



Working conditions in the European Union: The gender perspective



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Working conditions in the European Union: The gender perspective

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Foreword

The profound changes underway in the European Union, including the rising proportion of women in employment in recent decades, have all impacted greatly on Europe's labour markets. These effects have important implications for the development of men's and women's working conditions in the different Member States. This, in turn, creates a real need for increasing our understanding of the changing face of Europe and the implications of these developments for citizens working and living in the EU.

Against this background, the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions has, since 1990, been collecting data on developments pertaining to working conditions – a key dimension of quality of life in Europe. The latest of these surveys, the fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* (EWCS), provides a comprehensive overview of working conditions across 31 countries in Europe. Among the central themes of this survey are the potential similarities and differences that exist in men's and women's working conditions – a subject which forms the basis of this current report, *Gender and working conditions in the European Union*.

The report examines changes in working conditions, focusing on the extent of occupational concentration of, and segregation between, the sexes in today's workplace and showing how this impacts on the quality of women's and men's working lives. Key similarities and differences in women's and men's working environments are examined, while specific aspects of job quality – including working hours, job satisfaction, work-life compatibility and work-related health outcomes – are explored to help gauge the experiences of women and men in an ever-changing workplace.

The findings reveal persistent gender inequalities in many, although not all, aspects of working conditions. Such disparities include differences in working hours, occupation, economic sector and work-related health risks, which not only result in gender inequality but also perpetuate existing inequalities. For instance, the persistent unequal gender division of care and household responsibilities partly explains why women more frequently switch to part-time employment or are less able to work the long hours typically expected for promotion to senior or managerial positions.

Obtaining accurate and up-to-date information is essential for informing policy of any kind, including that which aims to target gender inequality in the workplace. In this context, we hope that the findings of this report will shed some light on the key areas that need to be addressed to further improve gender equality in the European labour markets, and hence help to create a more equitable workplace for women and men throughout the European Union.

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Director

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Abbreviations used in the report

EES	European Employment Strategy
EWCS	European Working Conditions Survey
LFS	Labour Force Survey (Eurostat)

Country codes

EU15	15 EU Member States prior to enlargement in 2004
NMS	10 New Member States that joined the EU in 2004
EU25	15 EU Member States, plus the 10 NMS
EU27	25 EU Member States, plus the AC2

EU27

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

Introduction

Every five years, since 1990, the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions has conducted a survey analysing working conditions across Europe. These surveys provide a comprehensive overview of the state of working conditions in Europe, as well as indicating the type and extent of changes affecting the workforce and the quality of work. The fourth wave of the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) in 2005 collected data on working conditions in 31 countries in total: the present 27 Member States of the European Union (EU27), the two candidate countries, Croatia and Turkey (CC2), and two of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) countries, Norway and Switzerland. This particular report on gender and working conditions will concentrate on the analysis of the situation in the EU27.

A large and representative sample of persons from each of these countries were interviewed in their own homes, answering questions about their job, well-being and aspects of their activities outside of paid work. These questions have been evolving since the first EWCS was conducted in 1990–1991¹. Some have remained identical to facilitate the analysis of trends over time; other questions have been added or changed to keep abreast of changes in technology and work practices. Since 2000–2001, a number of questions have been added to improve the understanding of some of the specific ways in which women's jobs might entail specific hazards that have been previously overlooked.

Objectives of report

This report builds on an earlier study on gender analysis based on the preceding EWCS, which was conducted in 2000 (Fagan and Burchell, 2002). It seeks to fulfil a number of objectives aimed at enhancing people's knowledge and understanding of men's and women's working conditions in the EU.

The most important function of the report is to provide an accurate and insightful description of the similarities and differences in the working conditions of men and women in an enlarged EU. The expansion of the EU from 15 Member States at the time of the 2000–2001 surveys to the current 27 Member States when this report was compiled means that, up until now, there have been no accurate descriptions of gender and working conditions in the enlarged EU. This report seeks to address this knowledge gap. As well as describing working conditions, it will also assess the impact

of differences in working conditions on occupational health, job satisfaction and work–life compatibility.

In order to understand the importance of gender in the structuring of labour markets, it is not always possible to generalise across all men and all women; therefore, where appropriate, this report will break down gender categories into more homogeneous groups, depending on occupation, employee versus self-employed status, and whether someone works full time or part time.

The extensive academic and policy literature on gender and employment suggests a number of ways in which the jobs and careers of women can differ from those of men. In particular, some explanations focus on the ways in which men and women are segregated into different occupations; these, in turn, attribute gender inequalities in working conditions to differences in the ways that male-dominated and female-dominated occupations are treated and rewarded. Other theories focus on women's greater levels of involvement in domestic tasks and childrearing, linking these to gender differences in the labour market. A further hypothesis is that even when women are employed in similar activities alongside men, their working conditions can still diverge due to discriminatory treatment, including sexual harassment, all of which operate to preserve men's authority and power in and beyond the workplace. These explanations are not at all mutually exclusive and are central in structuring this report.

Grouping of countries

Throughout this report, the analysis will focus on data for the EU27 Member States, although two of these countries only officially joined the EU in 2007 – 18 months after the fieldwork for this study was conducted. It should be noted that the EU27 countries are more heterogeneous than the original 15 EU Member States (EU15) that featured in the previous gender report based on the 2000 EWCS findings. As a result, the type and size of gender gaps in working conditions may be more variable at national level than at the EU27 aggregate level. Such a reality raises challenges regarding the way in which the data are presented in this report, just as similar arguments have been made for the way in which regions are typically aggregated in single-country reports. One solution would be to present the analyses by country; however, this would make the report far too long and detailed, and the country estimates would be considerably less accurate due to reduced sample sizes. Another possibility would be to divide the countries into

¹ A record of the questionnaire's development can be found online at: http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/docs/ewco/4EWCS/evolution_questionnaire.pdf.

more homogenous groups, based on a classification such as Esping-Andersen's typology of welfare systems in western countries. It appears, however, that no such classifications based on gender and working conditions exist, so it is an empirical question whether such groupings would indeed produce country groupings that are homogenous compared with all of the EU27 countries (Smith, 2007). In this context, the analysis concludes that little evidence exists that any of the country groupings which have been used for other purposes have succeeded in producing homogeneous groups with regard to gender and working conditions. Thus, for the most part, the data in the report will be aggregated for all of the EU27 Member States.

Nevertheless, individual country differences will be considered in two parts of this report. First, the longitudinal analyses in Chapter 1 are based on a country group perspective, depending mainly on the countries' date of entry into the EU; this, in turn, also influenced their inclusion in the previous waves of the EWCS. Secondly, the multivariate analyses in Chapter 5 will incorporate country dummy variables for each of the analyses, so that countries which differ significantly from an overall pattern can be identified.

Structure of report

Chapter 1 of the report focuses on changes in EU working conditions by analysing the four waves of the EWCS since 1990–1991. Chapter 2 focuses on the extent of gendered occupational segregation in the EU labour market, and the degree to which this structures working lives. An understanding of gender segregation is crucial for gaining an insight into the differences in men's and women's working conditions: often, it is not the different ways in which men and women within a particular occupation experience the labour market that distinguishes them; rather, it is their arrangement into different occupations which largely determines the quality of their working lives. Chapter 3 goes on to examine the similarities and differences in working environments which affect men and women's working lives. Chapter 4 describes the working hours of men and women, and their importance in relation to activities outside of paid work. Chapter 5 uses multivariate analyses to examine the impact of working conditions and gender on several self-reported outcome measures that affect the quality of working life, notably job satisfaction, work–life compatibility and work-related health. The final chapter presents the overall conclusions of the report based on the aforementioned findings, as well as outlining some potential policy considerations.

Working conditions and gender: Trends over time

The repeated cross-sectional nature of the EWCS makes it possible to examine how the gendered nature of working conditions has been changing in Europe since 1991. So far, four separate waves of the EWCS have been conducted, each one including a larger set of countries reflecting the growing EU membership over that time. Through the analysis of such trends, the effectiveness of policy initiatives can best be evaluated. Table 1 gives a brief description of these four survey waves.

Table 1: Evolution of the EWCS 1991–2005

Year	Number of countries	Country breakdown
1991 (1st EWCS)	12	All EU12 countries: BE, DE, DK, EL, ES, FR, IE, IT, LU, NL, PT and UK
1995 (2nd EWCS)	15	All EU15 countries, including those which joined in 1995: AT, FI and SE
2000 (3rd EWCS)	16	All EU15 countries, plus NO
2001 (3rd EWCS)	12	Accession and candidate countries: BG, CY, CZ, EE, HU, LT, LV, MT, PO, RO, SI and SK, plus TR
2005 (4th EWCS)	31	All EU27 countries, including those which joined in 2004 and 2007, plus four non-EU countries: CH, HR, NO and TR

Note: CH = Switzerland, HR = Croatia, NO = Norway, TR = Turkey. See front of report for full list of country abbreviations.

In doing analyses over time, straightforward comparisons between waves would not be helpful as change over the years within countries would be confounded with the expanding membership of the EU. Fortunately, it is possible to divide the analyses over time into five subsets of countries and waves to provide meaningful analyses of the ways in which the relative position of male and female workers has changed over the years.

- **EU12, 1991–2005.** This subset provides the longest set of time series, following the gender gaps in the EU12 countries over a 15-year period. However, the main limitations regarding this set of analyses are threefold. Firstly, the 1991 EWCS was significantly shorter than subsequent waves, so the number of variables that can be compared over this time period is limited. Secondly, the measure of occupations in 1991 was not compatible with the measure from subsequent waves, and many of the gender effects observed can only be understood when the effects are broken down by occupation. Thirdly, the EU12 countries no longer form a meaningful subset of the EU, representing less than half of the total membership in terms of countries, albeit with over half of the total EU27 population.

- **EU15, 1995–2005.** This group permits an analysis of 15 western European Member States over three waves and 10 years, with an increased number of variables including occupation.
- **Eastern European NMS, 2001–2005.** This analysis follows the eight post-communist new Member States (NMS), before and after they joined the EU in May 2004.
- **Mediterranean NMS, 2001–2005.** This subset follows Cyprus and Malta over the 2001–2005 period, before and after joining the EU in May 2004.
- **Bulgaria and Romania.** This analysis compares these two countries in 2001 and 2005 in their preparation to join the EU in 2007.

Each of these groups of countries forms a ‘natural experiment’ to explore the development of gender gaps over particular social and economic eras. They have been grouped in this way to facilitate analyses, to provide large enough sample sizes and for the sake of brevity, and not because there is any assumption that these groupings of countries were undergoing similar social, economic or political changes. There would be too much detail for this report if each country’s changes were reported individually; hopefully, other researchers or teams may subsequently examine gender changes over time for specific countries.

In examining the changes over waves, two publications have already considered trends in the data by comparing the 2005 survey with earlier surveys (Parent-Thirion et al, 2007; European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007). Rather than replicate these analyses, this chapter will concentrate on two aspects of change. Firstly, certain specific variables are central to locating the position of men and women in European labour markets, particularly those that concern the interface between the employment and domestic spheres, such as part-time work, long working hours, working unsocial hours and the compatibility of work and family. Secondly, this chapter will concentrate on those aspects of working conditions where a change has occurred in the gap between men and women at work. This change may have been because the difference between men and women – usually measured in percentage points – increased or decreased over time, in other words, diverged or converged. In extreme situations, they may even have crossed over.

It should also be emphasised that, of the literally hundreds of analyses and graphs that were examined to prepare for the writing of this chapter, the vast majority showed little or no evidence of any change in the gender gap. These exhaustive analyses underlined the great consistency in

working conditions over the past decade, with only a small number of notable exceptions. Those exceptions are disproportionately presented in this chapter, and it is important to bear in mind the highly selective nature of these changes against a background of remarkable stability.

On a methodological note, a few words of caution must be given before examining these changes over time. Some of the graphs presented in this report are slightly different from graphs that have been produced previously in respect of the changes up to 2000. This is assumed to be because new weights have been calculated for the datasets in order to overcome known inaccuracies in past data. The analysis has taken considerable care to exclude variables where a change was made in the wording of the questionnaire item or in the number of response categories. Inspection of the data revealed that even minor changes to question wording or the response categories can produce surprisingly large differences in the response patterns. However, other possible methodological artefacts might remain. For instance, a preceding question might have created a particular mindset in respondents' attitudes towards their job, subtly influencing responses to subsequent questions. Nevertheless, as this study is not examining change in itself, but rather differential changes between men and women, the authors are confident that the results are robust.

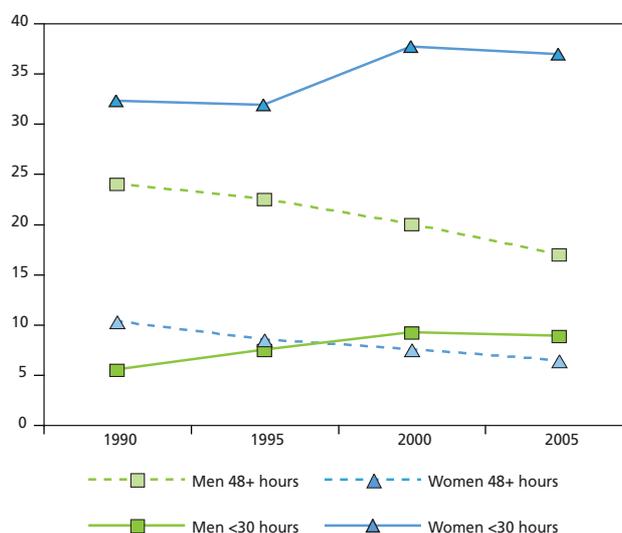
EU12 countries, 1991–2005

The clearest changes over the period from 1991 to 2001 have been associated with the continued downward trend in hours of work in one's main job.

The 1990s saw a steady rise in the proportion of both men and women working part time², but this increase was more significant for men, given the very low starting point. However, the period 2000–2005 saw very little change in the level of part-time work for either men or women; if anything, the trend has reversed with a slightly lower proportion of part-time workers in 2005 than in 2000 (Figure 1).

Looking at the other end of the working time spectrum, the downward trend in working long hours has continued, again in parallel for men and women. This, in turn, is partly responsible for the long-term monotonic decrease in the average number of weekly working hours, resulting in a total reduction of three hours of work a week for men and women over the period 1991–2005.

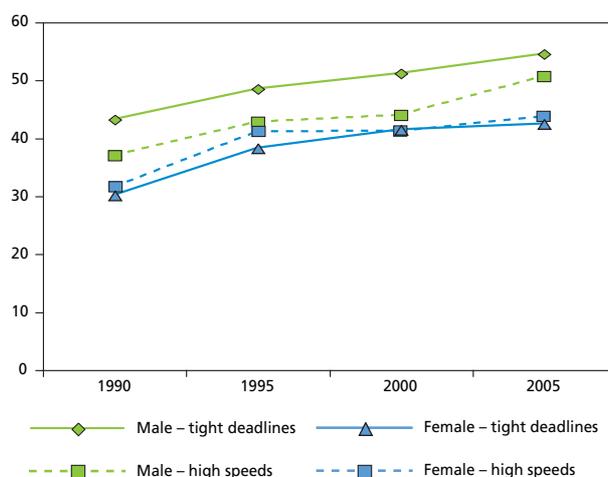
Figure 1: Part-time work and long hours in main paid job, by sex, EU12 (%)



Source: EWCS, 1990–2005

In the EU12 countries the perceived intensity of work, as measured by speed of work and tight deadlines, has continued to increase for both men and women, but with an important switch. In the period 1991–2000, the intensity of women's jobs increased faster than the intensity of men's jobs. However, during 2000–2005, men have shown the greatest increase in the proportion of those working at high speed more than 50% of the time (Figure 2). This pattern of

Figure 2: Extent of work at high intensity, by sex, EU12 (%)



Note: Figures are for high-intensity work more than half the time.

Source: EWCS 1990–2005

² This report defines 'part time' as usually working 30 or less hours a week in the main job. The EWCS questionnaire also contains a self-definition question, but the form of this question changed between the 2000 and 2005 survey questionnaires; furthermore, it shows some problematic features when compared with the European LFS (Fernández Macías, 2007).

a greater increase in work intensity for men during the 2000–2005 period is further underlined in relation to how often they work to tight deadlines.

EU15 countries, 1995–2005

The EU15 countries can be monitored more completely through the 10-year period from 1995 to 2005. Where it reveals additional information, the trend over time will be displayed broken down by occupation as well as by sex.

Beyond hours of work, few working conditions variables showed any differences in their gender gap; overwhelmingly, whether working conditions improved or deteriorated, they did so equally for men and women. Only two exceptions arise in this respect: exposure to vibration and to high temperatures. As these are both working hazards that affect blue-collar workers much more than white-collar workers, these trends were explored by examining the data separately for blue-collar and white-collar jobs. The former were measured based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) categories 6–9, from agricultural workers to unskilled workers, while the latter were captured as ISCO categories 1–5, from managers and legislators to service and sales workers.

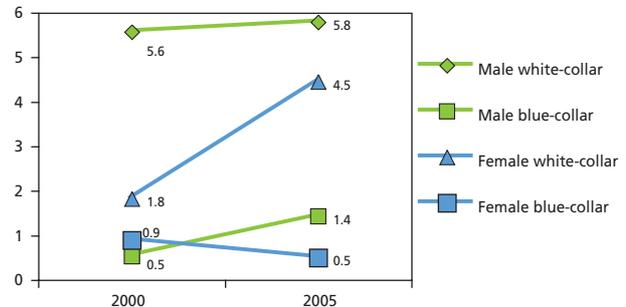
This examination revealed that men in blue-collar jobs had the highest rate of exposure to vibration and that this experience had increased steadily over the period 1995–2005; in contrast, the exposure rate had declined for women in blue-collar jobs. No obvious explanations emerge for this increasing gender gap in working conditions. Although the European Directive 2002/44/EC protecting employees from the harmful effects of vibration at the workplace was introduced in July 2002, it is not clear why this could have led to an increase in exposure to vibration for men and a decrease for women. Similarly, a widening gender gap was observed for the rate of exposure to high temperatures among men and women employed in blue-collar jobs.

Evidence of a clear shift in telework also emerged (Figure 3). In 2000, white-collar men were much more likely than any other group to telework for a majority of their working time; however, the rate of telework among white-collar women more than doubled in the ensuing five years and thus the gap was reduced.

Eastern European NMS, 2001–2005

The analysis now compares the eight NMS from central and eastern Europe in 2001 and 2005 – three years before membership and one year after they joined the EU. Where the gender gap has changed, the changes tend to have been

Figure 3: Extent of teleworking, by sex and occupational category, EU15 (%)



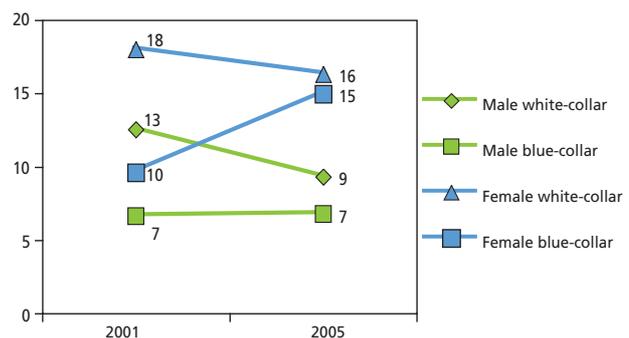
Note: Figures refer to teleworking from home with a computer more than half the time.

Source: EWCS, 2000 and 2005

towards an increased difference in working conditions between male and female workers.

For instance, the proportion of women working part time in these eight countries has increased slightly, while the proportion of men working part time has declined slightly: in 2001, the ratio of male to female part-time work was 1:1.7, which had increased to 1:2 by 2005. Figure 4 shows this result according to occupational category. Overall, two groups have changed markedly in their level of part-time work, with a significant increase in part-time work among

Figure 4: Extent of part-time work, by sex and occupational category, eastern European NMS (%)



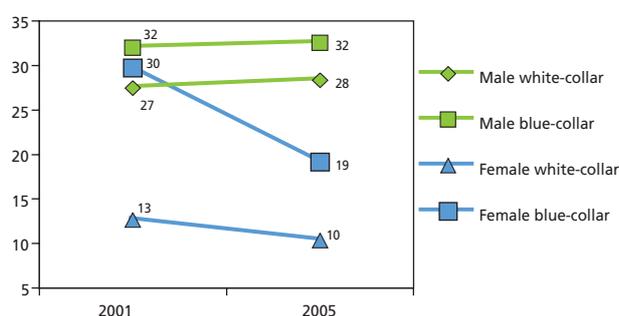
Source: EWCS, 2001 and 2005

blue-collar women and a corresponding decrease in part-time work among white-collar men.

At the other end of the working time distribution, the proportion of women working more than 48 hours a week declined from 19% to 14% over the five-year period; this decrease was entirely among blue-collar women, who reported a reduction in long working hours in their main job

from 30% to 19% (Figure 5). These changes in working hours are clear examples of how the gender distribution of the labour markets in these NMS is shifting to widen the gap, and how labour markets in the NMS come to resemble patterns typical for western European labour markets, where women typically work shorter full-time or part-time hours.

Figure 5: Extent of working long hours, by sex and occupational category, eastern European NMS (%)



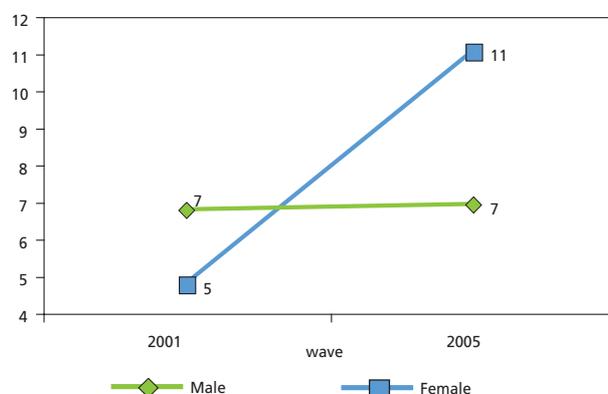
Source: EWCS, 2001 and 2005

Mediterranean NMS, 2001–2005

Cyprus and Malta also acceded to the EU in 2004 but, as their sociopolitical situation has been different to the other eight new entrants from central and eastern Europe, the two countries will be considered separately here. In examining the way in which gendered working conditions have changed, one should be mindful of the smaller sample size collected in Cyprus and Malta. As only 500 cases were sampled in each country in 2001 and 600 in 2005, the sampling error is considerably greater than in the other groups surveyed over time – for example, the eight post-communist NMS had a combined sample size of over 7,000 cases for both waves. To ensure that apparent changes are not simply a sampling error, only changes in the gender gap of at least 8% have been considered. This left very few statistically significant changes in relation to gendered working conditions in Cyprus and Malta.

Nonetheless, a remarkable increase was found in the use of fixed-term employment contracts for women. Figure 6 shows that in 2001, 5% of female employees were on such contracts, but this proportion had increased to 11% by 2005. A similar effect has been found using the European Labour Force Survey (LFS) data for 2000 and 2005 (Eurostat, 2007); the rise in fixed-term employment contracts among women in Cyprus was particularly large, but the small sample size for Malta was too small to make accurate estimates.

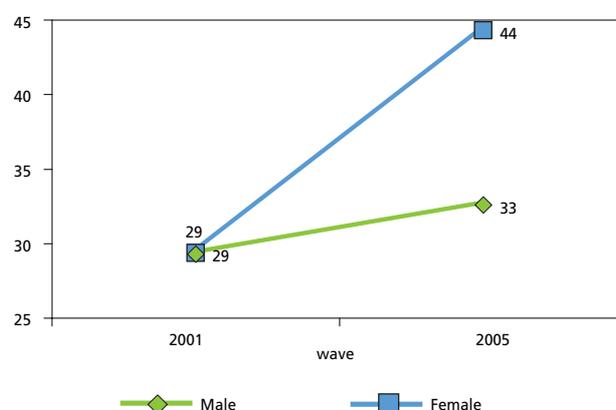
Figure 6: Extent of employment on fixed-term contracts, by sex – Cyprus and Malta (%)



Source: EWCS, 2001 and 2005

Women also reported a significant increase in satisfaction with working conditions, but little change in this regard was found for men (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Satisfaction with working conditions in main job, by sex – Cyprus and Malta (%)



Note: Figures are for respondents who reported being very satisfied with their working conditions.

Source: EWCS, 2001 and 2005

However, the trend in work–life balance was very different: all groups bar one reported increases in the proportion of employees agreeing that their working hours fitted in with family or social commitments. The exception was women employed in blue-collar jobs, where there was a significant reduction in reported work–life balance.

Bulgaria and Romania

For these two most recent NMS, the period 2001–2005 represented a time of preparation for EU entry, which took place on 1 January 2007. Although both countries were non-members of the EU at the survey time points, more evidence emerged of a change in the gap between men's

jobs and women's jobs in this country group than for any other grouping. While many changes were found to affect working time, work intensity and job turnover, there was less change observable in the areas of job content and ergonomic and ambient conditions at work.

With regard to many variables in the dataset, men in this country group had experienced a greater level of change than women. Between 2001 and 2005, men were more likely to be working over 48 hours a week, and less likely to be working below 30 hours a week. Other variables pointed to a reduction in employment hours; for instance, a large decline was found in the proportion of men doing second jobs, and the number of hours in second jobs also fell. The survey identified a drop in job satisfaction among men, and also in their reported compatibility between working hours and other activities. However, the largest changes in men's time use involved the reduction in their activities outside work. Both men and women reported reductions in caring, sporting, voluntary and political activities, but the reduction in domestic duties such as looking after children, cooking and housework was far more pronounced for men. For example, the proportion of men who were involved in cooking and housework on a daily basis decreased dramatically from 70% to 22% in these countries.

Evidence also emerged of increased employment turnover for men, with the proportion of men who had been with

their current employer for more than five years declining from 60% in 2001 to 48% in 2005, whereas this situation remained stable for women at 54%. Similarly, the number of men on fixed-term employment contracts increased from 5% to 12% while for women it remained stable at about 7%. However, it should be noted that the LFS data show little change for either men or women in either country (Eurostat, 2007), and the current authors have no explanation for this disparity between the EWCS and the LFS. There was also some evidence that quality of work was increasing for women but not for men. For example, an increase was found in the proportion of women reporting each of the following aspects: job rotation, job complexity, learning and ability to control their speed of work.

This chapter reveals that the difference in working conditions between men and women seems to be changing at very different rates in different parts of Europe. At the extremes, remarkable stability is apparent in the gap between men and women in the EU15 Member States, while considerable flux may be found in the newest member countries. These findings will be further considered in the conclusions chapter of this report.

Gender segregation in employment and in the home 2

Pronounced gender differences arise in the structure of employment. Women still have a lower employment rate than men, despite the narrowing of the gender gap which has occurred in most countries over recent decades. Employment is highly gender segregated: women are over-represented in some types of jobs and under-represented in others relative to the overall proportion of jobs they hold. Segregation exists across occupation, sector and type of workplace. Differences also emerge in employment status and type of employment contract.

Women are generally over-represented in jobs in certain services – such as sales, catering, cleaning, and hair and beauty – in clerical support and in the ‘care’ professions related to health, education and family support – such as nursing, teaching, childcare and social services. Compared with men, more of women’s employment is concentrated in particular service industries and the public sector. As well as the ‘horizontal’ segregation into different types of jobs, ‘vertical’ segregation also occurs: women are generally under-represented in the higher level, better-paid managerial and senior positions in organisational hierarchies and occupational career ladders and over-represented in low-paid jobs. Furthermore, the division of responsibilities in the home is highly gendered, with women doing most of the housework and care work for children and adult dependents.

The gender segregated pattern of jobs and domestic responsibilities means that women and men are often exposed to different workplace environments and working conditions. Gender differences in working conditions can also be caused if women and men do similar jobs but are treated unequally. For example, the following two classes of explanation can be given for the gender pay gap – that is, the difference in pay between men and women – most often reported as the difference in gross hourly wages. One class of explanation is based on women being disproportionately employed in low-paid jobs – in other words, labour market gender segregation. The other class of explanation is based on discrimination against women – for instance, from employers, trade unions, the law or domestic norms – even when they have similar jobs and productivity levels, for example in terms of education and experience, to men (see Plantenga and Remery, 2006; Grimshaw and Rubery, 2007).

This chapter outlines the extent and nature of gender segregation in order to inform the comparison of men’s and women’s working conditions in subsequent chapters. It thus addresses the following key questions:

- How large is the gender gap in employment rates across Member States?
- Do gender differences emerge among employed persons in relation to their employment status and type of contract?
- What are the main features of gender segregation among those who are employed in terms of occupational position, sector of employment, workplace size and managerial or supervisory responsibilities?
- What are the gender differences in domestic responsibilities and participation in other activities outside of employment?
- What gender inequalities exist among employed men and women in levels of earnings, the structure of their wages and their relative contribution to household income?

Employment rates of women

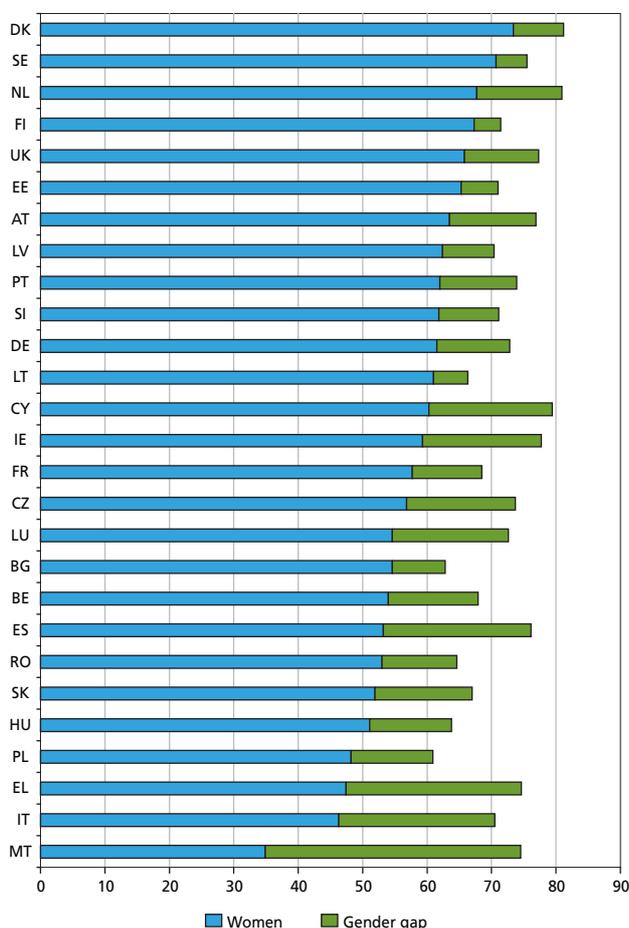
Marked country differences are found in the employment rate for women, more so than country variations in the employment rate for men (Figure 8). In 12 countries in 2006, the level of female employment already exceeds the 60% target set by the European Employment Strategy (EES), according to results from the European LFS, while in the other countries the shortfall in women’s employment rate ranges from small to substantial. In the central and eastern European countries where a shortfall exists, this is because women’s employment rates declined dramatically during the economic recession and restructuring of the transition to market economies, and recovery has only been partial in the subsequent period (Pollert and Foder, 2005). In some of the other countries showing a major shortfall, such as Greece or Malta, women’s employment rates have traditionally been low and are increasing slowly. The smallest gender gaps in employment rates are recorded in Finland, Sweden, Lithuania and Estonia, while the largest gaps occur in Malta, Greece, Italy and Spain.³

The rate of part-time employment for women also varies nationally.⁴ Part-time employment is rare for women in nine

³ The European LFS data on employment rates are for 2006, which are the most recent figures presented in the European Commission’s official indicators for monitoring the EES. In some countries, the gender gap may have shifted slightly since then.

⁴ As already noted, for the purposes of this report, part-time employment is defined as 30 hours or less a week. This differs from a previous EWCS report on gender (Fagan and Burchell, 2002) in which a threshold of 34.5 hours a week was used. The conclusions drawn from the data are unaffected by this shift in threshold.

Figure 8: Women’s employment rate and gender gap, by country, 2006, EU27 (%)



Source: European Labour Force Survey 2006, extracted from European Commission (2007)

of the EU27 countries, where it accounts for no more than 10% of their employment; these countries are Greece plus eight post-communist Member States – Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia. In 13 of the countries surveyed, part-time employment is common: more than one in three employed women work part time in eight of the EU27 countries – Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK – and at least one in five do so in another five countries – Finland, France, Ireland, Italy and Malta.

Employment status and type of employment contract

There has been a diversification of employment status across Europe. Part-time and temporary work have become more common in some parts of the European economy and

multiple job holding appears to have increased slightly. The rate of self-employment is broadly stable (Parent-Thirion et al, 2007; European Commission, 2006: statistical annex).

Just under two thirds of employed women and men are employees with an open-ended contract (Figure 9).⁵ Gender differences emerge in self-employment and in the incidence of fixed-term contracts for employees. A higher proportion of men, at 20%, than women, at 13%, are self-employed. Slightly more employed women are employees with a fixed-term contract, at 12% compared with 8% of men; when expressed as a proportion of employees only, the rate of fixed-term employment contracts is 14% for women and 10% for men.

Figure 9: Employment status, by sex, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

The biggest gender gap is found in rates of part-time working, which is much higher for women: 29% are employed part time compared with 7% of men (Table 2). This gender difference is particularly pronounced for employees with open-ended contracts but also exists among temporary employees and self-employed persons.

Table 2: Rate of part-time work, by employment status and sex, EU27 (%)

Employment status	Men	Women	All
Employees with open-ended contract	8	32	19
Employees with temporary contract (fixed-term or temporary agency work)	12	16	14
Self-employed	10	23	13

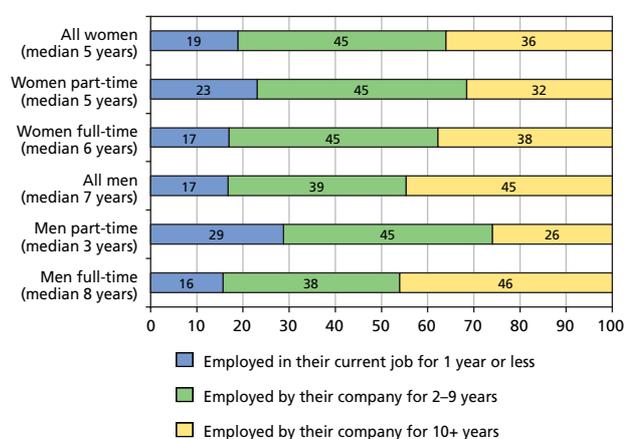
Source: EWCS, 2005

⁵ Some of the data in the graphs and tables in this report may add up to slightly more or less than 100% due to rounding of figures.

On average, women have been employed by their current employer for a shorter period of time than have men: the median period is five years for women and seven years for men (Figure 10). Men employed full time are more likely than women employed full time to have been employed by the same company for 10 or more years. Part-time workers are more likely than full-time workers to have been with their current employer for one year or less, and even more so if they are men employed part time.

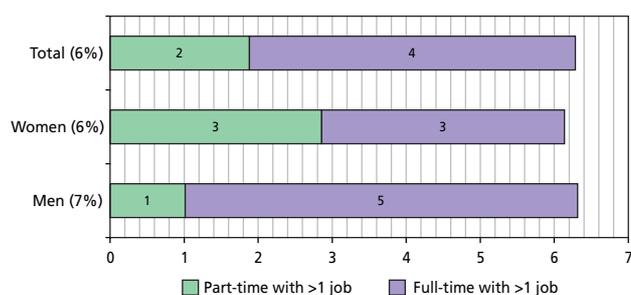
These differences in tenure reflect demographic as well as job characteristics. Women are more likely than men to leave employment or to change employers to obtain part-time employment when they have young children or other family responsibilities. Short periods of part-time employment are also common in some countries for students and other young people, for unemployed persons, or for older workers with ill-health or approaching retirement. Tenure is also affected by job characteristics, such as whether the worker has secure employment, good working conditions and opportunities for progression in the

Figure 10: Employment tenure with company, by sex and working time, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 11: Employed in more than one job, EU27 (%)



Note: It can be stated that multiple job-holding is higher among part-time than full-time workers given that the ratio of part-time employees with >1 job to full-time employees with >1 job is greater than the overall part-time to full-time employee ratio for either gender.

Source: EWCS, 2005

company. These prospects are likely to differ by sex, as well as by working time, given the pronounced patterns of segregation that are discussed in the rest of this chapter.

A small and similar proportion of women and men have more than one job, at 6% of all employed women and 7% of all employed men (Figure 11). Among the multiple job holders, women are more likely than men to be employed part time in their main job. Multiple job holding is more common among part-time workers than full-time workers for both women and men, with the average hours worked in additional jobs being broadly similar regardless of sex or working time status (see Chapter 4).

Occupational segregation and concentration

Generally speaking, women work in jobs that involve caring, nurturing and providing services for people. Men tend to monopolise senior management and manual jobs which involve using machinery or production processes considered to be physically onerous, complex or dangerous.

Almost all of the armed forces, the majority of skilled craft workers, machine operators and senior managers, and over half of agricultural and fishery workers are men (Figure 12). Women hold the majority of jobs in clerical (69%), service and sales (58%), and technical or associate professional positions (56%). Two occupational categories – professionals and unskilled workers – are gender-balanced at this level of aggregation. However, segregation is evident when a finer breakdown of occupational sub-categories is examined (Annex 1, Table A1). A higher proportion of professionals and technicians in physical, mathematical and engineering science positions are male than in senior

Figure 12: Occupational segregation, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

Table 3: Women's over- and under-representation in each occupational group, by country, EU27 (%)

	Senior managers	Professionals	Technicians	Clerical workers	Service and sales workers	Agricultural and fishery workers	Skilled workers	Machine operators	Unskilled workers	All women
AT	30	-	47	64	74	58	9	12	53	46
BE	30	56	56	57	48	-	11	11	62	44
BG	54	63	52	70	70	47	32	25	32	47
CY	32	58	40	76	56	-	17	10	45	43
CZ	47	62	46	82	60	-	18	8	62	43
DE	36	46	53	73	76	55	3	13	53	45
DK	30	46	55	84	68	-	16	23	32	46
EE	50	60	59	80	83	-	23	31	40	49
EL	32	39	45	56	57	40	13	6	66	38
ES	31	42	60	67	35	-	11	12	73	39
FI	32	47	70	67	81	48	14	14	53	48
FR	32	41	56	79	50	-	17	-	49	47
HU	32	69	54	55	51	-	23	49	40	46
IE	31	59	49	68	78	16	1	18	17	42
IT	16	64	44	52	57	-	10	25	51	39
LT	33	61	83	67	-	-	29	7	60	49
LU	15	39	51	61	36	9	12	16	77	39
LV	51	73	68	81	65	51	16	20	49	49
MT	30	28	53	45	43	-	3	38	34	33
NL	47	38	64	65	60	-	19	7	53	44
PL	36	72	48	77	32	38	34	8	39	45
PT	50	68	67	77	45	-	23	28	62	46
RO	25	70	44	79	65	45	16	45	64	46
SE	31	66	58	65	51	-	10	9	63	48
SI	-	50	52	70	67	-	24	20	60	45
SK	31	56	58	77	66	-	14	25	52	45
UK	16	50	64	71	64	-	7	15	44	47

where women are more than 5 percentage points under-represented relative to their share of total employment in the country in question

where women are more than 5 percentage points over-represented relative to their share of total employment in the country in question

Note: '-' denotes that the total number of unweighted cases in this cell is 20 or less; therefore, estimates are too inaccurate to be useful.

Source: EWCS, 2005

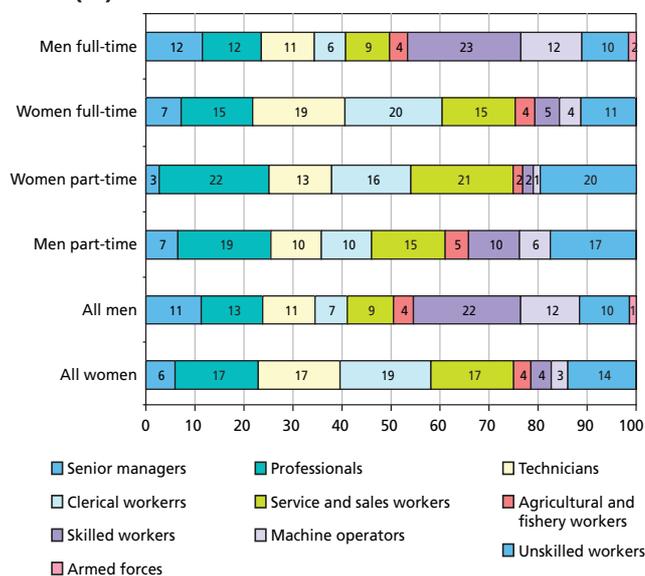
manager positions. Meanwhile, teaching, life science and health professionals are more likely to be women. Among unskilled workers, cleaning and domestic services (ISCO 91) are female-dominated while labouring jobs (ISCO 92, 93) are male-dominated.

Part-time employment is more common among women in professional, service and sales, and unskilled occupations than elsewhere. Women working part time account for almost a quarter of the workers in these occupational groups, and the rate of part-time work in these occupational groups increases by a few percentage points when male part-timers are also included.

This pattern of segregation is broadly replicated at national level, although the overall level of segregation varies between countries. Table 3 highlights the over and under-representation of women by occupational group in each country relative to the female share of total employment, using a five percentage point threshold. Some national variations arise in the broad pattern of over and under-representation. Using this measure of relative representation, women are not under-represented in senior management in six countries – the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Malta, the Netherlands and Portugal – and appear to be over-represented in this regard in Bulgaria. Neither are they over-represented among service workers in seven countries – Belgium, France, Hungary, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain and Sweden – while they are under-represented in this occupational group in Poland. Nevertheless, parity of representation at this broad level of occupational category may disguise segregation between different jobs or job levels within an occupational group that can only be revealed by more detailed occupational studies (Rubery and Fagan, 1995). For example, among lawyers, women typically specialise in family law and men in corporate law, while in the teaching profession, women are under-represented as head teachers and in other leadership positions.

Occupational concentration refers to the gender composition of the workforce in an occupation or set of occupations (see Figure 13 and Annex 1, Table A2). Whereas segregation refers to the separation of the two sexes across occupations, concentration refers to the representation of one sex within occupations (Siltanen et al, 1995, pp. 4–5). Almost one quarter (23%) of male full-time workers are in skilled manual jobs and between 9% and 12% are employed in each of the other occupational groups except for smaller concentrations of 6% or less in clerical jobs, agriculture and fisheries, and the armed forces. In comparison, female full-time workers are more heavily concentrated in clerical jobs, at 20%, and much smaller

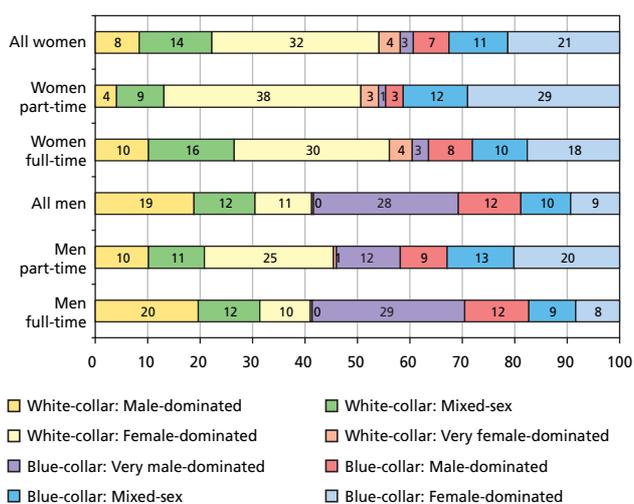
Figure 13: Occupational concentration of employment, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

proportions are skilled manual workers or machine operators. Women in part-time jobs are more heavily concentrated in unskilled manual jobs and in services and sales than are women in full-time jobs. The occupational profile of the small group of men who work part time broadly follows that of female part-timers. A higher proportion of women – including both full and part-time

Figure 14: Concentration of employment in 'mixed', 'male-dominated' and 'female-dominated' occupations, EU27 (%)



Notes: 'Very male-dominated' = 80%+ of the workers are men, 'male-dominated' = 61%–79% are men, 'mixed-sex' = 40%–60% are men, 'female-dominated' = 61%–79% are women, 'very female-dominated' = 80%+ are women. For details of the occupational groups contained in these categories, please see Annex 1 Table A3.

Source: EWCS, 2005

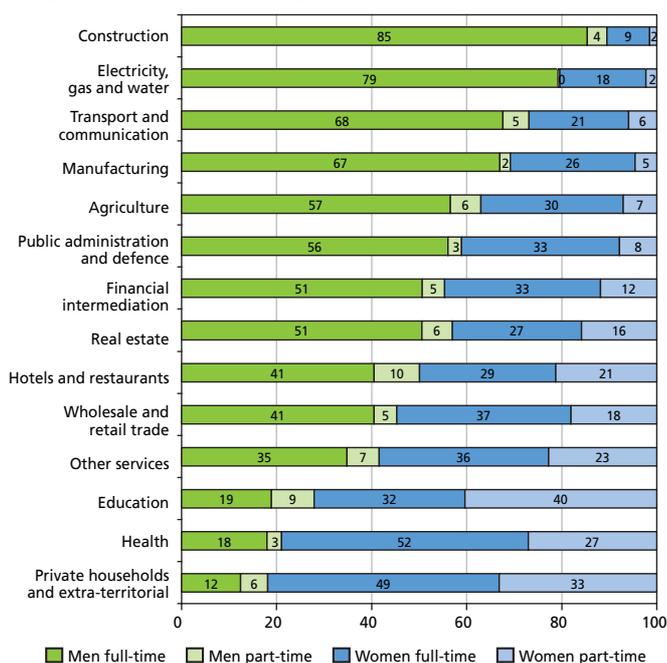
workers – than men are concentrated in professional and technical/associate professional positions; however, women working full time and part time are less likely to be in senior management than their male counterparts.

Figure 14 on the previous page illustrates the extent to which workers are concentrated in occupations dominated by their own sex or in ‘mixed-sex’ occupations, where the maximum imbalance is that one sex holds 60% of the jobs. Just over half of those who are employed work in jobs which are dominated by their own sex: 59% of men and 57% of women. Only one in five men (22%) and one quarter of women are employed in mixed-sex occupations. Women are more heavily concentrated in female-dominated jobs if they work part time. The minority of men who work part time are also more likely to work in female-dominated jobs than full-time employed men: 46% of part-time male workers are employed in female-dominated jobs and only one in three male part-timers (31%) are in male-dominated jobs.

Sectoral segregation and concentration

Figure 15 shows the extent of segregation according to sector of economic activity. Men predominate in construction, where 89% of the workforce is male, in electricity, gas and water supplies (80%), transport and communications (73%), manufacturing (69%) and agriculture (63%). Women constitute the majority of the workforce in domestic services in private households (82%),

Figure 15: Gender segregation, by sector, EU27 (%)

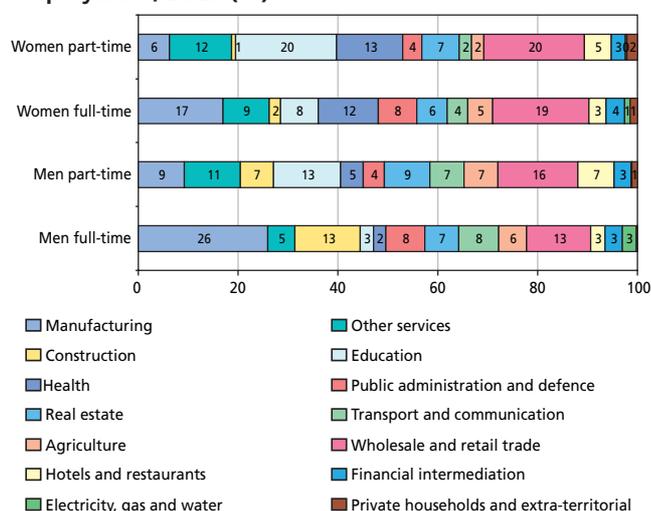


Notes: ‘Manufacturing’ includes mining and ‘agriculture’ includes fishing.
Source: EWCS, 2005

health (79%), education (72%) and other community, social and personal services (59%), and half of the workforce in hotels and restaurants. The latter four sectors of the economy are also those where the incidence of part-time employment is above average.

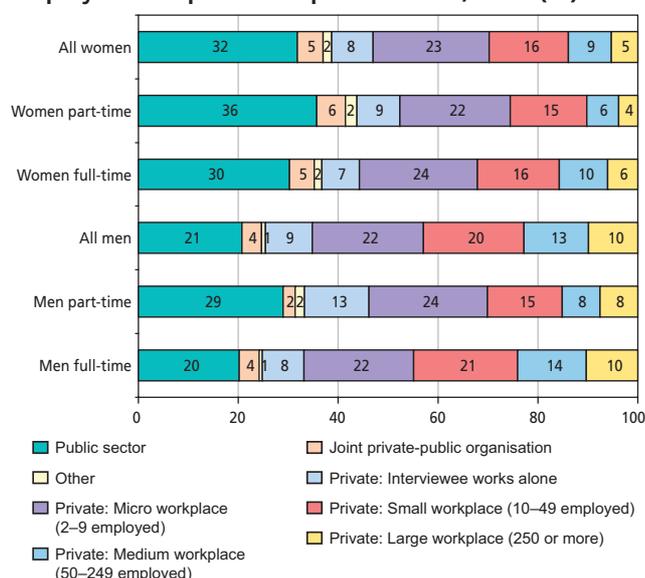
One quarter of male full-time employment is concentrated in the manufacturing sector, while other large concentrations are found in wholesale and retail trade (13%) and construction (also 13%) (Figure 16). The largest concentrations of women’s full-time employment are in wholesale and retail trade, amounting to 19% of full-time

Figure 16: Sectoral concentration of men’s and women’s employment, EU27 (%)



Notes: ‘Manufacturing’ includes mining and ‘agriculture’ includes fishing.
Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 17: Concentration of women’s and men’s employment in public and private sector, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

employment, followed by manufacturing (17%), health (12%), other services (9%), education (8%) and public administration (also 8%). Both women and men employed part time are mainly concentrated in wholesale and retail trade (20% of women and 16% of men), education (20% and 13%), health (13% and 5%) and other services (12% and 11%).

Ownership and company size

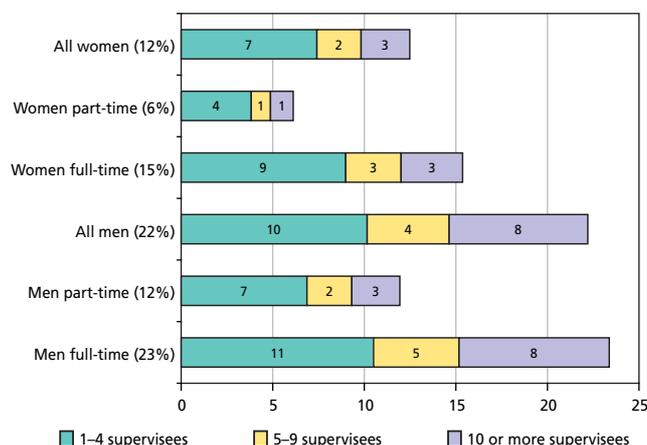
Over one third of women's jobs in the EU27 are in the public sector or joint public-private organisations, compared with one quarter of men's employment (Figure 17). Part-time workers of either sex are also more heavily concentrated in the public sector than are full-time workers. Hence, changes in public sector working conditions have a disproportionate impact on women and part-time workers. The other main gender difference is that more men are employed in large and medium-sized private companies, which account for 24% of male full-time employment compared with 16% of female full-time and 10% of female part-time employment.

Management and supervision in the workplace

The main gender difference in terms of supervision in the workplace is that men employed full time are more likely to be supervising 10 or more subordinates. More than one in five men employed full time (23%) have some supervisory responsibilities, compared with 15% of women employed full time (Figure 18). Fewer part-time workers have supervisory responsibilities, but it is interesting to note that this role is more common among men working part-time.

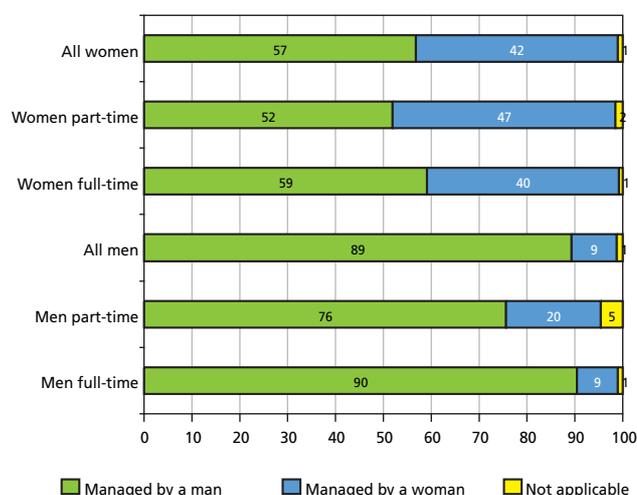
From the other perspective, this means that the majority of the workforce are managed by men. In fact, only 9% of

Figure 18: Gender differences in supervision responsibilities, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 19: Sex of women's and men's managers, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

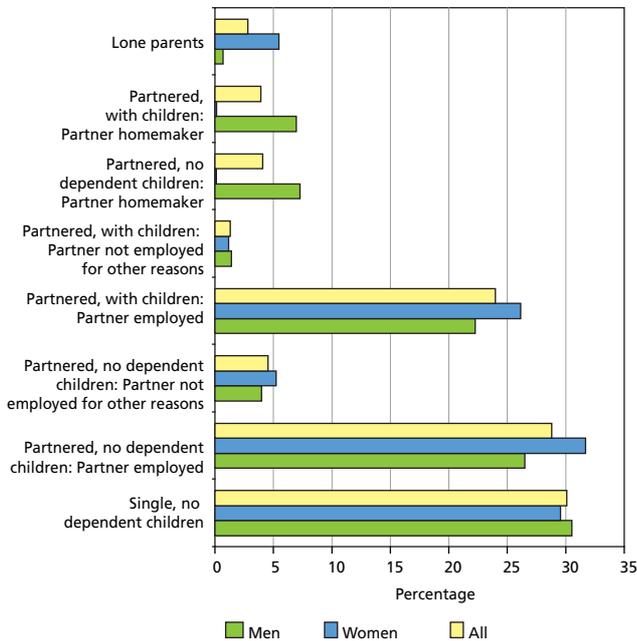
employed men are managed by a woman, although this rises to 20% of the minority of men employed part time (Figure 19). It is more common for women to be managed by other women due to the gender segregated pattern of employment: 40% of women employed full time and 47% of women employed part time have a female manager. Female managers and supervisors are more prevalent at the lower ranks of organisational hierarchies (Parent-Thirion et al, 2007, p. 69). The more supervisory responsibilities people have, the more likely it is that their own superior is a man.

Gender division of domestic responsibilities

Figure 20 (overleaf) shows that the domestic situation of the workforce is diverse. Some 30% of the labour force are single and do not have dependent children. Over one third are married or cohabiting without dependent children. Almost one third have dependent children: 29% of the total population surveyed are married or cohabiting and 3% of the total are lone parents. A sizeable proportion of people also have care responsibilities for elderly or disabled relatives (see Figure 21). Many more of the workforce will have care responsibilities for children or elderly relatives at some point during their working lives.

A pronounced gender division of domestic responsibilities is apparent, which has persisted despite the increased participation of women in employment. Time-use studies show that women do most of the childcare and eldercare, as well as housework (Gershuny, 2000; Eurostat, 2003). This is also evident in the results from this survey. A sizeable minority of employed men live with a woman who is a full-time homemaker, amounting to 7% of employed men without dependent children and another 7% who have dependent children. The majority of the workers who are

Figure 20: Distribution of family responsibilities of employed men and women, EU27 (%)

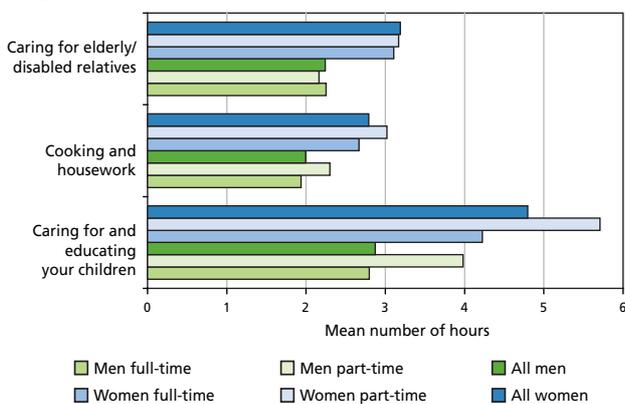


Source: EWCS, 2005

married or cohabiting are in dual-employed couples; however, in some countries, this arrangement typically takes the form of part-time employment for the woman while a reversal of these roles is rare. The other gender difference is that more employed women are lone parents, reflecting the wider pattern in the EU whereby more than 90% of all lone parents are women (Fagan et al, 2006).

Gender disparities in housework and care responsibilities are also evident among employed men and women. Women do more childcare, more care of elderly or disabled relatives and most of the housework and cooking. Overall, 38% of

Figure 21: Extent of domestic care, by sex and employment status, EU27



Note: Figures are mean numbers of hours per day for those who report domestic care every day.

Source: EWCS, 2005

employed women provide care for children on a daily basis, 76% cook or do housework each day and 9% provide care to elderly or disabled relatives every day or every other day. The amount of time this takes is a substantial part of their day, and more than the time committed by the smaller proportion of men who are involved in these tasks on a daily basis (Figure 21). The main difference between female full-time workers and part-time workers is that part-timers spend more time engaged in childcare and eldercare. Part-time working men are less likely than full-time working men to be regularly involved in childcare, presumably because many of them are students or nearing retirement. However, when part-time working men are involved in childcare on a daily basis, the amount of time that they devote to this is greater than for full-time working men.

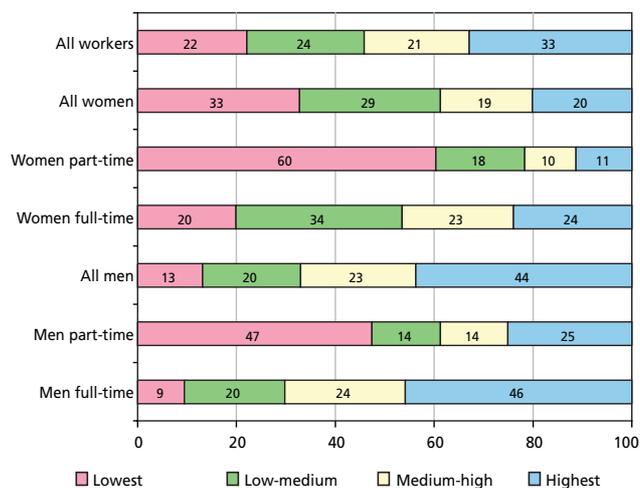
The EU target for expanding pre-school childcare places, which was set at the annual spring European Council in Barcelona in March 2002, recognised that more childcare was needed to support an increase in the female employment rate. As a result, childcare services have expanded to some extent in most of the EU27 Member States in recent years, but there is still a shortfall of pre-school provision and a scarcity of out-of-school childcare in many countries (Plantenga and Remery, 2006). Even in countries with a high level of childcare facilities, gaps in provision still arise, for example to meet the needs of workers on shifts or variable hours, or in rural areas. Moreover, in some of the post-communist countries, childcare services deteriorated under the period of economic transition and their provision has not yet recovered to the previous levels. Furthermore, most of the EU Member States experience shortages of appropriate eldercare services and still presume that this care will mainly be provided on an informal basis by the family – in practice, this means by women (Elniff-Larsen, Dreyling and Williams, 2006).

While women are more involved in domestic responsibilities, the EWCS results showed that men are slightly more likely to participate regularly in sporting, cultural or leisure activities. Patterns of regular participation in voluntary or charitable activities are similar for women and men, as is regular participation in education and training. Fewer people participate in political or trade union activity; however, it is slightly more common for men.

Gender inequalities in earnings

It is well-known that a gender gap exists in relation to earnings (Plantenga and Remery, 2007). Figure 22 shows that men employed full time are the most likely to have earnings in the medium-high or highest part of the earnings

Figure 22: Earnings distribution of employed men and women, by working time, EU27 (%)



Note: Survey respondents are often reluctant to divulge any information on earnings; the figure indicates the relatively large proportion – between 14% and 19% – of those responding that they didn't know their income or refused to answer.

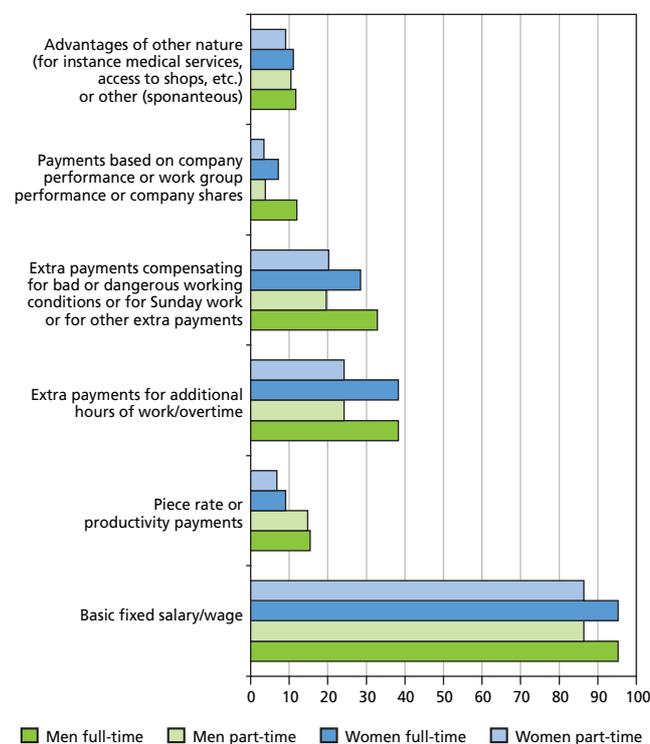
Source: EWCS, 2005

distribution. Women employed full time are much less likely to have earnings in the highest income bracket. Women employed part time are even more likely to be less well paid than men employed part time.

Gender differences also emerge in the structure of wages as well as wage levels (Figure 23). Most of these are connected with the higher rate of part-time work among women; part-time workers are less likely than full-time workers to receive overtime for working extra hours or other additions related to performance or onerous working conditions. However, it is of interest that men employed part time are as likely as men employed full time to receive productivity payments. Men in full-time jobs are the most likely to receive compensation payments for poor working conditions or bonuses connected with the performance of their work group or company. Among full-time workers, there is no gender difference in the proportion of those who receive overtime payments for working extra hours, although gender differences probably arise in the amount of overtime worked.

Gender segregation is a major factor in the gender pay gap, as women are disproportionately concentrated in lower-paid jobs and the lower ranks of the better-paid managerial and professional occupations. Furthermore, women still earn less than men even when they have similar jobs, qualifications and experience, due to sex discrimination

Figure 23: Wage structures of employees, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

and unequal treatment (see, for example, Plantenga and Remery, 2007). These gender inequalities in earnings mean that in most household situations the man contributes the larger part of the total household income. For example, the results from the EWCS indicate that the man contributes the most to the household income in four out of five dual-earner couples (81% of dual-earner couples without children and 84% of those with children).

This chapter has documented the gender segregated pattern of employment, including the higher rates of part-time employment for women. Pronounced gender disparities may also be found in some activities outside of employment: women do most of the housework, as well as care provision for children and elderly relatives, while men have more leisure time. Another gender difference in the home is that, on average, women contribute a smaller proportion of the total household income, due to their lower earnings from employment. This gender segregation of employment and home life provides the context for the analysis of gender differences in working conditions in the following chapters.

Working conditions 3

This chapter focuses on three broad areas: the working environment, the nature and organisation of tasks, and working conditions risks. In the working environment, it is useful to consider the location of work, the use of information and communication technologies (ICT), and interactions with colleagues and clients or customers. The nature of the tasks that workers are required to do and how these are organised can have a strong impact on individuals' experience of work, for example, in relation to their level of autonomy or the extent to which they are subject to monotonous or complex tasks. In comparison, work may be organised in a way that makes it demanding intellectually and opportunities may arise for learning, as well as for personal development and/or career progression. Exposure to ambient and ergonomic hazards may be among the most obvious risks that workers face in their line of work, but the increasing prevalence of the services sector means that risks also exist in the social environment, such as exposure to discrimination, violence and intimidation. Workers in service activities may find themselves less exposed to risks connected with heavy manual work, while the regular interaction with clients and customers can be associated with its own sources of stress and risk factors (Frenkel, 2005). Thus, the segregation of women and men into different areas of the labour market highlighted in Chapter 2 provides a helpful framework in explaining gendered differences in working conditions in the present chapter.

As well as using graphs and tables to highlight key gender differences by occupation and full-time and part-time work (hereafter referred to as 'working time status'), the study will also look at the interaction of these variables with a range of other factors through multivariate analyses. The results of these multivariate analyses also appear in summary tables in Annex 2 of this report.

The key questions addressed in this chapter are as follows:

- What are the main gender disparities in job content and the workplace environment?
- Do these gender disparities persist when the analysis controls for occupation and working time status and a range of other job-related characteristics?

The previous chapter highlighted the importance of occupational segregation in relation to women's and men's experience of employment. This chapter uses an abridged version of the detailed occupational classification presented in Chapter 2 (see also Fagan and Burchell, 2002), making the blue-collar and white-collar distinction which is often associated with differences in status and skill, as well as exposure to certain working conditions and risks. It is important to note that certain weaknesses emerge in using

these occupational categories and skill dimensions. Definitions of skilled work are partly based on the technical requirements of a job while also relying on the social construction of what is skilled and unskilled work; male occupations may be more likely to be regarded as skilled because institutions such as trade unions have had a stronger influence on the regulation of particular competences for male occupational areas. In contrast, the tasks associated with female-dominated jobs are often socially defined as low skilled, so that the skills and competencies involved in providing care or support are frequently ignored or under-valued (Rubery and Fagan, 1995; Plantenga and Remery, 2007). Furthermore, country variations arise in the use of occupational classifications, reflecting not only labour market structures but also societal differences in the use of the classification (Desrosières, 1996). For example, about 20% of men in Ireland and the UK are classed as working in managerial occupations compared with just 6% of men in Germany; such findings suggest a differing organisation of hierarchies and use of the title 'manager' across countries (Maurice and Sorge, 2000).

Nevertheless, the abridged occupational classification provides a useful framework to analyse working conditions and, combined with the full-time and part-time work dichotomy, to portray some of the key differences between women's and men's jobs. Table 4 outlines the distribution of women and men across occupations and demonstrates women's greater propensity to work in white-collar occupations and the greater likelihood for men to work in blue-collar occupations. However, among these distinctions, men are twice as likely to be classed as white-collar managers and women are about 40% more likely to be in white-collar professional jobs.

This chapter is divided into three broad sections. The first section considers gender differences in the place of work and use of technology. It examines not only the differences between working at home or on the premises of a company but also the social interactions associated with particular workplaces. The second section explores the types of tasks that women and men undertake and how these duties impact on the experience of work. It also investigates the particular demands that tasks may place on workers and the extent to which they have suitable skills for the job they do. The third section considers exposure to what might be regarded as more conventional risks or hazards – ambient and ergonomic factors – as well as social risks.

Workplace, technology and social environment

The location of the workplace can have an important impact on the nature of work and working conditions since

Table 4: Occupational class, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)

	Men			Women			Total
	Part-time worker	Full-time worker	All	Part-time worker	Full-time worker	All	
White-collar managerial job	7	12	11	3	7	6	9
White-collar professional job	29	23	24	35	33	34	28
White-collar clerical and services job	25	16	16	37	35	35	25
Blue-collar craft and related manual job	15	27	26	4	9	8	18
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual job	24	22	23	21	16	17	20
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
White-collar managerial job	4	67	70	4	25	30	100
White-collar professional job	5	41	46	18	36	54	100
White-collar clerical and service job	5	31	36	21	42	64	100
Blue-collar craft and related manual job	4	77	81	3	16	19	100
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual job	6	56	62	15	24	38	100
Total	5	50	55	14	31	45	100

Source: EWCS, 2005

regular contact with other employees or colleagues can be an important part of organisational life⁶. In many settings, such contact may be a source of support and provide a sense of belonging. On the other hand, some jobs may involve interactions with customers or large amounts of time away from the company premises, such as sales work or regularly working from home. In this case, workers may be involved in regular travelling and/or risk some isolation from colleagues. The growth of outsourcing and inter-company subcontracting may also mean that employees are posted to work in client workplaces for extended periods. Those employees who frequently work on client sites or visit customers may not only experience considerable travelling times but may also lack the social cohesion that comes from working regularly with the same colleagues (Felstead,

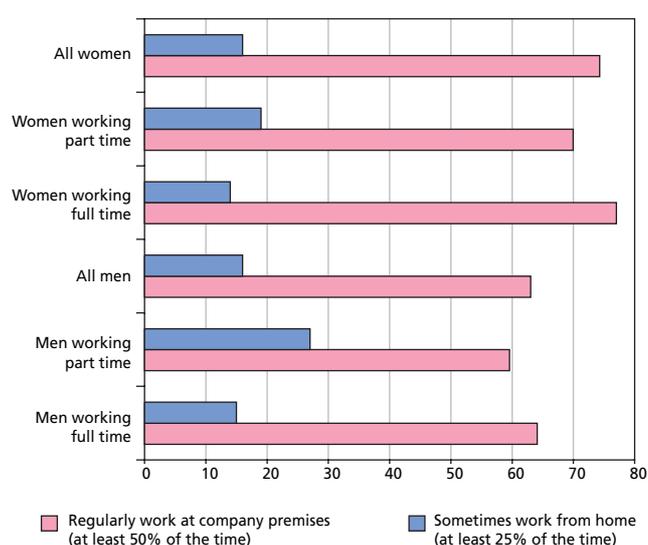
Jewson and Walters, 2005). On the other hand, for many women and men, working in the services sector involves dealing with people such as passengers, pupils, patients or clients. These types of interactions shape the pace of work and may also require emotional input. The emotional dimension to work often has a strong gender dimension and may be undervalued in the workplace.

Location of work

The 2005 EWCS asked respondents how much time they spent working at the company or organisation premises. This analysis considers those workers who spent at least half their working time doing so, compared with those who spent less than half of their working time at this location. Figure 24 shows that women are more likely than men to

⁶ Some workers do not have workplace colleagues because they work alone; others do not have fixed workplace premises, for example, construction workers or door-to-door salespersons.

Figure 24: Location of work by sex, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

work on the company premises regularly. This is particularly true for female full-time workers. Conversely, few gender differences emerge in the proportion of women and men who work from home, with about 15% of women and men working at home more than a quarter of the time.

Working with computers

Advances in technology and access to technologies such as fast internet connections in private homes provide the opportunity for many workers to carry out some or even the majority of their main work tasks away from their normal workplace. Such technological advances may permit some workers to benefit from reduced commuting times and greater control over when and where their work is carried out. However, there is also the risk that workers are not able to separate their work and private lives as their home becomes a place of work as well as a place for living.

Looking at the extent of teleworking – that is, working from home with a personal computer (PC) – men are more likely than women to telework sometimes (less than half of their working time). Interestingly, no gender differences emerge among regular teleworkers, who represent about 4% of both women and men (Table 5). The gender differences among infrequent teleworkers are consistent across full-time and part-time workers. When the results are broken down by occupational category, the incidence of teleworking for at least 25% of the time is higher among men than women in each occupational group, particularly among the white-collar professions (Figure 25).

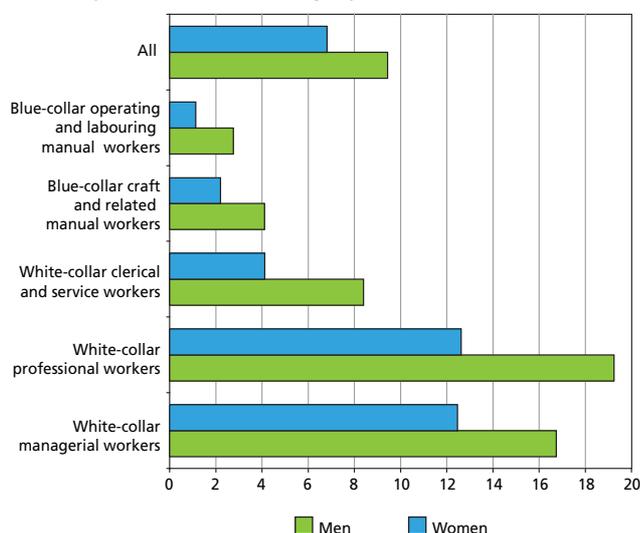
Table 5: Use of information and communications technology (ICT), by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)

%	Men			Women			Total
	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	
Telework from home with a PC							
At least half the time	4	7	4	4	4	4	4
Sometimes	14	13	14	10	8	9	12
Never	82	80	82	87	88	87	84
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Work at home, excluding telework							
At least half the time	5	10	5	6	9	7	6
Sometimes	16	21	17	12	14	13	15
Never	79	69	78	82	77	80	79
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Work with computers: PCs, network, mainframe							
At least half the time	33	32	32	44	31	40	35
Sometimes	20	20	20	15	21	16	18
Never	48	48	49	41	48	44	46
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Use internet/email for professional purposes							
At least half the time	24	21	23	31	21	27	25
Sometimes	22	23	22	20	23	21	22
Never	54	56	55	49	56	52	53
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: EWCS, 2005

For women, the full-time and part-time work distinction seems to have little effect on the chance of regularly working from home, while for men a part-time working status doubles the likelihood of regularly doing work other than telework at home and raises the probability of sometimes doing so. Overall, men are more likely to sometimes work from home, possibly reflecting greater autonomy over when and where work is carried out or occupational roles that place demands on individuals outside the normal hours of work (see Chapter 5); these gender differences persist when the analysis controls for occupation (Figure 25).

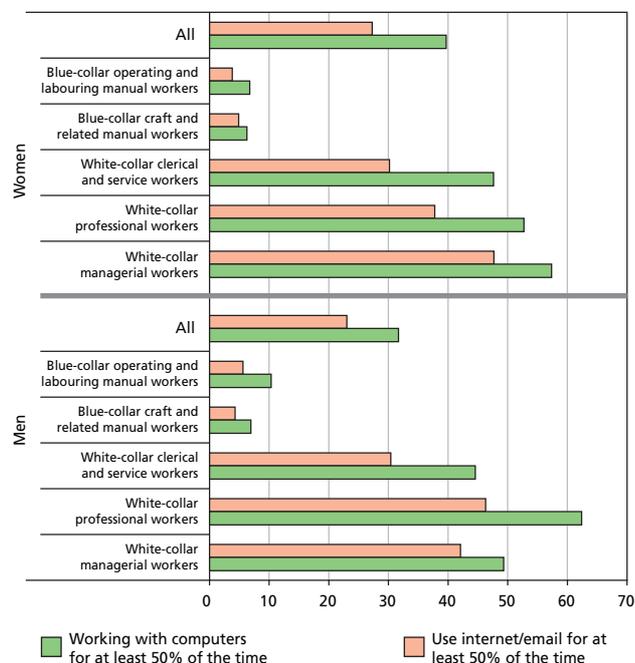
Figure 25: Frequent teleworking (at least 25% of the time), by occupational category and sex, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

Whether working at home or in the workplace, using computers is an increasingly common part of employment. These jobs can be relatively varied and interesting but may also involve repetitive tasks and long periods in the same physical position, notably looking at a screen. The EWCS asked how much time respondents spend ‘working with computers, PCs, networks or mainframes’. In addition, the 2005 survey posed a new question on using the ‘internet and email for professional purposes’. Table 5 outlines something of a reverse of the teleworking patterns, with female workers much more likely to use computers regularly, particularly full-time working women. Working time status has no impact on the overall rate of men’s use of computers but, for women, working part time tends to reduce regular use of computers. Moreover, gender differences in high computer use vary across occupations, with white-collar work having the highest rate of regular computer use for both women and men (Figure 26). For women, managerial jobs have the highest rates of computer

Figure 26: Regular use of ICT, by occupational category and sex, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

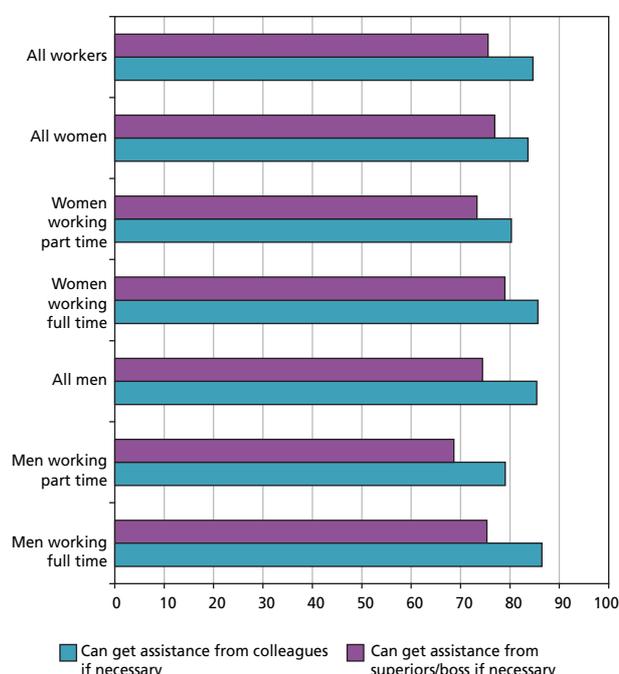
use, while for men the highest rates occur in professional occupations.

A somewhat similar picture emerges for use of the internet at work although the gender gap is smaller (see Table 5). Unsurprisingly, white-collar occupations are those most likely to use the internet regularly, that is, more than 50% of the time. Women are more likely to be regular users overall, but male professionals and blue-collar operators and labourers have higher usage than their female counterparts (Figure 26). Thus, although overall women are more likely to make use of computers and the internet, the occupational and working time distribution of women’s and men’s jobs plays a significant role in this gender disparity.

Social support and work organisation

The experience of work is much more than the location and the use of new technologies; working with colleagues provides workers with social interaction and a feeling of belonging in an organisation. Moreover, it offers opportunities for support, advice, learning and the potential benefits of working with others to achieve particular tasks. To address this issue, the EWCS also included questions on how often workers could get assistance from colleagues or their superior if they needed it. Figure 27 shows that at least four out of five workers could obtain assistance from their colleagues, with 85% of workers benefiting from assistance sometimes, often or always. The gender gap is

Figure 27: Access to support and assistance from colleagues and/or superiors for employed men and women, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

negligible; working part time seems to be a more important factor in explaining a lower level of support for both women and men. The level of support from a superior is slightly lower than that obtained from colleagues, with women slightly more likely to benefit from the support of a superior. Nonetheless, part-time workers again have less access to such support, particularly men working part time.

A supportive work environment will also be reflected in the opportunity to discuss work-related problems and the chance to be consulted about changes in work organisation

or working conditions. An assessment of work performance can be a useful way to receive feedback on work done and to develop plans for the future, for example regarding promotion opportunities. The EWCS contained a range of questions on whether employees had had a frank discussion with their boss about their performance, been consulted about change in the organisation of work, been subject to a regular formal review, discussed work-related problems with their boss and discussed work-related problems with an employee representative.

Table 6 shows the extent of consultation and discussion at the workplace level. It reveals that, while more than 50% of workers had the chance to discuss work-related problems with their managers, fewer benefited from other forms of consultation and feedback. Only about a fifth of employed women and men, at 21%, discussed work-related problems with an employee representative. Overall, women have slightly lower access to these procedures than men have, but part-time workers – and often female part-timers – are the most excluded. Just over one third of female part-time workers, at 34%, had a regular formal assessment of work performance, compared with about two fifths of male and female full-time workers, corresponding to 42% and 40%, respectively. The high proportion of part-time workers who are female in all countries means that this remains a key gender issue. Men often use part-time work as a transitory activity at the beginning or end of their working careers; however, for women, part-time work is often a more permanent state and as such can compound disadvantages in the organisation and in the labour market. Female part-time workers were also less likely to have benefited from a full and frank discussion with their boss about their performance over the last year. In contrast, little or no gender or working time difference emerged in the proportions of workers who had been consulted about

Table 6: Consultation, appraisal and support from boss, EU27 (%)

	Men			Women			Total
	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	
Had frank discussion with boss about own work performance in past year	50	46	49	50	43	48	49
Was consulted about changes in work organisation/conditions in past year	48	45	47	47	47	47	47
Had regular formal assessment of work performance	42	36	42	40	34	38	40
Discussed work-related problems with boss in past year	61	51	60	59	51	56	58
Discussed work-related problems with employee representative in past year	23	20	23	21	18	20	21

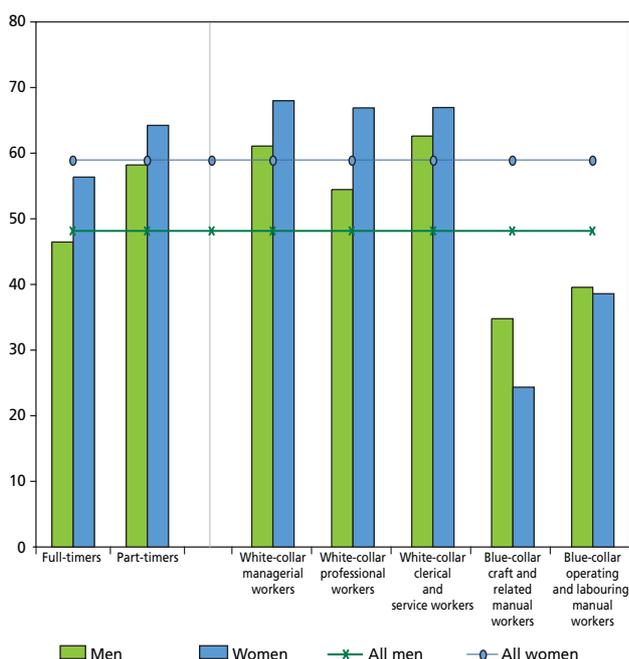
Source: EWCS, 2005

changes in work organisation or working conditions in the past year.

Customer service and work involving direct contact with people

Some workplaces require a high level of interaction with customers. While this can be an important determinant of the pace of work (see Chapter 4), it also shapes the particular demands of working in such an environment. In the services sector, where women are concentrated, certain tasks related to customer services or involving direct contact with people can have a significant impact on working conditions, such as through the emotional work involved in serving customers or taking care of patients or pupils (Hochschild, 1983; Fineman, 2003). The survey asked how much time was spent dealing directly with people who were ‘not employees at your workplace, such as customers, passengers, patients, pupils, etc’. With the occupational segregation of women and men highlighted in the previous chapter, it is perhaps unsurprising that women are more likely to spend at least half their time doing such work. The two horizontal lines in Figure 28 show that almost three fifths of women (59%) spend at least half of their time dealing directly with people, compared with just less than half of men (48%). Moreover, these proportions increase for both male and female part-time workers. The gender differences are reinforced across the occupational spectrum,

Figure 28: Regular interaction with clients and customers, by sex, occupational category and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

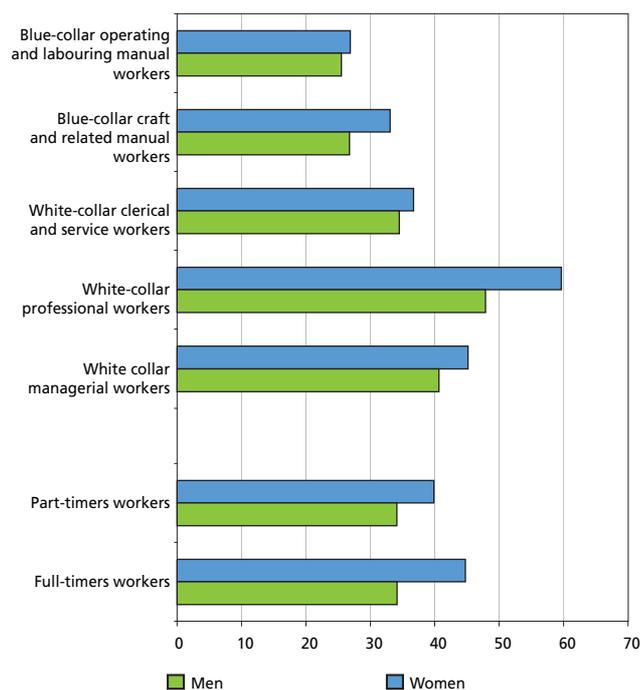
particularly among white-collar professional and managerial occupations.

Working with people may place additional emotional demands on workers. To explore this further, the EWCS asked respondents how often they felt that their job was emotionally demanding. Considering the findings above, it may not be surprising that women are more likely than men to find their work emotionally demanding. Figure 29 highlights that, for men, working time status has little impact on emotional demands in the job but, for women, full-time workers feel most exposed to emotionally demanding work. The occupational distribution of emotionally demanding work reinforces these gendered patterns, with women at all levels being more likely to frequently experience their work as emotionally demanding. In particular, women in professional jobs perceive their work as emotionally demanding, with 60% of women reporting this condition. Emotionally demanding work can be arduous and stressful, yet it is less widely recognised as being hazardous than work involving ambient or ergonomic risks.

Nature and organisation of tasks

Further gender differences in the experience of work may be explored by examining the nature of the tasks that

Figure 29: Extent to which work is emotionally demanding, by sex, occupational category and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

women and men carry out. Different dimensions of work – such as the role of quality standards, and the monotony and complexity of tasks – help to shape the characteristics of the particular jobs that women and men do and may affect some of the risks they face. For example, tasks that involve problem solving or an opportunity to learn may be unevenly distributed between women and men working in different occupational areas, with a resulting impact on opportunities for personal development and/or career progression. On the other hand, monotonous or complex work may be a source of stress and frustration for the individuals involved.

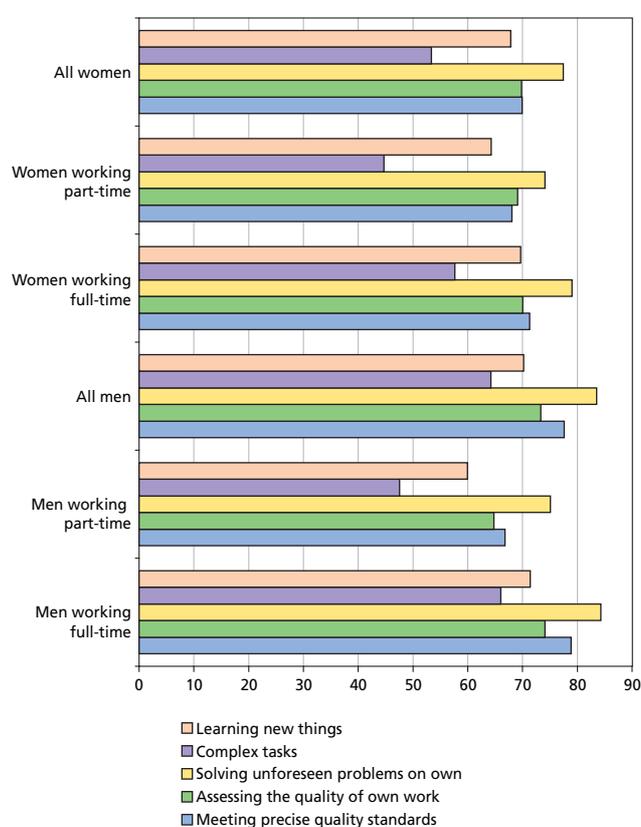
The role of quality in the tasks that workers have to carry out in the workplace will help to shape their experience of work and the potential health impacts of their working conditions. Factors such as meeting quality standards may allow workers to gain value from their work, while also being a source of pressure on the individual. Where quality standards are assessed by the workers themselves, the level

of autonomy may be greater and direct managerial pressure reduced or internalised by workers themselves. To explore these issues, respondents to the EWCS were asked about the extent to which their work involved meeting precise quality standards and whether they assessed the quality of their own work. Overall, men are more likely than women to respond that they are required to meet precise quality standards (Figure 30); this is mainly driven by higher rates of this type of work among male full-time workers, since the gender differences among male and female part-time workers are relatively small.

In addition, the survey posed questions on the extent to which respondents' jobs involved problem solving, learning new things and complex tasks (Figure 30). Respondents were asked to indicate whether their paid work involved such activities and not the frequency. Unlike some of the other measures of task quality, monotonous work – about which the survey also enquired – is unlikely to be rewarding for the worker and may be associated with jobs where limited opportunities arise for learning or career progression. The rate of monotonous work is thankfully lower than other measures, with 44% of women and 42% of men stating that they experienced this kind of work. Table 7 presents a summary of the multivariate logistic regression that determined which factors increase or decrease the likelihood of working on monotonous but not complex tasks (for details, see Annex 2, Table A6). The multivariate analysis finds that working in four countries – Cyprus, Greece, Spain or the UK – significantly raises the probability of working in a monotonous job even when a range of other variables are controlled for.⁷ Although no overall gender gap emerges in the risk of monotonous working, women in blue-collar labouring occupations are significantly more likely to be exposed to such tasks. On the other hand, working in Austria, Germany or the Netherlands reduces the chance of such work as does working longer hours, being older or working in a white-collar occupation.

In contrast, turning to complex tasks, men are more likely to report that their work includes such activities. About two thirds, or 64%, of men reported that they work on complex tasks, compared with just over half, or 53%, of women (Figure 30). Part-time workers are much less likely to carry out complex tasks than are their full-time counterparts. A similar gender gap is maintained for the subset of tasks that are complex and not monotonous.

Figure 30: Nature of working task, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

⁷ Please note that for statistical purposes in multivariate models, one 'reference' category must be omitted. For the purposes of this report, France was chosen arbitrarily.

Table 7: Factors explaining the likelihood of regularly working on monotonous but not complex tasks, EU27

Factors that increase risk	Factors that decrease risk
Working in Cyprus, Greece, Spain or the UK*	Working in Austria, Germany or the Netherlands*
Being a woman in a blue-collar labouring occupation**	Being a man or woman in white-collar professional or managerial occupations, or a man in clerical or blue-collar craft occupation**
Working in the public sector	Being an employee
-	Being older
Exposure to ergonomic risks	Exposure to ambient risks Regularly experiencing interruptions Working to tight deadlines Multiple drivers for pace of work Higher levels of task autonomy
-	Working more than 20 hours a week Sometimes working unsocial hours Working time autonomy

Notes: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.19$.
Source: EWCS, 2005

Table 8: Factors explaining increased likelihood of job involving complex but not monotonous tasks, EU27

Positive factors	Negative factors
Working in Austria, Germany, Hungary, the Netherlands, Romania, Slovakia or Sweden*	Working in Estonia, Ireland, Spain or the UK*
Being a man or woman in white-collar professional or managerial occupations, or a man in clerical or blue-collar craft occupation**	Being a woman in a blue-collar labouring occupation**
Working in the public sector	-
Being an employee	-
Being older	-
Exposure to ambient risks Regularly experiencing interruptions Regularly working at speed Working to tight deadlines Multiple drivers for pace of work Higher levels of task autonomy	Exposure to ergonomic risks
Working more than 20 hours per week Sometimes or regularly working unsocial hours Working time autonomy	-

Notes: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.23$.
Source: EWCS, 2005

The multivariate analysis of the probability of working in a job with complex but not monotonous tasks highlights the relative disadvantage of part-time workers and women in blue-collar operating and labouring manual occupations (Table 8 and Annex 2, Table A6). By controlling for a range of other factors, the analysis found that all workers doing more than 20 hours a week have a significantly greater chance of carrying out complex work. At national level, working in two of the four countries that were found to increase the risk of monotonous work – that is, Spain and the UK – along with working in Estonia or Ireland, reduces the probability of working on complex tasks for both women and men.

Task autonomy

The autonomy that individual workers have over their requisite tasks is another important dimension of their working conditions. The EWCS asked respondents a series of questions about their autonomy regarding various aspects of their work. They were asked whether they were able to choose the order of their tasks, their methods of work, the speed or rate at which they work and when to take breaks. From this group of questions, it appears that the gender differences in terms of autonomy are relatively small, until closer examination of the pattern across occupations. Men have more autonomy than women have in white-collar managerial and professional occupations;

Table 9: Task autonomy over method, pace and order of tasks, and taking of breaks, EU27 (%)

	Men			Women		
	Little or none	Some	A lot	Little or none	Some	A lot
All	28	39	33	28	43	29
Full-time workers	28	40	32	29	42	29
Part-time workers	29	39	32	26	45	28
White-collar managerial workers	9	30	61	16	34	50
White-collar professional workers	14	45	41	19	52	29
White-collar clerical and service workers	30	43	27	31	43	26
Blue-collar craft and related manual workers	31	40	29	29	35	36
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers	46	35	19	42	34	24

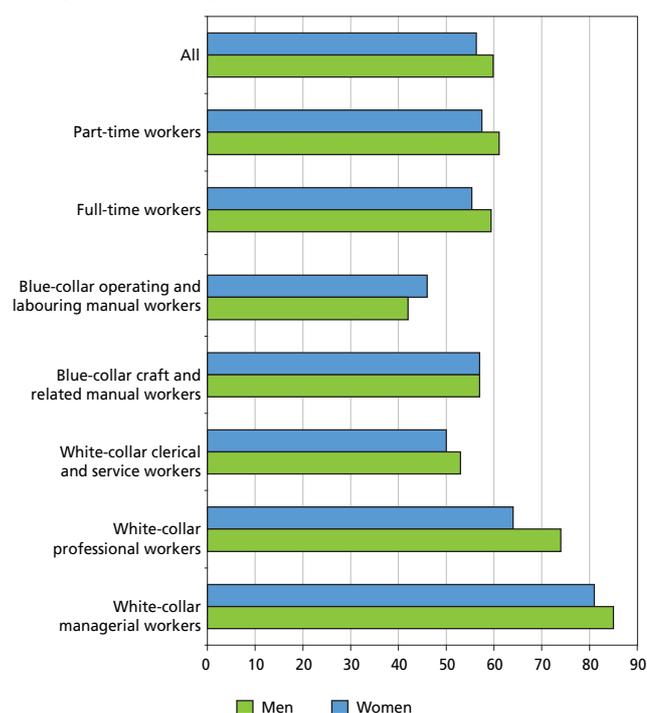
Source: EWCS, 2005

however, this situation is reversed, albeit with smaller gender gaps, in blue-collar occupations (Table 9).

Workers may have autonomy over other aspects of their working lives. For instance, the survey asked about the frequency with which they could decide about holidays or days off, and contained new questions on opportunities to do their best and to apply their own ideas in their work. On a number of these factors, stronger gender differences appear, with men more likely to report always or often being able to control their choice of work patterns, when to take days off and to use their own ideas. In this respect, the application of one's own ideas was particularly interesting (Figure 31). Unsurprisingly, white-collar workers are more likely to be able to apply their own ideas in their work. Wider gender gaps appear here than for some of the other autonomy indicators; however, the gender gap reversed for lower skilled blue-collar workers.

These factors come together in the multivariate analysis of workers with a high level of autonomy and those with autonomy over the order of tasks, methods of work, speed of work and timing of breaks. Therefore, being a man in any white-collar occupation or a woman in a managerial role raises the level of autonomy compared with men in blue-collar labouring occupations (Table 10 and Annex 2, Table A6). Similarly, compared with working less than 20 hours a week, working more than 35 hours a week significantly raises the level of autonomy. On the other hand, working in Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Slovenia or Spain significantly reduces the autonomy of the worker when a range of other factors are controlled for.

The EWCS also asked whether the respondents' job involved doing all or part of their work in a team. Overall, male workers are only slightly more likely than women to have a job that involves teamwork. However, once again, working time status explains much of the difference, with

Figure 31: Ability to apply one's own ideas, by sex, occupational category and working time status, EU27 (%)

Source: EWCS, 2005

part-time workers being less likely than full-time workers to work in teams. On the other hand, female workers who work in teams are consistently more likely to have autonomy over the division of tasks than men are, regardless of whether they work full time or part time. However, granting responsibility for deciding the head of a team is much less common and virtually no difference arises according to sex or working time status.

Thus, a mixed pattern of measures appears around the nature and autonomy over tasks for women and men with different working time statuses and occupational positions.

Table 10: Probability of having a job with high level of autonomy, EU27

Significant positive factors	Significant negative factors
Working in Latvia*	Working in Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Slovenia or Spain*
Being a man in any white-collar occupation or blue-collar craft occupation, or a woman in a managerial occupation or any blue-collar occupation**	Being a man in a blue-collar labouring occupation
Being older	Working in the public sector Being an employee
Regularly experiencing interruptions	Multiple drivers for pace of work Exposure to ergonomic risk Exposure to ambient conditions Regularly working at speed Working to tight deadlines
Working full-time hours (35–39, 40–47 or 48 or more hours) Working time autonomy	Regularly working unsocial hours

Notes: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression predicting 75.4% of cases correctly, Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.28$.

Source: EWCS, 2005

Overall, women record lower levels of autonomy and work on complex tasks, with women in blue-collar work being particularly exposed to monotonous tasks. Meanwhile, men's greater concentration in blue-collar work means that they are more likely to be subject to quality standards.

Intellectual demands, development and training

A new question in the 2005 EWCS asked respondents how often they found their job intellectually demanding. No evidence emerged of a gender difference; just under half of the women and men reported that their work was always or often intellectually demanding. However, workers in part-time jobs were less likely to report that they found their work frequently intellectually demanding.

According to the findings, men are more likely to state that their job includes 'intellectual' activities of learning and problem solving (see Figure 30); however, the gap between full-time workers and part-time workers is smaller than that for complex tasks. Looking at the gender gap, it seems to be caused more by the lower rate of learning tasks among part-time workers than that between male and female full-time workers. The incidence of jobs that involve both learning and problem-solving is slightly higher for men than women but female part-time workers fare reasonably well (Table 11); men working part time are least likely to have both problem solving and learning as part of their job. Although learning and problem solving is lower among blue-collar occupations, women in these jobs show much lower rates in these two measures than men do.

The multivariate analysis confirms the positive effect of being in a white-collar job for both women and men in terms of having a job that involves problem solving and learning (Table 12 and Annex 2, Table A6). In addition, working in Denmark, the Netherlands or Sweden significantly raises the probability of benefiting from work tasks that include problem-solving and learning.

Table 11: Opportunities for learning and problem solving, always or often, EU27 (%)

	Men	Women
Full-time workers	64	60
Part-time workers	52	57
White-collar managerial workers	74	69
White-collar professional workers	81	79
White-collar clerical and service workers	62	56
Blue-collar craft and related manual workers	60	41
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers	42	30
Total	63	59

Source: EWCS, 2005

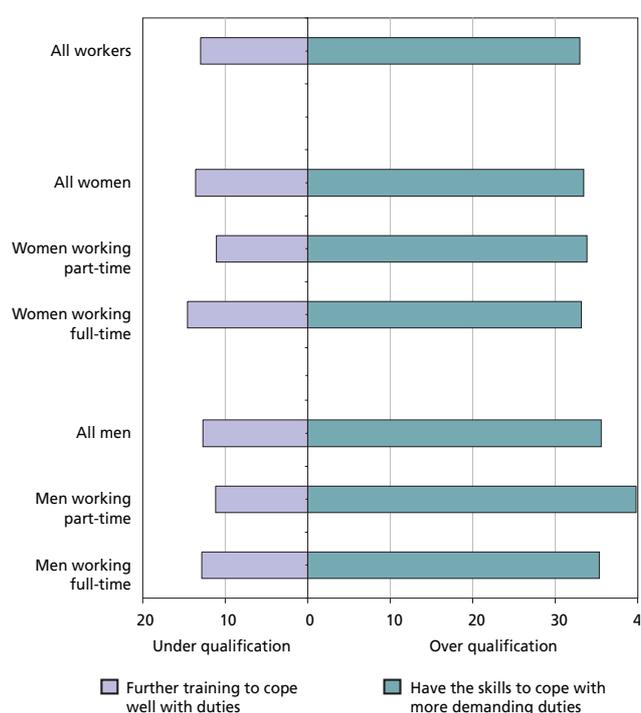
The corollary of jobs that provide opportunities for learning and intellectual development are those that include some form of training. As European educational levels rise, particularly among women, the risk arises that these qualifications and skills may remain unused in the workplace, particularly among part-time workers (Rubery et al, 2005; Tomlinson et al, 2005). For some women and

Table 12: Probability of having a job that involves problem solving and learning, EU27

Positive factors	Negative factors
Working* in Denmark, the Netherlands or Sweden	Working* in Bulgaria, Cyprus, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Romania, Spain or the UK
Being** a man or a woman in any white-collar occupation, or a man in a blue-collar craft occupation	Being** a woman or a man in a blue-collar labouring occupation
Working in the public sector Being an employee	Being older
Regularly experiencing interruptions Regularly working at speed Higher levels of task autonomy Multiple drivers for pace of work	Higher exposure to ergonomic risks
Working more than 20 hours a week Working time autonomy Sometimes or regularly working unsocial hours	

Note: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.30$.

Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 32: Over- and under-qualification, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)

Source: EWCS, 2005

men, such an under-utilisation of qualifications and skills may represent a disadvantage and under-employment at an individual level, while for an economy it represents an under-utilised resource. To explore this issue, the EWCS questioned respondents on their skills in relation to their own work, giving them an opportunity to highlight that they

needed further training to cope well with their duties, that their duties corresponded well with present skills or that they had the skills to cope with more demanding duties.

Just over half of men and women judged their skills to be sufficient for the duties entailed in the current job, while about a third of men (36%) and women (33%) believe they have the skills to cope with more demanding duties. In this respect, the gender differences are negligible (Figure 32). Similarly, relatively little difference emerges among those who reported that they needed further training, regardless of whether they work part time or full time.

The extent to which employed women and men can keep pace with the demands of the workplace may depend on the level of training provided as changes in working arrangements or new technologies are introduced. The survey asked respondents about the training they had received in the last 12 months, with options to indicate training paid for by the employer or as a self-employed person. A series of new options in the 2005 wave also covered training paid for by the respondent as an employee, on-the-job training and other forms of training.

Overall, just over a quarter of employed women and men received some kind of training in the previous 12 months, with little difference among women and men over whether the training received was for 10 days or less or for more than 10 days (Table 13). Relatively little difference appears either between women working part time and those working full time; however, male part-time workers are the least likely to have received any training. Furthermore, part-time workers are less likely to receive training that is paid for by

Table 13: Access to training and type and financing of training, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)

	Men			Women			Total
	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	
Received no training	73	81	76	70	73	75	72
Received 1–10 days training in last 12 months	21	15	19	24	23	21	22
Received more than 10 days training in last 12 months	6	4	5	6	3	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Training paid for or provided by employer, or by yourself if self-employed	26	19	25	28	25	27	26
Training paid for by yourself	6	8	6	6	7	6	6
On-the-job training from co-workers or supervisors	26	23	25	29	25	28	26
Other forms of onsite training and learning, such as self-learning or online tutorials	17	17	16	18	17	18	17
Other	4	4	4	4	4	4	4

Source: EWCS, 2005

Table 14: Ambient risk factors at least half of the time at work, EU27 (%)

	Men			Women			Total
	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	Full-time worker	Part-time worker	All	
Vibration from hand tools or machinery	26	13	25	9	4	7	17
Loud noise	28	16	27	14	9	12	20
High temperatures	20	14	20	13	9	11	16
Low temperatures	16	13	16	8	6	7	12
Breathing in smoke, fumes, powder, dust	20	10	19	6	3	5	13
Breathing in vapours	9	5	8	4	2	4	6
Handling chemical products	9	5	9	8	7	8	8
Radiation	3	2	3	2	1	2	3
Tobacco smoke	16	11	15	10	7	9	13
Infectious fluids, bodily waste	4	4	4	8	6	8	6

Source: EWCS, 2005

an employer or on-the-job training, and are thus slightly more likely to have had to pay for their own training.

Looking across the occupational hierarchy, blue-collar workers are the most likely to report that they received no training. This result is reinforced for women in this occupational category, with nine out of 10 women in blue-collar craft or blue-collar labour occupations reporting that they received no training in the previous year. Confirming the finding of earlier reports (Fagan and Burchell, 2002), workers – women and men – in white-collar occupations receive more training, regardless of its duration. These disparities of training allocation reinforce the occupational divide, while the more limited access of part-time workers to employer-provided training also serves to reinforce inequalities according to working time status.

Risks in the working environment

The EWCS respondents were asked to indicate the proportion of time – from all of the time to never – for which they were exposed to 10 ambient risks and five physical risks. This section focuses on the chance of being exposed to a range of ambient and ergonomic risks for more than half of the working time, as well as exposure to social risks at any time during work.

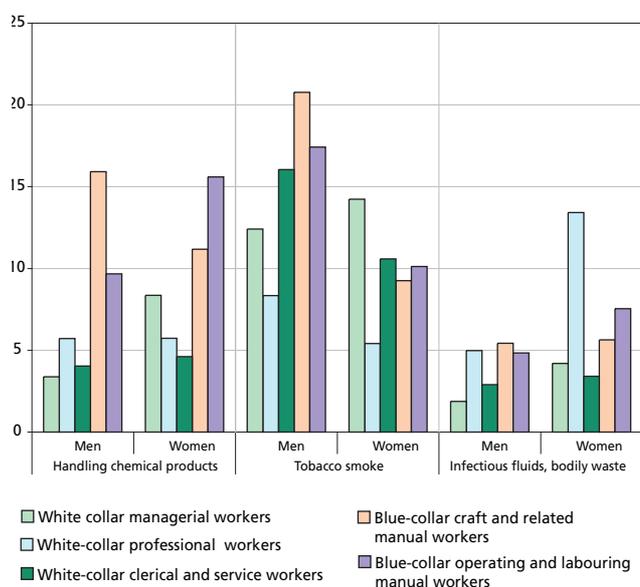
Ambient risks

The environmental risks included exposure to vibration from hand tools or machinery, loud noise, high temperatures, low temperatures, breathing in smoke, fumes, powder or dust, breathing in vapours, chemical products, radiation, tobacco smoke and infectious bodily waste. Overall, the results confirm that men are more likely than

women to experience a negative physical working environment at least half the time. Men have particularly high relative exposure to vibration and breathing in smoke, fumes, powder or dust, at more than three times the levels for women. Men are also twice as likely to experience loud noise, low temperatures and breathing in vapours at the workplace. Of the 10 ambient risk conditions defined, dealing with infectious fluids and bodily waste is the only factor for which women have a higher exposure, at around twice that of men (Table 14).

These gender gaps in exposures tend to reduce slightly when the analysis compares male and female full-time

Figure 33: Exposure to selected ambient risks, by sex and occupational category, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

workers; a similar closing of gaps is found for part-time workers. Interestingly, for part-time workers, women are more exposed than are men to the handling of chemical products, along with dealing with infectious fluids and bodily waste. This may reflect women’s concentration in occupations such as cleaning or catering where chemicals are often used. Nonetheless, overall, in comparing working time status within genders, part-time workers are less exposed than full-time workers to all of the ambient risks cited in Table 14.

Once again, occupation plays an important role in explaining these risks. Men in blue-collar craft and manual work are the most exposed to vibration from hand tools or machinery, loud noise, low temperatures, breathing in smoke, fumes, powder or dust, and breathing in vapours. However, within some occupations, these gender gaps narrow or almost completely disappear, for example, regarding high temperatures for blue-collar craft work or breathing in vapours for blue-collar labouring occupations; the gender gaps are even reversed in the case of handling chemicals for managers and blue-collar labouring occupations (Figure 33). The case of exposure to tobacco smoke demonstrates the role of occupational segregation since overall men have a higher risk of exposure than women. Nonetheless, the risk for women exceeds that for men in managerial occupations, possibly reflecting management in the services sector. For women, exposure to the risks of dealing with infectious fluids and bodily waste is particularly high in professional occupations but the gender gap closes completely for clerical workers, with very few employed men and women being exposed to this risk.

Table 15: Factors explaining the probability of having a job with high exposure to ambient risks, EU27

Factors that increase risk of poor ambient environment	Factors that decrease risk of poor ambient environment
Working in Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary or Latvia*	Working in Italy*
-	Being a man in white-collar occupations or a woman in any occupation**
Being older	Being in any other sector than industry Being an employee
Working at speed Exposure to ergonomic risks Working to tight deadlines Multiple drivers for pace of work	Higher levels of task autonomy
Working long (40–47) or very long hours (48 or more) Regularly or sometimes working unsocial hours	Working time autonomy

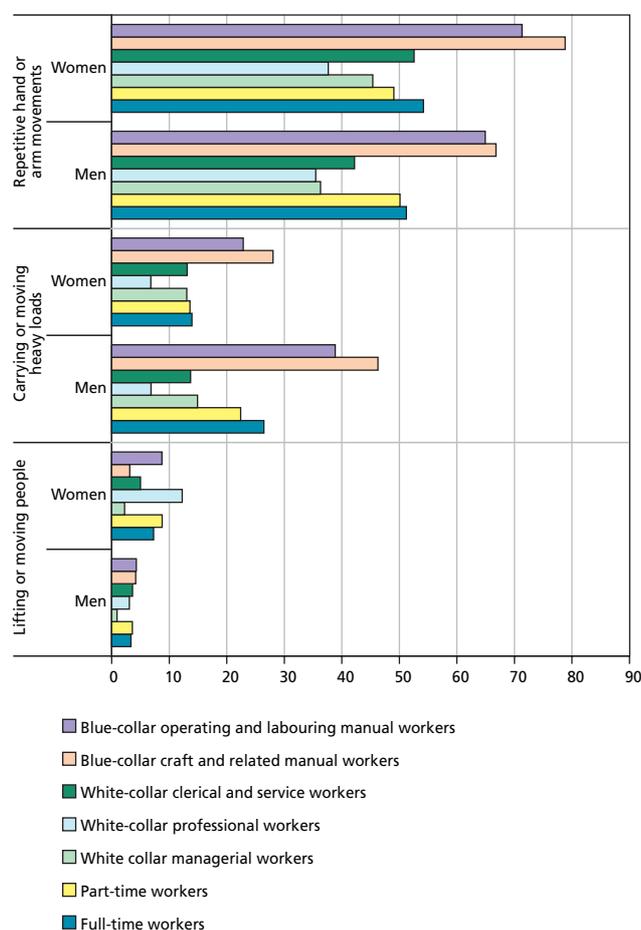
Notes: *Omitted country: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke R² = 0.45.
Source: EWCS, 2005

Despite these gender differences within certain risks, men face greater exposure to these ambient risks overall. Table 15 outlines the results of a regression analysis on the various factors explaining a high level of risk in ambient conditions – that is, workers experiencing regular and multiple hazards. The findings highlight a reduced risk of exposure from being in any occupation other than a man in a blue-collar craft or labouring role. At the same time, and controlling for the other factors in Table 15 (see also Annex 2, Table A7), working in Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary or Latvia increases the risk of exposure to these ambient risks, as does working in the industrial sector.

Ergonomic risks

As well as the physical environment at the place of work, employed men and women may experience ergonomic risks in the type of tasks they undertake. The EWCS asked about exposure to five physical risks and the frequency of exposure to them. This study focuses on respondents who are exposed to a hazard for more than half of their working time. The risks include tiring or painful positions, repetitive movement, lifting heavy loads and lifting or moving people. Gender differences in the risk of exposure are much smaller than for ambient risks, with men only slightly more likely to report regular experience – that is, more than half of their working time – of tiring or painful positions and standing or walking at work; these risks may exist in both female-dominated retail work and in blue-collar manufacturing jobs. However, the gender gap is reversed in the case of repetitive hand or arm movements and lifting or moving people, with women more likely to undertake such work. In contrast, the gender gap in favour of men extends to 12 percentage points when it comes to carrying or moving

Figure 34: Exposure to ergonomic risks, by sex, occupational category and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

heavy loads (Figure 34). These patterns within occupational categories seem to be resistant to the impact of working time status for both men and women.

Table 16: Factors raising or reducing exposure to ergonomic hazards, EU27

Factors that increase ergonomic hazards	Factors that decrease ergonomic hazards
Working in Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary or Latvia*	Working in Italy*
-	Being a man in white-collar occupations or a woman in any occupation**
Being older	Being in any other sector than industry Being an employee
Working at speed Exposure to ergonomic risks Working to tight deadlines Multiple drivers for pace of work	Higher levels of task autonomy
Working long (40–47) or very long hours (48 or more) Regularly or sometimes working unsocial hours	Working time autonomy

Notes: *Omitted country: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations; ***compared with manufacturing. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke R² =0.40.

Source: EWCS, 2005

Looking at the patterns across occupations, the risk and gender gaps are found to vary more significantly. The risk of regularly moving or lifting people is higher for women in white-collar professional occupations, with 12% of women spending more than half of their working time doing such work compared with 3% of men (Figure 34). Conversely, men's exposure to carrying heavy loads increases for blue-collar work, with four fifths or more exposed to such work. While the gender gaps are large in these instances, they virtually disappear for this type of work for white-collar occupations. The case of standing or walking for at least half the time underlines the importance of the occupational dimension, as women in professional, managerial and blue-collar labouring jobs are more likely to experience this risk, while the opposite is true for white-collar clerical and blue-collar craft occupations.

The exposure to regular repetitive work may represent a particular ergonomic risk for the worker, and in addition the work may also be monotonous. Just over half of women and

men are exposed to work that regularly involves repetitive hand or arm movements, with female part-time workers experiencing a slightly reduced risk. However, once again the occupational pattern is significant and very high risks emerge among blue-collar workers and a large gender gap in the case of blue-collar craft workers. For women, the exposure in white-collar jobs is also high, with 45% of managers and 53% of clerical staff regularly experiencing repetitive work.

These patterns within occupations and for specific ergonomic risks mean that overall the proportion of women and men at high risk of these ergonomic hazards is rather similar, amounting to 34% of men and 30% of women. Nevertheless, the importance of the occupational dimension is further demonstrated when the study considers the number of risks that employed women and men face. Table 16 and Table A7 in Annex 2 highlight the factors which increase the risk of exposure to multiple ergonomic hazards, using a multivariate analysis.

Table 17: Exposure to selected social risks, by sex, occupational category and working time status, EU27 (%)

	Physical violence from people in your workplace	Physical violence from other people	Bullying / harassment	Sexual or gender discrimination	Unwanted sexual attention	Age discrimination
White-collar managerial workers						
Men	2	6	3	1	1	3
Women	1	7	6	3	6	3
White-collar professional workers						
Men	2	4	4	1	1	3
Women	3	5	7	2	3	3
White-collar clerical and service workers						
Men	2	8	6	1	1	3
Women	2	4	6	2	3	3
Blue-collar craft and related manual workers						
Men	1	2	3	0	0	2
Women	1	1	5	1	2	3
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers						
Men	2	5	5	0	0	2
Women	1	3	5	2	2	3
Full-time workers						
Men	2	5	4	1	1	2
Women	2	4	6	1	3	3
Part-time workers						
Men	3	5	4	1	2	3
Women	2	3	6	1	3	2
All						
Men	2	5	4	1	1	3
Women	2	4	6	2	3	3

Source: EWCS, 2005

Overall, a picture emerges of greater risk for men in blue-collar occupations but with some reversal of gender differences in relation to exposure to chemicals and bodily fluids, for example. These subtleties arise when the individual risks are examined by sex, occupation and working time status. This, in turn, highlights the importance of a gendered analysis of these factors.

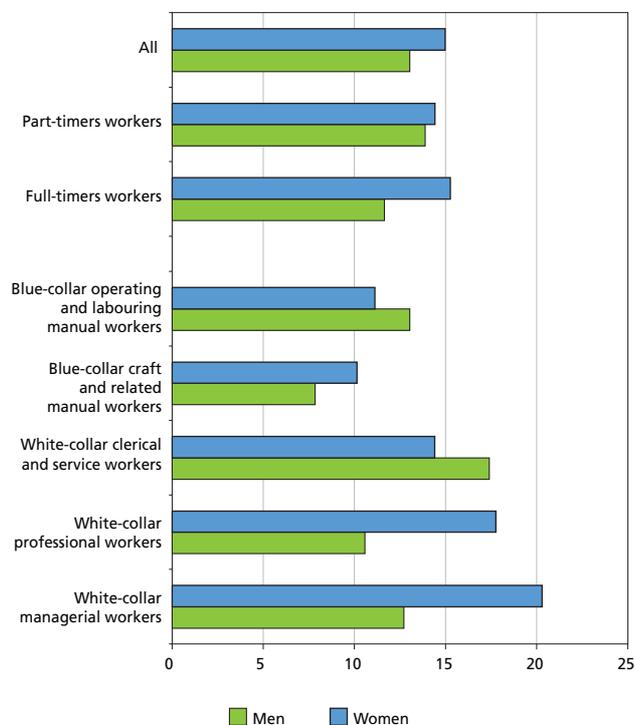
Risks from the social environment

In addition to exploring the ambient and ergonomic dimensions to work, the EWCS enquired about the social environment. This has already been mentioned in the above analyses on support from colleagues, interaction with customers and regularly working in a workplace. However, potential social risks in the workplace may originate from colleagues or other people in the workplace, such as clients, pupils, passengers or patients. The survey asked respondents about their exposure to 12 social risks, including threats of physical violence from either people from the workplace or other people, bullying or harassment, unwanted sexual attention and age discrimination, as well as a series of questions about discrimination linked to gender, nationality, ethnic background, religion, disability and sexual orientation. Fortunately, the reported levels of these risks are low. Despite the segregation of women and men into different occupations, different jobs and often different workplaces, the exposure to most of the risks in the social environment is remarkably similar (Table 17).

Overall, no gender differences arise in terms of physical violence or threats of physical violence, or discrimination linked to age, nationality, ethnic background, religion, disability or sexual orientation. Women are, however, more likely to experience bullying or harassment, unwanted sexual attention and sexual discrimination. Among working time statuses, working part time seems to increase the risk of threats of violence for men and also of discrimination linked to age or nationality. For women, the overall risk of threats of violence rises for part-time workers, while the risks of violence from people other than colleagues, bullying or harassment and age discrimination are all higher for full-time workers. Examining the pattern across occupations, the gender gaps at the aggregate level persist, but some social risks reveal an occupational effect. The risk of violence from other people is particularly high for women in white-collar managerial and professional positions and for men in white-collar clerical roles (Table 17). Similarly, the risks of sexual discrimination and unwanted sexual attention for women are higher in white-collar occupations, particularly in management.

Although these social risks appear to be the same for both sexes when each individual risk is highlighted, when the

Figure 35: Exposure to all social risks combined, by sex, occupational category and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

analysis examines the proportion of workers who are exposed to at least one of these risks combined, the proportion is slightly higher for women (Figure 35). Furthermore, the risk of exposure to at least one of the social risks is seven percentage points higher among female white-collar managers and professionals. In contrast, the gender gaps are small among clerical workers and blue-collar labouring occupations, with a slightly higher exposure for men. Working time status has a more limited impact on exposure to these social risks; nevertheless, male part-time workers seem to be at an elevated risk compared with their full-time counterparts, reporting an almost equal level to that experienced by female part-time workers.

The findings presented in this chapter highlight the importance of a gendered analysis to working conditions. For many of the aspects of working conditions, risks and exposures discussed, important gender differences emerge that can be lost at the aggregate level. Furthermore, even where gender differences appear small, an analysis by working time status and occupational group reveals how these additional layers of labour market structure can reinforce risks or disadvantages and interact to create high risk groups.

Working time is an important aspect of job quality. The number of hours worked, the type of work schedule and whether people have some degree of autonomy to adapt their working time all impact on men's and women's abilities to coordinate or 'balance' their employment with domestic responsibilities and other activities. The pace and intensity of working time constitutes another pertinent dimension.

This chapter addresses the following three questions.

- What is the gender difference in the number of hours worked in a week and in the 'composite' weekly working hours of paid and unpaid work?
- Aside from the volume of hours, what disparities exist in the other dimensions of working time – such as schedules, shifts, the regularity of work patterns, working time autonomy and intensity – by sex and full-time or part-time working status?
- Do these gender disparities persist when comparing women and men who are employed at similar occupational levels?

Number of weekly working hours

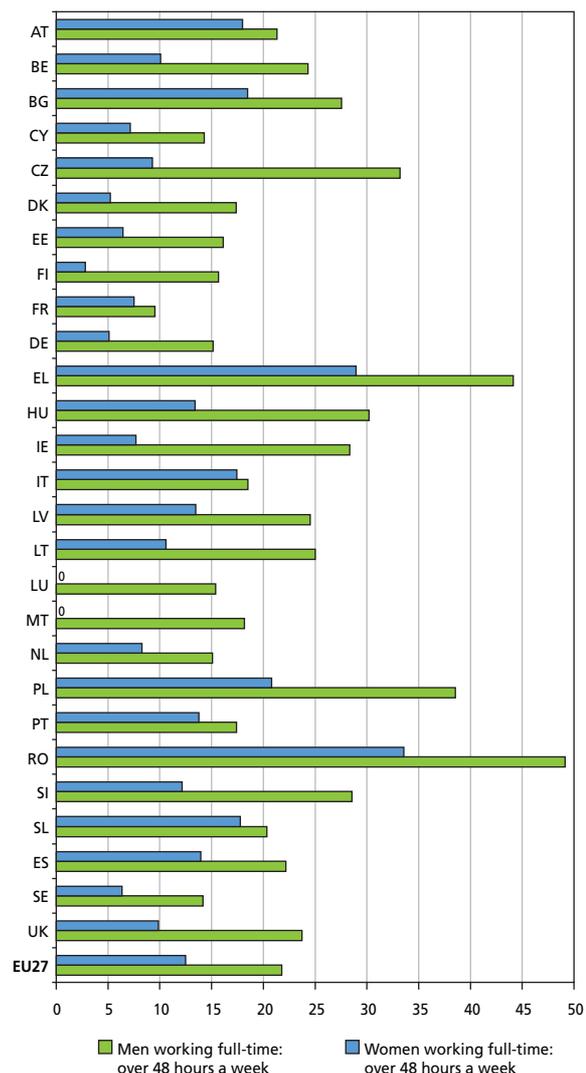
A well-known gender difference concerns the fact that, on average, women work fewer hours in employment than men. In the EU27, 29% of employed women work part time – defined here as working 30 hours or less a week – compared with just 7% of employed men. Similarly, more men are exposed to longer working hours: for instance, 20% of employed men work over 48 hours a week, which is almost twice the rate for women (12%). This gender pattern persists in every country, but with some important differences in the rates of part-time and longer full-time hours. These national variations stem from a combination of institutional differences which shape working time arrangements, including working time policy and regulations, economic conditions and labour demand. The availability of childcare and other work-family reconciliation measures represent further important factors in relation to women's work patterns.

Part-time employment is comparatively rare among employed women in the 10 central and eastern European Member States – Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia – although it reaches 14% in Latvia and Poland. This working time arrangement is somewhat more common among employed women in Finland and also in the southern European countries of Cyprus, Italy, Malta, Portugal and Spain. Greece represents an exception among the group of southern states; here, only 8.5% of women work part time. In contrast, at least 30% of employed

women work part time in the remaining 10 EU Member States, reaching as high as 75% in the Netherlands. Meanwhile, part-time employment rates are lower for men and are more homogenous across the countries. The Netherlands ranks first, with 13% of employed men in this country working part time, while the rate exceeds 10% in a further eight countries: Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Italy, Romania and the UK.

Taking the 48-hour working week threshold – established in the European Directive 93/104/EC, known as the working time directive – as a measure of 'overworking', it is clear from the findings shown in Figure 36 that this risk varies by country as well as by sex. The risk of being overworked is most common for men in Romania, Greece, Poland and the Czech Republic. However, it is important to add that the

Figure 36: Extent of working long hours (48+ hours a week) among full-time workers, by sex and country, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

proportion of full-time employed women who are exposed to overworking in some countries exceeds that of men in other countries. In six countries – Cyprus, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Sweden – the rate of overworking among full-time employed men is 15% or less, while in seven of the countries – Austria, Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Poland, Romania and Slovenia – over 15% of full-time employed women work comparably long hours.

Overall, the average number of hours worked by each sex and the size of the gender gap varies according to country (Table 18). In central-eastern Europe, working hours tend to be longer for both sexes, with women typically working about 39 hours or more a week. This pattern also prevails in Cyprus, Greece, Portugal and Spain. Elsewhere, women work between 31 and 36 hours on average, dropping to below 30 hours a week in the Netherlands and the UK. The gender gap in average weekly working hours narrows to less than five hours in 10 countries – eight of which are central and eastern European Member States – while it exceeds seven hours in a further eight countries.

Table 18: Average number of weekly working hours and gender gap, by sex and country

Country	Men	Women	Gender gap
NL	38	26	-12
IE	43	31	-12
UK	40	29	-11
EL	49	40	-9
BE	41	33	-8
IT	42	34	-8
LU	41	34	-8
MT	43	35	-8
DE	41	34	-7
EU27	42	35	-7
AT	43	36	-7
SE	41	35	-6
ES	43	37	-6
HU	45	39	-6
DK	39	33	-6
PL	47	41	-6
CZ	44	39	-5
FI	40	35	-5
SK	45	41	-4
LT	43	38	-4
FR	37	33	-4
RO	48	44	-4
EE	42	38	-3
LV	43	40	-3
CY	41	38	-3
PT	43	41	-2
SI	43	40	-2
BG	45	43	-2

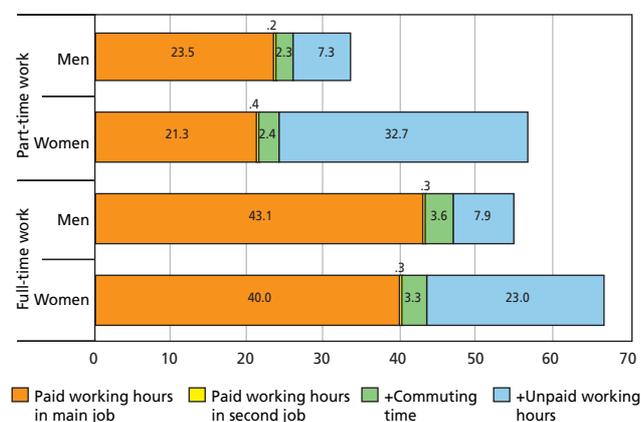
Source: EWCS, 2005

Composite working time

The indicator ‘composite working time’ can be calculated by adding together the total number of weekly working hours in a person’s main job, the number of hours worked in any other jobs, commuting time, plus the total number of weekly unpaid working hours. In relation to hours worked in other jobs, it should be noted that 6% of employed women and men have more than one job, with a higher incidence observed among part-time workers at 8% of female part-time workers and 12% of male part-time workers. On average, people in this category work an extra 12 hours a week in addition to the hours worked in their main job, and little difference emerges by sex or working time status. The gender differences in this composite working time or total workload are worth further investigation, bearing in mind that men typically work longer hours in employment, while women invest more time in domestic responsibilities, as the findings in Chapter 2 have already shown.

In fact, this indicator of time use reveals that women have the longest composite working week, particularly if they are employed full time (Figure 37). The primary cause of this is the unequal gender division of unpaid domestic work. While part-time employment provides some respite for women, they still have a greater number of composite working hours than full-time employed men. This is because women employed part time have the longest number of unpaid working hours. Hence, while part-time employment is often advocated as a measure which caters for work–family reconciliation, the women engaged in this working time arrangement still have a longer composite working week than men have.

Figure 37: Average composite weekly working hours, by sex and working time status, EU27



Source: EWCS, 2005

Weekly hours and preferences of part-time workers

The reasons why women and men decide to work part time are quite different. The most common reason given by women is that they are also looking after children or have other domestic responsibilities; men who work part time, on the other hand, mainly consist of students, other young labour market entrants, or older men with poor health or who are approaching retirement (Delsen, 1998; Fagan, 2001).

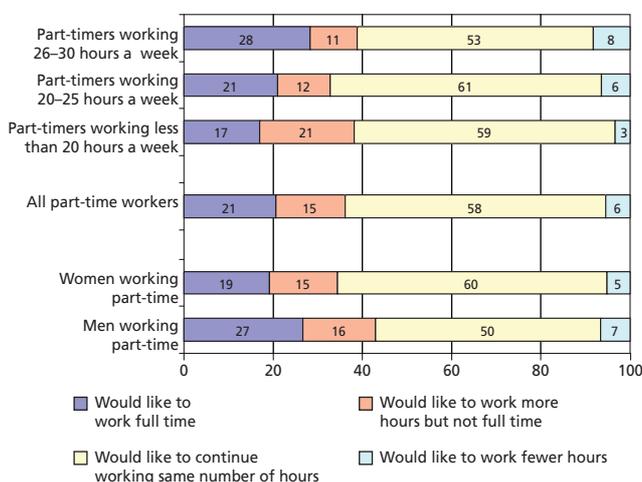
One fifth of part-time workers would prefer to work full time, while a further 15% would like longer part-time hours (Figure 38). A higher proportion of male part-time workers are in this position involuntarily, while nearly one fifth of female part-time employment is involuntary; the latter amounts to a larger proportion of the female workforce as a whole, given that the rate of part-time employment is much higher among women. In the EU27, 38% of part-timers work less than 20 hours a week in their main job. Part-time workers with fewer working hours are less likely than other part-time workers to want full-time hours, although significantly more of them would like a greater number of part-time hours.

Standard and non-standard schedules

Some gender differences emerge in work schedules, although overall the gender differences are less pronounced than those pertaining to the number of hours worked.

Despite the long-running trend towards a diversification of working time arrangements which has occurred in most industrialised countries, the so-called ‘standard’ five-day week is still the predominant arrangement (Figure 39).

Figure 38: Part-time workers’ preferences for adjusting the number of hours they work, by sex, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

While women are less likely to work five days a week because of their greater involvement in part-time employment, there is no gender difference among those who are either employed full time or part time: altogether, 71% of full-time workers and about 45% of part-time workers work five days a week. Full-time workers who deviate from this pattern usually work more than five days a week.

Figure 39: Average number of weekly working days, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

As the findings in Figure 40 show, men are more likely to work over 10 hours a day. This is mainly a feature of full-time jobs: working more than 10 hours a day is a regular occurrence – that is, it occurs five or more times a month –

Figure 40: Working more than 10 hours a day, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

for over a quarter of employed men and for 16% of women working full time.

If the ‘24/7’ economy is developing in terms of consumption and leisure occurring at all hours of the day and week, then this is happening without an expansion in the proportion of people working outside the ‘standard’ working hours. Time series data indicate very little change over the last 10 years in the proportion of people working evenings, nights or at weekends (Parent-Thirion et al, 2007; Evans et al, 2001). Nevertheless, working on a Saturday or during the evening is quite common. The proportion of those working on Sundays or at night is lower, but still relatively widespread: over one quarter of employed people work at least one Sunday a month, while nearly one fifth work at least one night a month.

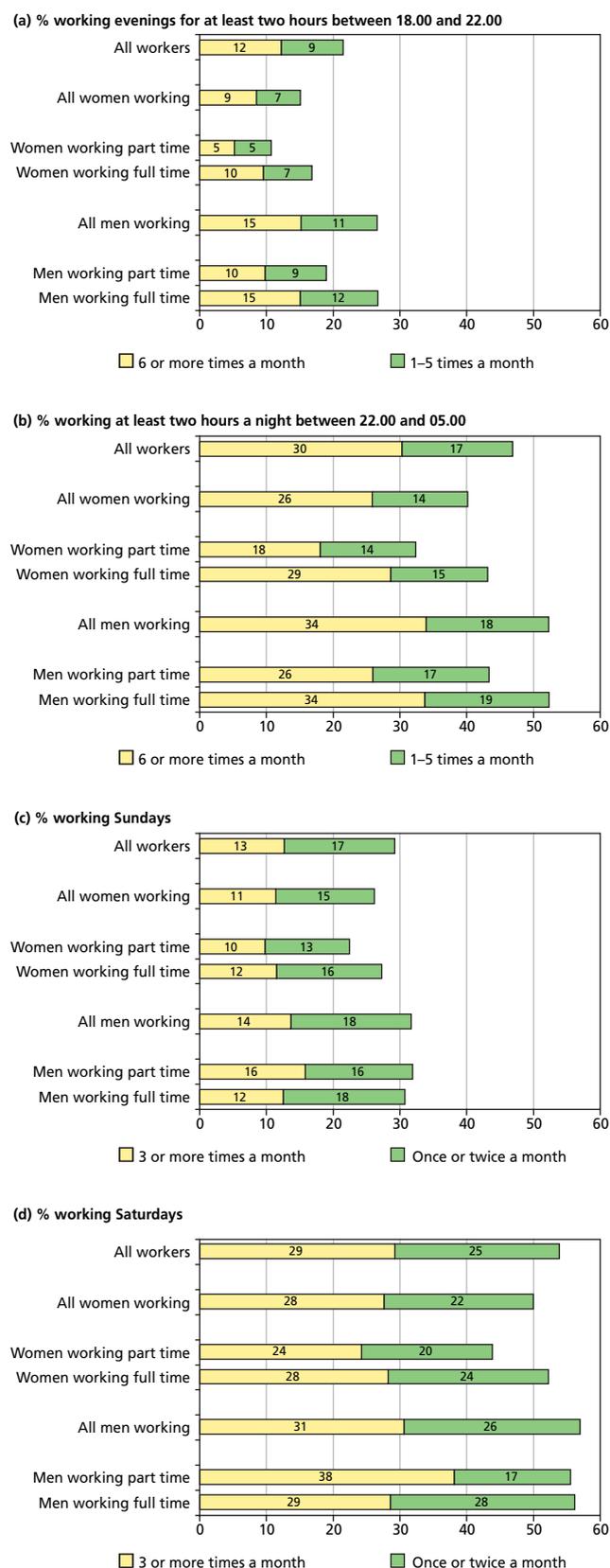
The overall gender difference in this context is that men do most of the evening, night and weekend work (Figure 41). For both sexes, evening and night work is more common among full-time workers than part-time workers. Weekend work is more frequent among women who work full time; however, no such difference is evident for men according to working time status. Similar proportions of male and female full-time workers do regular weekend work, although more men do occasional weekend work. This may reflect the higher levels of male overtime working. Men employed part time have the highest rate of regular weekend work.

While women employed part time are the least likely to work outside of daytime weekday hours, it should be noted that a sizeable proportion of these women are working non-standard hours. Almost one third (32%) of female part-timers work evenings or nights, while a similar proportion do regular weekend work. The involvement of male part-time workers in non-standard schedules is even higher.

Organisation of working hours

Overall, women’s work schedules are less variable than men’s schedules. The majority of workers have regular schedules, albeit a slightly higher proportion of women, at 71%, than men, at 67%. Moreover, few differences are evident between the sexes in relation to working time status. However, women are more likely to work the same number of days every week, the same number of hours each day and to have fixed start and finishing times (Table 19). Women who work part time, nevertheless, have more variation in the number of hours worked each day, and in their start and finishing times, compared with women employed full time. The most variable schedules are evident among male part-time workers.

Figure 41: Evening, night and weekend work, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)



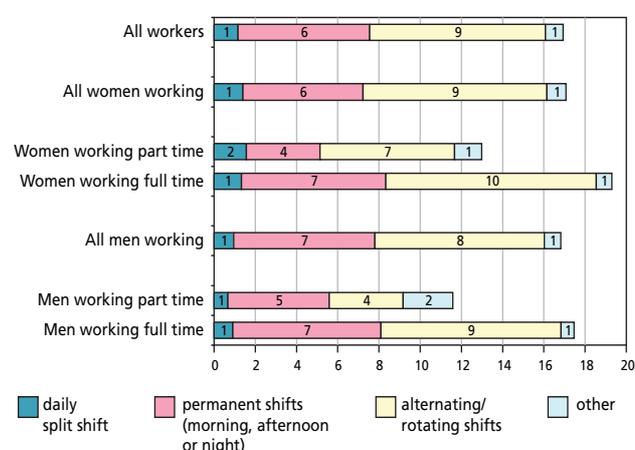
Source: EWCS, 2005

Table 19: Types of work schedules, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)

	Men working full time	Men working part time	All men	Women working full time	Women working part time	All women	All workers
Works same number of days every week	73	68	72	78	75	77	74
Works same number of hours each day	58	47	56	66	54	62	58
Fixed start and finishing times	58	48	56	70	64	67	61

Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 42: Incidence of shift work, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

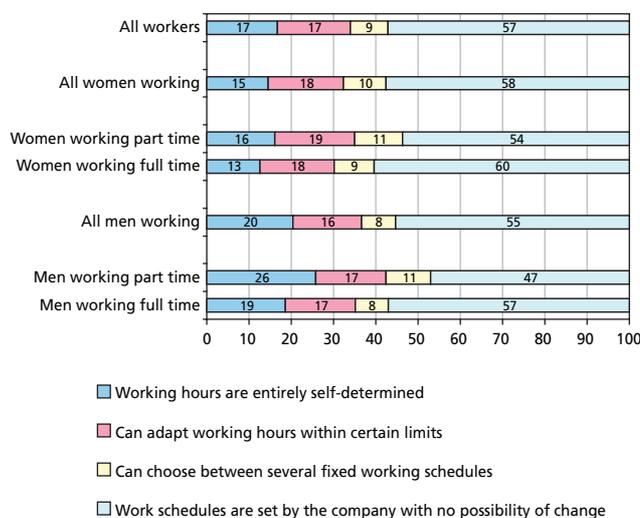
The incidence of shift work is similar for women and men, and for both sexes the rate of shift work is lower among part-time workers (Figure 42). The types of shifts worked by women and men are also similar.

Few gender differences are evident in relation to the different forms of working time autonomy (Figure 43). The majority of workers have their working hours set by their employer without the possibility of changing them, although one third of workers have some scope in determining or adapting their working hours within limits. The only significant gender difference in this respect is that more men can determine their own hours; interestingly, this type of autonomy is more common among the minority of men who are employed part time.

Work intensity

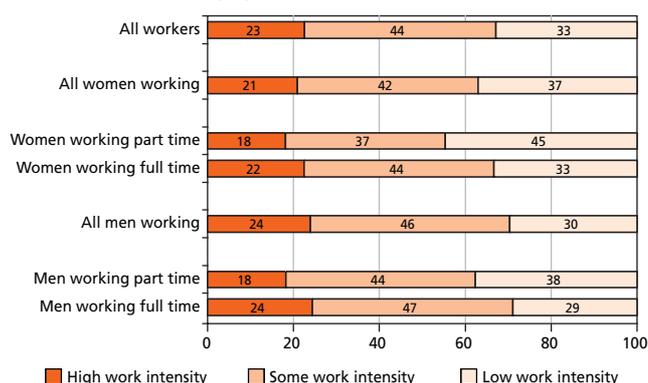
Almost one in four employed persons, at 23%, has to contend with high work intensity in the job. The levels of work intensity are similar for both sexes (Figure 44). A higher proportion of employed women have jobs where the work intensity is low (37% compared with 30% of employed men); this is mainly because work intensity is lower in part-time jobs for both sexes.

Figure 43: Working time autonomy, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 44: Level of work intensity, by sex and working time status, EU27 (%)



Note: Intensity = high speed + tight deadlines + no time to get task done.
Source: EWCS, 2005

Occupational differences in working time of men and women

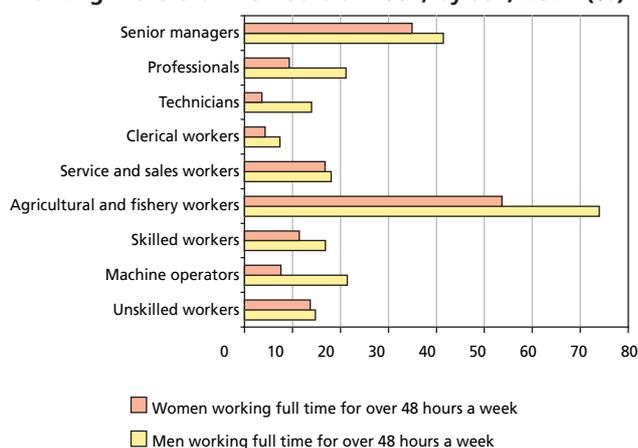
Examining the occupational differences in men's and women's working time provides a further insight into gender variations, particularly when taking into account the highly segregated nature of some types of employment.

Chapter 2 revealed how part-time work is more common in certain occupational groups – particularly among professional, services and sales or unskilled workers; conversely, this type of work is rare among senior managers, skilled workers and machine operators. The findings presented in Figure 45 show the occupational differences in the incidence of long hours of work among full-time workers. Accordingly, in each occupational category and sector, more men work long hours. However, the incidence of long hours of work is also influenced by the type of job. Working long hours is rare among either sex in clerical and secretarial occupations and unskilled jobs; the former is a female-dominated occupational category, while the latter has a mixed-sex profile. Long hours are particularly common among agricultural and fishery workers and senior managers. The women employed full time in these occupational categories have a higher rate of working long hours than men employed full time in other occupations.

These examples illustrate how the rate of working long hours by women and men is shaped by the requirements and norms of their occupations. If the occupational norm is long full-time working hours, then – given that women have a much higher domestic workload – having to work long hours can also pose a barrier to women’s entry into some male-dominated occupations; the under-representation of women in senior management is one obvious example of how such barriers can impact on women’s careers. However, long working hours do not always constitute a barrier: agricultural work, for instance, has a mixed gender profile and women have a long tradition of working long hours in this sector of the economy.

Occupational differences exist in work schedules for both sexes, as illustrated using the more condensed occupational categorisation introduced in Chapter 3. Male managers are

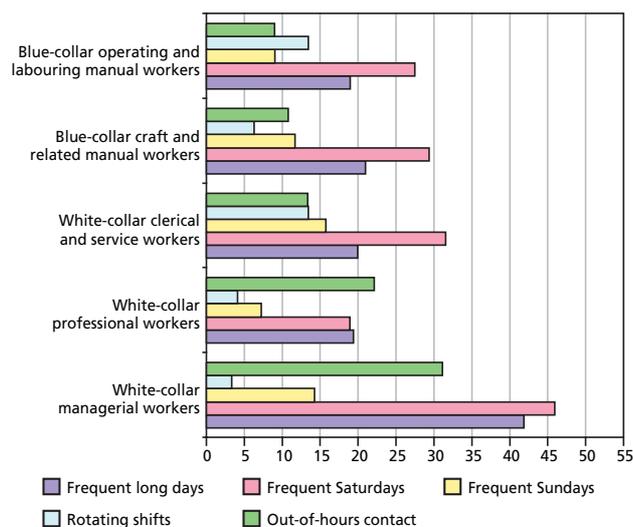
Figure 45: Occupational profile of full-time workers working more than 48 hours a week, by sex, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

most likely to frequently work Saturdays, long days and be contacted outside of their normal working hours (Figure 46). Shift work is most common among men if they are blue-collar unskilled workers or white-collar clerical and service workers. Sunday work is least common among men working in professional and unskilled blue-collar jobs.

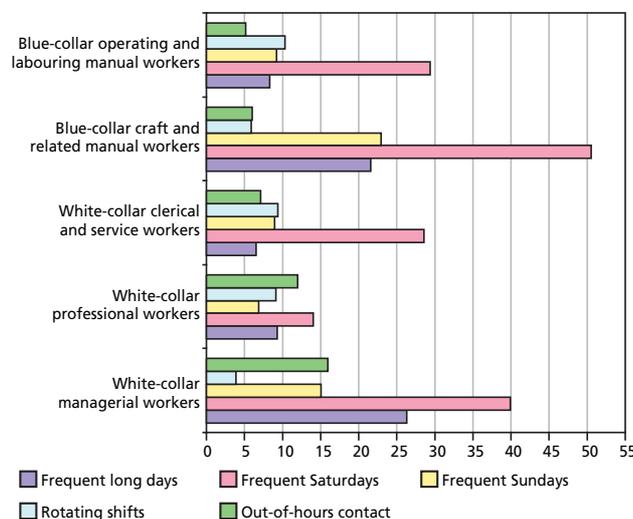
Figure 46: Incidence of non-standard work schedules among men, by occupational category, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

Female managers are more likely to frequently work Saturdays, long days and be contacted outside normal working hours, although to a lesser degree compared with male managers (Figure 47). The minority of women who work in skilled blue-collar jobs are more frequently exposed

Figure 47: Incidence of non-standard work schedules among women, by occupational category, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

to long days and weekend work than women in other categories. Little variation arises in the rate of shift work among women by broad occupational group, with the exception that it is rare among those working in management roles.

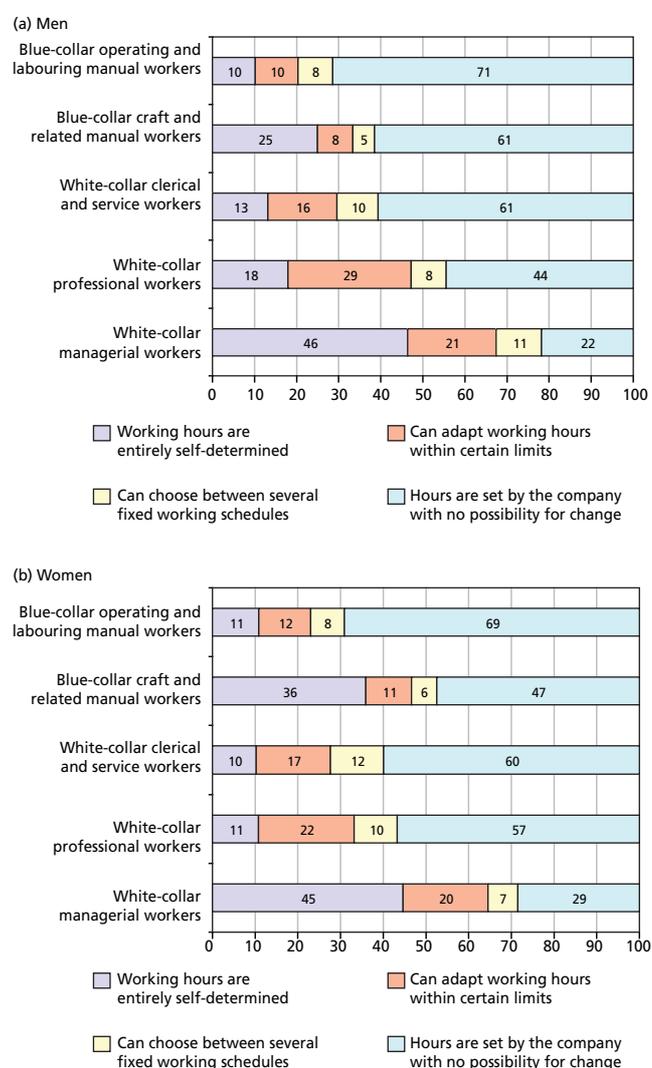
Few gender gaps are evident in these dimensions of non-standard hours among blue-collar workers; the main difference in this respect is that the minority of women employed in skilled blue-collar jobs are even more likely to work weekends than men in this occupational group. In relation to white-collar workers, the main gender difference is that men are more likely to frequently work long days and be contacted outside of normal working hours. Sunday work is also more common among male clerical workers, most likely because the minority of men in this occupational group are concentrated in the transport sector. Among professionals, it is more common for women to work rotating shifts; this finding mainly relates to the female-dominated nursing and allied professions.

In terms of working time autonomy, managers and professionals have the most autonomy, although women in these categories are more likely to have their hours fixed by their company (Figure 48). This probably reflects the concentration of female managers and professionals in less senior positions and perhaps the sector or company in which they work. The other gender difference is that, among skilled blue-collar workers, a greater proportion of the female minority are able to determine their own working hours.

In relation to work intensity, the occupational breakdown revealed little variation across the different job categories for either men or women (see Figure 44).

Overall, the analysis in this chapter shows that the main indicator of gender disparities in working hours is the length of weekly hours, with women having shorter paid working time than men have in every country. However, women have the longest composite working week when hours worked in other jobs, commuting time and unpaid domestic working hours are added together. Almost one fifth of women employed part time would prefer to work longer hours. In terms of work schedules, the main differences are

Figure 48: Degree of working time autonomy, by sex and occupational category, EU27 (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

that men are more likely to work over 10 hours a day and to have working time autonomy, while women employed part time are least likely to work outside of daytime weekday hours. These gender differences are shaped, to some degree, by the types of jobs in which men and women are engaged. For example, working long hours features strongly for both men and women employed in senior management positions.

Impact of working conditions on job satisfaction, work–life balance and health

This chapter explores the gender differences in work-related health outcomes, work–family compatibility and job satisfaction. Compared with earlier chapters in this report, there is a greater focus here on the more subjective outcomes of satisfaction in relation to the various aspects of work, health and the work–family relationship. While this subjective dimension is vital for understanding the experience of work and for complementing the more objective measures of various working conditions used in the preceding chapters, it is also important to view such results in their proper context. Using these subjective measures, surprisingly high rates of satisfaction can be found, which stand in contrast to some of the working conditions highlighted in the previous chapters.⁸

The key questions posed in this chapter for an analysis of gender differences in these areas are as follows:

- What are the gender differences in work-related health outcomes?
- What are the gender differences in work–family compatibility, and what dimensions of working time impact most on men’s and women’s reports of their work–life balance?
- What are the gender differences in job satisfaction?

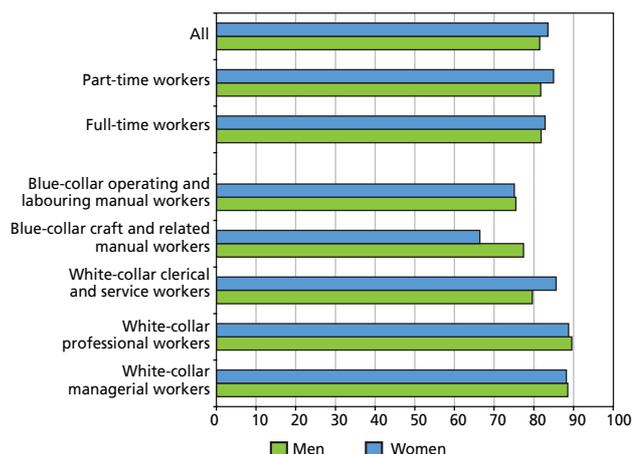
As in previous chapters, the key gender differences are explored using both full-time and part-time work distinctions and occupational patterns. Figures and tables are used to highlight the gender differences, while multivariate analyses examine the interaction of these variables with a range of other factors. The results of these multivariate analyses appear in summary tables, as well as in Annex 2, Table A8.

Job satisfaction

Survey measures of job satisfaction provide a good example of the typically high positive results that are obtained from subjective measures. The findings shown in Figure 49 confirm this pattern for the 2005 EWCS. In response to the question ‘On the whole, are you very satisfied, satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with working conditions in your main paid job?’, 81% of men and 84% of women reported that they were either satisfied or very satisfied with their working conditions. Figure 49 also confirms the results obtained from previous research (Hakim, 2000) – namely, that part-time workers report even higher levels of job satisfaction. Although women report higher degrees of satisfaction overall, the levels of satisfaction are almost

equal for both sexes in three out of the five occupational groupings. Sizeable gender gaps begin to emerge only in the clerical and blue-collar craft categories: the latter in favour of men, the former in favour of women.

Figure 49: Extent of job satisfaction, by sex, working time status and occupational category, EU27 (%)



Note: Figures are for respondents who said they were satisfied or very satisfied with their job.

Source: EWCS, 2005

Previous research has shown that more precise questioning on different aspects of job satisfaction cuts through the somewhat superficial responses obtained from more general questions, revealing greater detail in relation to patterns of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (see Burchell et al, 2002). Table 20 outlines the responses to a range of questions that appeared towards the end of the EWCS questionnaire which probed job satisfaction issues more deeply. Respondents were asked to what extent they agreed with six statements concerning various aspects of their work, based on a five-point scale ranging from ‘strongly agreeing’ to ‘strongly disagreeing’. This more detailed questioning reveals considerable dissatisfaction regarding certain aspects of working conditions, with less than half of employed women and men reporting satisfaction with pay and only about a third agreeing that they had good prospects for career advancement. Part-time workers are marginally more dissatisfied with their career prospects than their full-time counterparts, particularly women who work part time. People who work part time also have a lower level of reported satisfaction in terms of having good friends at work, although they are significantly more satisfied in this respect than they are with their career prospects or pay levels.

⁸ For an explanation of this apparent discrepancy between objective and subjective evaluations of jobs, see Fraser and Burchell, 2001.

Table 20: Measures of job satisfaction by sex, working time status and occupational category, EU27 (%)

	Full-time workers	Part-time workers	White-collar managerial workers	White-collar professional workers	White-collar clerical and service workers	Blue-collar craft and related manual workers	Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers	All
Might lose job in next six months								
Men	15	20	7	12	18	17	22	16
Women	17	14	8	12	17	20	21	16
Well paid for the work done								
Men	47	45	60	55	45	41	36	46
Women	40	43	49	44	43	24	33	40
Good prospects for career advancement								
Men	34	28	45	49	37	25	18	33
Women	31	24	36	39	30	12	11	29
Feel 'at home' in organisation								
Men	63	61	78	70	61	62	50	63
Women	64	65	80	69	64	60	54	65
Opportunities to learn and grow								
Men	54	52	69	72	55	48	32	54
Women	55	49	65	72	51	27	26	53
Have very good friends at work								
Men	74	67	73	73	73	72	71	73
Women	72	68	72	75	73	60	60	70

Note: Percentages represent those who responded that they either 'strongly agreed' or 'agreed' with the statement.

Source: EWCS, 2005

The findings in Table 20 also include an analysis of job satisfaction using the now-familiar occupational groupings introduced in Chapter 3. Further variations emerge here in terms of both occupation and sex. For example, fears about job security ('I might lose my job in the next six months') seem to affect clerical and blue-collar workers to a greater degree, while professionals and particularly managers are much less likely to be concerned about such issues. Similarly, white-collar professionals and managers, especially men, are more likely to agree that they are paid well for the work they do and also that they have good prospects for career advancement. In contrast, women in these professions tend to agree more with the statement that they 'feel at home in this organisation'. The responses to the statement 'I have very good friends at work' are particularly interesting because of their similarities across the sexes and occupations. One exception in this respect concerns women engaged in blue-collar work, who show a lower rate of positive responses. Similarly, women working in these traditionally male-dominated areas are less likely to report satisfaction with having opportunities to learn or grow compared with their male counterparts or with women in other occupations.

For the first time, the 2005 EWCS asked respondents about the frequency of feeling that they are doing useful work. Few gender differences emerged between women and men who reported feeling that they are doing useful work 'almost always' or 'often'; only male part-time workers reported a slightly lower level of satisfaction. Across occupations, those in white-collar clerical and blue-collar labouring occupations reported lower levels of feeling that their job was worthwhile. Male managers are slightly more likely to feel that they are doing something useful, but this trend is reversed for professionals. At the same time, women are slightly more likely to report that they are doing something useful. The survey also asked respondents about the amount of time they had the opportunity to do what they do best. Although limited gender differences emerged – amounting to a four percentage point or less difference, except in the case of blue-collar manual workers – white-collar managers and professionals, along with blue-collar craft workers, reported having such opportunities more regularly.

Adopting a similar methodology to the multivariate analyses used in the earlier chapters facilitates an exploration of the factors that are associated with a high level of job satisfaction. Given the positive responses to the general

question on satisfaction with working conditions, it is worthwhile turning to those who agreed or strongly agreed with at least four of the six more detailed measures of job satisfaction, as listed in Table 20.⁹ Using a methodology that seeks to explain country differences alongside job and personal characteristics, and only then includes countries that are very significantly different, some 18 countries still remain in the analysis. This is much higher than in similar analyses for other factors addressed in earlier chapters and suggests that country variations in job satisfaction are particularly important. It is found, for example, that working in Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Malta, Sweden or the UK has a positive impact on recorded job satisfaction, while working in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia or Slovenia has the opposite effect (Table 21 and Annex 2, Table A8). These country differences remain despite controlling for a wide range of other variables.

Of these other variables, it is interesting to note that working time measures figure prominently among the factors that raise the probability of being satisfied with working conditions. The most satisfied are those workers who work full time but not for more than 48 hours a week. Having some degree of working time and task autonomy also increases levels of job satisfaction. Perhaps surprisingly, working unsocial hours (evenings, nights or long days), at high speed and having multiple drivers for pace of work also

raise satisfaction slightly. It is possible that these dimensions of working time are an indication of how certain jobs may be demanding and complex but can also offer fulfilment. More predictably, exposure to ergonomic and ambient risks reduces satisfaction. At the same time, white-collar managerial and professional jobs are more strongly associated with higher satisfaction, while public sector workers also appear to be more satisfied with their job.

Work–life balance

Of all of the indicators of job quality discussed in this chapter, work–life balance probably has the most important gender dimension. Women’s greater participation in housework and caring activities in the household means that the increase in female employment has created challenges for individual women and mothers, households, organisations and policymakers. As a result of the dual burden that many working women face, they often seek jobs and working hours that fit in with their family arrangements. Similarly, parents may select caring arrangements that integrate more favourably with their working patterns. These interactions may partly explain the very high levels of satisfaction regarding the balance between working and non-working life. However, it is important to note that work–life balance is not only an issue for mothers and fathers with young children; maintaining this balance is also important for all workers who want adequate time to rest and undertake other activities.

Table 21: Factors influencing chance of higher job satisfaction levels

Positive factors	Negative factors
Working in Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Malta, Sweden or the UK*	Working in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Slovakia or Slovenia*
Working in the public sector Being an employee	Being older
Being a man in any occupation compared with blue-collar labouring role, or a woman in any white-collar occupation**	Being a woman in a blue-collar labouring occupation**
Working at speed Having multiple drivers for the pace of work Task autonomy	Exposure to ergonomic risks Exposure to ambient risks
Regularly or sometimes working unsocial hours Working normal hours or long hours (but not >48 hours) Working time autonomy	

Notes: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke R² = 0.19.
Source: EWCS, 2005

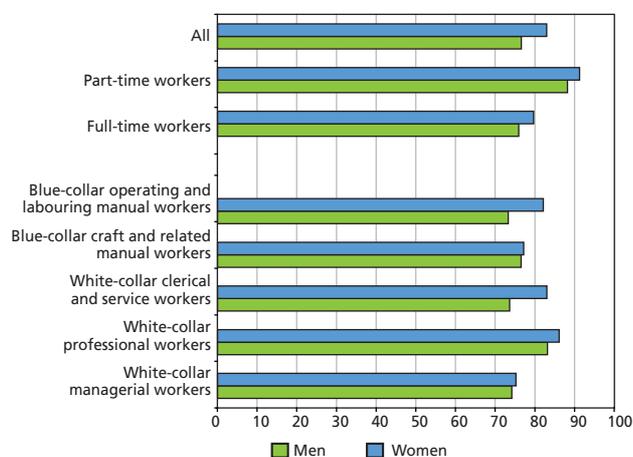
⁹ All variables were recoded to create a consistent measure.

The EWCS asked how well respondents' work fits in with their non-working life, based on a four-point scale ranging from 'very well' to 'not at all well'. The results in Figure 50 show the proportion of women and men across occupations and working times who stated that their paid work fits in well or very well with their non-working life. The first thing to note about these results is the very high proportion of workers who answered positively: 77% of men and 83% of women. These high levels of satisfaction have remained relatively constant since the 2000 EWCS, although the level of satisfaction has declined in some countries (Parent-Thirion et al, 2007). Part-time workers, both male and female, are even more satisfied. Across occupations, none of the groups stand out as being particularly dissatisfied in this respect, although male and female professionals, along with women in clerical jobs or blue-collar labouring occupations, report a particularly high level of satisfaction.

In examining the responses to the work–life balance question by household and family status, one might expect to find less satisfaction among those facing the greater demands of a young family or the pressures of coordinating a dual-earning household. However, the results in Table 22 show that even among dual-working households with children, the level of satisfaction with work–life balance remains high.

Moreover, consistently higher proportions of part-time workers report that their work arrangements integrate well or very well with their non-working life. Particularly high levels of satisfaction are reported by male part-time workers with a partner who is a homemaker, and by female part-time workers with an unemployed or non-employed partner. The lowest levels of satisfaction are found among both male

Figure 50: Extent of work–life balance, by sex, working time status and occupational category, EU27 (%)



Note: Percentage of respondents who reported that work fits in either well or very well with their non-working life

Source: EWCS, 2005

and female lone parents, with only about 70% of male and 77% of female respondents in this category reporting that their work arrangements fit in well or very well with their non-working life. However, even in this particular category, working female lone parents with part-time jobs report high levels of satisfaction, at 86%.

In the 2005 EWCS, respondents were also asked about the amount of unpaid work they do, that is, the daily number of hours spent doing various activities including cooking and cleaning, caring for children, and caring for elderly or disabled relatives. Parent-Thirion et al (2007, p. 25) found that women spend more time doing these activities, but that the extent of gender differences varies between countries.

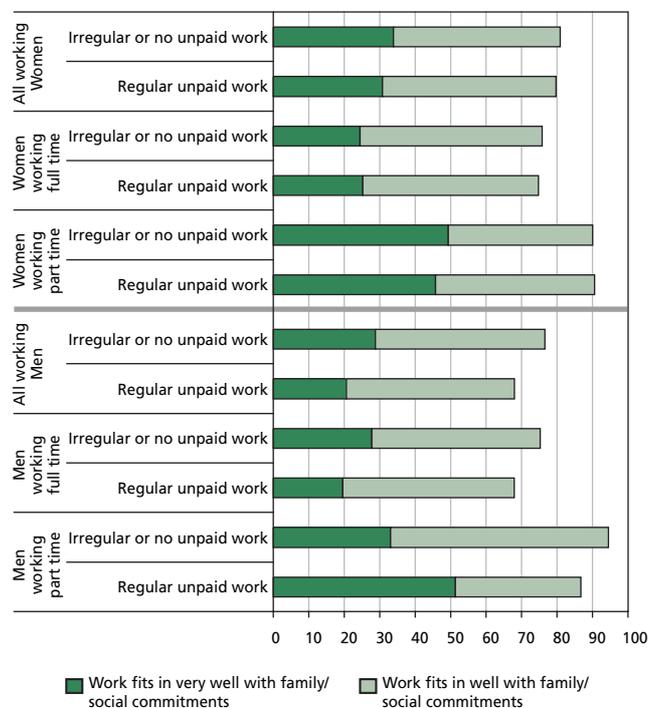
Table 22: Respondents whose work fits in well or very well with non-working life, by household status, sex and working time status (%)

Household status	Men			Women		
	Full-time work	Part-time work	All	Full-time work	Part-time work	All
Single adult, no child at home	78	84	79	81	92	83
Married/cohabiting, no child: Partner is employed	80	90	80	82	92	85
Married/cohabiting, no child: Partner is homemaker	75	98	76	-	-	-
Married/cohabiting, no child: Partner is unemployed/not employed	75	93	77	78	94	83
Lone parent with dependent child(ren) at home	70	-	71	73	86	77
Married/cohabiting parent: Partner is employed	72	92	73	77	91	82
Married/cohabiting parent: Partner is homemaker	69	-	69	-	-	-
Married/cohabiting parent: Partner is unemployed/not employed	70	-	70	62	80	65
Total	76	88	77	80	91	83

Note: '-' indicates cells of less than 25 responses.

Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 51: Compatibility between working and non-working life and involvement in unpaid work, by sex and working time status (%)



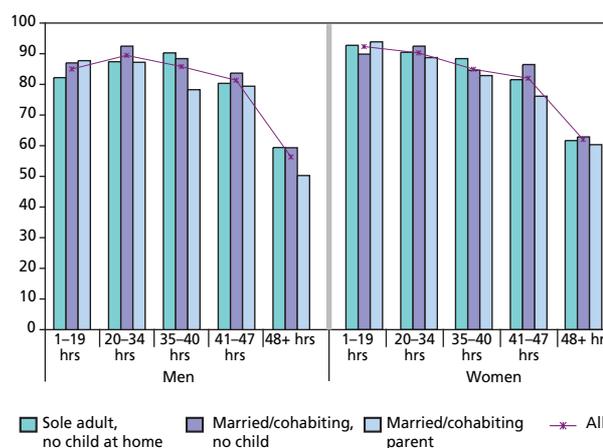
Source: EWCS, 2005

When considering involvement in unpaid work against recorded satisfaction with the compatibility of work and non-working life, relatively little difference is found between the satisfaction levels of parents who do at least two hours of either housework or childcare a day. This reinforces the earlier findings and suggests that women and men try to select working time patterns that fit in with the amount of unpaid work involved in their domestic lives. The findings in Figure 51 also confirm the somewhat familiar pattern of higher overall satisfaction levels among part-time workers. Women and men doing less than two hours of unpaid work a day are slightly less likely to report that work fits in ‘very well’ with their non-working life. For women, there is a much stronger distinction between satisfaction levels depending on whether they regularly participate in unpaid work, with satisfaction levels proving to be higher when they do less domestic work.

Figure 52 sheds some additional light on these high levels of reported satisfaction. For both women and men, a clear decline emerges in satisfaction levels when working hours are at a high level, although men working less than 20 hours a week appear to be less satisfied with the fit between working and non-working life than their counterparts working longer part-time hours (20–34 hours a week) or normal full-time hours (35–40 hours a week). In fact, just

three fifths or less of those working more than 48 hours a week report that their work fits in ‘well’ or ‘very well’ with their non-working life. This decline in satisfaction with increasing work hours is more stark for parents, but less so for married or cohabiting couples without children. For single people, this pattern also holds: single men appear to be most satisfied with working normal full-time hours, while

Figure 52: Extent of work–life balance, by household status and weekly working hours (%)



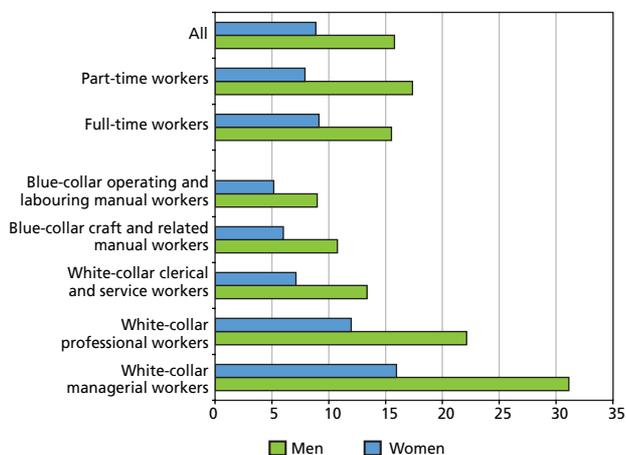
Note: Percentages are of respondents who reported a good fit between working and non-working life

Source: EWCS, 2005

single women working less than 20 hours a week report the best fit between working and non-working life.

Despite the differences across the various categories of working hours, these very high levels of satisfaction with work–life balance need to be put in context alongside the high levels of satisfaction that are typically expressed in response to such questions (Fagan and Burchell, 2002), as well as against more objective measures. In the EWCS, respondents were asked how often they were contacted about work outside of normal working hours. The results in Figure 53, overleaf, show that the proportion of men experiencing frequent contact – every day or at least once a week – is consistently higher than the corresponding proportion for women across working time and occupational groups. Overall, 16% of men experience this frequent contact outside of work, compared with 9% of women. This gender gap and rate of contact declines somewhat among those working in blue-collar and white-collar clerical occupations, but widens significantly with respect to white-collar managerial and professional jobs: for instance, just under a third of male managers experience frequent contact, which is almost twice the corresponding rate for women.

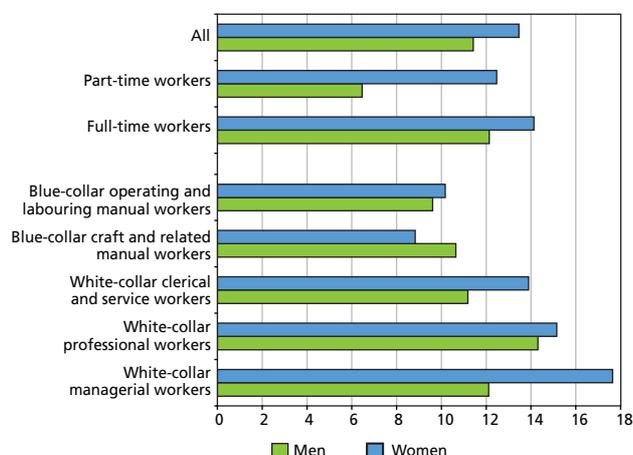
Figure 53: Extent of out-of-hours contact, by sex, working time status and occupational category, EU27 (%)



Note: Percentages are of respondents who are contacted outside of working hours at least once a week
Source: EWCS, 2005

The survey also asked respondents about any absences from work in the last 12 months and what type of leave they took – maternity/paternity, family-related or educational leave, or leave for health or other reasons. Overall, leave for health reasons was the most common form, with 23% of workers reporting such leave. This was followed by family-related leave, at 12%, other types of leave (5%), educational leave (3%) and maternity/paternity leave (3%). The gender differences in the proportion of employees taking such leave

Figure 54: Family leave in last 12 months, by sex, working time status and occupational category (%)



Note: Percentages are of respondents who took family leave in last 12 months
Source: EWCS, 2005

are relatively small and amount to no more than two percentage points in each case.

The results in Figure 54 focus on family-related leave; at the overall level, a gender gap of just two percentage points is found. However, in relation to part-time workers, this gap increases to six percentage points, at 12% for women, compared with 6% for men – a clear demonstration of the demographic differences in the labour supply for such jobs. Women engaged in part-time work are more likely to have

Table 23: Factors impacting on levels of satisfaction with work–life balance

Positive factors	Negative factors
Working in Austria, Denmark and Finland *	Working in Greece, Italy and Latvia*
Being single with no children Being older	Being a lone parent or in a couple with a child
Public sector worker Being an employee	
Being a male in a blue-collar craft occupation**	Being a woman in a managerial or clerical occupation**
Higher levels of task autonomy	Multiple drivers for pace of work Working at speed Working to tight deadlines Experiencing interruptions Exposure to ambient risks Exposure to ergonomic risks
Working time autonomy	Working more than 35 hours Sometimes or regularly working unsocial hours

Notes: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke $R^2 = 0.24$.
Source: EWCS, 2005

care responsibilities, while male part-time workers are frequently either younger or older (Delson, 1998). Across occupations, relatively little difference emerges between the sexes. Only female managers stand out in this respect, with a significantly higher proportion taking family-related leave: they are 50% more likely than their male counterparts to take such leave.

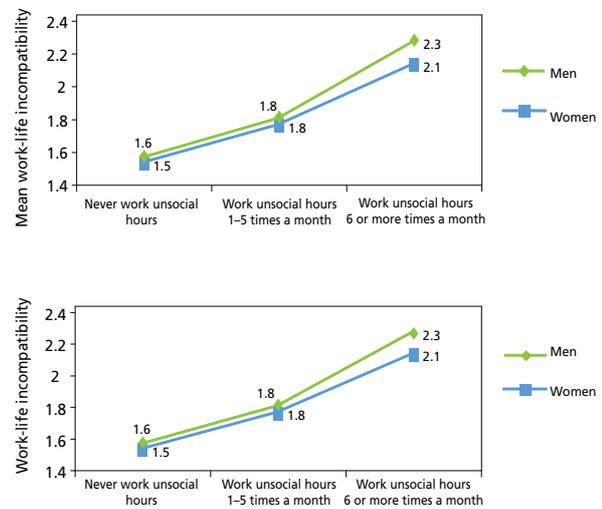
To explore factors associated with workers reporting that their work fits in well or very well with their non-working life, a methodology similar to the earlier multivariate analyses is used (Table 23 and Annex 2, Table A8). When including only country variables that are highly significant, just six countries remain in the model. Working in Austria, Denmark or Finland significantly raises the chance of feeling that work fits in with non-working life, even when controlling for a host of other variables. Conversely, working in Greece, Italy or Latvia has a negative effect.

Turning to non-country factors, it appears that working hours variables have the most significant impact on reducing satisfaction with work-life balance. While working full-time hours has a negative effect on work-life balance, working very long hours (48 hours or more a week) and unsocial hours have a particularly large negative impact. On the other hand, having higher levels of working time autonomy improves satisfaction with work-life balance, as does having higher levels of task autonomy. Although the combined occupational status and gender variable used in the earlier chapters has a more limited impact here, being a female manager or clerical worker notably reduces satisfaction with work-life balance.

As reported in the previous study on gender and working conditions (Fagan and Burchell, 2002), the main dimension of working time which determines work-life balance is the volume of hours worked. This finding is confirmed in the latest round of the survey. The higher the number of hours worked, the more likely men and women are to report that their working hours are incompatible with family and other commitments. This dissatisfaction is also more pronounced among those who regularly work long days or non-standard hours (evenings, nights or weekends); conversely, consistent, fixed and regular schedules promote satisfaction with work-life balance (Parent-Thirion et al, 2007).

To further analyse the relative impact on work-life balance of the volume of working hours, involvement in non-standard working hours and having working time autonomy, an index of unsocial hours was devised. This index measures the impact of the frequency of working either evenings, nights, weekends or long days using a multivariate analysis of variance. The main results are presented in Figures 55 and 56.

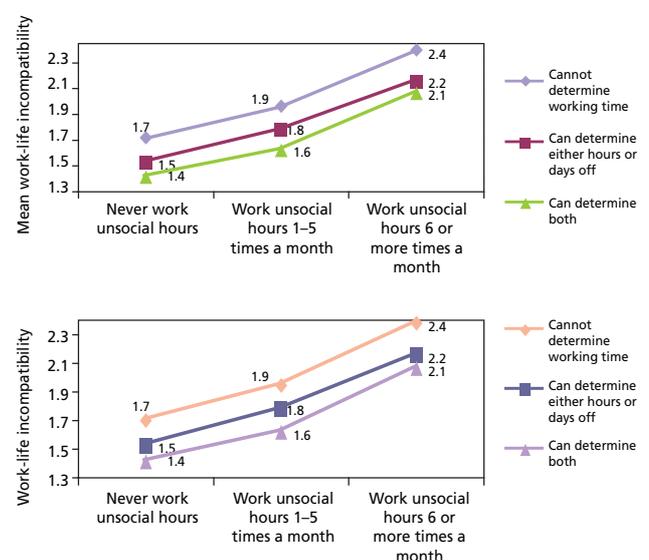
Figure 55: Index of impact of working unsocial hours on work-life balance, by sex



Source: EWCS, 2005

The findings in Figure 55 show that the incompatibility of working long hours (represented as the mean of the four-point scale for each of the six groups according to sex and unsocial hours) is greater, the more unsocial the work schedule is. This applies to both sexes, although men with long and very unsocial work schedules are the most likely to report that their working hours do not integrate well with family or other commitments outside of work.

Figure 56: Influence of working time autonomy on reducing incompatibility of long and unsocial working hours with domestic and other commitments



Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 56 (on p. 49) explores whether having personal autonomy to vary working hours offers some relief from the negative impact of working long and unsocial hours. The findings indicate that personal working time autonomy does have a positive impact on the compatibility of working hours with non-working life; however, the upward slope of the line shows that the impact is insufficient to offset the much larger negative impact of unsocial hours.

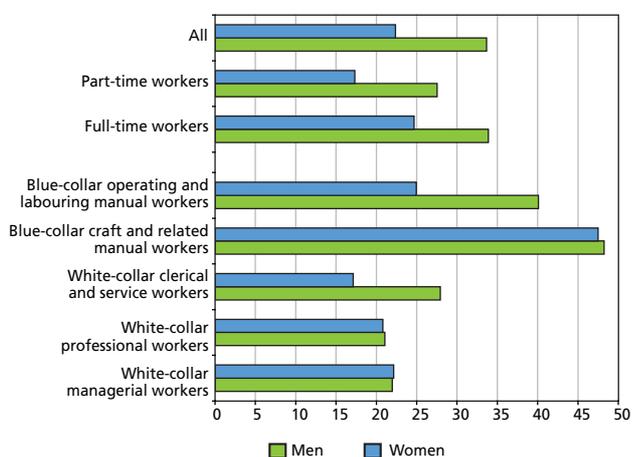
Work-related health outcomes

The EWCS asked respondents a number of background questions regarding health outcomes at work, followed up by detailed questioning on specific health symptoms. Chapter 3 of this report highlights the different risks that men and women face in their working lives; thus, it might also be expected that health outcomes will differ between the sexes. Overall, the findings reveal that men are more likely to be exposed to a greater range of ambient and physical risks, while the gender differences for social risks are smaller; in some cases, it was found that women are more at risk. In relation to self-reported questions pertaining to health, it is important to recognise that gender, linguistic and cultural differences may emerge in the reporting of impacts or symptoms.

Perception of risk at work

Figure 57 shows the results for the first of the background questions asking respondents whether they felt their health and safety were at risk because of their work. Reflecting men's greater exposure to more traditional risks, it was found that a third of men – but only about one fifth of women – felt that their health and safety were at risk. Unsurprisingly, blue-collar workers reported feeling most at

Figure 57: Respondents reporting work-related health and safety risks, by sex, working time status and occupational category (%)



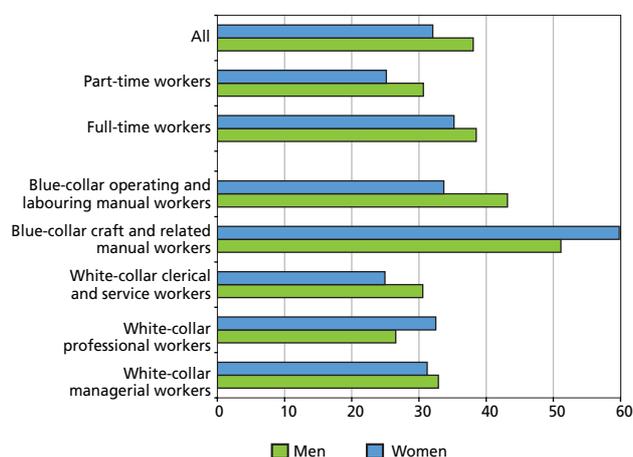
Source: EWCS, 2005

risk: just under a half (48%) of both women and men engaged in blue-collar craft work reported that their health was at risk. The gender gap is greatest for blue-collar labourers, with more men reporting risks to health and safety. For higher-level white-collar occupations, the gender gap closes. However, the gender gap of 11 percentage points observed among white-collar clerical and service workers indicates that men perceive themselves as being more at risk in these occupations.

The perception of health and safety risks at work is a serious concern; however, if workers are properly informed, such risks may be better managed. Therefore, the EWCS asked respondents how well informed they were about the health and safety risks relating to their job. Respondents answered on the basis of a four-point scale, ranging from 'very well informed' to 'not at all well informed'. Overall, little difference emerged in the proportion of women and men reporting that they were well or very well informed about the health and safety risks relating to their work. Moreover, almost no impact was evident in relation to working time status. A high proportion of workers responded positively to this question (over 80%), with the exception of women in blue-collar jobs, of whom only about three quarters reported that they were well informed.

Another important question posed in the EWCS was whether respondents felt that their health was actually affected – rather than merely at risk – from their work. In response, about one third of women and two fifths of men answered affirmatively (Figure 58). Blue-collar workers, both male and female, are more likely to report that their work actually affects their health. Furthermore, and unlike the other measures of health impacts, the gender gaps are

Figure 58: Respondents reporting work-related health effects, by sex, working time status and occupational category (%)



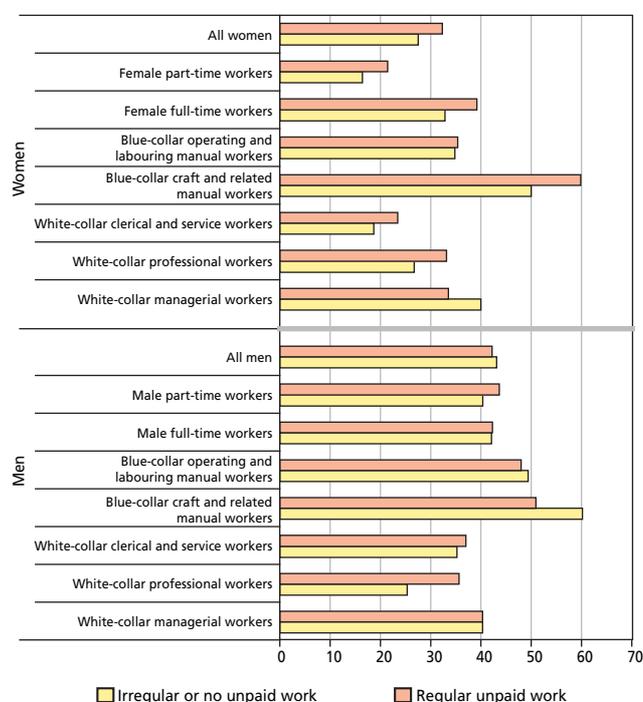
Source: EWCS, 2005

not only large but also vary between occupations. For instance, women in blue-collar craft and professional occupations are more likely to report that their work affects their health, while men in labouring and in clerical occupations more frequently report health effects. The findings also reveal that part-time workers are less likely to report an impact on their health than their full-time counterparts.

The survey also allows for a further exploration of the interaction between work and home life, in particular the impact of unpaid work on health at work. The results in Figure 59 show how working mothers who do at least two hours of housework or childcare a day are slightly more likely to report work-related health effects than mothers who engage in unpaid work less frequently. Conversely, no such effects are evident for fathers. Overall, a greater proportion of fathers than mothers report that their work affects their health. Nonetheless, mothers engaged in regular unpaid work show higher levels of work impacting on their health across occupations and working time status (with the exception of managers) compared with mothers who are not frequently engaged in unpaid work. For men, this effect is mainly found only among those working in white-collar professional jobs, and to a lesser extent among male part-time workers and those working in white-collar clerical and service jobs.

It is worthwhile looking at the factors which help to explain the increased possibility of reporting work-related health effects. Table 24 summarises the results of a multivariate analysis on whether respondents reported that their job

Figure 59: Working parents reporting work-related health effects, by involvement in unpaid work, working time status and occupational category (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

affected their health. Compared with the reference categories, numerous factors increase the risk of work affecting one's health. More specifically, exposure to the following risks are found to increase the possibility of reporting work-related health effects: ergonomic and

Table 24: Factors influencing the increased risk of reporting work-related health effects

Factors increasing the risk	Factors reducing the risk
Working in Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia or Sweden*	Working in Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Spain or the UK*
Working in the public sector Being older	
Being a woman in a white-collar professional job or a blue-collar craft and manual occupation**	
Exposure to ergonomic risks Exposure to ambient risks Experiencing interruptions Working to tight deadlines Working at speed Multiple drivers for pace of work	
Working more than 20 hours a week, particularly 48+ hours a week Sometimes or regularly working unsocial hours	

Note: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke R² = 0.27.
Source: EWCS, 2005

ambient risks, working at high speed, working to tight deadlines, having multiple drivers for pace of work and experiencing interruptions. Working time variables are also important in explaining this risk: long or unsocial hours increase the possibility of respondents reporting that their work affects their health; for example, working more than 48 hours a week doubles the chance of work affecting respondents' health, even when controlling for all of the other work-related variables (see Annex 2, Table A8).

As before, the analysis presented here retains only the country differences that are most significant and controlling for the full range of job and work-related factors. Nevertheless, these country differences have once again proved to be notable. More specifically, working in Bulgaria, Denmark, Estonia, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia or Sweden significantly increases the perception of work affecting health. The inclusion of the two Nordic countries Denmark and Sweden is perhaps surprising, but possibly reflects a greater awareness of the risks and the impact associated with certain working conditions. On the other hand, the

inclusion of the other countries is more in line with previous results (see Parent-Thirion et al, 2007): working in Estonia, Greece or Slovenia doubles the chance of reported work-related health effects, while this possibility increases threefold in Latvia and Poland. Conversely, working in Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Spain or the UK reduces the perception that work affects one's health.

Absence for health reasons

One of the more objective ways in which the impact of working conditions on respondents' health can be tested is to consider absenteeism from work. In the EWCS, respondents were asked whether they had been absent from work in the last 12 months in relation to a range of different leave arrangements. The results in Table 25 show the average number of days' absence due to health reasons, accidents attributable to work, or health problems caused by work. On average, respondents were absent from work due to health reasons for 4.6 days over the previous 12 months, although this figure conceals considerable variety across occupations and gender.

Table 25: Average number of days absent from work, by sex, working time status and occupational category

	Men			Women			Total
	Full-time work	Part-time work	All	Full-time work	Part-time work	All	
Days absent from work due to health reasons							
White-collar managerial workers	1.7	0.6	1.6	2.4	1.5	2.2	1.8
White-collar professional workers	3.0	3.9	3.0	6.2	4.7	5.6	4.5
White-collar clerical and service workers	5.5	1.9	4.9	4.2	5.6	4.6	4.8
Blue-collar craft and related manual workers	5.0	5.8	5.0	6.7	2.4	5.6	5.2
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers	5.3	2.9	5.0	5.5	4.6	5.1	5.1
All	4.3	3.2	4.2	5.3	4.8	5.0	4.6
Days absent due to accident(s) at work							
White-collar managerial workers	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
White-collar professional workers	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3
White-collar clerical and service workers	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Blue-collar craft and related manual workers	0.8	0.1	0.8	1.3	0.1	1.0	0.8
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.3	1.1	0.6	0.7
All	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Days absent due to work-related health problems							
White-collar managerial workers	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.5
White-collar professional workers	0.7	0.9	0.7	2.1	1.0	1.7	1.3
White-collar clerical and service workers	2.6	0.7	2.3	1.3	2.6	1.7	2.0
Blue-collar craft and related manual workers	2.7	2.8	2.6	1.9	0.8	1.6	2.5
Blue-collar operating and labouring manual workers	2.3	1.3	2.2	2.2	1.2	1.8	2.1
All	1.9	1.2	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.8

Source: EWCS, 2005

The average number of days' absence due to health reasons for women was slightly higher than that for men, at five days compared with 4.2 days respectively. However, much greater variation emerges across occupations, with both male and female managers taking less than half of the overall average respectively, while blue-collar craft workers and operators took more than the overall average. Women who work full time in professional occupations stand out as having a particularly high number of days' absence due to sick leave. Part-time workers, on the other hand, take fewer days off work on average due to health problems, although this pattern does not hold for women in clerical and service jobs, nor for men engaged in professional and blue-collar craft work.

In comparison, the incidence of days' absence due to accidents at work is relatively low (Table 25 on p. 52). On average, women and men take about half a day off work a year as a result of accidents attributable to work. The risk of having to take time off falls to almost zero for managers, with pockets of higher risk evident among professionals and blue-collar workers. In particular, a higher average number of days' absence due to accidents attributable to work is found among women working full time in blue-collar craft work and white-collar professional jobs. On the other hand, the risks for men are greater in full-time clerical and service work and blue-collar labouring jobs, but not for part-time workers.

Absence due to health problems caused by work is slightly higher than that attributable to accidents at work, with respondents taking an average of 1.8 days a year off work overall (Table 25). While there is no evidence of a gender gap at the overall level in this respect, a strong occupational trend emerges once again, with men working in blue-collar craft and related manual occupations showing a higher risk, along with male full-time workers involved in clerical and service work. In contrast, a higher risk of work-related health problems is evident among women engaged in both full-time and part-time professional roles. Moreover, women involved in part-time clerical and service work also show an increased risk in this respect compared with their full-time counterparts.

Overall, the pattern of risks at work and absence according to sex and occupation is mixed. Despite the earlier findings regarding men's greater exposure to more traditional ambient and physical risks (see Chapter 3), gender differences in self-reported risks almost disappear in a number of occupations. As a whole, however, men are more likely to report work-related health risks. Interestingly, the gender gap among those workers who believe that their health is actually affected by their work is much smaller,

although women involved in professional and blue-collar craft work are more likely to state that their health is affected. The picture regarding absence from work also highlights the complex interaction of sex, occupation and, in some cases, working time, with particular groups of workers being more prone to taking time off due to work-related health problems.

Specific work-related health problems

The final group of questions on health-related outcomes were those pertaining to specific health problems. Respondents who answered yes to the question 'Does work affect your health, or not?' were then asked 'How does it affect your health?' and shown a card listing the 16 symptoms outlined in Table 26 overleaf. They were also given the opportunity to spontaneously mention other health symptoms. According to the results, musculoskeletal complaints are the most commonly cited problems, with about a quarter of respondents mentioning backache and muscular pain. Stress and general fatigue were also reported by about a quarter of respondents. Among the musculoskeletal complaints, the reported symptoms were consistently higher for men, although the gender gaps greatly diminish for fatigue and stress and disappear among full-time workers. The next group of symptoms, affecting between 10% and 16% of respondents, includes injuries, headaches and irritability. While men appear to be more prone to injuries, little gender difference arises in relation to irritability and headaches, although female part-time workers record a lower rate on all three counts. The other symptoms listed in Table 26 affect less than 10% of the respondents and, although some notable gender differences emerge in relation to hearing problems and respiratory difficulties, the results for the other symptoms are more evenly balanced between the sexes.

When more than one symptom affects an individual, the impact of work might be regarded as particularly strong. Figure 60, overleaf, shows that, although there is little difference in the proportion of women and men suffering from any one symptom, men are generally more likely to be affected by multiple health symptoms. In terms of occupation, blue-collar craft and related manual workers show a particularly high risk, with half of men and almost three fifths of women in this occupational group experiencing two or more symptoms. Once again, part-time workers appear to be at a lower risk than their full-time counterparts, although the gap for men is somewhat smaller in this respect.

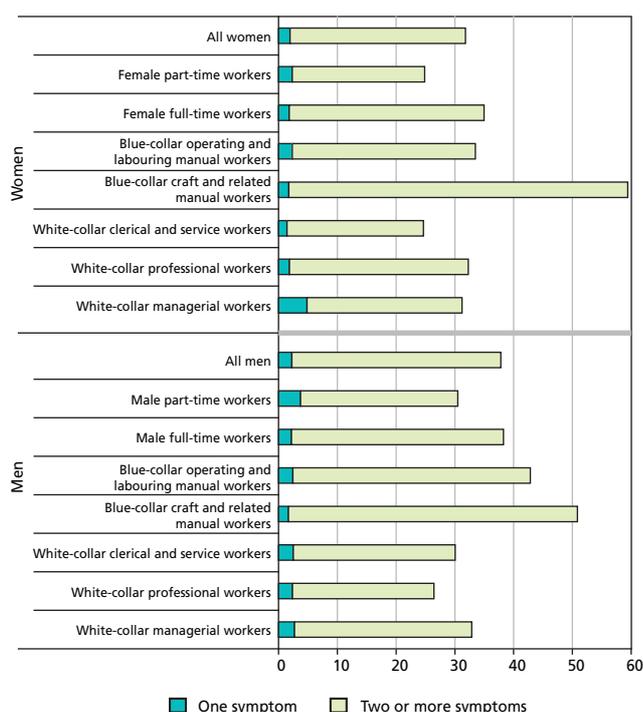
The final multivariate analysis of this chapter examines the risk of experiencing two or more work-related health symptoms, based on the finding that just over a third of the

Table 26: Reporting of specific health symptoms, by sex and working time status (%)

	Men			Women			Total
	Full-time work	Part-time work	All	Full-time work	Part-time work	All	
Backache	28	18	27	26	17	23	25
Muscular pain	25	17	25	24	15	21	23
Stress	24	20	24	24	20	21	23
General fatigue	25	19	25	24	15	21	23
Headaches	16	12	15	19	11	16	16
Irritability	11	11	11	11	8	10	11
Injury(ies)	14	7	13	7	4	6	10
Sleeping problems	9	7	9	9	7	9	9
Problems with vision	9	7	9	9	7	7	8
Anxiety	8	6	8	9	7	8	8
Hearing problems	10	6	10	5	3	4	7
Skin problems	8	5	8	7	3	6	7
Stomach ache	6	4	6	6	4	5	6
Respiratory difficulties	6	5	6	4	2	3	5
Allergies	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
Heart disease	3	2	3	2	1	2	2
Other	2	2	2	1	2	2	2

Source: EWCS, 2005

Figure 60: Extent of work-related health symptoms, by sex, occupational category and working time status (%)



Source: EWCS, 2005

sample experienced at least two symptoms. Many of the potentially harmful working practices highlighted in Chapter 3 are significant in this context, including exposure to ergonomic and ambient risks, working at high speeds, working to tight deadlines, having multiple drivers for pace of work and experiencing interruptions (Table 27 and Annex 2, Table A8). Working time once again proves to be significant, with unsocial and longer hours (particularly over 48 hours a week) increasing the risk of experiencing two or more symptoms.

Once again, the country differences highlighted here are those that remain significant once controlling for the impact of the workplace and job-related factors. Table 27 outlines a similar range of countries as that which appeared in the analysis of factors explaining the risk of work-related health effects (see Table 24). Accordingly, working in Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia or Sweden significantly increases the risk of experiencing two or more health symptoms, with particularly strong effects evident in relation to Estonia, Greece, Latvia, Poland and Slovenia. Conversely, working in Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Spain or the UK once again reduces the risk of these symptoms resulting from work.

Table 27: Factors influencing the risk of reporting two or more work-related health problems

Increased risk	Reduced risk
Working in Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia or Sweden*	Working in Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Spain or the UK*
Working in the public sector Being older	
Being a woman in any blue-collar craft occupation, or white-collar professional or clerical or service occupation**	
Exposure to ergonomic risks Exposure to ambient risks Experiencing interruptions Working to tight deadlines Working at speed Multiple drivers for pace of work	
Working more than 20 hours a week Sometimes or regularly working unsocial hours	

Notes: *Omitted category: France; **compared with male blue-collar labouring occupations. Results based on logistic regression, Nagelkerke R² = 0.28.

Source: EWCS, 2005

The analyses in this report reveal persistent gender inequalities in many – but not all – aspects of working conditions. This final section of the report summarises the findings outlined in each of the chapters. Before this, however, some comments need be made about the fieldwork and the dataset.

Between 2000 and 2005, the EWCS questionnaire was modified with the addition of many questions to explore new facets of working conditions and gender differences that have developed with the emergence of new forms of work, new technologies and new understandings of environmental risks. These new questions have revealed some widespread hazards which had gone unreported before, such as exposure to tobacco smoke. Some of the new indicators measure important but predictable gender differences, such as women's greater likelihood of handling bodily fluids or lifting people. Other new questions unexpectedly uncovered important gender differences in working conditions, such as men's much greater likelihood of being contacted about work outside of normal working hours.

Some gaps in the questionnaire's coverage remained, which might be addressed in the next, fifth wave of the EWCS. For instance, knowing the working hours of all individuals in the household would have increased the value of classifying households into different types of breadwinner models, in particular so that the analyses could differentiate between dual-earner and 'one-and-a-half earner' households. Currently, only part-time workers are asked about their working time preferences; it would also be useful to understand the working time preferences of full-time workers and those who work long hours.

The new procedures for making details of the fieldwork and data preparation available have greatly increased transparency and facilitated more complete and accurate analyses of the data, hopefully enhancing the secondary analysis of the 2005 dataset. These data have only been skimmed through in the analyses that have been completed so far; much more can be done with this dataset to inform both policy and academic debates. It is hoped that this report's broad analysis of gender differences in working conditions in the EU27 countries will encourage others to analyse the data in more detail, perhaps by looking in greater depth at particular countries, particular occupations or particular policy debates.

Changes in gender differences in working conditions over time

The analyses of the first four surveys provide a mixed picture regarding changes in working hours and working

conditions. In particular, the continued intensification of work should be a real cause for concern. The intensity of work is strongly linked to poor health and well-being (Burchell et al, 2001), and evidence shows that women's health may be more vulnerable to work intensity than that of men (Burchell and Fagan, 2004). The causes of this increase in intensity of work, as well as ways in which to protect the well-being of workers from the negative effects of work intensification, need to become a policy priority for the EU.

On a more positive note, there has been a continued reduction in 48-hour working weeks for men and women in the EU15 countries; however, the proportion of men working 48 hours a week increased in the eight central and eastern European Member States, following their accession to the EU.

The gender differences in rates of irregular and unsocial working hours have been stable over the period 2000–2005, as have the gender gaps in exposure to ergonomic and ambient risks at work. The changes that have occurred tend to have affected men and women equally. Where differential changes have emerged, these pertain mostly to increased hazards for male blue-collar workers.

More evidence exists regarding changes in working conditions in the new Member States than in the EU15. Where changes in conditions within work have occurred, they tend to have affected men and women equally. However, there is considerable evidence of a polarisation occurring in the working hours of men and women: men in the NMS are becoming more likely to work long hours while part-time working is becoming increasingly associated with women's labour, albeit still at lower rates than that found in some of the 'old' Member States. This, in turn, has polarised the domestic division of labour in some new Member States, particularly in countries where public childcare services have declined from the higher levels of childcare provision that existed prior to the economic transition. If this situation is not monitored further, a widening gender gap in working hours may reduce women's longer-term ability to compete with men in the labour market. It might also offset the relatively greater degree of gender equality in many aspects of working conditions that women experienced under socialist régimes, compared with that in many of the old Member States.

There was evidence of increased use of fixed-term employment contracts for women in the new Mediterranean Member States and for men in the two new Member States that joined the EU in 2007. It is not clear why changes in employment security should be so gendered, but this needs

to be investigated in relation to the new ongoing ‘flexicurity’ debates in Europe.

Occupational segregation

The patterns of gender segregation found in 2005 in the EU27 countries are not dissimilar to previous analyses, demonstrating the persistence of occupational segregation over time and the similarities found between European countries. Women are underrepresented in senior positions, particularly in management. They fare better in some professional occupations – typically those connected with health or education – but some professional areas remain male dominated. While women constitute the majority of clerical, service and sales workers, men remain the dominant sex among skilled production workers and machine operators.

Men and women are not only segregated by occupation; it is also important to consider working time, economic sector, employers and domestic work. In this respect, women are concentrated in the public sector and certain private services, and are even more segregated if they work part time.

The persistent gender division of care and housework responsibilities at home is a major factor in explaining why women switch to part-time employment or are less able to work the long hours typically expected for promotion to senior or managerial positions. Women are also less likely to be the main earner in the home because they tend to be segregated into the lower-paid jobs. In addition, the gender pay gap provides an economic rationale which reinforces women’s position as the primary person responsible for the home and care responsibilities. This suggests that measures to reduce gender inequality in employment and in the household – such as encouraging fathers to take up their parental leave entitlements and make use of other reconciliation measures – might be mutually reinforcing in moving towards a Europe where people’s lives are less determined by their gender.

Working conditions

For many risks and exposures to hazards, the findings reveal that important gender differences are lost at the aggregate level. Furthermore, even where overall gender differences appear to be small, the analysis by full-time and part-time status and occupational group shows how these additional layers of labour market structure can reinforce risks or disadvantages and interact to create high-risk groups.

Chapter 3 demonstrated the importance of the full-time and part-time distinction. For many of the risks analysed in this

chapter, the findings showed that both male and female part-time workers are somewhat protected. In many cases, the risks faced by men in part-time positions are similar to those of women, which reflects the concentration of part-time work in female job areas; although there are some areas where male part-time workers stand out as a separate group, for example among teleworkers.

Full-time workers, particularly men, tend to be more exposed to risks in the ambient and ergonomic spheres of their work, while at the same time they show greater levels of autonomy over tasks and other aspects of their work. By contrast, women are more exposed to social risks, such as threats of physical violence, bullying and harassment, unwanted sexual attention and discrimination. Despite the apparently safer working conditions of part-time workers, the analysis shows that these workers are often exposed to greater social risks and also less likely to have access to some positive aspects of work, such as feedback on their job performance or training – a finding that reinforces and reflects their disadvantages in the occupational hierarchy.

The importance of the combined effects of gender and occupation cannot be overstated, and the report also highlights how the distinction between full-time and part-time work can shed additional light on exposure to certain working conditions and risks. The multivariate analyses throughout the chapter confirm how this combined effect of gender and occupation is significant in increasing or decreasing the risk of certain working conditions. Overall, it has been found that women and men in blue-collar occupational groups are often exposed to the highest risks of ambient and ergonomic risks in the workplace. However, the results also illustrate how some risks – such as exposure to smoking, bodily waste and lifting people – can be found across the occupational hierarchy for women, thus reflecting their concentration in services sector workplaces. Nevertheless, white-collar occupations for women and men tend to generally provide protection against the worst risks, although interestingly white-collar occupations also seem to place women at an increased risk of discrimination.

The multivariate analyses show a clustering of risks; for example, exposure to ambient risk factors helps to explain the likelihood of exposure to various ergonomic risks. At the same time, having higher levels of autonomy tends to help explain the higher possibility that the job may involve problem-solving or learning and working on complex tasks. Working longer hours, even when gender and occupation are controlled for, tends to increase the risk of exposure to ambient environment or ergonomic factors. On the other hand, working longer hours is also associated with an increased chance of having certain positive job features:

autonomy, working on complex tasks, and the opportunity to solve problems and learn.

Working time

The main gender difference in relation to working time is that men work longer hours. The size of the gender gap and the extent to which women are involved in part-time work or in working long hours varies across countries. Long, full-time working hours are more prevalent for both men and women in central eastern and some southern European countries, while the rate of part-time employment is relatively low in these regions.

The indicator of composite working time – comprising all paid working hours, commuting time and time for unpaid domestic work – reveals that women employed full time have the longest total working week. Although the total weekly working time is shorter for women employed part time, they too have a heavier total workload than full-time employed men. This is due to the high level of gender inequality in the distribution of unpaid domestic work.

Given the heavy workload of women, it is not surprising that most women employed part time do not want to change the number of paid hours they work, but one in three still wishes to have longer hours in employment. This preference is more prevalent for part-time workers working short hours.

Some gender differences exist with regard to working time schedules, but overall these differences are less pronounced than the gender gaps observed in the number of hours worked. The main differences result from the fact that women tend to have more regular schedules, are less involved in evening, night or weekend working, and are less likely to have working time autonomy.

Women employed part time are least likely to work outside of daytime, weekday hours; however, a sizeable proportion of women – roughly one in three – still work these non-standard working time schedules. And women are more likely to have variable working hours if they are employed part time. The incidence of non-standard working hours is higher for the minority of male part-time workers. Part-time workers of either sex are also more likely to be multiple jobholders.

Given the highly segregated pattern of women's and men's employment, an occupational focus sheds light on the contribution that job positions make to average gender differences in working time and other working conditions. This shows that the occupation shapes the rate of long working hours and non-standard hours, as well as the extent of autonomy.

The differences between white-collar and blue-collar workers are generally more pronounced than the gender differences within occupational categories. This occupational breakdown also exposes some gender differences which are hidden within overall averages; for example, among white-collar managers and professionals, women have less autonomy and are more likely to work shifts.

One of the barriers which helps preserve men's domination of managerial positions is the fact that such jobs typically involve long, often unsocial working hours. Furthermore, in the managerial and professional positions which women occupy, they have less autonomy than men to draw on at this occupational level to mitigate the demands of long and unsocial working hours.

Subjective well-being

Work intensity has been increasing in most countries, but its effect on well-being is mixed. It has a negative effect on self-reported health and on work–life compatibility, but paradoxically a positive effect on satisfaction with working conditions.

Job satisfaction

Overall, levels of job satisfaction are broadly similar for men and women, albeit slightly higher for both sexes in white-collar occupations. The most satisfied are workers who have some degree of working time autonomy and who work full time without exceeding 48 hours a week – although surprisingly, they do work unsocial hours.

Fears about job security affect clerical and blue-collar workers more than white-collar workers.

Work–life balance

Male and female professionals, and women in clerical jobs or lower-skilled blue-collar occupations, are particularly satisfied with the fit between their working hours and non-working life.

Those who work long and unsocial hours are by far the least satisfied with their work–life balance, and overall part-time workers are slightly more satisfied than those who work full time. Autonomy in working time and work methods tends to enhance satisfaction with work–life balance.

Women are only half as likely as men to be contacted concerning their work outside of working hours. This situation applies to both full-time and part-time workers and across all occupational groups.

For both men and women, the most common type of leave taken is for health problems, followed by leave for family reasons, 'other' types of leave, educational leave and

maternity/paternity leave. However, similar proportions of men and women were absent for at least one day for each type of leave over a 12-month period.

The main dimension of working time which determines work–life balance relates to the volume of hours worked. Long working hours make jobs incompatible with family life and other commitments for both men and women, and working unsocial schedules increases this incompatibility. Working time autonomy provides some respite, but it is insufficient for offsetting the negative impact of long and unsocial working hours.

Health outcomes

Workers are more likely to report that their work affects their health if they are exposed to ergonomic and ambient risks, long working hours, unsocial working hours and high work intensity.

Both male and female blue-collar workers are more likely to report that their work negatively affects their health. Nonetheless, marked gender gaps exist within occupational categories. Among professionals and blue-collar craft workers, women are more likely to report that their work affects their health, while in labouring and clerical occupations men more commonly report health effects. Part-time workers are least likely to report that their work affects their health.

The average number of days' absence is slightly higher for women than for men, with women working full time in professional occupations taking the most leave.

Men's health is more likely to be affected by multiple symptoms due to work, but this is attributable to their occupations. When controlling for hazards and other variables, women are more likely to report multiple symptoms.

Final remarks

Overall, these analyses have demonstrated the persistent gender inequalities in many aspects of working conditions. The pattern of working conditions in the old EU15 Member States, and the gender dimension in these patterns, remained quite stable during the period 1991 to 2005. Between 2000–2001 and 2005, more change occurred in working conditions in the new Member States than in the old ones. The gender impact of these changes in the NMS were similar in relation to most of the working conditions investigated, with the notable exception that a gender gap in the volume of working hours appears to be opening up.

Across Europe, women continue to shoulder the main responsibility for running the home and looking after children, even when employed full time. Moreover, gender

segregation of employment is pronounced and occurs across occupation, seniority, economic sector, workplace type and some forms of contractual status. This segregated employment is a major factor contributing to the gender pay gap. Women are more at risk of being low paid and this, in turn, increases their exposure to the risk of poverty during their working lives, as well as in retirement. This is particularly apparent when the high poverty rates of lone mothers and women in retirement are being considered (Fagan et al, 2006).

The main gender difference in working time patterns is the volume of hours worked: women are more likely to be in part-time employment and men are more likely to work long hours. Part-time jobs seem to offer a solution for enhancing work–life compatibility, but at the price of underemployment and reduced opportunities for career advancement.

While gender differences appear in the risk of exposure to some hazardous working conditions, the pattern is not as systematic in some of the more positive dimensions of job quality. Many working conditions are more closely related to occupational position or sector of the economy than to gender as such. Hence, an appreciation of the highly segregated pattern of men's and women's employment is essential for identifying and interpreting gender differences in working conditions.

When differences in men's and women's working conditions and occupational positions are controlled in the analysis, the results revealed that women reported more work-related ill-health than men. The key threat to the work–family compatibility of jobs for both women and men is long and unsocial working hours.

Policy considerations

The results presented in this report suggest a number of priorities for European policy debates. The European Employment Strategy (EES) contains commitments to raise the employment rate of women and to promote gender equality through the gender mainstreaming of all policy objectives. Much of the effort to date has focused on reconciliation measures, including the target of the 2002 Barcelona summit for expanding childcare and advocating the expansion of part-time work. The analysis here draws attention to the large gender inequality in the unpaid domestic workload and the fact that employed women have a longer composite working week than men, even if they are employed part time. This suggests that the policy focus has to be widened to find ways of promoting gender equality in unpaid domestic workloads. A useful starting point would be to identify ways to encourage fathers to make more use

of parental leave and other reconciliation measures to adjust their working hours.

A revitalisation of efforts to curb long full-time working hours is also a necessary prerequisite for fostering a more gender equitable pattern of paid and unpaid working time. Curbing long working hours are also a priority for the health and safety policy agenda, along with the worrying increase in work intensity.

With regard to reconciliation issues, while much still needs to be done in relation to childcare, support for eldercare responsibilities remains underdeveloped. The results of this survey show that considerably large proportions of women, at 38%, have daily childcare responsibilities as do a smaller proportion of men, at 21%. Eldercare responsibilities are less widespread but still sizeable: for example, 9% of employed women have daily responsibilities for eldercare. Furthermore, these responsibilities increase among older workers and are expected to grow with the demographic ageing of the population. Given that the EES has a target of raising the employment rate for older workers and prolonging working life, specific reconciliation measures are needed for the particular demands of eldercare, including new forms of leave and options for reducing or rescheduling working hours.

It is also important to gender mainstream the current policy focus on 'flexicurity'. A gender impact assessment of policy proposals is important to ensure that measures do not increase gender inequality. For example, women are more likely to be employed part time, on fixed-term employment contracts and to have a shorter job tenure. Measures which target these groups will have a gender impact that may

either promote or obstruct gender equality efforts, depending on the policy design.

The segregated nature of women's employment remains an important concern. Three issues emerge which should receive priority attention: efforts to enhance the quality of part-time work, to improve the pay and equal valuation of female-dominated jobs, and to reduce the under-representation of women at senior grades and managerial levels.

The latter issue also mirrors one of the objectives of the Commission's roadmap for gender equality 2006–2010, which aims to improve the representation of women in decision making. The analyses of this survey's results give some indication of how much distance remains to be travelled on this front: three quarters of the EU27 workforce are managed by men and the minority of women in management is concentrated at junior levels, with women also less likely to be involved in political or trade union activities outside of the workplace.

Finally, the survey has revealed considerable flux in the trends in working conditions in the new Member States. This is associated with various rapid economic and political changes, including the impact of EU accession. For example, the promotion of part-time employment in countries with an established tradition of full-time employment for women may bring about more risks and wider gender inequality than reconciliation gains. The gender impact of these changes needs to be monitored closely, and gender equality policies must be tailored accordingly.

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Annex 1:

Employment segregation and concentration by occupational categories

Table A1 Occupational segregation of women's and men's employment at ISCO main occupational category and sub-category level, EU27 (%)

ISCO main occupational category and sub-category level	Men			Women			All workers
	Working full time	Working part time	All men	Working full time	Working part time	All women	
1. Legislators, senior officials and managers	67	4	70	25	4	30	100
11 Legislators and senior officials	70	4	74	25	1	26	100
12 Corporate managers	69	2	71	24	5	29	100
13 Managers of small enterprises	65	5	70	26	4	30	100
2. Professionals	42	6	48	30	22	52	100
21 Physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals	76	4	79	16	5	21	100
22 Life science and health professionals	22	4	27	54	21	73	100
23 Teaching professionals	17	11	28	24	48	72	100
24 Other professionals	52	4	57	33	10	43	100
3. Technicians and associate professionals	41	4	44	42	14	56	100
31 Physical and engineering science associate professionals	76	3	78	19	3	22	100
32 Life science and health associate professionals	9	1	10	66	24	90	100
33 Teaching associate professionals	21	7	28	41	31	72	100
34 Other associate professionals	42	4	47	43	10	53	100
4. Clerks	27	4	31	50	19	69	100
41 Office clerks	30	4	33	50	16	67	100
42 Customer services clerks	20	5	25	49	26	75	100
5. Service workers and shop and market sales workers	36	6	41	35	23	59	100
51 Personal and protective services workers	40	6	46	31	23	54	100
52 Models, salespersons and demonstrators	31	5	36	40	24	64	100
6. Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	52	6	59	34	8	41	100
61 Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	52	6	59	34	8	41	100
7. Craft and related trades workers	83	4	87	11	2	13	100
71 Extraction and building trades workers	94	4	98	2	0	2	100
72 Metal, machinery and related trades workers	93	1	95	5	0	5	100
73 Precision, handicraft, craft printing and related trades workers	62	9	71	21	7	29	100
74 Other craft and related trades workers	60	4	64	30	7	36	100
8. Plant and machine operators and assemblers	77	4	82	16	2	18	100
81 Stationary plant and related operators	67	4	71	25	5	29	100
82 Machine operators and assemblers	69	1	70	27	2	30	100
83 Drivers and mobile plant operators	88	6	94	5	2	6	100
9. Elementary occupations	41	7	48	29	24	52	100
91 Sales and services elementary occupations	27	8	34	34	32	66	100
92 Agricultural, fishery and related labourers	60	12	70	23	5	30	100
93 Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	77	4	81	15	4	19	100
10. Armed forces	97	0	97	3	0	3	100
All employment	51	5	56	30	14	44	100

Table A2 Occupational concentration of women's and men's employment by full-time and part-time status at ISCO main occupational category and sub-category level, EU27 (%)

ISCO main occupational category and sub-category level	Men			Women		
	Full-time	Part-time	All men	Full-time	Part-time	All women
1. Legislators, senior officials and managers	12	7	11	7	3	6
11 Legislators and senior officials	1	0	1	0	0	0
12 Corporate managers	4	1	3	2	1	2
13 Managers of small enterprises	7	5	7	5	2	4
2. Professionals	12	19	13	15	22	17
21 Physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals	4	2	4	2	1	1
22 Life science and health professionals	1	2	1	4	3	4
23 Teaching professionals	1	10	2	3	15	7
24 Other professionals	5	5	5	6	4	5
3. Technicians and associate professionals	11	10	11	19	13	17
31 Physical and engineering science associate professionals	3	1	3	1	0	1
32 Life science and health associate professionals	0	1	0	4	3	4
33 Teaching associate professionals	1	2	1	2	4	3
34 Other associate professionals	6	6	6	11	5	9
4. Clerks	6	10	7	20	16	19
41 Office clerks	5	7	5	14	9	12
42 Customer services clerks	1	4	2	6	7	6
5. Service workers and shop and market sales workers	9	15	9	15	21	17
51 Personal and protective services workers	5	8	5	6	10	8
52 Models, salespersons and demonstrators	4	7	4	8	11	9
6. Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	4	5	4	4	2	4
61 Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	4	5	4	4	2	4
7. Craft and related trades workers	23	10	22	5	2	4
71 Extraction and building trades workers	10	4	9	0	0	0
72 Metal, machinery and related trades workers	8	1	7	1	0	1
73 Precision, handicraft, craft printing and related trades workers	2	2	2	1	1	1
74 Other craft and related trades workers	4	2	4	3	1	3
8. Plant and machine operators and assemblers	12	6	12	4	1	3
81 Stationary plant and related operators	2	1	2	1	1	1
82 Machine operators and assemblers	4	0	3	2	0	2
83 Drivers and mobile plant operators	7	5	7	1	0	1
9. Elementary occupations	10	17	10	11	20	14
91 Sales and services elementary occupations	4	13	5	9	18	12
92 Agricultural, fishery and related labourers	1	2	1	1	0	1
93 Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	4	2	4	1	1	1
10. Armed forces	2	0	1	0	0	0
All employment	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table A3 Categorisation of occupations by gender composition, EU27

Gender-segregated occupations		ISCO occupational sub-category	ISCO code (2 digit)
Very male-dominated white-collar	80% or more of workers are male	None at the level of detail provided by ISCO-2 level occupational sub-categories	
Male-dominated white-collar	61%–79% of workers are male	Legislators and senior officials	11
		Corporate managers	12
		Managers of small enterprises	13
		Physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals	21
		Physical and engineering science associate professionals	31
Mixed white-collar	40%–60% male and 40%–60% female	Other professionals	24
		Other associate professionals	34
Female-dominated white-collar	61%–79% female	Life science and health professionals	22
		Teaching professionals	23
		Teaching associate professionals	33
		Office clerks	41
		Customer services clerks	42
Very female-dominated white-collar	80% or more of workers are female	Life science and health associate professionals	32
Very male-dominated blue-collar	80% or more of workers are male	Extraction and building trades workers	71
		Metal, machinery and related trades workers	72
		Drivers and mobile plant operators	83
		Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	93
Male-dominated blue-collar	61%–79% male	Precision, handicraft, craft printing and related trades work	73
		Other craft and related trades workers	74
		Stationary plant and related operators	81
		Machine operators and assemblers	82
		Agricultural, fishery and related labourers	92
Mixed blue-collar	40%–60% male & 40%–60% female	Personal and protective services workers	51
		Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	61
Female-dominated blue-collar	61%–79% female	Models, salespersons and demonstrators	52
		Sales and services elementary occupations	91
Very female-dominated blue-collar	80% or more of workers are female	None at the level of detail provided by ISCO-2 level occupational sub-categories	

Annex 2:

Regression results, dependent and independent variables

Tables A6, A7 and A8 present the results of logistic regressions on the dependent variables listed below; odds ratios are reported. All independent variables except the country dummies were entered in one block; the individual country dummies were then entered and only retained if they were significant at the 0.001 level. The estimations were performed with the statistical software SPSS.

Table A4 List of dependent variables

Work-life balance	Workers reporting working hours fit well or very well with family and social commitments
Job satisfaction	Workers reporting high job satisfaction on four of six measures of job satisfaction
Work affecting health	Workers reporting that work affects their health
Multiple health symptoms	Workers having two or more work-related health symptoms
Problem solving and learning	Workers having tasks that involve both problem solving and learning
Complex tasks	Workers having tasks that are complex and not monotonous
Monotonous working	Workers having tasks that are monotonous but not complex
Task autonomy	Workers with autonomy over method, order, pace and breaks at work
Exposure to ergonomic conditions	Workers with high exposure to poor ergonomic conditions (top third of workers)
Exposure to ambient conditions	Workers with high exposure to poor ambient conditions (top third of workers)

The following independent variables have been retained for the estimations of the different models.

Table A5 List of independent variables

Working in the public sector	
Gender and occupation	The omitted category is being a male blue-collar operating and labouring manual worker
Exposure to ergonomic conditions	Index constructed from questions 11a to 11e
Exposure to ambient conditions	Index constructed from questions 10a to 10j
Experience of interruptions	Worker experiences interruptions 'very often'
Working unsocial hours	Working nights, evenings, and/or >10 hours a day. Never working at these times is the omitted category.
Working to tight deadlines	More than half of working time
Working at speed	More than half of working time
Age	Age of worker (continuous variable)
Number of drivers for pace of work	A count of the number of drivers for the pace of work constructed from questions 21a to 21e
Working time autonomy	Working time set by worker entirely or within limits
Task autonomy	Index constructed from questions 24a, 24b, 24c and 25e (autonomy over method, order, pace, breaks)
Worker is an employee	
Hours of work	Working hours regrouped into 1–20 hours, 20–34 hours, 35–39 hours, 40–47 hours and 48+ hours. The omitted category is 1–20 hours.
Sector of activity	Sector of activity based on NACE classification, regrouped into: agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (NACE A-B); industry (NACE C, D, E, F); services (excluding public administration) (NACE G, I, H, J, K); public administration, defence and compulsory social security (NACE L); and other services (NACE M, N, O, P, Q). The omitted category is industry.
Country	Individual dummy variables for each county in the survey. The omitted category is France.

Table A6 Logistic regression results on detailed working conditions measures (Chapter 3)

	Monotonous working	Complex tasks	Task autonomy	Problem solving and learning
Working in the public sector	0.79 **	1.23 **	0.74 **	1.48 **
Gender and occupation				
Male, white-collar managerial jobs	0.44 **	2.27 **	2.43 **	2.00 **
Male, white-collar professional jobs	0.21 **	3.02 **	1.72 **	3.95 **
Male, white-collar clerical and services jobs	0.68 **	1.57 **	1.43 **	1.58 **
Male, blue-collar craft and related manual jobs	0.51 **	2.03 **	1.59 **	1.76 **
Male, blue-collar operating and labouring manual jobs				-
Female, white-collar managerial jobs	0.60 **	1.89 **	1.76 **	1.88 **
Female, white-collar professional jobs	0.31 **	2.46 **	1.10	4.00 **
Female, white-collar clerical and services jobs	0.76 **	1.10	1.12	1.57 **
Female, blue-collar craft and related manual jobs	1.02	1.02	1.24 *	0.93
Female, blue-collar operating and labouring manual jobs	1.45 **	0.54 **	1.22 *	0.61 **
Exposure to ergonomic conditions	1.04 **	0.95 **	0.96 **	0.97 **
Experience interruptions	0.56 **	1.42 **	1.38 **	1.80 **
Exposure to ambient conditions	0.99 **	1.01 *	0.99 **	1.01 **
Working unsocial hours	**	**	**	- **
Never				
1–5 times a month	0.82 **	1.48 **	1.03	1.59 **
6 times or more a month	1.07	1.19 **	0.77 **	1.31 **
Working to tight deadlines	0.72 **	1.24 **	0.93	1.30 **
Working at speed	1.07	1.08 *	0.76 **	1.20 **
Age	0.99 **	1.01 **	1.01 **	0.99 **
Number of drives for pace of work	0.94 **	1.02	0.89 **	1.25 **
Working time autonomy	0.72 **	1.31 **	3.63 **	1.33 **
Task autonomy	0.80 **	1.22 **		1.45 **
Worker is an employee	0.87 *	1.49 **	0.42 **	1.19 **
Hours of work (per week)	**	**	**	- **
1–20 hours				
20–34 hours	0.73 **	1.37 **	1.07	1.36 **
35–39 hours	0.67 **	1.50 **	1.28 **	1.56 **
40–47 hours	0.57 **	1.55 **	1.28 **	1.63 **
48 or more hours	0.61 **	1.33 **	1.20 *	1.51 **
Sector of activity				-
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (NACE A-B)				-
Industry (NACE C to F)				-
Services (excluding public administration) (NACE G to K)				-
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security (NACE L)				-
Other services (NACE M to Q)				-
AT	0.61 **	4.80 **	0.66 **	-
BE				-
CY	1.64 **			0.52 **
CZ			0.47 **	-
DE	0.65 **	2.34 **	0.48 **	0.63 **
DK				1.89 **
EE		0.46 **		-
EL	2.03 **			0.46 **
ES	2.59 **	0.28 **	0.64 **	0.65 **
FI				-
FR				-
HU		3.14 **		0.50 **
IE		0.58 **		
IT			0.62 **	0.73 **
LT				0.43 **
LU				
LV			1.38 **	0.60 **

Table A6 (continued)

	Monotonous working	Complex tasks	Task autonomy	Problem solving and learning
NL	0.62 **	1.57 **		1.83 **
MT				
PL				
PT				
SE		1.97 **		2.05 **
SI			0.66 **	
SK		1.42 **		
UK	1.48 **	0.42 **		0.66 **
BG			0.45 **	0.52 **
RO		2.01 **		0.65 **
Constant	0.04	0.29 **	0.03 **	0.09 **
-2 Log likelihood	19126.22	26618.62	25007.98	25136.26
Nagelkerke R ²	0.19	0.23	0.28	0.30
Classification	0.824	0.708	0.754	0.736

Table A7 Logistic regression results on detailed working conditions measures (Chapter 3)

	Poor ergonomic conditions	Poor ambient conditions
Working in the public sector	0.94	1.03
Gender and occupation		
Male, white-collar managerial jobs	0.36 **	0.55 **
Male, white-collar professional jobs	0.25 **	0.48 **
Male, white-collar clerical and services jobs	0.62 **	0.42 **
Male, blue-collar craft and related manual jobs	1.24 **	1.53 **
Male, blue-collar operating and labouring manual jobs		
Female, white-collar managerial jobs	0.62 **	0.25 **
Female, white-collar professional jobs	0.49 **	0.29 **
Female, white-collar clerical and services jobs	0.90	0.22 **
Female, blue-collar craft and related manual jobs	1.25 *	0.51 **
Female, blue-collar operating and labouring manual jobs	2.37 **	0.31 **
Exposure to ergonomic conditions	1.12 -	
Experience interruptions		1.17 -
Exposure to ambient conditions	1.06	1.03
Working unsocial hours	**	**
Never		
1–5 times a month	0.92	1.15 *
6 times or more a month	1.22 **	1.30 **
Working to tight deadlines	0.99	1.27 **
Working at speed	1.84 **	1.26 **
Age	0.99 **	1.00
Number of drivers for pace of work	1.05 **	1.22 **
Working time autonomy	0.68 **	0.82 **
Task autonomy	0.91 **	0.93 **
Worker is an employee	0.50 **	0.89
Hours of work (per week)	**	**
1–20 hours		
20–34 hours	1.06	1.01
35–39 hours	0.94	1.14
40–47 hours	0.82 *	1.29 **
48 or more hours	1.03	1.32 **

Table A7 (continued)

	Poor ergonomic conditions	Poor ambient conditions
Sector of activity		
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (NACE A-B)	1.91 **	0.63 **
Industry (NACE C to F)		
Services (excluding public administration) (NACE G to K)	1.18 **	0.46 **
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security (NACE L)	0.78 *	0.64 **
Other services (NACE M to Q)	1.77 **	0.61 **
AT		
BE		
CY		
CZ	0.48 **	
DE	0.57 **	
DK		
EE		1.65 **
EL	1.68 **	1.52 **
ES		
FI	1.96 **	1.33 **
FR		
HU		1.60 **
IE		
IT		0.65 **
LT		
LU		
LV		1.50 **
NL	0.38 **	
MT		
PL		
PT		
SE	1.36 **	
SI		
SK	0.73 **	
UK		
BG		
RO	0.64 **	
Constant	0.00 **	32.73 **
-2 Log likelihood	21987.07	20697.4
Nagelkerke R ²	0.40	0.45
Classification	0.779	0.802

Table A8 Logistic regression results on working conditions measures (Chapter 5)

	Job satisfaction	Work-life balance	Health affected by work	Multiple symptoms
Working in the public sector	1.18 **	1.13 *	1.32 **	1.33 **
Gender and occupation				
Male, white-collar managerial jobs	1.92 **	0.97	1.00	0.99
Male, white-collar professional jobs	2.02 **	1.09	1.09	1.09
Male, white-collar clerical and services jobs	1.26 **	0.88 *	0.97	1.01
Male, blue-collar craft and related manual jobs	1.37 **	1.26 **	1.02	1.02
Male, blue-collar operating and labouring manual jobs				
Female, white-collar managerial jobs	1.83 **	0.75 *	1.06	1.13
Female, white-collar professional jobs	1.90 **	0.89	1.55 **	1.64 **
Female, white-collar clerical and services jobs	1.21 **	0.82 *	1.09	1.15 *
Female, blue-collar craft and related manual jobs	0.84 *	0.97	1.29 **	1.30 **
Female, blue-collar operating and labouring manual jobs	0.74 **	0.94	1.06	1.12
Exposure to ergonomic conditions	0.96 **	0.97 **	1.07 **	1.08 **
Experience interruptions	1.01	0.71 **	1.40 **	1.40 **
Exposure to ambient conditions	0.99 **	0.98 **	1.05 **	1.05 **
Working unsocial hours				
Never				
1–5 times a month	1.19 **	0.51 **	1.29 **	1.31 **
6 times or more a month	1.15 **	0.29 **	1.45 **	1.44 **
Working to tight deadlines	0.91 **	0.78 **	1.29 **	1.34 **
Working at speed	1.08 *	0.90 *	1.13 **	1.13 **
Age	0.99 **	1.01 **	1.01 **	1.01 **
Number of drivers for pace of work	1.06 **	0.96 *	1.07 **	1.07 **
Working time autonomy	1.16 **	1.17 **	1.02	1.06
Task autonomy	1.26 **	1.14 **	0.99	0.99
Worker is an employee	1.19 **	1.16 *	0.92	0.95
Hours of work				
1–20 hours				
20–34 hours	1.14	1.08	1.35 **	1.45 **
35–39 hours	1.40 **	0.81 *	1.29 **	1.47 **
40–47 hours	1.38 **	0.67 **	1.43 **	1.57 **
48 or more hours	1.09	0.27 **	2.01 **	2.26 **
Worker is a parent		0.72 **		
AT		1.97 **		
BE		-	0.68 **	0.70 **
CY	1.67 **	-	**	
CZ	0.37 **	-	**	
DE		-	0.49 **	0.55 **
DK	1.87 **	1.68 **	1.46 **	
EE	0.52 **	-	2.41 **	2.59 **
EL		0.53 **	2.61 **	2.70 **
ES		-	0.70 **	0.75 **
FI	1.64 **	1.74 **	**	
FR		-	**	
HU	0.54 **	-	**	
IE	1.64 **	-	0.71 **	0.65 **
IT	0.63 **	0.58 **	**	
LT	0.47 **	-	1.49 **	1.66 **
LU		-		
LV	0.59 **	0.54 **	3.40	3.65 **
NL		-		
MT	1.52 **	-	1.64	1.48 **
PL	0.46 **	-	3.02	2.86 **
PT		-		
SE	1.34 **	-	1.96	1.73 **

Table A8 (continued)

	Job satisfaction	Work-life balance	Health affected by work	Multiple symptoms
SK	0.45 **	-	1.91	2.03 **
UK	1.90 **	-	0.42 **	0.35 **
BG	0.58 **	-	1.46 **	1.46 **
RO	0.73 **	-		1.35 **
Constant	3.83 **	51.45**	0.00 **	0.00 **
-2 Log likelihood	29548.7	19908.7	27046.2	26258.4
Nagelkerke R ²	0.19	0.24	0.27	0.28
Classification	0.662	0.813	0.70	0.717

European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

Gender and working conditions in the European Union

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As the number of women participating in the labour market across Europe has grown in recent years, attention has increasingly focused on differences between men's and women's experience of work. This report examines the extent of occupational segregation by gender and how it impacts on the quality of women's and men's working lives. The analysis is based on findings from the fourth European Working Conditions Survey carried out across 31 countries, including the 27 EU Member States. The report highlights differences between men and women in key aspects of job quality, such as working hours, job satisfaction, work-life compatibility and work-related health outcomes. It underlines three issues which contribute to the persistence of gender inequality in the workplace: the low quality of part-time work, the poor pay and status of female-dominated jobs, and the under-representation of women at managerial levels.

The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions is a tripartite EU body, whose role is to provide key actors in social policymaking with findings, knowledge and advice drawn from comparative research. The Foundation was established in 1975 by Council Regulation EEC No 1365/75 of 26 May 1975.



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