1	1.7	95.0	97.9	1.1	0.4	3.8	1.7	95.1	98.0
PT	4.8	1.9	12.7	6.0	82.5	92.1	4.7	2.3	13.1	5.6	82.3	92.2	5.0	2.3	13.2	6.8	81.8	90.9	10.6	7.2	14.8	10.5	74.6	82.3	9.9	8.3	15.0	10.9	75.1	80.7
RO	0.4	0.2	4.7	1.2	94.9	98.6	0.4	0.3	1.8	0.9	97.8	98.8	0.4	0.3	2.6	1.4	97.0	98.3	0.3	0.3	5.1	1.8	94.5	97.9	0.1	0.2	5.7	1.3	94.1	98.5
SI	:	0.5	3.1	0.7	96.7	98.8	1.6	0.4	1.9	1.5	96.5	98.0	0.6	0.6	2.9	1.5	96.5	97.9	0.4	0.5	1.8	0.9	97.8	98.5	0.5	0.6	2.1	0.9	97.4	98.6
SK	0.4	:	1.1	0.2	98.5	99.8	:	:	1.1	0.3	98.9	99.7	:	:	0.5	0.2	99.3	99.8	0.2	:	0.8	0.1	99.0	99.9	0.8	0.1	0.5	0.2	98.7	99.7
FI	5.5	2.3	6.0	3.6	88.5	94.0	4.9	2.8	7.1	4.0	88.1	93.2	5.0	3.3	7.0	3.8	87.9	92.9	5.5	3.0	5.9	3.9	88.6	93.1	4.6	3.0	7.5	4.0	87.8	93.0
SE	4.2	2.7	7.4	4.2	88.4	93.1	5.1	3.4	7.2	4.3	87.7	92.3	5.1	3.5	8.9	4.5	85.9	92.0	5.7	4.2	7.7	4.3	86.6	91.5	5.3	3.7	8.1	4.9	86.5	91.3
UK	11.3	2.3	20.3	4.5	68.4	93.1	11.2	2.2	20.4	4.6	68.4	93.3	12.1	2.6	20.2	4.8	67.7	92.6	12.5	2.9	21.0	5.6	66.6	91.5	12.0	2.7	21.4	5.3	66.6	92.0
EU-28	4.6	1.2	8.3	2.3	87.0	96.5	4.6	1.2	8.3	2.3	87.1	96.5	4.8	1.3	8.6	2.5	86.6	96.2	5.2	1.7	8.6	2.8	86.3	95.6	5.2	1.7	9.0	2.9	85.8	95.4

Source: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 15 January 2014.

Note: Self-employed persons are the ones who work in their own business, farm or professional practice; percentage of self-employed women and men from all self-employed women and men who work less than 10 hours (>10), more than 10 but less than 20 hours (10-20), 20 or more hours (20+) per week.

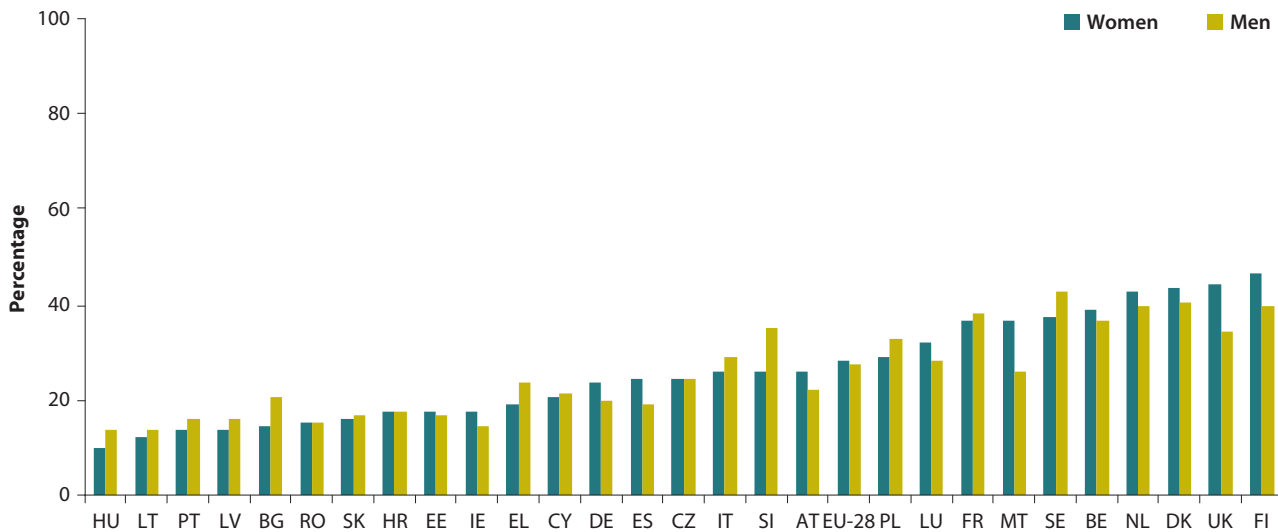
Figure 5.18: Percentage of persons who agreed that their job offers good perspectives for advancement, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: includes who answered agree or strongly agree to the question 77c: My job offers good prospects for career advancement.

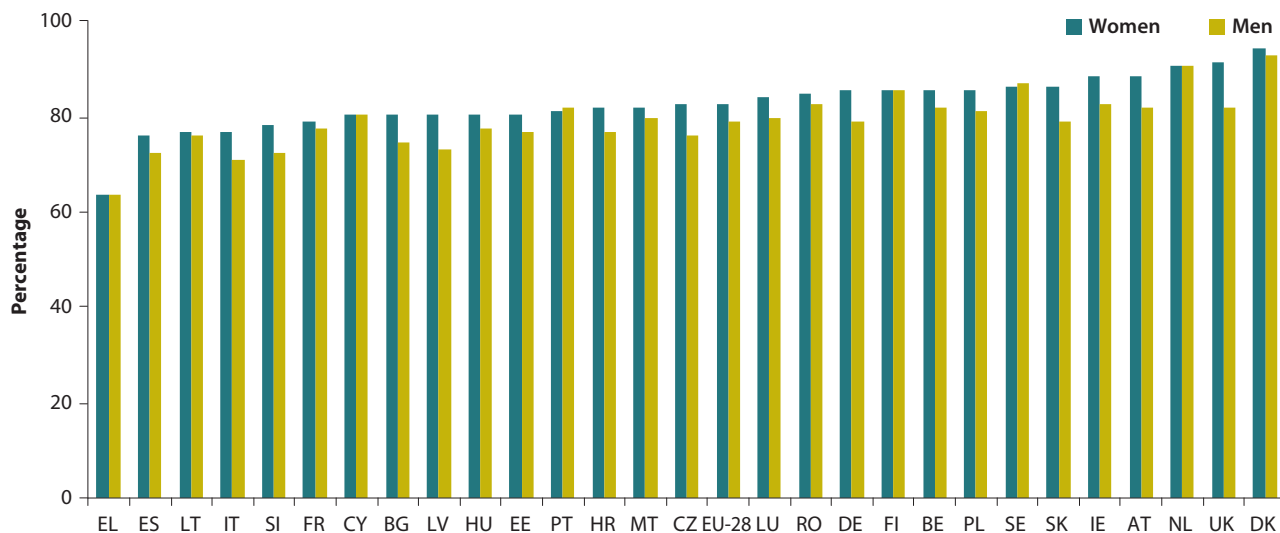
Figure 5.19: Percentage of persons who agreed that if they were to lose or quit the current job, it would be easy to find a job of similar salary, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: includes those who answered agree or strongly agree to the question 77f: If I were to lose or quit my current job, it would be easy for me to find a job of similar.

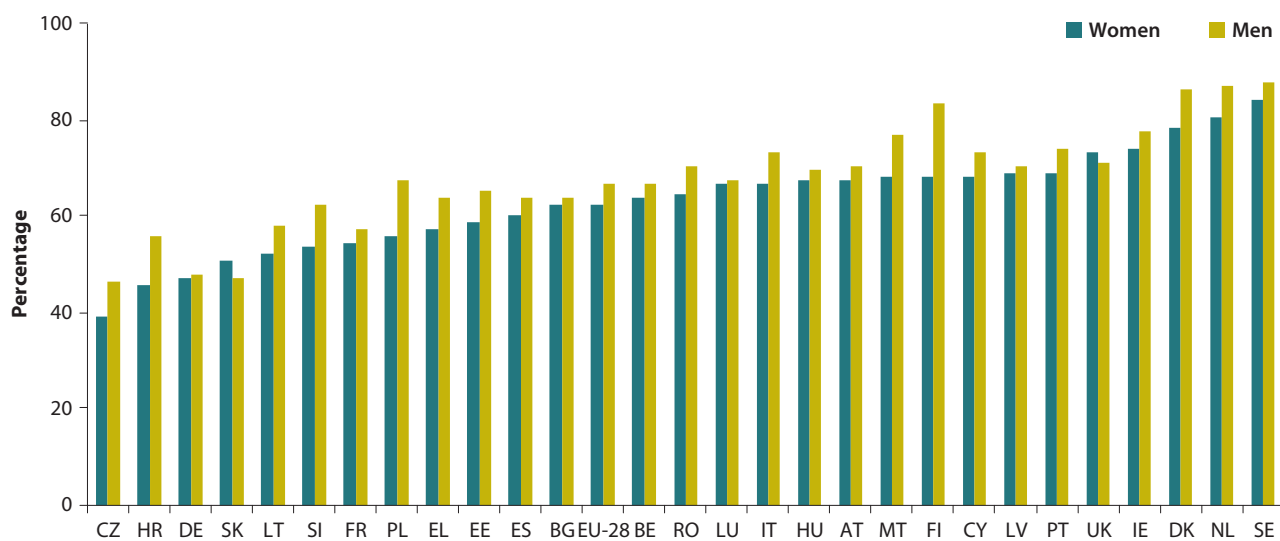
Figure 5.20: Percentage of persons who answered that their working hours fit well with their life, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

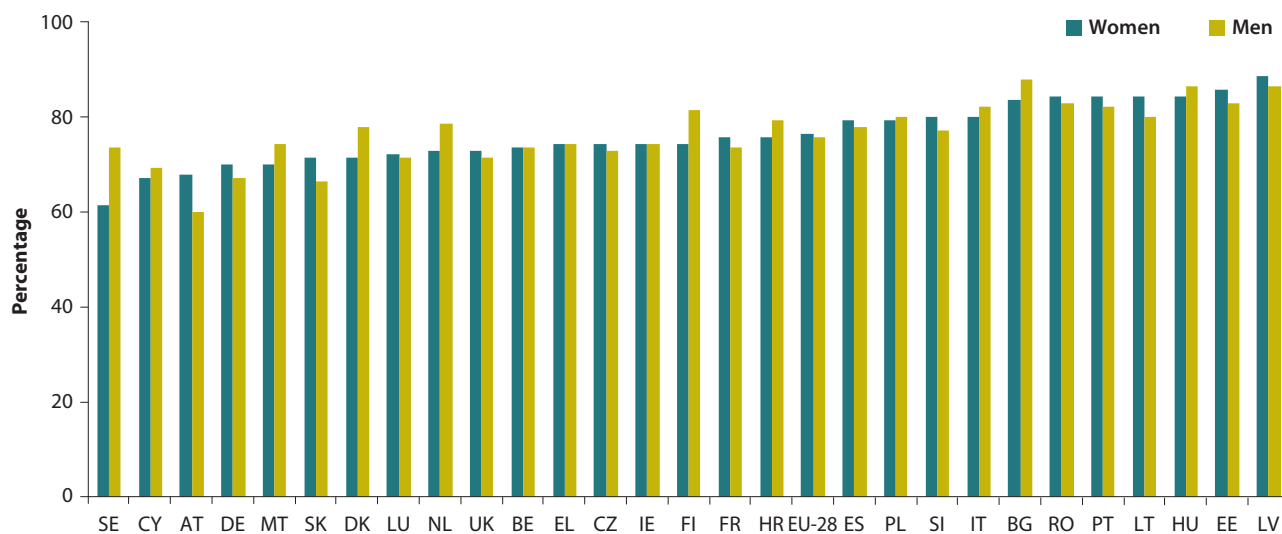
Note: includes those who answered well or very well to the question 41: In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well?

Figure 5.21: Percentage of persons who answered that it is not difficult or not too difficult to take an hour or two off for personal or family matters, 2010



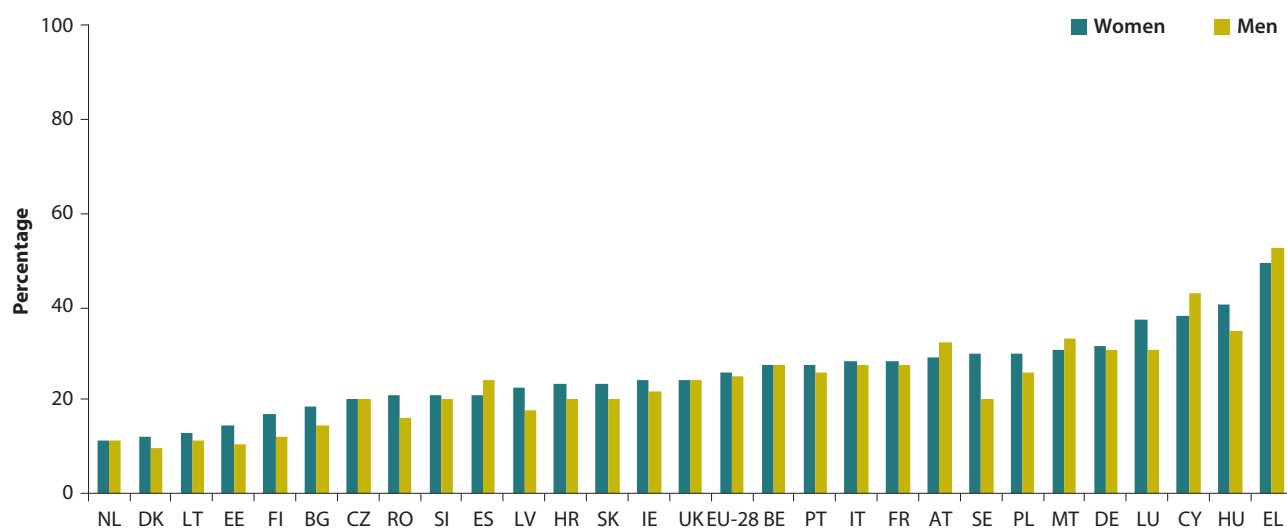
Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: includes those who answered not difficult at all or not too difficult to the question 43: Would you say that for you arranging to take an hour or two off during working hours to take care of personal or family matters is ...?

Figure 5.22: Percentage of persons who answered that they had enough time to get their job done, 2010

Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

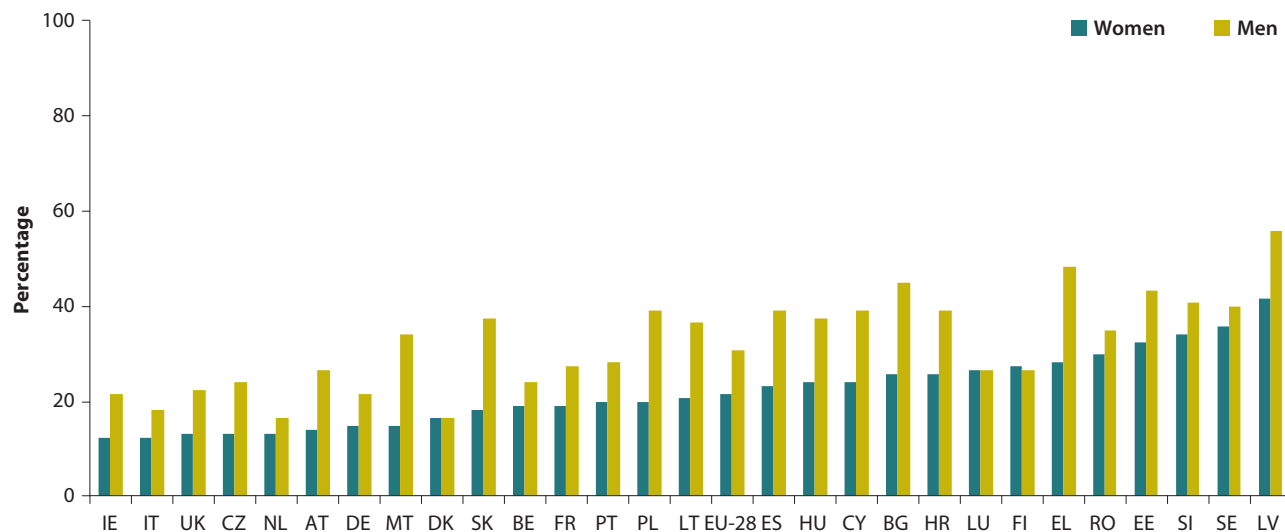
Note: includes who answered most of the time or sometimes to the question 51g: You have enough time to get the job done.

Figure 5.23: Percentage of persons who answered that they experiencing stress at work, 2010

Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: includes those who answered always or most of the time to the question 51n: You experience stress in your work.

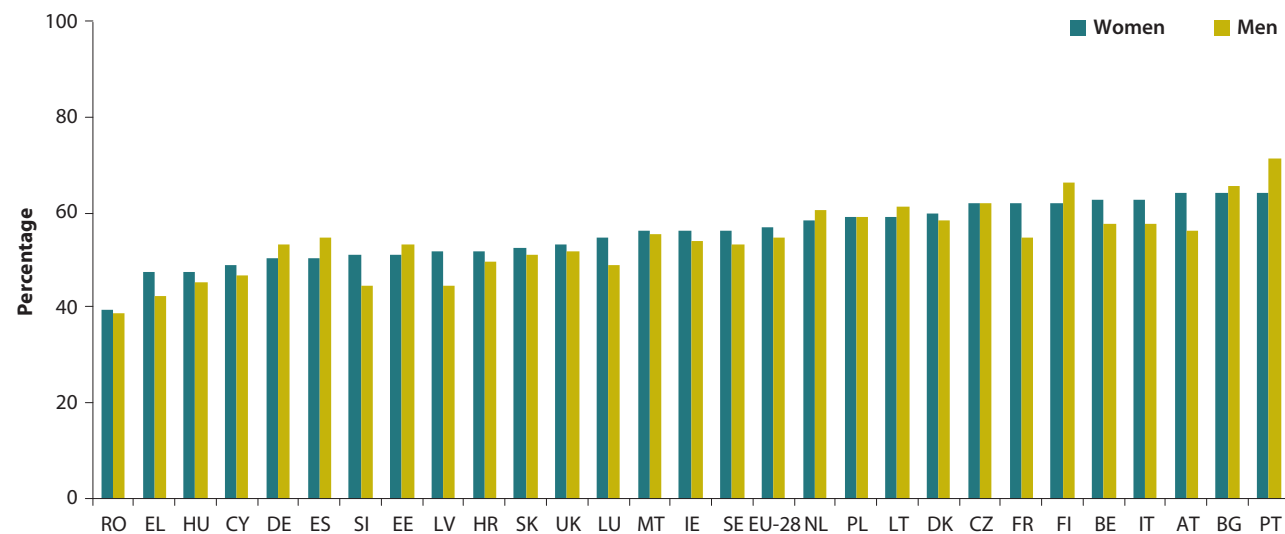
Figure 5.24: Percentage of persons who answered that their health and safety to be at risk at work, 2010



Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

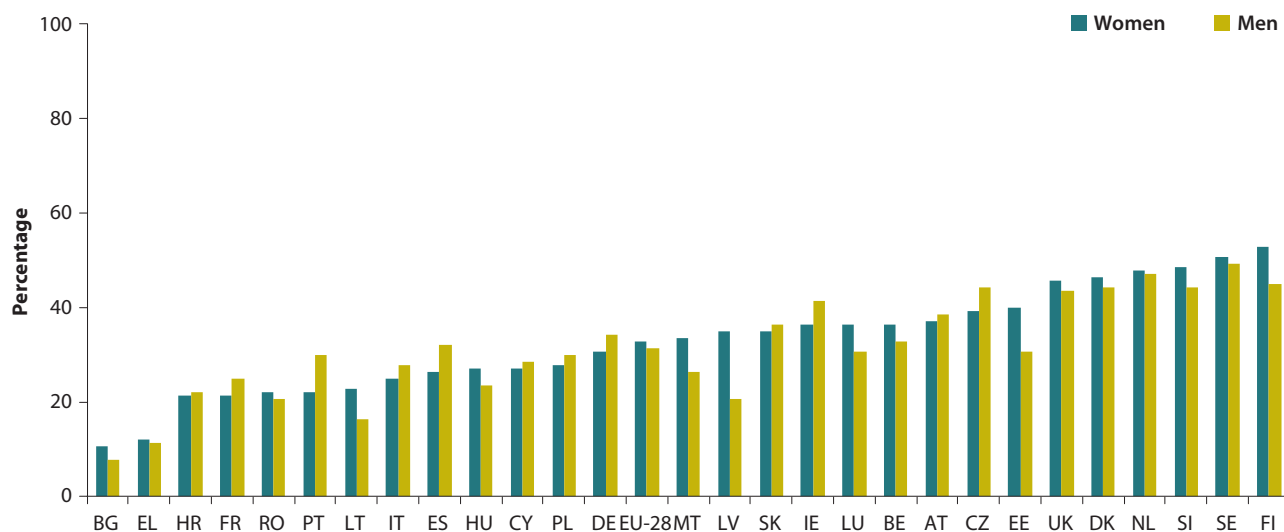
Note: includes those who answered yes to the question 66: Do you think your health or safety is at risk because of your work?

Figure 5.25: Percentage of persons who answered that their current skills fit well with their duties, 2010



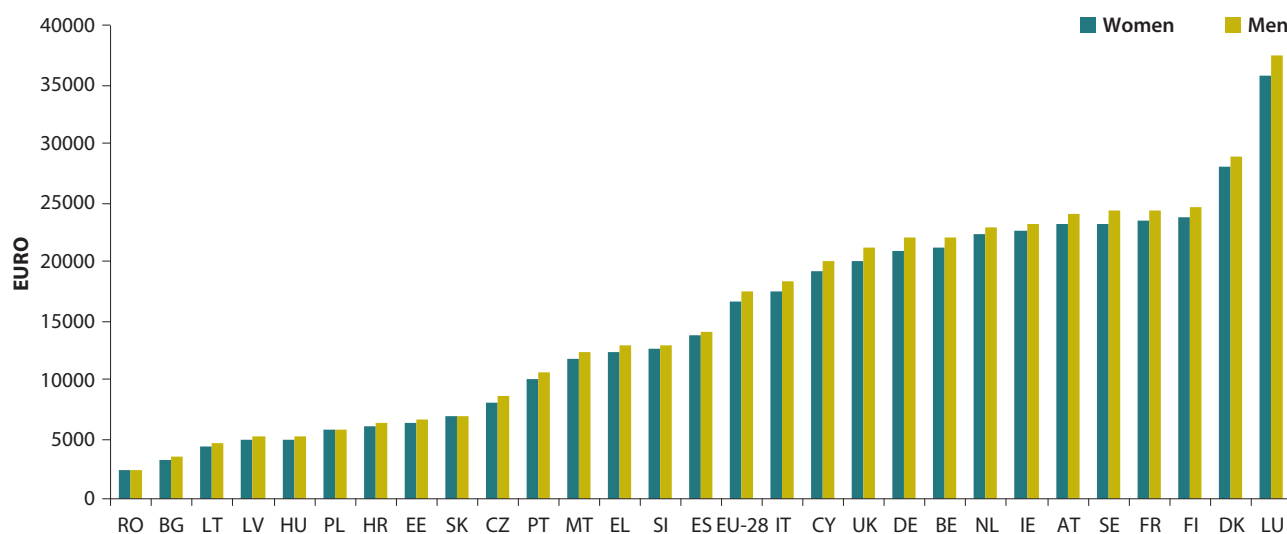
Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010.

Note: includes who answered my present skills correspond well with my duties to the question 60: Which of the following alternatives would best describe your skills in your own work?

Figure 5.26: Percentage of persons who answered that training at work is paid for employer, 2010

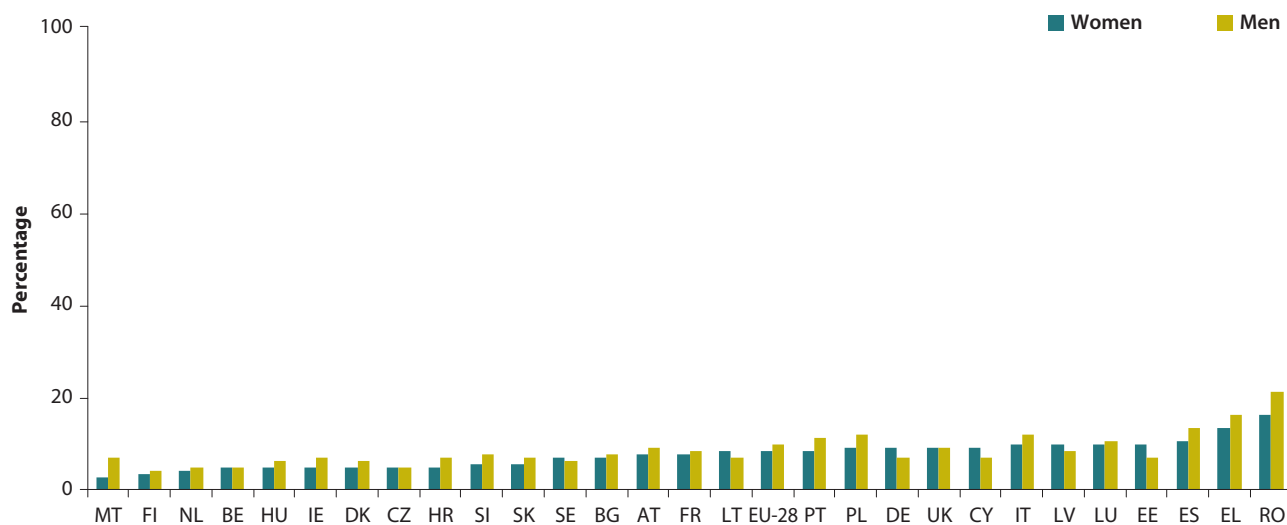
Source: Eurofound, EWCS 2010,

Note: includes those who answered yes to the question 61a: Training paid for or provided by your employer or by yourself if self-employed.

Figure 5.27: Mean equivalised net income in the EU-28, by sex and Member States, 2011

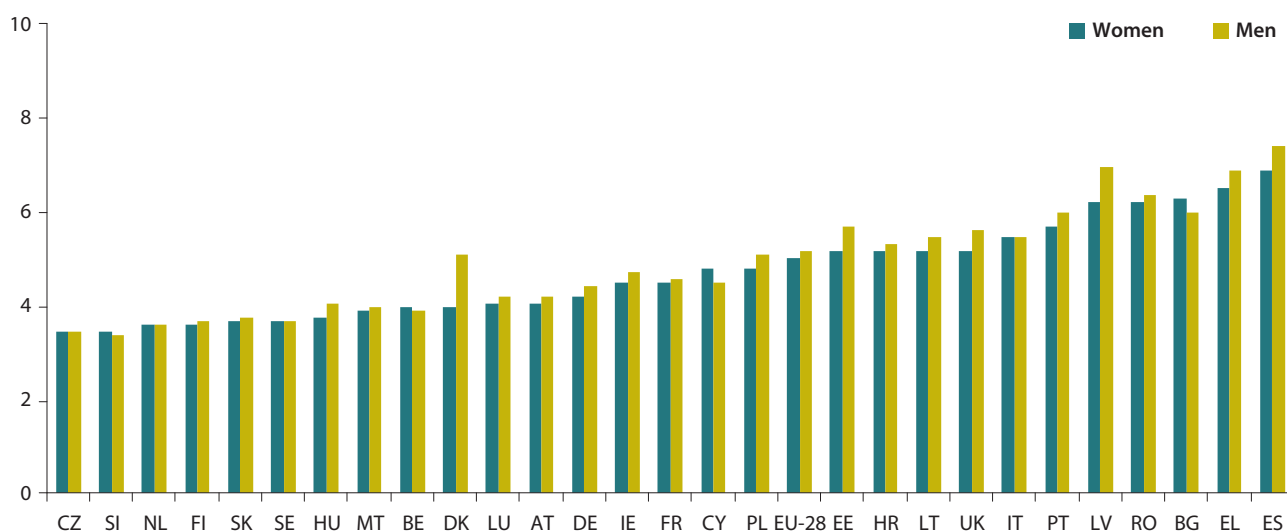
Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC(ilc_di03), extracted on 13 January 2013.

Note: Age group: total; to take into account the impact of differences in household size and composition, the total disposable household income is 'equivalised'. The equivalised income attributed to each member of the household is calculated by dividing the total disposable income of the household by the equivalisation factor according to the OECD-modified scale which gives a weight of 1.0 to the first person aged 14 or more, a weight of 0.5 to other persons aged 14 or more and a weight of 0.3 to persons aged 0-13.

**Figure 5.28: In-work at-risk-of-poverty rate in the EU-28, by sex and Member States (18+), 2012**

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC(ilc_iw01), extracted on 13 January 2013.

Note: The in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate, is defined as the share of the population in work (according to the definition of the most frequent activity status) aged 18 or over with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income after social transfers; data for IE are from year 2011.

Figure 5.29: S80/S20 income quintile share ratio in the EU-28, by sex and Member States, 2012

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC(ilc_iw01), extracted on 13 January 2013.

Note: The income distribution indicator S80/S20, compares incomes for the wealthiest 20 % (quintile) of adults with the poorest 20 % (quintile) of adults; Age group: total; data for IE are from year 2011.

Table 5.3: A: Full-time equivalent employment rate by sex and age, EU-28, 2008-2009

MS	2008												2009																			
	15-64			20-64			15-24			25-54			55-64			15-64			20-64			15-24			25-54			55-64				
	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M
BE	47.2	67.0	56.8	51.5	73.2	62.0	21.6	28.4	25.0	62.3	85.8	73.6	20.2	40.0	29.8	46.8	65.5	55.9	51.1	71.5	61.0	19.9	25.6	22.7	62.3	84.3	72.9	20.7	40.0	30.0		
BG	59.0	68.3	63.6	64.9	75.9	70.3	22.7	29.1	26.0	77.5	84.6	81.1	36.8	55.4	45.4	57.8	66.5	62.1	63.5	73.4	68.4	20.9	27.5	24.3	75.3	82.4	78.9	38.5	53.6	45.4		
CZ	55.9	75.3	65.6	60.7	81.9	71.3	22.5	31.8	27.3	73.6	92.3	83.0	32.1	61.0	45.9	54.9	73.6	64.3	59.6	79.9	69.8	20.3	30.2	25.4	72.4	90.6	81.6	32.5	58.7	45.0		
DK	64.3	76.5	69.9	68.4	81.2	74.3	36.6	47.0	41.6	78.5	89.6	83.4	45.0	62.6	53.5	62.7	72.6	67.2	67.0	77.6	71.8	33.5	41.4	37.4	76.8	85.6	80.6	45.2	61.9	53.3		
DE	49.2	72.6	60.7	51.8	77.1	64.1	37.2	43.4	40.3	56.9	84.5	70.3	33.5	58.5	45.5	50.2	72.2	61.0	52.8	76.5	64.4	37.2	42.5	39.9	57.7	83.4	70.2	36.0	60.4	47.8		
EE	64.0	73.1	68.3	70.4	81.1	75.5	30.4	38.6	34.5	77.5	88.3	82.7	57.9	63.6	60.3	60.4	63.0	61.6	66.2	69.8	67.9	24.2	28.7	26.5	73.1	76.6	74.8	58.3	58.0	58.2		
IE	51.1	73.2	61.7	55.0	79.2	66.6	37.0	42.0	39.4	59.7	85.0	71.8	31.9	63.9	47.4	48.3	63.7	55.6	52.5	69.6	60.6	30.7	29.1	29.9	57.6	76.1	66.3	31.6	58.1	44.4		
EL	46.6	75.2	60.9	50.2	80.7	65.5	16.8	27.4	22.1	59.5	90.7	75.2	25.8	59.3	41.9	46.8	73.6	60.1	50.4	78.9	64.6	16.4	26.5	21.5	59.8	88.7	74.3	26.1	57.8	41.4		
ES	49.3	72.7	61.0	52.5	77.4	64.9	27.1	36.0	31.6	59.7	84.1	71.9	27.4	60.4	43.3	47.2	65.5	56.3	50.4	70.0	60.2	21.7	26.7	24.3	57.5	76.6	67.1	28.2	56.0	41.6		
FR	54.1	68.2	60.7	58.8	74.1	65.9	24.4	32.5	28.4	70.0	88.1	78.4	30.9	38.9	34.6	53.6	67.0	59.9	58.2	72.8	65.0	24.3	31.0	27.6	69.3	86.6	77.3	31.3	39.6	35.1		
HR	48.9	64.2	56.4	53.1	70.0	61.4	19.8	32.4	26.3	67.3	80.6	73.9	23.0	46.8	34.3	49.0	61.7	55.2	53.3	67.5	60.2	18.8	30.4	24.9	67.4	77.6	72.4	25.3	48.5	36.2		
IT	41.8	69.0	55.1	44.8	74.1	59.1	16.3	27.4	21.9	53.3	85.6	69.1	21.8	44.0	32.5	41.1	67.4	53.9	44.1	72.6	58.0	14.4	24.4	19.5	52.2	83.6	67.5	23.2	45.6	34.0		
CY	59.8	79.2	69.2	65.0	85.2	74.9	34.3	37.7	35.9	73.0	92.0	82.4	36.5	69.6	52.6	59.1	75.8	67.0	64.8	82.5	73.3	30.5	34.4	32.4	72.8	89.1	80.5	37.3	71.0	53.9		
LV	65.1	72.3	68.6	71.9	80.1	75.8	30.1	41.4	35.8	80.1	86.3	83.1	56.1	62.7	58.9	59.5	60.3	59.8	65.4	66.7	66.0	23.9	27.8	25.9	73.8	74.1	73.9	51.9	51.8	51.8		
LT	60.8	66.9	63.7	67.8	75.4	71.4	20.9	29.9	25.4	79.1	83.1	81.0	46.1	59.2	51.7	59.5	58.9	59.2	66.2	66.3	66.2	19.8	21.2	20.5	76.9	74.2	75.5	46.7	54.9	50.2		
LU	46.0	70.9	58.3	50.1	76.6	63.2	19.4	26.9	23.2	57.9	89.5	73.4	23.5	37.8	30.5	48.1	72.0	59.8	52.0	78.0	64.7	20.7	26.8	23.8	60.5	90.2	74.8	23.5	44.6	34.1		
HU	49.6	62.6	55.9	54.0	68.6	61.1	16.3	22.8	19.6	66.9	80.8	73.8	24.3	37.5	30.2	48.7	60.6	54.5	53.0	66.4	59.6	15.7	19.5	17.6	65.6	78.5	72.0	25.4	38.9	31.5		
MT	33.6	72.8	53.4	35.5	78.8	57.4	40.4	45.5	43.0	39.5	90.9	65.5	10.8	45.8	28.0	33.9	71.6	53.0	36.0	77.3	57.0	38.4	44.2	41.4	41.3	90.3	66.2	9.0	43.4	26.0		
NL	46.2	74.7	59.7	48.7	79.9	63.4	35.5	42.2	38.7	55.6	90.0	71.7	24.9	55.9	40.0	46.6	73.7	59.3	49.2	79.0	63.2	34.9	39.4	36.9	56.1	88.8	71.3	26.7	57.9	42.0		
AT	53.2	76.6	64.4	55.2	79.9	66.9	44.5	56.1	50.2	63.6	89.1	75.6	22.3	48.5	34.9	53.3	74.9	63.6	55.4	78.1	66.2	44.6	53.5	49.0	63.6	87.1	74.7	22.9	48.5	35.2		
PL	50.6	66.4	58.3	55.4	73.3	64.1	22.0	29.2	25.6	69.5	85.2	77.2	17.7	42.3	29.1	51.0	66.2	58.4	55.7	72.8	64.0	21.3	28.9	25.1	70.2	84.7	77.3	18.8	42.6	29.8		
PT	59.1	74.2	66.5	63.4	79.7	71.4	28.5	37.6	33.1	72.9	88.4	80.5	37.8	57.0	46.8	58.5	71.0	64.6	62.9	76.4	69.5	27.3	31.9	29.6	72.3	85.0	78.6	37.3	56.0	46.0		
RO	51.3	65.0	58.1	56.0	70.9	63.4	19.2	27.8	23.6	66.8	80.6	73.8	32.2	51.4	41.1	50.9	64.6	57.7	55.1	70.1	62.6	19.7	27.2	23.5	66.0	80.1	73.1	32.2	51.0	40.9		
SI	61.6	71.8	66.8	66.1	76.8	71.6	26.2	37.6	32.2	83.2	89.1	86.2	18.6	43.2	30.8	60.8	69.6	65.3	65.1	74.6	69.9	23.2	33.4	28.6	81.2	86.3	83.8	21.8	44.6	33.2		
SK	53.8	69.7	61.7	59.4	77.2	68.2	21.0	30.5	25.8	72.8	86.3	79.5	23.3	56.2	38.5	52.0	67.0	59.5	57.3	74.0	65.6	18.3	26.2	22.3	70.4	83.7	77.1	25.0	54.0	38.5		
FI	64.1	71.0	67.4	68.9	76.6	72.6	33.2	38.1	35.5	78.5	86.7	82.5	50.7	53.7	52.1	62.8	67.3	65.0	67.8	72.8	70.2	30.2	31.7	30.8	77.5	83.7	80.5	50.5	51.2	50.8		
SE	63.0	73.9	68.0	68.7	81.1	74.3	29.5	35.8	32.7	75.8	88.2	81.3	57.4	69.3	63.0	61.7	71.4	66.1	67.5	78.6	72.6	27.3	30.9	28.9	74.4	85.8	79.6	57.9	69.3	63.3		
UK	52.3	73.5	62.4	55.5	78.9	66.6	38.7	45.3	41.9	61.4	86.1	72.9	35.5	61.7	47.9	51.4	71.0	60.7	54.7	76.5	65.0	35.7	40.1	37.8	60.7	83.8	71.5	35.7	60.9	47.7		
EU-28	50.6	70.8	60.4	54.3	76.3	65.0	27.7	35.8	31.8	63.0	85.9	74.1	29.9	52.3	40.6	50.1	68.6	59.1	53.8	74.0	63.6	26.3	32.6	29.4	62.3	83.4	72.6	30.8	52.2	41.0		
EU-27	50.6	70.8	60.4	54.3	76.3	65.0	27.8	35.9	31.9	62.9	85.9	74.1	30.0	52.4	40.6	50.1	68.7	59.1	53.8	74.0	63.6	26.3	32.6	29.5	62.3	83.5	72.6	30.9	52.2	41.0		

Source: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 10 December 2013.

Note: The Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of a full-time worker. A full-time person is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours she or he works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE.

Table 5.3: B: Full-time equivalent employment rate by sex and age, EU-28, 2010-2011

MS	2010												2011																	
	15-64			20-64			15-24			25-54			55-64			15-64			20-64			15-24			25-54			55-64		
	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	47.4	65.7	56.2	51.7	71.8	61.3	19.6	25.6	22.6	63.1	84.3	73.2	21.9	42.2	31.7	47.1	65.1	55.7	51.2	70.9	60.6	20.0	25.8	22.9	62.1	83.2	72.1	23.5	42.5	32.7
BG	55.9	62.5	59.1	61.2	68.5	64.8	18.3	24.9	21.7	73.1	77.4	75.3	36.9	49.7	42.8	55.0	60.7	57.9	59.2	65.5	62.4	18.5	24.5	21.6	71.3	74.3	72.8	38.7	50.0	44.0
CZ	54.3	73.2	63.8	58.8	79.4	69.1	19.2	28.6	24.0	71.4	90.7	81.2	33.3	57.3	44.8	55.5	73.9	64.7	59.8	79.7	69.8	18.6	28.5	23.7	72.6	91.1	81.9	35.0	57.9	46.0
DK	60.4	70.3	64.8	64.8	75.7	69.7	30.7	36.7	33.5	73.7	83.8	78.2	46.6	60.7	53.3	59.6	70.2	64.5	64.0	75.8	69.4	30.6	36.3	33.3	72.0	84.0	77.4	48.4	61.1	54.4
DE	50.9	72.8	61.6	53.6	77.0	65.0	37.6	43.1	40.4	58.4	83.8	70.8	37.4	61.8	49.2	52.0	73.8	62.6	54.6	78.0	65.9	38.1	44.1	41.2	59.7	84.9	71.9	38.8	63.1	50.4
EE	58.1	60.3	59.1	63.1	66.5	64.7	20.5	25.7	23.1	71.9	75.0	73.3	51.8	49.7	50.9	59.9	67.1	63.3	64.6	72.9	68.5	25.7	31.9	28.8	72.1	81.7	76.7	54.1	55.3	54.6
IE	46.6	60.3	53.0	50.7	66.1	57.9	24.9	23.4	24.1	56.3	72.9	64.0	32.2	55.1	43.2	46.0	59.1	52.1	50.0	64.8	56.8	22.5	21.7	22.1	55.5	71.3	62.8	32.9	53.6	42.6
EL	46.0	70.7	58.3	49.4	76.0	62.7	14.5	23.1	18.8	58.6	85.3	72.0	27.3	56.5	41.4	43.0	65.2	54.1	46.4	70.3	58.3	11.4	18.4	14.9	55.3	79.2	67.4	25.6	51.9	38.3
ES	46.6	63.4	55.0	49.8	67.9	58.8	19.2	22.5	20.9	56.9	74.7	65.8	29.4	54.0	41.3	46.3	61.8	54.0	49.5	66.2	57.7	16.9	19.0	17.9	56.3	73.2	64.7	31.7	53.2	42.1
FR	53.3	66.6	59.5	57.8	72.2	64.5	23.5	31.5	27.5	69.0	85.9	76.9	31.9	40.0	35.6	53.3	66.7	59.5	57.7	72.3	64.5	23.4	31.1	27.2	68.7	85.6	76.5	33.2	41.9	37.2
HR	46.7	58.4	52.4	50.7	63.7	57.0	17.1	27.1	22.3	65.6	73.9	69.7	24.5	47.4	35.2	45.0	56.8	50.8	48.8	62.0	55.3	15.2	23.2	19.4	64.0	73.2	68.6	24.3	46.3	34.6
IT	40.7	66.4	53.2	43.7	71.5	57.2	13.4	22.7	18.2	51.7	82.3	66.6	23.9	46.4	34.7	41.0	66.0	53.1	44.0	71.0	57.1	12.9	21.4	17.2	51.8	81.9	66.4	25.7	46.9	35.8
CY	59.5	74.0	66.4	65.1	80.5	72.4	30.5	31.9	31.2	73.0	87.7	79.9	38.8	68.5	53.4	58.6	72.1	65.0	63.9	78.0	70.6	26.3	29.7	27.9	72.8	85.1	78.6	37.2	67.5	52.1
LV	57.7	58.0	57.8	63.1	63.9	63.5	23.2	26.4	24.8	72.1	71.8	71.9	47.1	46.6	46.8	58.5	60.5	59.5	63.5	66.5	64.9	21.9	27.2	24.6	73.2	74.2	73.6	47.7	50.6	48.9
LT	57.5	55.9	56.7	63.9	62.8	63.3	16.6	18.1	17.4	74.9	70.9	72.9	43.9	50.6	46.8	58.9	59.5	59.2	65.1	66.5	65.8	16.0	19.8	17.9	76.9	75.3	76.1	45.2	52.9	48.5
LU	48.5	72.4	60.2	52.7	78.6	65.3	17.9	20.4	19.2	61.7	91.7	76.3	25.4	46.1	35.8	48.5	71.1	59.5	52.9	77.2	64.7	16.1	21.1	18.6	62.4	90.2	75.9	25.3	45.1	35.0
HU	49.3	59.9	54.5	53.6	65.5	59.4	15.8	19.4	17.6	65.7	77.6	71.6	28.5	38.6	33.1	49.0	60.5	54.7	53.2	66.1	59.5	15.7	19.2	17.5	64.9	79.0	71.9	30.8	38.8	34.4
MT	35.3	72.1	53.9	37.6	77.9	58.0	37.2	44.8	41.1	43.3	89.8	66.9	10.7	47.0	28.4	37.0	73.0	55.1	39.6	78.6	59.2	36.3	45.0	40.8	46.2	90.5	68.5	11.7	48.3	29.6
NL	45.1	71.4	57.4	47.8	76.7	61.3	31.7	36.4	33.8	55.2	86.6	69.7	25.0	56.6	40.6	45.5	71.2	57.5	48.3	76.4	61.4	32.1	36.3	33.8	55.3	85.9	69.3	27.3	58.4	42.5
AT	53.1	74.8	63.4	55.5	77.9	66.1	41.7	53.8	47.7	63.8	87.1	74.7	24.5	48.5	36.0	53.1	75.5	63.7	55.3	78.5	66.3	42.5	55.3	48.8	63.9	88.2	75.3	23.8	47.3	35.1
PL	50.8	65.4	58.0	55.4	71.6	63.4	20.2	28.8	24.6	70.3	83.6	77.0	21.2	43.7	31.7	51.0	66.0	58.5	55.5	72.1	63.7	18.3	27.9	23.2	70.2	84.0	77.1	24.5	46.4	34.8
PT	58.2	69.5	63.7	62.5	74.9	68.6	24.4	29.3	26.9	72.1	83.8	77.9	38.2	53.6	45.4	56.5	66.4	61.4	60.8	71.7	66.1	22.0	27.5	24.8	70.9	80.6	75.7	35.4	49.8	42.2
RO	50.7	64.6	57.6	54.6	69.7	62.1	19.4	26.6	23.1	66.1	80.7	73.4	30.8	48.5	39.0	50.4	63.9	57.1	54.2	68.9	61.5	18.8	25.4	22.2	66.0	79.9	73.1	30.0	47.2	38.0
SI	58.9	68.1	63.6	63.1	72.8	68.1	20.8	31.2	26.2	79.7	85.3	82.5	21.1	43.0	32.0	57.9	66.3	62.2	61.9	70.7	66.4	19.1	29.7	24.6	79.5	84.8	82.2	19.4	37.5	28.5
SK	51.3	64.6	57.9	56.4	71.2	63.8	16.5	23.1	19.9	69.1	80.8	74.9	27.6	53.3	39.6	51.3	65.4	58.3	56.1	71.7	63.9	14.4	24.0	19.3	68.9	81.8	75.4	30.3	51.6	40.3
FI	61.9	67.1	64.4	67.0	72.5	69.6	29.3	31.7	30.3	76.2	83.3	79.7	51.0	51.7	51.3	62.5	68.0	65.1	67.4	73.3	70.2	31.0	33.0	31.8	76.5	84.0	80.1	51.4	52.5	51.9
SE	61.2	71.7	66.0	66.8	78.6	72.2	27.1	31.8	29.3	73.6	85.8	79.1	57.9	70.0	63.6	62.9	72.9	67.5	68.4	79.7	73.6	28.9	33.8	31.2	75.1	86.7	80.4	60.0	71.3	65.3
UK	50.9	70.4	60.1	54.3	75.9	64.5	34.2	39.7	36.8	60.1	83.3	71.0	36.3	59.5	47.2	51.1	70.3	60.1	54.5	75.8	64.5	33.3	38.9	36.0	60.6	83.6	71.4	36.3	58.2	46.6
EU-28	49.8	67.8	58.6	53.4	73.0	62.9	25.1	31.7	28.4	62.0	82.5	72.0	31.5	51.9	41.2	49.9	67.7	58.5	53.5	72.8	62.8	24.6	31.1	27.9	62.0	82.3	71.9	32.7	52.3	42.0
EU-27	49.8	67.9	58.6	53.4	73.1	63.0	25.2	31.7	28.5	62.0	82.6	72.0	31.6	51.9	41.3	50.0	67.8	58.6	53.5	72.9	62.9	24.7	31.2	28.0	62.0	82.4	71.9	32.8	52.3	42.1

Source: Eurostat, IFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 10 December 2013.

Note: The Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) employment rate is a unit to measure employed persons in a way that makes them comparable although they may work a different number of hours per week. The unit is obtained by comparing an employee's average number of hours worked to the average number of a full-time worker. A full-time person is therefore counted as one FTE, while a part-time worker gets a score in proportion to the hours she or he works. For example, a part-time worker employed for 20 hours a week where full-time work consists of 40 hours, is counted as 0.5 FTE.

Table 5.4: Main reason for part-time employment: family or personal responsibilities (15-64) by sex, EU-28, 2008-2011

MS	2008			2009			2010			2011		
	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T	W	M	T
BE	60.4	35.8	55.8	56.2	33.8	51.9	51.6	30.7	47.5	49.8	25.2	44.9
BG	18.6	8.1	13.8	19.0	9.4	14.7	15.4	6.4	10.9	13.8	7.3	10.9
CZ	34.7	5.4	28.5	34.1	5.1	27.1	36.6	6.6	29.3	34.8	8.4	28.7
DK	41.8	14.0	33.6	42.9	15.5	34.8	41.4	16.3	34.2	36.4	13.6	29.7
DE	52.2	8.7	44.3	51.5	8.0	44.3	50.3	7.7	43.1	54.7	9.2	47.0
EE	22.6	6.0	18.0	17.3	3.8	13.1	13.9	6.8	11.8	16.5	3.2	12.9
IE	61.1	10.1	49.0	58.9	10.4	47.6	54.5	7.4	42.3	50.7	6.6	38.6
EL	20.5	6.2	16.5	17.4	5.6	13.9	15.3	4.2	11.6	15.7	3.9	11.2
ES	33.5	3.3	27.3	30.3	4.1	24.9	27.1	2.8	22.0	23.9	3.7	19.1
FR	49.2	18.2	44.1	49.1	16.4	43.6	49.7	18.8	44.2	50.2	17.8	44.5
HR	22.4	5.5	15.1	21.0	4.6	14.4	21.9	5.1	15.4	21.0	4.7	14.1
IT	41.4	5.1	34.0	38.5	4.2	31.7	35.0	3.5	28.6	31.5	3.1	25.5
CY	56.9	14.8	45.2	55.3	10.1	42.6	55.3	11.6	41.4	42.8	7.4	30.3
LV	28.1	10.6	21.8	14.6	6.4	11.3	15.0	5.1	11.2	16.5	6.2	12.5
LT	20.4	9.0	16.2	19.9	8.0	15.1	18.8	5.9	13.8	19.6	7.8	15.1
LU	77.8	23.1	73.2	64.4	20.8	58.3	70.1	27.0	65.3	69.5	29.3	64.3
HU	16.1	2.9	11.0	16.9	3.1	11.8	16.3	1.5	11.1	14.2	2.5	9.9
MT	59.5	5.9	46.5	61.1	7.8	46.5	56.6	7.1	42.8	59.3	4.3	43.9
NL	50.8	10.8	41.3	49.7	10.6	40.3	45.3	10.6	36.8	43.0	8.3	34.4
AT	56.8	16.2	50.1	56.9	17.3	50.3	56.6	18.2	50.0	57.1	17.7	50.4
PL	16.5	2.4	11.4	15.1	3.3	10.9	15.4	3.2	11.0	14.3	2.9	10.2
PT	32.9	12.1	27.6	34.2	16.3	29.3	31.7	20.7	28.3	16.7	3.3	11.9
RO	16.3	2.3	9.0	16.4	1.8	8.7	13.3	2.1	7.1	14.8	2.8	8.6
SI	9.7	2.2	6.5	10.7	1.6	6.9	14.4	1.3	9.3	14.8	2.5	9.8
SK	12.2	4.4	9.9	6.8	3.0	5.2	8.0	3.0	6.1	8.5	0.9	5.6
FI	34.4	34.7	34.5	36.6	29.4	34.2	39.0	30.5	36.2	36.5	32.3	35.1
SE	36.5	17.5	32.1	36.3	19.0	32.0	36.7	19.0	32.3	36.0	19.3	31.9
UK	:	:	:	60.7	24.2	52.9	60.7	23.9	52.2	59.8	22.3	51.1
EU-28	45.7	10.1	37.9	46.1	11.2	38.6	44.6	11.3	37.2	46.1	11.7	38.3
EU-27	45.7	10.1	38.0	46.1	11.3	38.6	44.6	11.3	37.2	46.1	11.7	38.3

Source: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 30 January 2014.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available; family or personal responsibilities for women and men includes variables 'Other family or personal responsibilities' and 'Looking after children or incapacitated adults'.

**Table 5.5: Share of part-time workers working less than 10 hours, 2008-2011**

MS	Percentage from total part-time workers								Percentage of women from all part-time workers working less than 10 hours			
	2008		2009		2010		2011		2008	2009	2010	2011
	W	M	W	M	W	M	W	M				
BE	3.7	5.3	3.9	6.6	3.1	5.1	3.9	8.0	75.4	71.0	71.4	65.5
BG	0.8	:	1.2	2.1	2.5	2.8	1.7	1.4	73.7	50.8	57.6	63.1
CZ	6.3	9.1	6.5	10.0	7.3	9.3	8.2	9.4	66.3	61.5	66.5	71.2
DK	19.6	30.9	20.0	32.2	21.5	34.2	21.9	35.4	58.5	57.9	59.6	57.9
DE	15.0	23.1	14.6	21.2	14.1	20.1	15.1	23.6	72.6	73.3	73.9	70.9
EE	4.5	6.8	6.4	7.3	7.1	3.3	5.9	6.4	62.6	65.1	82.6	72.4
IE	9.5	9.9	9.5	9.8	10.2	10.5	10.3	10.7	78.2	75.4	74.0	73.0
EL	5.5	2.8	5.4	5.3	4.9	5.1	5.3	6.9	81.6	68.9	64.5	54.8
ES	10.6	12.6	11.2	14.0	11.7	14.3	11.3	12.9	77.8	75.5	74.5	74.2
FR	7.8	8.6	8.1	8.4	7.7	8.2	8.0	8.5	82.1	82.5	80.6	79.9
HR	5.3	4.0	4.8	4.2	6.1	5.1	7.6	4.9	64.9	61.9	63.9	67.3
IT	6.5	7.9	6.1	6.7	6.2	6.6	5.9	6.2	74.5	77.3	77.3	76.5
CY	5.6	3.3	6.8	4.3	6.8	8.4	9.2	5.2	76.8	76.9	58.2	73.8
LV	6.4	3.4	5.2	2.7	4.3	2.9	5.9	3.4	78.0	74.5	69.8	73.9
LT	2.6	2.2	2.9	2.7	2.4	1.9	2.8	2.4	73.2	67.8	69.6	67.7
LU	5.5	:	9.8	19.8	8.0	19.9	7.8	17.5	98.9	71.5	74.5	72.9
HU	2.1	2.7	2.7	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.5	3.4	58.5	62.0	67.7	56.9
MT	5.5	4.3	6.4	5.6	6.6	9.6	7.4	6.7	78.4	73.0	59.7	69.6
NL	17.7	28.1	17.5	28.5	16.4	26.2	16.3	27.1	62.5	61.3	61.5	61.0
AT	11.7	20.4	11.4	18.2	12.3	21.1	11.8	21.1	71.6	73.1	71.1	70.5
PL	5.2	5.7	6.2	5.4	6.4	5.7	5.3	5.5	59.9	65.5	64.5	60.9
PT	11.3	9.2	10.5	11.2	11.2	9.8	22.0	22.0	71.6	65.1	66.6	59.2
RO	0.9	0.6	0.6	1.2	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.6	68.1	39.7	58.0	53.0
SI	11.0	14.9	13.0	14.8	14.3	13.3	12.7	15.0	49.9	53.9	61.0	54.8
SK	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.8	2.4	7.1	8.2	69.4	55.9	65.5	58.5
FI	17.0	18.7	15.1	20.1	15.0	17.3	14.9	18.7	63.3	60.2	62.2	58.4
SE	9.7	17.2	9.9	17.5	10.0	17.5	10.2	18.2	61.0	60.0	59.3	58.7
UK	13.4	16.6	13.5	16.6	12.7	15.7	12.9	15.8	72.6	72.7	71.5	71.4
EU-28	12.0	16.6	11.9	16.3	11.6	15.4	12.0	16.7	70.8	70.6	70.6	69.0
EU-27	12.0	16.7	11.9	16.4	11.6	15.5	12.0	16.8	70.8	70.7	70.6	69.0

Source: Eurostat, LFS, data were calculated by Eurostat upon EIGE's request on 15 January 2014.

Note: ':' indicates data were not available.

Endnotes

- (1) COM(2010a) 491 (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:52010DC0491:EN:NOT>).
- (2) COM(2007) 424.
- (3) Two workshops on measures to reduce the gender pay gap have been implemented in the Programme on the Exchange of Good Practices on Gender Equality of the European Commission-DG Justice.
- (4) Commission Communication 'Towards Common Principles of Flexicurity: More and Better Jobs through Flexibility and Security', 27.6.2007 COM(2007) 359 final.
- (5) *Ibid.*
- (6) The part-time Directive provides for a non-discrimination clause stating that in respect of employment conditions, part-time workers shall not be treated in a less favourable manner than comparable full-time workers solely because they work part-time unless different treatment is justified on objective grounds (Article 4.1). To facilitate the development of part-time work on a voluntary basis and to contribute to the flexible organisation of working time taking into account the needs of employers and workers, it provides that a worker's refusal to transfer from full-time to part-time work or vice-versa should not in itself constitute a valid reason for termination of employment. Moreover, as far as possible, employers should give consideration to requests by workers to transfer from full-time to part-time work and vice versa or to increase their working time should the opportunity arise as well as measures to facilitate access to part-time work at all levels of the enterprise, including skilled and managerial positions, and where appropriate, to facilitate access by part-time workers to vocational training to enhance career opportunities and occupational mobility.
- (7) The framework agreement prescribes that regarding the "conditions of employment" fixed-term workers "must not be treated less favourably than comparable workers on contracts of undetermined duration". Such treatment is mitigated with the principle of pro rata temporis and can fail when different treatment is justified by "objective reasons". The clause cited establishes the principle of central importance for ensuring a real improvement in the quality of fixed-term employment. The main aim of the directive is the prevention of abuse derived from the use of a succession of fixed-term contracts or relationships. To this end the directive provides that in absence of equivalent norms in national law, one or more measures would have to be introduced relative to a) objective reasons for the justification of the renewal of the abovementioned contracts or relationships; b) the total maximum duration of the fixed-term contracts or relationships determined as successive; c) the number of renewals of abovementioned contracts or relationships. Member States must "if appropriate, establish in what conditions fixed-term contracts and relationships must be considered successive." Another thorny issue of interpretation regards the sanctions in case of "abuse" deriving from a succession of fixed-term contracts. The conversion of the fixed-term contract into one of undetermined duration is one of the possible sanctions that the Member States can "if appropriate" decide to adopt.
- (8) COM(2008) 394.
- (9) Regulation (EC) No. 800/2008.
- (10) Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan, Brussels, 9.1.2013 COM(2012) 795 final.
- (11) For example in many countries in order to support gender equality at the workplace, different tools have been implemented to measure, communicate and reward good practices of enterprises and organisations in the field of gender equality. These tools include labels, prizes and awards, charters, rankings of companies, and publications with the aim to disseminate good practices; to motivate other companies to adopt and implement similar measures; to achieve a far-reaching publicity for the assigned enterprises and to provide economic arguments for equality measures.



- (12) Employment and unemployment (Labour Force Survey), Eurostat metadata (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/en/employ_esms.htm).
- (13) LFS series - Detailed annual survey results, Eurostat metadata (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/EN/lfsa_esms.htm).
- (14) Table lfsa_eppgacob: 'Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment, by sex, age and country of birth (%)' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_eppgacob&lang=en).
- (15) EU Labour Force Survey database, User Guide, Version: November 2013, Variable name: FTPTREAS (page16): (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_lfs/documents/EULFS_Database_UserGuide.pdf).
- (16) LFS series - Detailed annual survey results, Eurostat metadata (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/EN/lfsa_esms.htm).
- (17) Income and living conditions, Eurostat metadata (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/en/ilc_esms.htm).
- (18) Table lfsa_epgaed: 'Full-time and part-time employment by sex, age and highest level of education attained (1 000)' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_epgaed&lang=en).
- (19) Table lfsa_epgar: 'Main reason for part-time employment - Distributions by sex and age (%)' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_epgar&lang=en).
- (20) Table lfsa_ewhun2: 'Average number of usual weekly hours of work in main job, by sex, professional status, full-time/part-time and economic activity (from 2008 onwards, NACE Rev. 2) - hours' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_ewhun2&lang=en).
- (21) Table lfsa_epgn62: 'Full-time and part-time employment by sex, age and economic activity - NACE A10 (from 2008 onwards, NACE Rev. 2) - 1 000' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_epgn62&lang=en).
- (22) Table lfsa_epgais: 'Full-time and part-time employment by sex, age and occupation (1 000)' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_epgais&lang=en).
- (23) Table ilc_lvhl30: 'Labour transitions by employment status' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=ilc_lvhl30&lang=en).
- (24) LFS series - Detailed annual survey results, Eurostat metadata (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/EN/lfsa_esms.htm).
- (25) Table lfsa_egaps: 'Employment by sex, age and professional status' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_egaps&lang=en).
- (26) LFS series - Detailed annual survey results, Eurostat metadata (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/EN/lfsa_esms.htm).
- (27) Income and living conditions, Eurostat metadata (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_SDDS/en/ilc_esms.htm).
- (28) European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) (<http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/surveys/>).
- (29) Table lfsa_egaps: 'Employment by sex, age and professional status' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=lfsa_egaps&lang=en).
- (30) Table ilc_di03: 'Mean and median income by age and sex (source: SILC)' (http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=ilc_di03&lang=en).



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