



European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

Quality in work and employment

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This report is available in electronic format only.

This report gives an overview of EU-level data in the four key dimensions of quality in work and employment: career and employment security, health and well-being, skills development, and work-life balance. The data stem from a number of relevant surveys at European level.

Introduction

The statistical analysis and presentation of survey data follows the quality of work and employment matrix developed by the [European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions](#) in its paper [Quality of work and employment in Europe: Issues and challenges](#) . This model distinguishes four key dimensions for the promotion of quality of work and employment:

- ensuring career and employment security;
- maintaining and promoting the health and well-being of workers;
- developing skills and competences;
- reconciling working and non-working life.

The [national survey data reports](#) in the [European Working Conditions Observatory](#) (EWCO) have mainly focused on one national survey and its findings. This EU-level survey data report, however, analyses and presents selected data from all relevant surveys at European level.

Key results of the statistical analysis are based on the [European Labour Force Survey \(1.2Mb pdf\)](#) (LFS), the [European Community Household Panel](#) (ECHP), the [European Working Conditions Surveys](#) (EWCS), the [Continuing Vocational Training Survey \(CVTS2\) - 1.4Mb pdf](#) , [European Statistics on Accidents at Work \(1.4MKb pdf\)](#) (ESAW), the [General Population Survey](#) (GPS), and relevant specific data collections provided by [Eurostat](#) . (Further details on these surveys may be found in the Appendix.) This brief publication can only highlight selected data and survey results.

Career and employment

The section on [career and employment](#) covers data on:

- changes in employment;
- activity status;
- transitions in the labour market;
- low wage employment;
- specific work situations;
- sectoral employment and knowledge intensity.

Changes in employment

Table 1 illustrates employment trends in the EU15 over the two time periods 1997-2000 and 2000-2003. It reveals different developments across labour market groups, reflecting economic developments during these periods. In particular, employment growth for prime age workers (25-54 years) slowed down significantly in the second period, while increasing for older workers.

Employment growth for women declined in the second period but remained stronger than it did for men. There was a notable fall in fixed-term employment, after a considerable increase in the first period. Employment among employees declined, but self-employment grew strongly in the second period.

Table 1 Relative employment changes 1997-2000 and 2000-2003, by age, gender, and type of employment, EU15

	Relative change in employment between 1997 and 2000 (as % of	Relative change in employment between 2000 and 2003 (as % of

	1997 employment level)	2000 employment level)
By age group:		
15-24	5.7	-0.2
25-54	6.0	2.0
55-64	4.9	13.9
65+	3.0	12.1
By gender:		
Women	7.4	4.9
Men	4.7	1.7
By contract:		
Permanent	5.5	4.4
Fixed-term	18.8	-2.7
By employment status:		
Employee	7.2	3.2
Self-employed	0.1	3.6
Total	5.8	3.1

Source: Employment in Europe 2004; Estimates based on LFS, spring results

Activity status

Data from the European Community Household Panel (ECHP) show a decrease in the numbers of people who are not employed and an increase in permanent employment. The percentages of those in self-employment, in temporary employment and in education/training remained at the same level between 1995 and 2001 (Table 2).

The main activity status concerns each person's self perception regarding his/her activity status in the panel survey. Thus, the data are based on a self-defined main activity status. The ECHP is the only comparable longitudinal data source at European level. Figures based on this panel can differ from other databases. Employment is defined as 'working 15 hours per week or more'; this time restriction applies to all categories given in the table.

Temporary work includes employees with fixed-term or short-term contracts, casual work with no contract and some other working arrangements. Self-employment includes both self-employed workers and unpaid workers in a family enterprise. The 'not employed' category includes people who are unemployed, retired, inactive, or working fewer than 15 hours per week. In 'education and training' also includes those working with an employer in paid apprenticeship, and special schemes related to employment of 15 hours or more per week.

Table 2 Main activity status by year, EU25 (%)

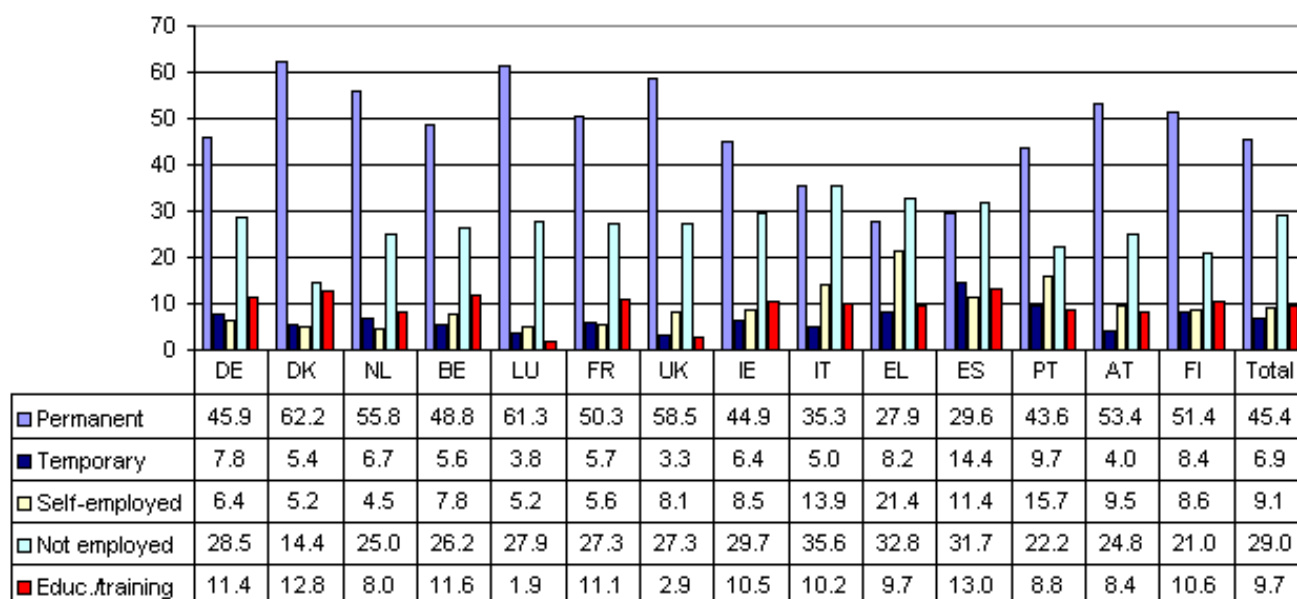
	1995	1997	1999	2001
Permanent work	42.3	42.7	44.4	45.4
Temporary work	6.0	6.2	6.1	6.9
Self-employed	9.3	9.1	8.9	9.1

Not employed	32.7	32.1	30.9	29.0
Education/training	9.8	10.0	9.7	9.7

Source: Employment in Europe 2004; based on ECHP UDS version, December 2003. Note: Data for SE not available

Figure 1 illustrates wide variations between the countries with regard to the main activity status.

Figure 1 Main activity status by country, EU15, 2001 (%)



Source: Employment in Europe 2004, based on ECHP UDS version December 2003. Note: Data for SE not available

The main activity status varies considerably, in terms of the personal characteristics of the workforce (Table 3). Women and men differ in relation to their main activity status. The proportion of women who are not employed (39.3%) is higher than the share of permanent female employees (38.7%). In contrast, only 18.4% of men are not employed and, at 52.3%, the majority of men have a permanent labour contract. Almost 13% of men are self-employed, compared with 5.3% of women. Overall, the highest percentages of permanent employment are evident for male, middle-aged and highly qualified people. The incidence of temporary employment correlates inversely with the qualification level, and is higher for women than for men.

Table 3 Main activity status by personal characteristics, EU15 (%)

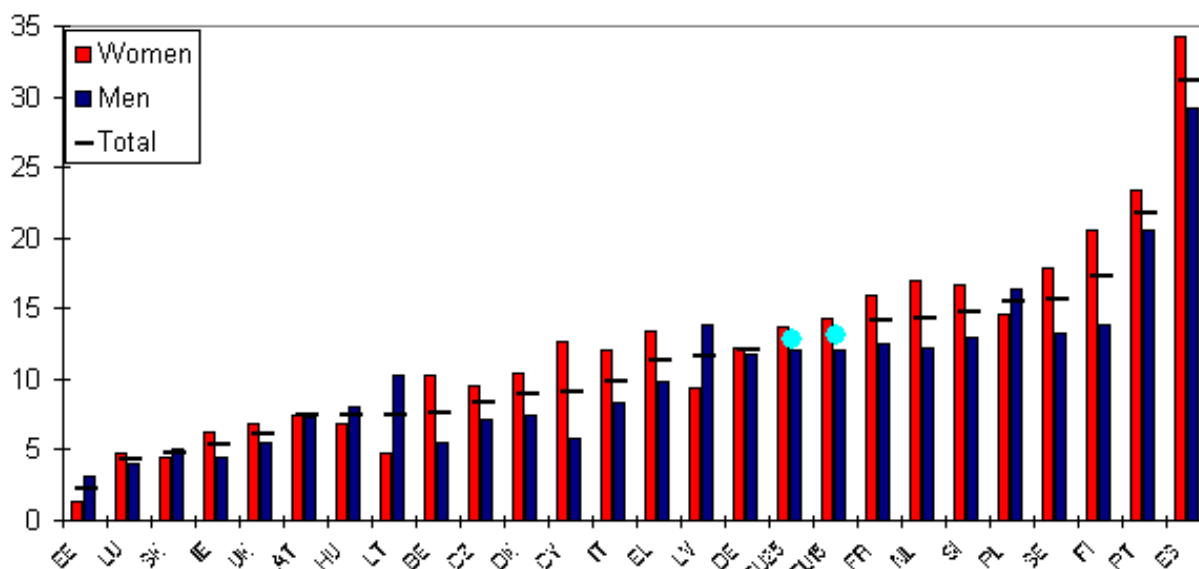
	Permanent	Temporary	Self-employed	Not employed	Education or training	Temporary/all employees
Female	38.7	6.6	5.3	39.3	10.1	14.5
Male	52.3	7.2	12.9	18.4	9.3	12.1
16-24 years old	21.0	10.2	1.6	16.0	51.2	32.6
25-34 years	54.5	10.5	7.5	20.7	6.9	16.1
35-54 years	57.6	5.7	12.4	23.6	0.7	9.0

55-64 years	25.0	2.7	9.0	63.2	0.2	9.7
Highly qualified	59.2	7.6	9.4	16.4	7.5	11.3
Medium qualified	46.7	6.9	8.4	25.2	12.9	12.9
Low qualified	37.3	6.5	9.5	38.5	8.3	14.8

Source: Employment in Europe 2004; based on ECHP UDS version, December 2003. Note: Data for SE not available

The share of employees on [fixed-term contracts](#) is similar between the EU15 and EU25. Overall, women are more affected by such [employment contracts](#) (Figure 2), though not in Poland, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary and Estonia. In all EU15 countries, the proportion of female temporary employees is higher than the proportion of male temporary employees. The proportion of employees on fixed-term contracts ranges from 2.2% in Estonia to 31.2% in Spain.

Figure 2 Percentage of employees on fixed-term contracts, 2002



Source: SEC(2003)937, based on LFS spring results

In 2002, 12.8% of employees in the EU25 were on fixed-term contracts. At 13.7%, the proportion of women on such contracts was slightly higher than it was for men (12%).

The share of temporary employees, as a percentage of total employees, is highest for the 25-49 year age group. Older workers are rarely on such contracts (Table 4).

Table 4 Temporary employees as a % of total employees, by age and gender, EU15

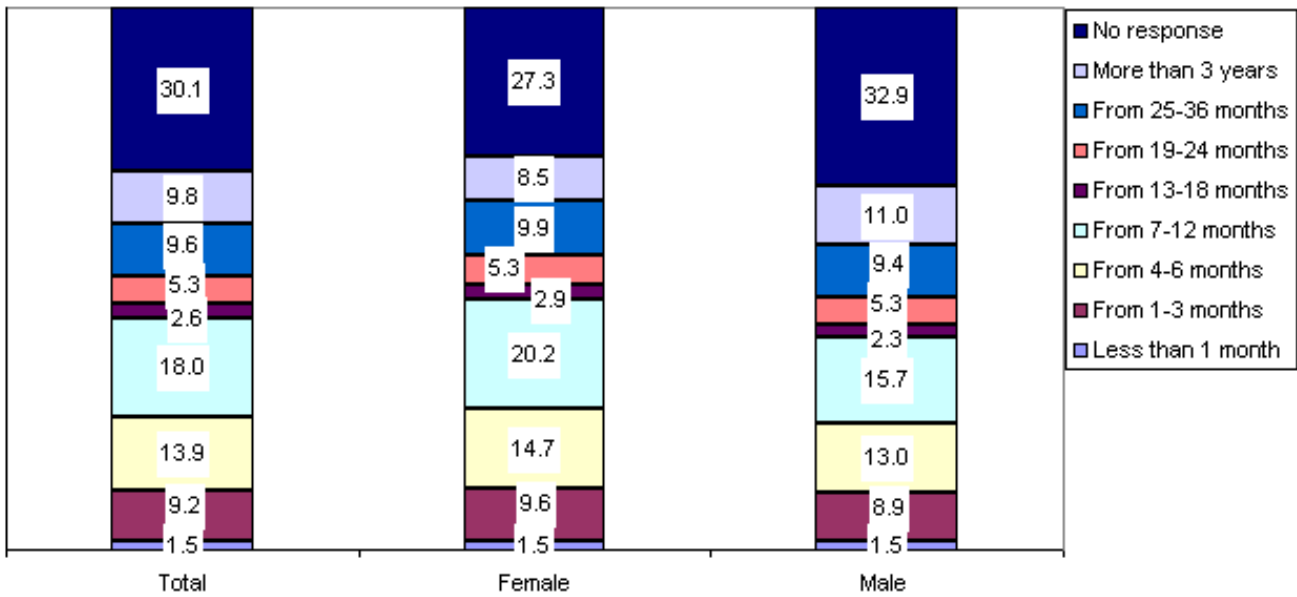
Age group	Total	Female	Male
15-24 years	4.8	4.8	4.7
25-49	7.1	8.2	6.2
50-64	1.1	1.2	1.1

65+	0.1	-	0.1
15-64	13.0	14.2	12.0
Total	13.1	14.3	12.1

Source: LFS, 2002

Three out of five temporary employees have work contracts for a duration of less than three years, with two out of five (42.6%) on contracts of up to 12 months (Figure 3). Women tend, more than men, to have shorter work contracts.

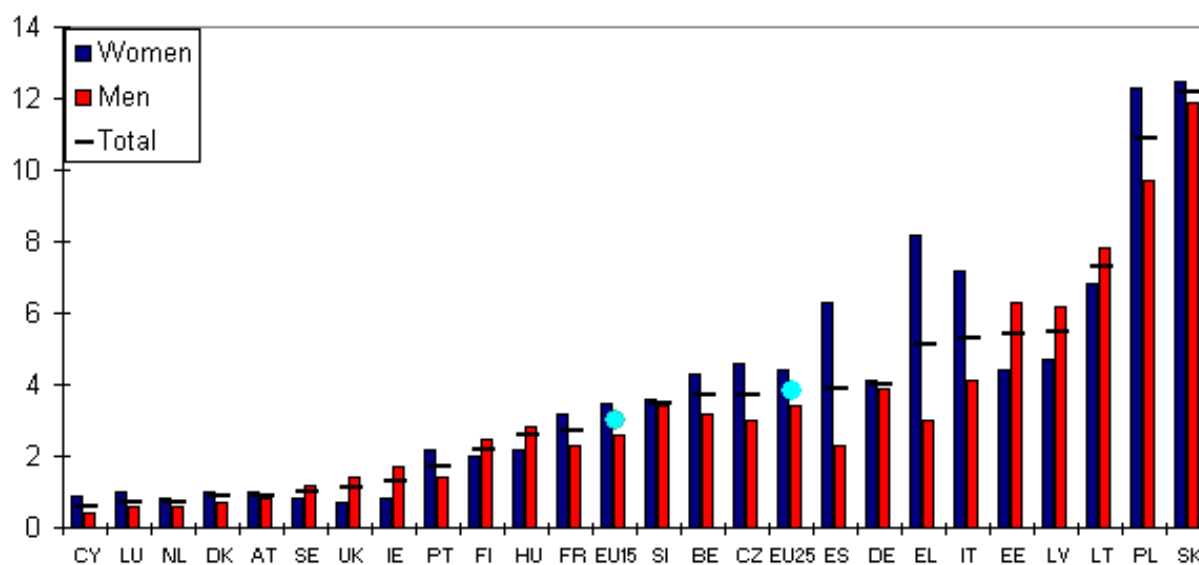
Figure 3 Temporary employees, by duration of work contract, EU15 (%)



Source: LFS 2002

Figure 4 highlights the higher average level of long-term [unemployment rates](#) that exist in the EU25 than in the EU15. Long-term unemployment is understood as being unemployed for 12 months or more. In the majority of the countries, the rates for women are higher than those for men.

Figure 4 Long-term unemployment rates, 2002 (%)

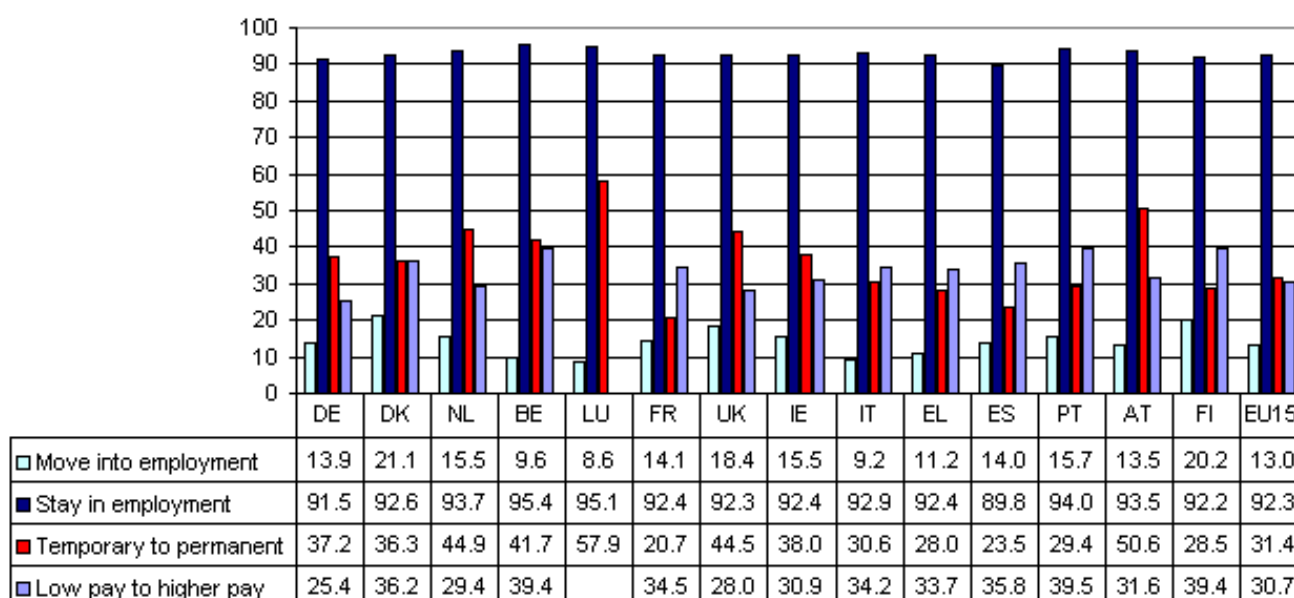


Source: SEC(2003)937, based on LFS spring results

Transitions in the labour market

Based on the ECHP, Figure 5 illustrates labour market transitions by country, over a one-year period. It shows the probabilities of entering employment, remaining in employment, moving from temporary to permanent employment, and reaching above the low-pay threshold (Employment in Europe 2004).

Figure 5 One-year labour market transitions, by country (%)

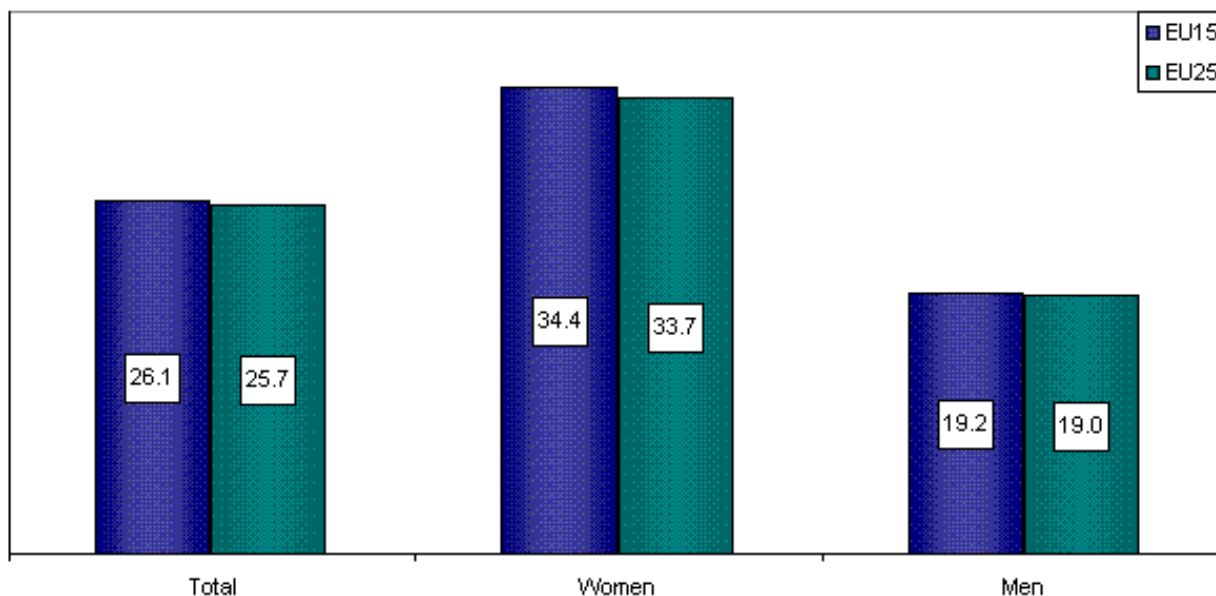


Source: Employment in Europe; based on ECHP UDB version December 2003. Data for SE not available

Low wage employment

Low paying occupations are defined as occupations that, at EU level, pay average gross hourly wages of 75% or less of the average gross hourly wage. In the EU25, the proportion of women (34.4%) in low paying occupations almost doubles that of men (19.2%).

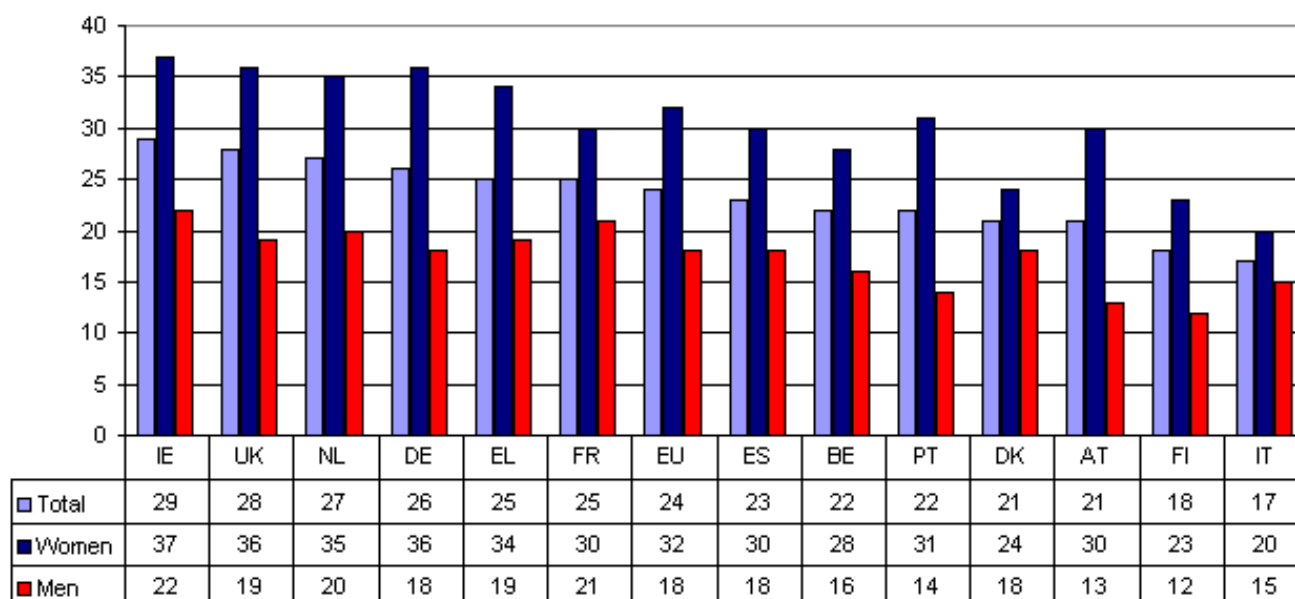
Figure 6 Share of employed in low paying occupations, 2002 (%)



Source: SEC(2003)937; based on LFS Spring results

The proportion of low wage earners ranges from 17% in Italy to 29% in Ireland. Despite the higher level of educational attainment among women, on average (see Figure 23), all countries show a considerably higher share of female low wage earners.

Figure 7 Share of low wage earners, EU15, 2000 (%)



Source: Employment in Europe, 2003; based on ECHP UDB version June 2003, wave 7 (2000). No data for LU or SE

Specific work situations

Just over 11% of employees work usually or sometimes from home. While the proportion of employees who usually work from home is higher for women, the share of those working sometimes from home is higher for men (Table 5).

Table 5 Work from home, 2002, EU15 (%)

	Total	Female	Male
Usually work from home (at least half of total hours worked)	3.8	4.1	3.5
Sometimes work from home (less than half of total hours worked)	7.5	6.4	8.3
Never work from home	86.8	87.4	86.4
No response	1.9	2.1	1.9

Source: LFS, 2002

The [2000-2001 European Working Conditions Survey \(EWCS\)](#), carried out by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, looked at the proportion of people working from home, excluding teleworking. It reveals similar percentages among the [EU15](#) countries, but a higher proportion in 12 acceding and candidate countries ([ACC12](#)) - see Table 6. The ACC12 include the 10 new Member States (NMS) that joined the EU in May 2004. Turkey was surveyed separately at a later stage.

Table 6 Work at home (as the normal workplace, excluding teleworking), %

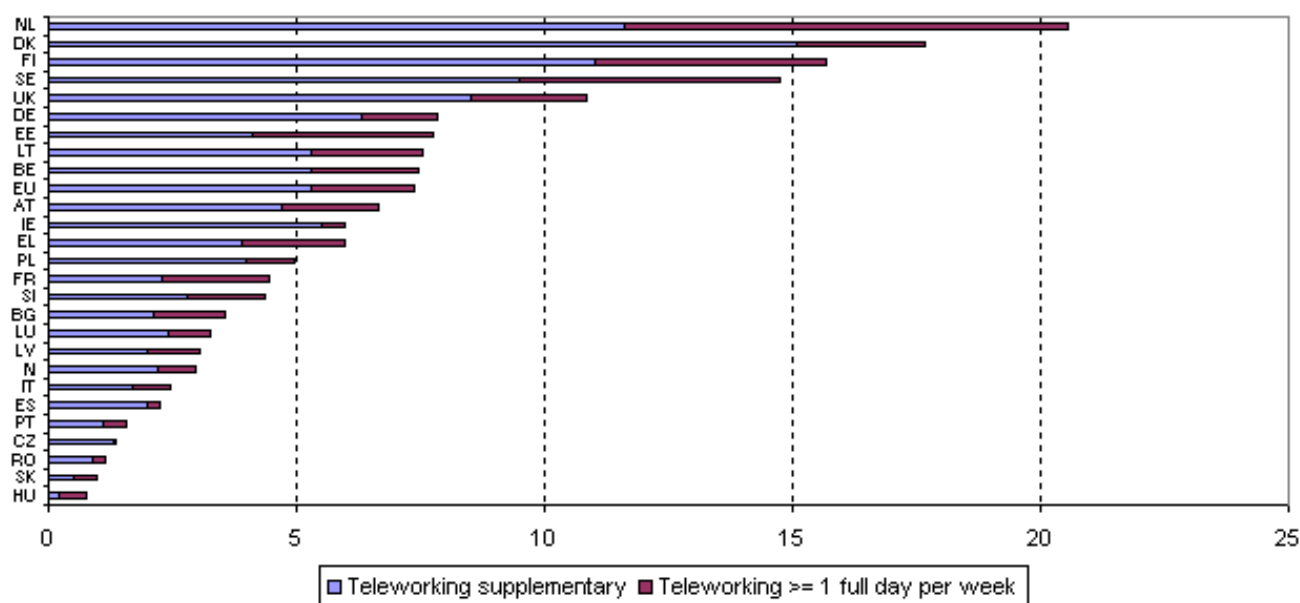
	EU15	ACC12
All of the time	2.1	2.9
Almost all of the time	1.0	1.7
Around 3/4 of the time	0.6	0.5
Around half of the time	1.5	1.8
Around 1/4 of the time	3.4	4.0
Almost never	5.7	7.2
Never	85.1	79.9
Don't know	0.7	2.0

Source: EWCS, 2000-2001

The [General Population Survey \(GPS\)](#) collected data on telework. Figure 8 looks at home-based teleworking, and differentiates between teleworking for more than one full day a week and occasional teleworking.

The share of home-based teleworking is considerably higher in the EU15 than in the 10 NMS. The highest percentages can be found in the Netherlands, Denmark, France and Sweden. In the Netherlands, 9% of employed people work more than one full day each week in home-based teleworking.

Figure 8 Home-based teleworking (% of employed population)



Source: SIBIS 2003, based on GPS 2002 and GPS 2003 (for NMS)

Just over half (51%) of teleworkers in the EU15 feel that, without the option to telework from home, they could not do their job as well as they can with telework, and 27% would have to reduce their working hours per week (Table 7).

Table 7 Significance of home-based telework, EU15, 2002 (%)

	Without the possibility of teleworking from home, teleworkers think they:			
	...could not be in paid work at all	...could not do their job as well as with telework	...would have to look for another job located closer to home	...would have to reduce their working hours per week
Agree completely	9	23	10	15
Agree somewhat	9	28	7	12
Do not agree	79	45	79	70
Don't know	4	3	3	4

Source: GPS, 2002

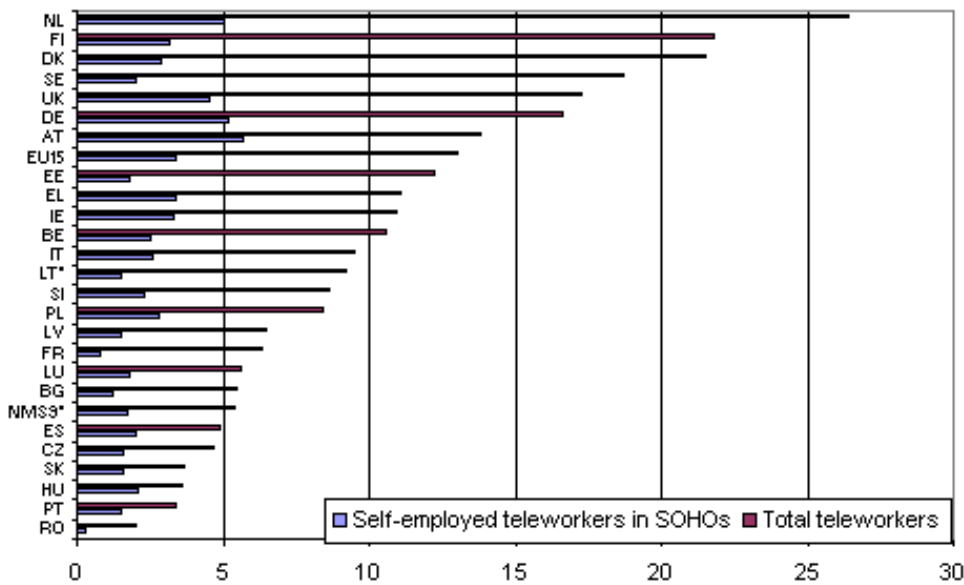
The EWCS 2000 finds a proportion of 10.5% of workers teleworking from home in the [EU15](#), compared with a figure of 7.4% of people employed indicated in the GPS 2002. The GPS survey identifies a share of 3% of home-based teleworking among people employed in the 10 NMS in 2003, whereas the EWCS 2001, in the [ACC12](#), identified a very different figure, of 10.6%, for workers.

These differences may be explained by the data basis, which includes dependent employees in the case of the EWCS, and all people employed in the case of the GPS survey. The latter includes all types of home-based telework, with the exception of self-employed freelancers in so-called SOHOs (small office/home office).

The GPS surveys reveal a considerable difference in both total and self-employed teleworking, between the EU15 and the NMS. Teleworking is more common in the EU15. The Netherlands, Finland and Denmark have high shares

of total teleworking. In terms of self-employed teleworking in SOHOs, the proportion is highest in Austria, Germany and the Netherlands (Figure 9).

Figure 9 Total and self-employed teleworking (%)



Source: SIBIS 2003, based on GPS 2002 and GPS 2003 (for NMS).
*LT does not include mobile teleworking

Sectoral employment and knowledge intensity

Looking at sectoral employment, according to knowledge intensity, 62.4% of people were employed in services in the EU25 in 2003. Half of this workforce was employed in knowledge-intensive services, the sector with the highest growth rate (2.3%) between 2000 and 2003, while manufacturing showed a decline of 1.2%.

Figure 10 Sectoral employment as share of employment, 2003 and employment performance 2000-2003, EU25 (except Poland)



Source: Statistics in focus 10/24, based on LFS, Eurostat estimates

Notes: The classification of high and medium-high technology manufacturing sectors is based on the Eurostat/OECD classification - itself based on the ratio of R&D expenditure to GDP or R&D intensity. Knowledge intensive services: NACE 61, 62, 64-67, 70-74, 80, 85 and 92. Less knowledge intensive services: NACE 50-52, 55, 60, 63, 75, 90, 91, 93, 95 and 99.

Health and well-being

Maintaining and promoting the [health and well-being](#) of workers incorporates physical, mental and social well-being. The focus here is on three main aspects:

- health problems and safety at work;
- risk exposure;
- work organisation.

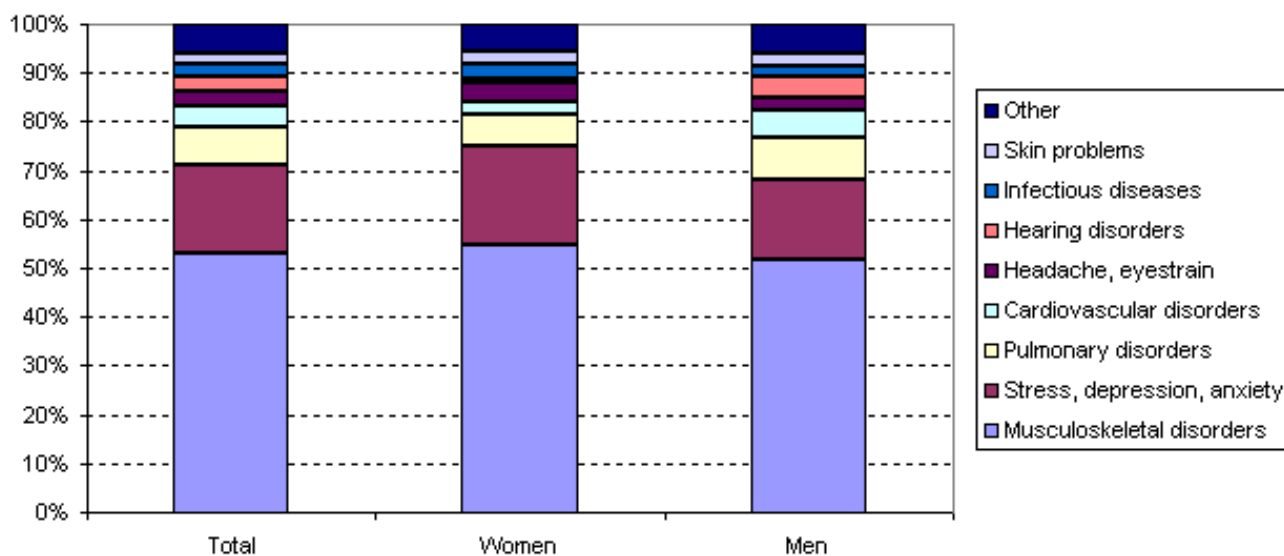
Health problems and safety at work

The Eurostat report [Work and health in the EU \(842Kb pdf\)](#) provides a comprehensive data collection on safety at work, occupational and work-related diseases, and some psychosocial problems. It gathers data for the period 1994-2002 from various European statistical data sources on health and safety at work: the [Labour Force Survey](#) (LFS), the [European Working Conditions Surveys](#) (EWCS), and [European Statistics on Accidents at Work](#) (ESAW). The report gives a general picture of working life, including characteristics of the European labour force, and the overall significance of ill-health due to work-related factors. In accordance with the [Community strategy on health and safety at work 2002-2006 \(210Kb pdf\)](#), the statistical portrait introduces some quantifiable elements relating to working environment factors, which are likely to cause problems beyond recognised occupational accidents and [illnesses \(314Kb pdf\)](#).

Based on the LFS 1999 ad hoc module, Figure 11 presents work-related health problems during the last 12 months, categorised by diagnosis group. The two most frequent work-related health problems are musculoskeletal disorders (53.1%), and stress, depression and anxiety problems (18.2%).

These two work-related health problems are more prevalent among female employees than male employees. Women also suffer more from headaches, eyestrain, infectious diseases and skin problems than men. On the other hand, men are more affected by pulmonary and cardiovascular disorders, and hearing problems. Gender issues in health and safety at work ([EU0404NU04](#)) was the subject of a [study](#) carried out by the [European Agency for Safety and Health at Work](#).

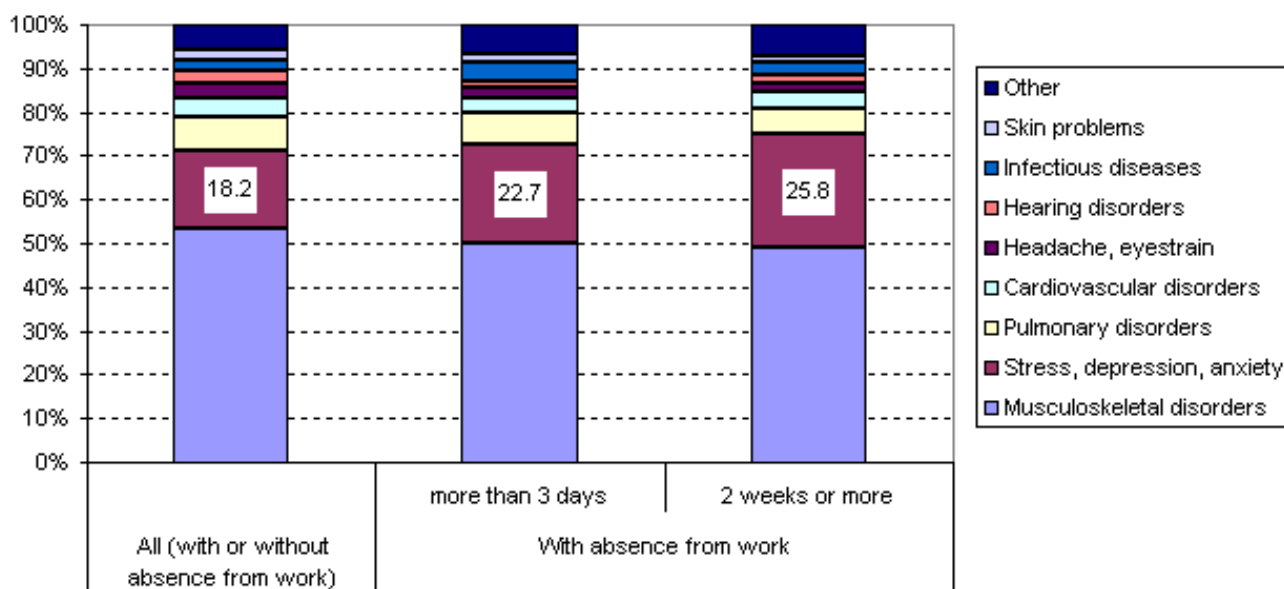
Figure 11 Work-related health problems during the last 12 months, by diagnosis group and gender, EU15, 1999 (%)



Source: LFS 1999, ad hoc module

An analysis of work-related health problems, according to absence from work (Figure 12), shows that the diagnosis group 'stress, depression, anxiety' accounts for 25.8% of work-related health problems resulting in an absence from work of two weeks or more, and 18.2% of all work-related health problems.

Figure 12 Work-related health problems, according to absence from work

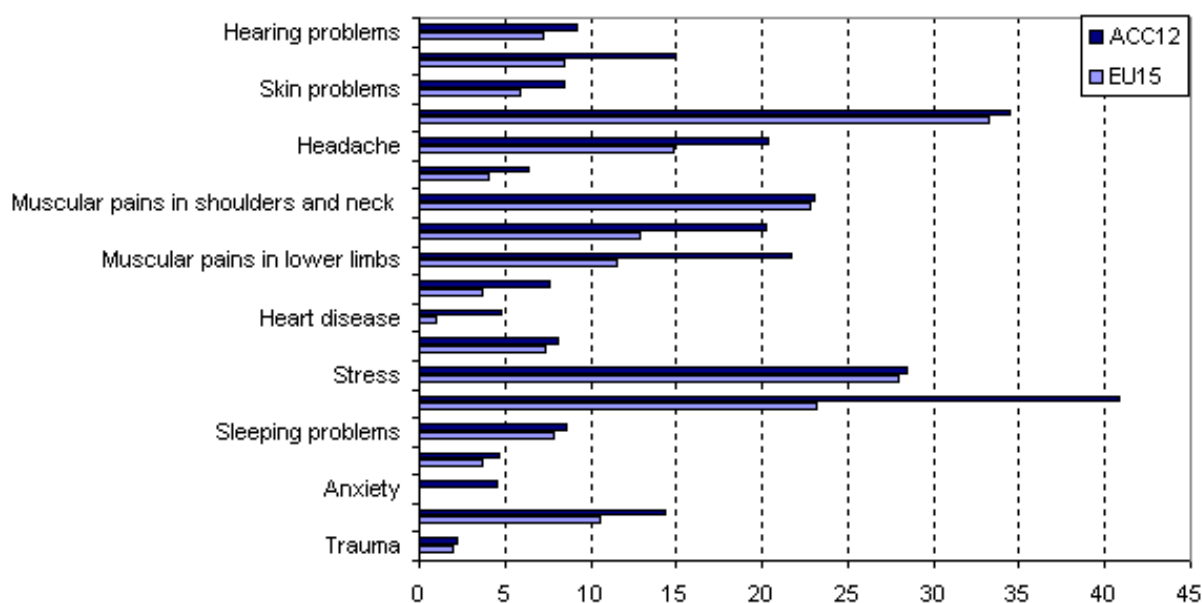


Source: LFS 1999, ad hoc module

The EWCS also identifies musculoskeletal and psychosocial disorders as the most prevalent health problems in the EU15. In its 2001 survey of the ACC12, overall fatigue is reported by 41% of respondents, followed by musculoskeletal and psychosocial disorders. In general, in the NMS, workers are affected to a higher degree by all health problems than in the EU15, and considerably more by some health problems, such as hearing and vision

problems, headaches, muscular pain in upper and lower limb, respiratory difficulties, heart diseases, overall fatigue, and irritability (Figure 13).

Figure 13 Health affected by work (%)



Source: EWCS 2000 and 2001

The European Occupational Diseases Statistics (EODS) offers a different view of the recognised occupational diseases, suggesting that musculoskeletal diseases only account for 35% of recognised occupational diseases. Psychosocial health problems are not covered by the EODS (Table 8).

Table 8 Recognised occupational diseases, by diagnosis, EU15

Diagnosis	Number	%
Infections	722	1.4
Malignant diseases	2,481	4.7
Neurological diseases	4,208	8.0
Diseases of the sensory organs	6,749	12.8
Respiratory diseases	7,463	14.1
Skin diseases	7,563	14.3
Musculoskeletal diseases	18,490	35.0
Other diseases	5,208	9.8
All	52,884	100

Source: Karjalainen, A. and Niederlaender, E., 2004, based on EODS

At 48%, the incidence rate (per 100,000 workers) of recognised occupational diseases was considerably higher for men than for women (22%) (Karjalainen and Niederlaender, 2004).

The Eurostat [structural indicators on employment](#) offer data on [serious](#) and [fatal](#) accidents at work. Data based on

[European Statistics on Accidents at Work \(ESAW\) - 2.7MKb.pdf](#) show a decline in serious accidents at work, between 1994 and 2002 in the EU15, and between 1998 and 2002 in the EU25. A breakdown according to gender highlights a different development for men and women. The index figures for women rose in the EU15 and in the EU25 between 1998 and 2000, after which they declined.

Figure 14 Serious accidents at work, by gender, EU15 (1998 = 100)

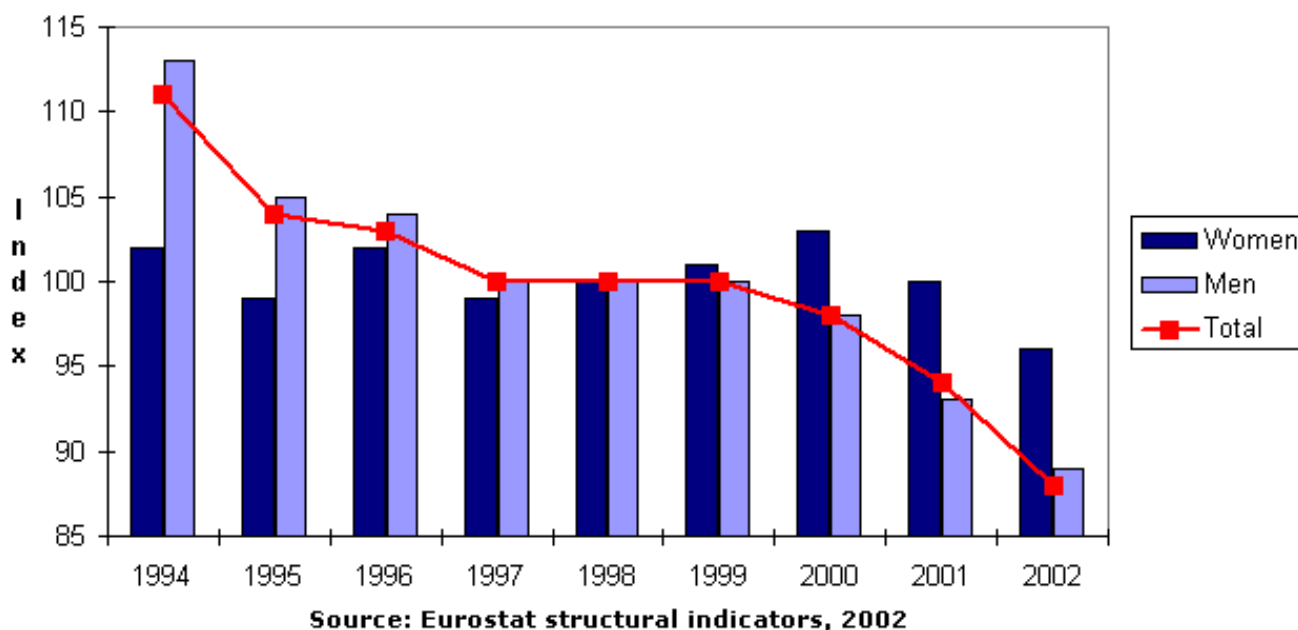
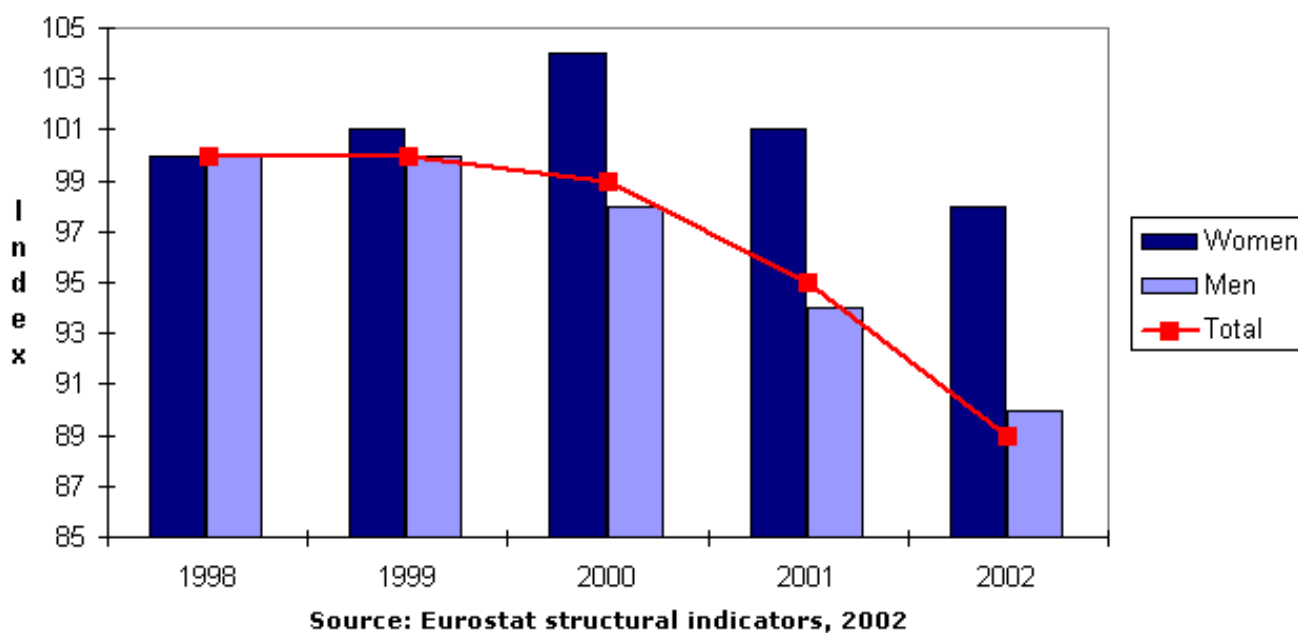


Figure 15 Serious accidents at work, by gender, EU25 (1998 = 100)



According to the 1999 LFS ad hoc module, the relative incidence rate of accidental injuries at work is 115 for men, compared with 74 for female employees.

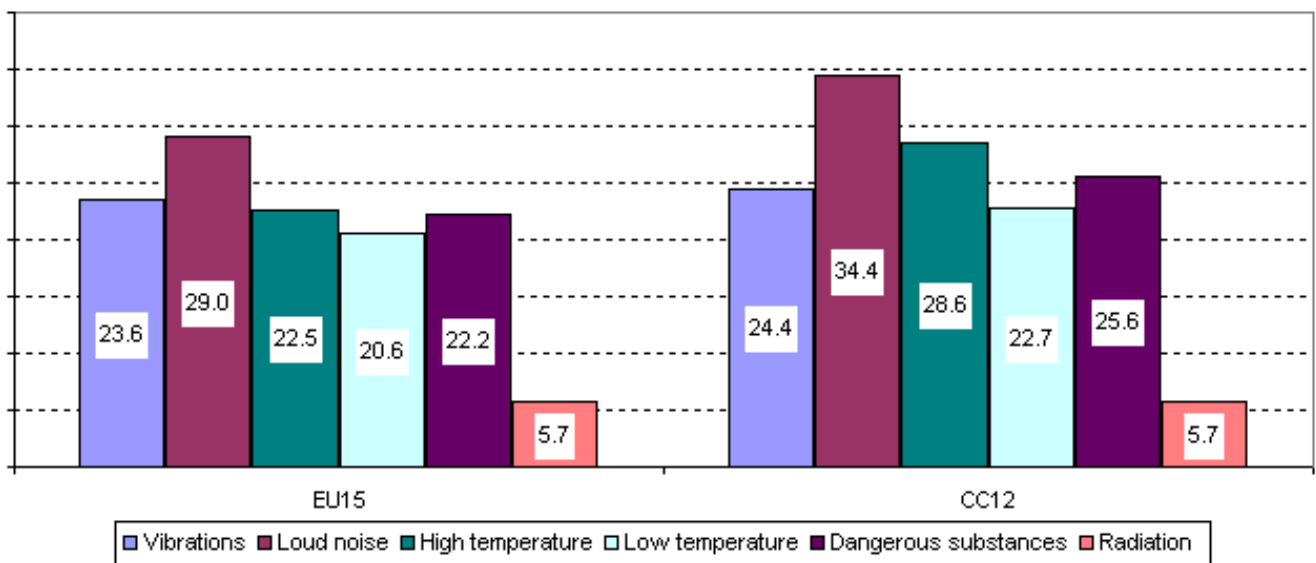
The number of fatal accidents at work declined in the EU15 from 115 to 79 index points between 1994 and 2002, and from 100 in 1998 to 80 in 2002 in the EU25.

Risk exposure

The key survey data source on risk exposure is the EWCS. In this survey, results are described for two risk factors from the 2000 survey of the EU15, and from the 2001 survey of 12 acceding and candidate countries.

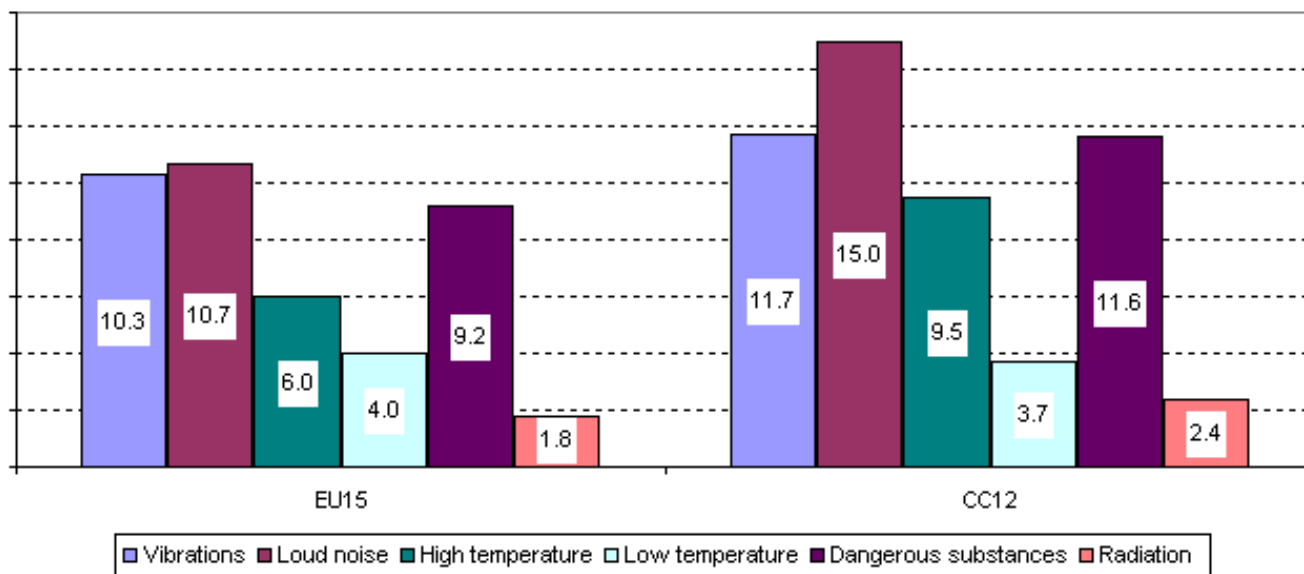
The exposure of workers to physical work factors is higher in the ACC12 than in the EU15. This applies both when the exposure is experienced for at least a quarter of the time and also when it is experienced for all, or almost all, of the time (Charts 16 and 17). Of all physical work factors, loud noise is the most frequent risk.

Figure 16 Workplace exposure to physical factors at least 1/4 of the time, EU15 (2000) and CC (2001), %



Source: EWCS 2000 and 2001

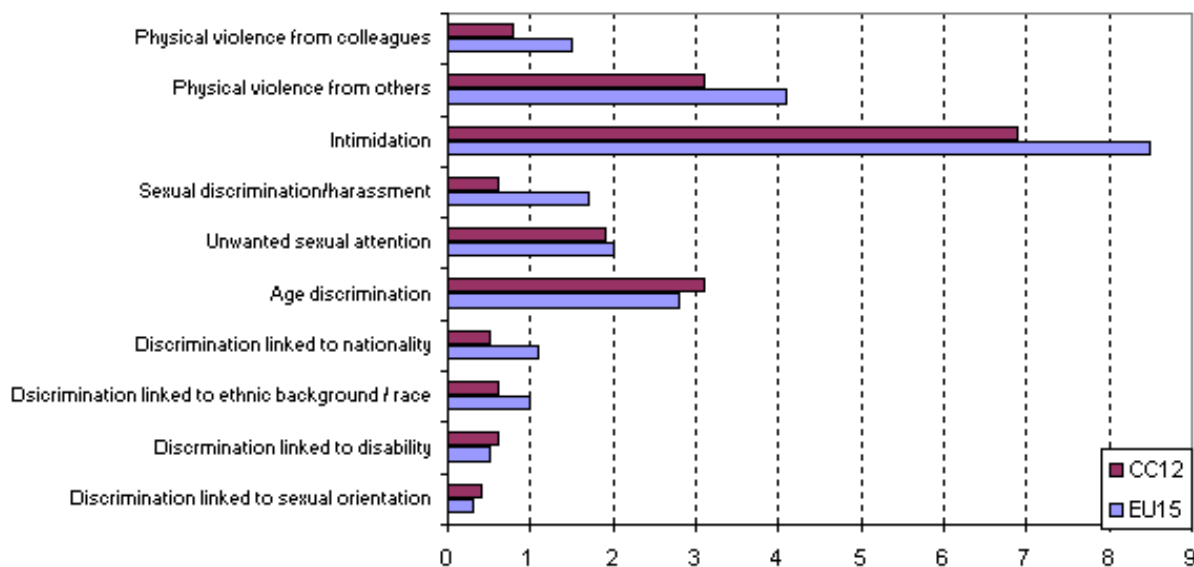
Figure 17 Exposure to physical factors all or almost all of the time, EU15 (2000) and CC (2001), %



Source: EWCS 2000 and 2001

Data on psychosocial risks in the [EU15](#) and the [ACC12](#) indicate a higher risk for workers in the EU15, except for age discrimination (Figure 18). Risk factors with the highest incidence are intimidation, physical violence from others, and age discrimination.

Figure 18 Psychosocial risks at the workplace, EU15 (2000) and CC12 (2001), %



Source: EWCS 2000 and 2001

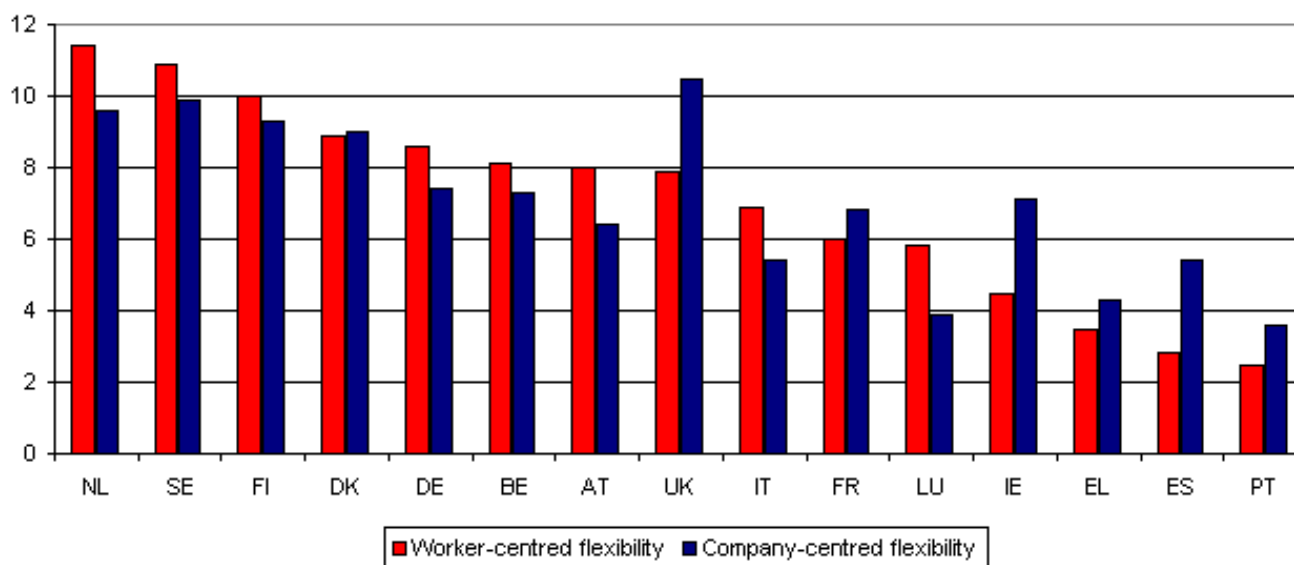
Work organisation

One of the key issues of the e3European employment strategye3 is to achieve flexibility in a balanced way for employees and employers.

The [SIBIS](#) (Statistical indicators benchmarking the information society) consortium has developed the Adaptability of work arrangements index (AWAI). It builds on several data sources: GPS, LFS, EWCS, CVTS and OECD data. The two sub-indices, worker-centred and company-centred flexibility, are based on a number of key component indicators, developed through consensus-building involving experts and policymakers at EU and national level.

Looking at the EU15, the AWAI identifies a high degree of company-centred flexibility in France, Ireland, Spain and the UK, whereas Austria, Germany, Luxembourg, Italy, the Netherlands and Sweden are characterised by worker-centred flexibility. The highest degree of balance can be seen in Denmark.

**Figure 19 Adaptability of work arrangements index (AWAI) 2002
(Index values; maximum= 15)**



Source: SIBIS 2003

Skills development

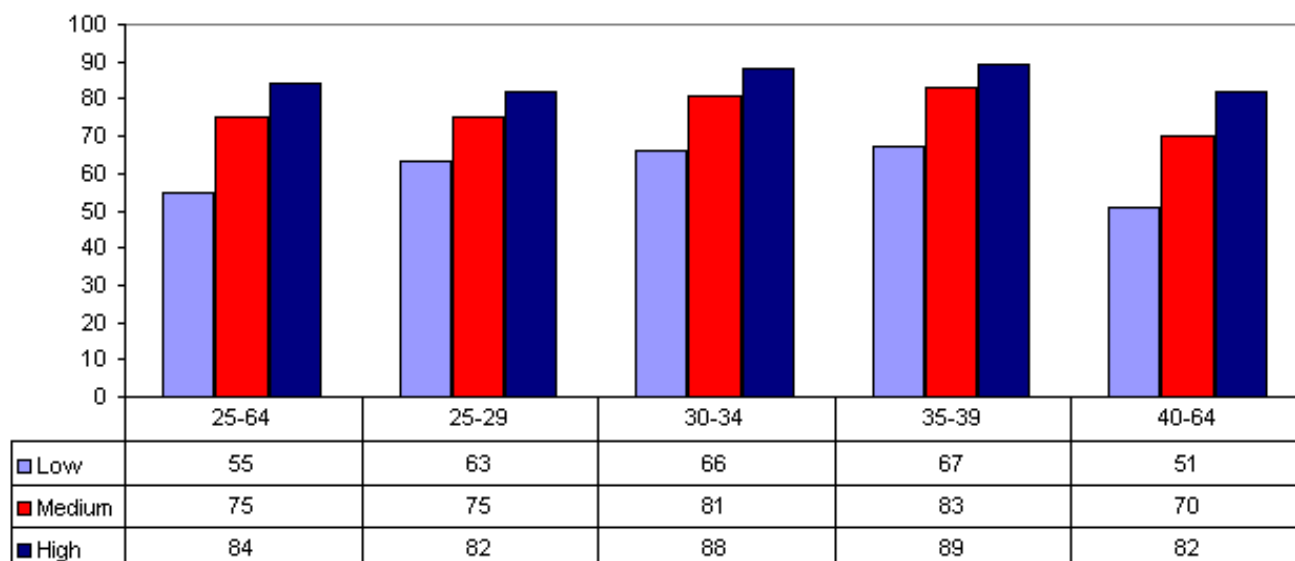
Key aspects of the section on [developing skills and competences](#) are:

- training and employment performance;
- skills and access to training;
- participation in work-related training;
- training provided by the employer;
- working time spent on training;
- skills / job match;
- training and the information society.

Training and employment performance

Employment rates strongly correlate with education level across all age groups. The positive impact of education is particularly evident in the 40-64 year age group.

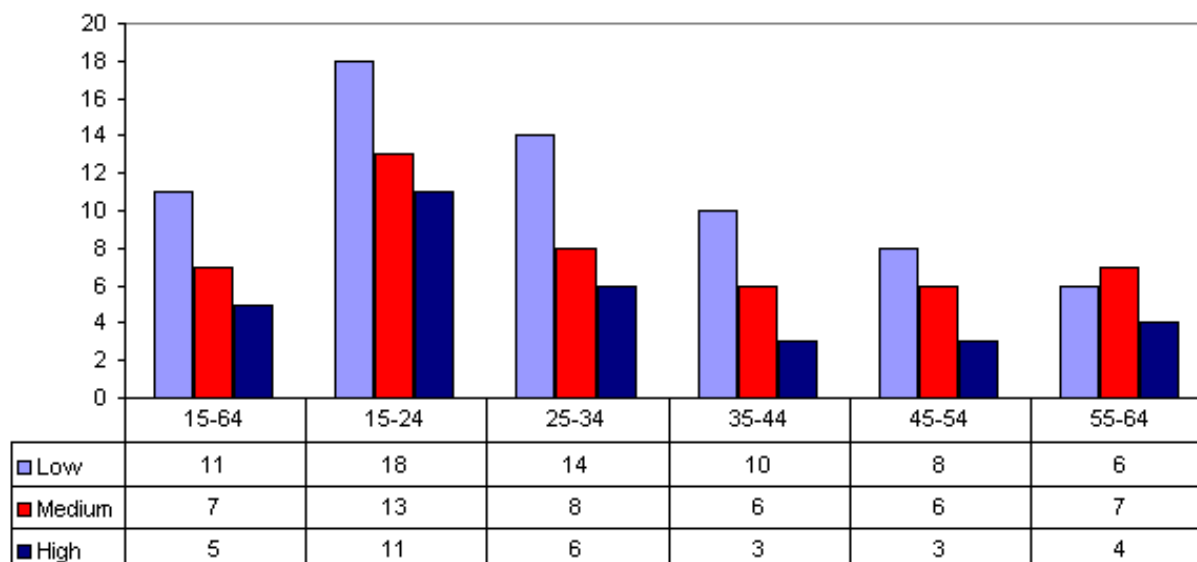
Figure 20 Employment rates by education level and age group, EU15, 2002 (%)



Source: Education across Europe, 2003; based on LFS

Conversely, low levels of educational attainment correlate with high unemployment rates.

Figure 21 Unemployment rates by education level and age group, EU15, 2002 (%)



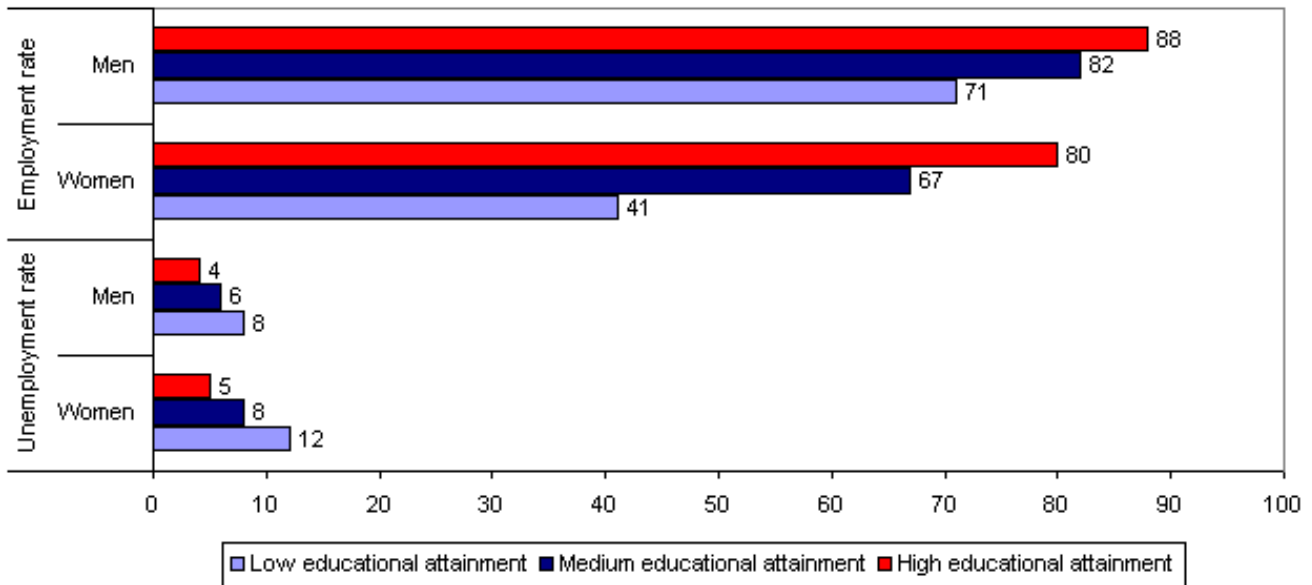
Source: Education across Europe, 2003; based on LFS. Data for EU15 excluding LU

An [OECD analysis](#) on training and employment performance ([EU0410NU01](#)) reveals that policies aimed at enhancing workers' skills contribute to an improvement in employment performance.

A gender breakdown of data on educational attainment level and employment illustrates significant differences. For both genders, a high level of educational attainment correlates with higher employment and lower unemployment rates. The employment rate of low-skilled women (41%) is considerably lower than it is for men with low skills

(71%), while the unemployment rate of those with low skills is higher for women than for men.

Figure 22 Educational attainment, employment and unemployment rates, by gender, 25-64 age group, EU15, 2002 (%)



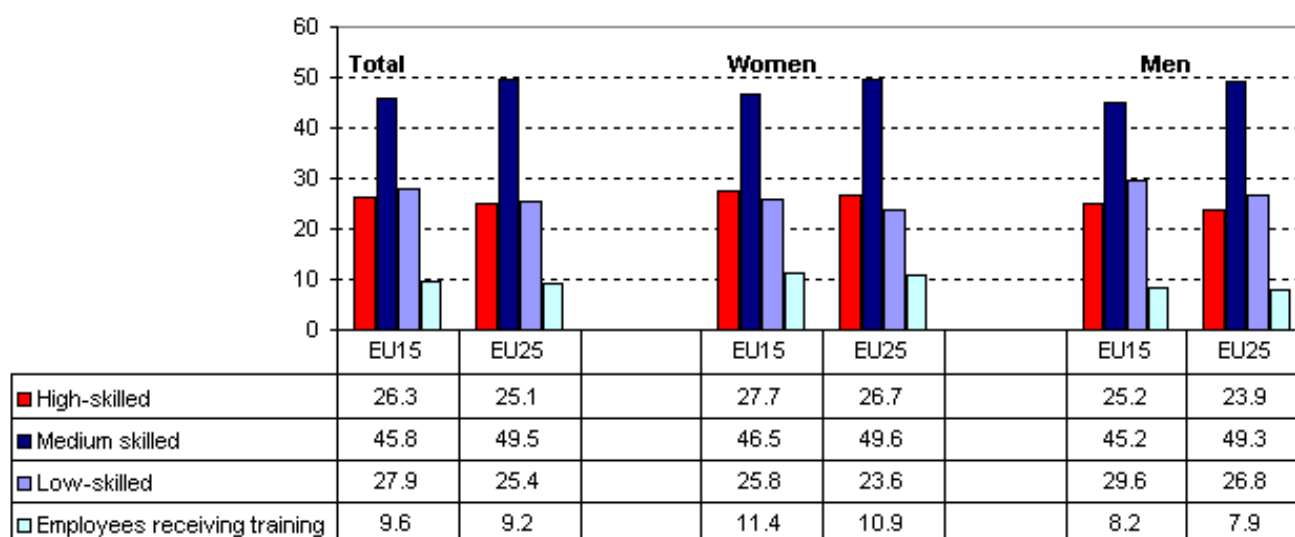
Source: Education across Europe, 2003; based on LFS

Skills and access to training

Figure 23 illustrates skill levels in the EU15 and EU25. In the EU25, the proportion of female employees with a high skills level is 26.7%, compared with 23.9% for men. The share of low-skilled workers is 3.2% higher for men than for women, while the share of medium-skilled is equal for both.

Just over 10% of women in the EU25 receive training, compared with only 7.9% of men. In the EU15, the difference is even greater.

Figure 23 Skills and access to training, 2002 (%)



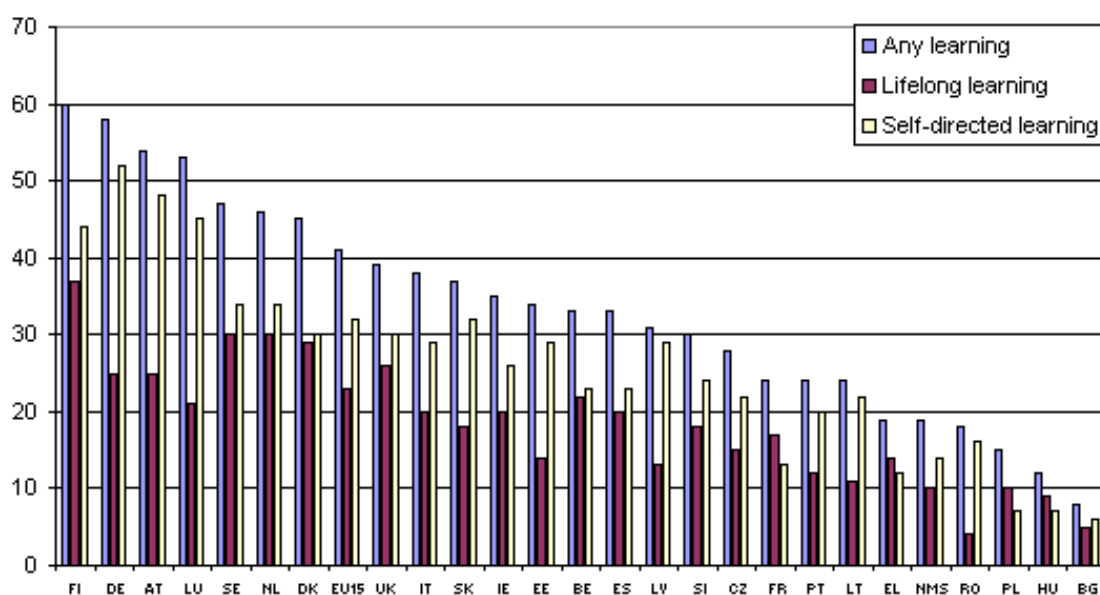
Source: SEC(2003) 937; based on LFS Spring results

Participation in work-related training

Figure 24 outlines participation rates in work-related training, based on the General Population Survey (GPS), differentiating between lifelong learning and self-directed learning. Unlike the Eurostat structural indicator on [lifelong learning](#), which considers any learning of the total population aged 25-64, the GPS looks only at work-related, lifelong learning among the employed population. Work-related, self-directed learning covers individual skill requirements.

In the EU15, more than 40% of the employed, unemployed and self-employed population participated in work-related training in the preceding four weeks of the survey, when lifelong learning and self-directed learning are considered. The highest percentages are in Finland, Germany, Austria and Luxembourg. Self-directed learning is most common in Germany, Austria and Luxembourg.

Figure 24 Participation in work-related learning (%)



Source: SIBIS Pocket Book 2002/2003

Training provided by the employer

According to the EWCS 2001, 74.3% of workers in the [ACC](#) did not receive training provided by their employer, during the previous 12 months, compared with 69.1% in the [EU15](#) in 2000. The data do not give any information on the exact [nature of the training](#) .

Working time spent on training

The Eurostat publication [Working time spent on continuing vocational training in enterprises in Europe \(290Kb pdf\)](#) analyses the issue in detail, based on the Continuing vocational training survey (CVTS2). Some of the key findings indicate that:

- large companies invest considerably more of their employees' working time in continuing vocational training (CVT) than small- and medium-sized companies do;
- candidate countries have the highest intensity of CVT in small enterprises;
- the amount of working time devoted to CVT in the services sectors, particularly in financial intermediation, is above average.

Figures 16-19 of the annual review of working conditions in the EU, 2003-2004 ([EU0406AR01](#)), provide an analysis of data, based on the CVTS2. The data show the highest proportion of participants in CVT courses in the Scandinavian countries, and the lowest proportions in Lithuania, Latvia, Hungary and Greece.

The picture differs with regard to the hours spent in CVT courses per participant. Most hours in CVT are spent in Spain, Denmark and Lithuania. At the bottom of the scale are Slovenia, the Czech Republic and the UK.

Data from the CVTS2 reveal a correlation between participation in continuing vocational training and the use of 'new technologies'. In all countries surveyed (except Denmark), the participation rates and the hours spent in CVT are higher in companies with new technologies than in companies without new technologies (Annual review of working conditions in the EU 2003-2004, Figures 18 and 19).

Skills / job match

The perceived match between skills and work is greater in the [ACC](#) than in the [EU15](#) (Table 9). In other words,

fewer workers in the ACC find that their work demands are either too high or too low.

Table 9 Skills / job match, EU15, 2000 and ACC, 2001 (%)

	EU15 (2000)	ACC12 (2001)
The demands are too high	7.9	5.6
The demands match the skills	82.4	86.1
The demands are too low	7.3	4.6
Do not know	2.4	3.7

Source: EWCS, 2000 and 2001

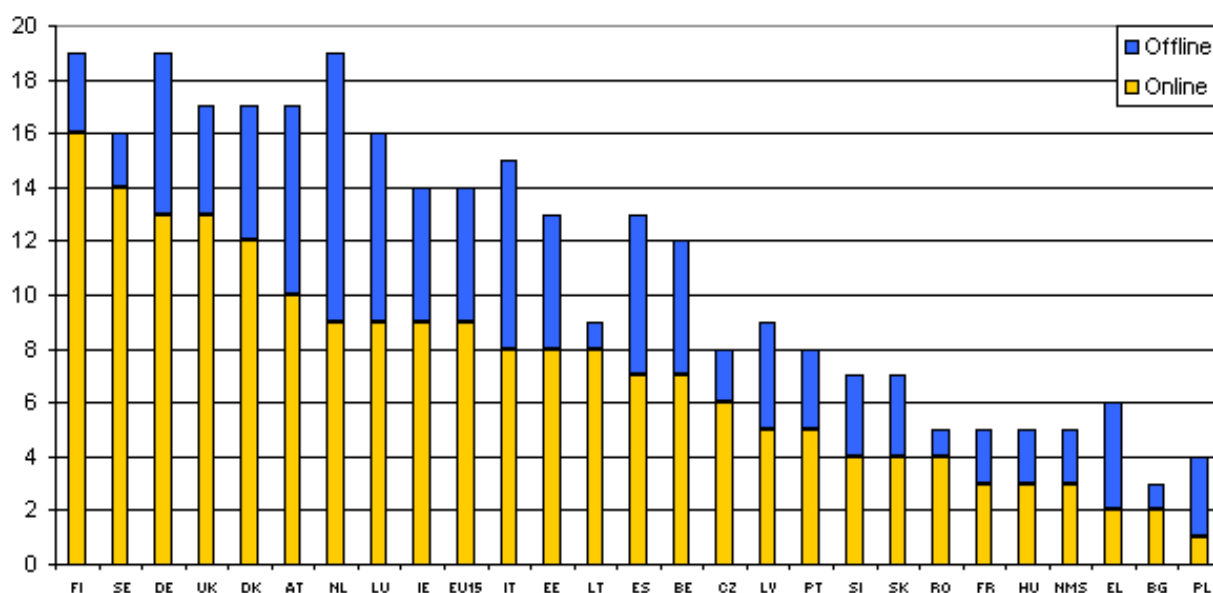
Training and the information society

Training, in the context of information and communication technologies (ICT), was analysed in detail in the report, Information technology: Use and training in Europe ([DE0412TR01](#)). The core focus of the analysis was on user skills. The report describes a shift in task requirements and different forms of formal and informal learning, against a background of a shortened skills lifecycle. Data reveal a decline in [IT-related training](#) in the last two years.

Elearning is of increasing importance for work-related training. Figure 25 gives an overview of online and offline eLearning. Offline eLearning is based on multimedia learning material, such as computer programmes on disks, video tapes and CD-ROMs. Online eLearning means that the learning content is provided online through the Internet or the employer's computer network.

In the EU15, 15% of the labour force use eLearning; in the NMS, the figure is 5%.

Figure 25 Use of eLearning (% of employed population)



Source: SIBIS Pocketbook, 2002/2003

Work-life balance

Key aspects of the section on [work-life balance](#) include:

- time management;
- reconciliation of working and non-working life;
- part-time work.

Time management

The principal aspects of working time are: duration, flexibility and regularity of working hours.

Hours worked

The LFS data differentiate between ‘usual’ working time, i.e. the working time over a long period, and ‘actual’ working time, i.e. the hours actually worked in a reference week.

Table 10 shows the average actual weekly working hours and Table 11, the average usual weekly working hours in the EU15, for employed and self-employed people, according to gender.

Table 10 Average actual weekly working hours, EU15, 2002

	Total	Women	Men
All in employment	36.8	32.1	40.2
Self-employed	44.9	38.6	47.2
Employees	35.5	31.4	38.7
Full-time:			
All in employment	40.5	38.4	41.6
Self-employed	48.2	45.4	49.0
Employees	39.1	37.4	40.0
Part-time:			
All in employment	19.4	19.5	19.2
Self-employed	18.6	17.9	19.7
Employees	19.5	19.6	19.1

Source: LFS, 2002

Table 11 Average usual weekly working hours, EU15, 2002

	Total	Women	Men
All in employment	37.4	32.9	40.9
Self-employed	45.6	39.0	48.1
Employees	36.1	32.2	39.4
Full-time:			

All in employment	41.4	39.6	42.4
Self-employed	49.4	46.6	50.2
Employees	40.0	38.6	40.8
Part-time:			
All in employment	19.6	19.7	19.1
Self-employed	18.6	17.9	19.7
Employees	19.7	19.9	19.0

Source: LFS, 2002

The data reveal differences in the duration of working time between full-time employed women and men, and a considerably longer working week for self-employed people.

The ad hoc module to the LFS in spring 2001 showed that, in the EU15, full-time employed persons worked on average 41.6 hours and part-time employed persons, 19.7 hours per week. Full-time employed men worked more than 42 hours and full-time employed women worked slightly less than 40 hours per week ([Working times - 310Kb pdf](#)).

Further results of this ad hoc module - on the number of working hours, overtime and work outside core working hours, and flexitime - were outlined in a EWCO news update [EU0407NU06](#).

Overtime work

Data on [overtime work \(311Kb pdf\)](#) are based on the 2001 ad hoc module to the LFS. Overtime is understood as hours worked in excess of the normal working hours, fixed by law, regulation or collective agreements.

On average, employees worked eight hours of overtime per week. A considerable part of overtime work is not paid. Men are more likely than women to be paid for overtime work.

Although overtime was more prevalent among prime-age employees, most overtime hours were worked by employees aged 55 years or more. However, this age group worked the fewest paid overtime hours as only half of the overtime was paid. Senior officials, managers and professionals worked the most unpaid overtime hours. Payment of overtime was not related to the size of the enterprise.

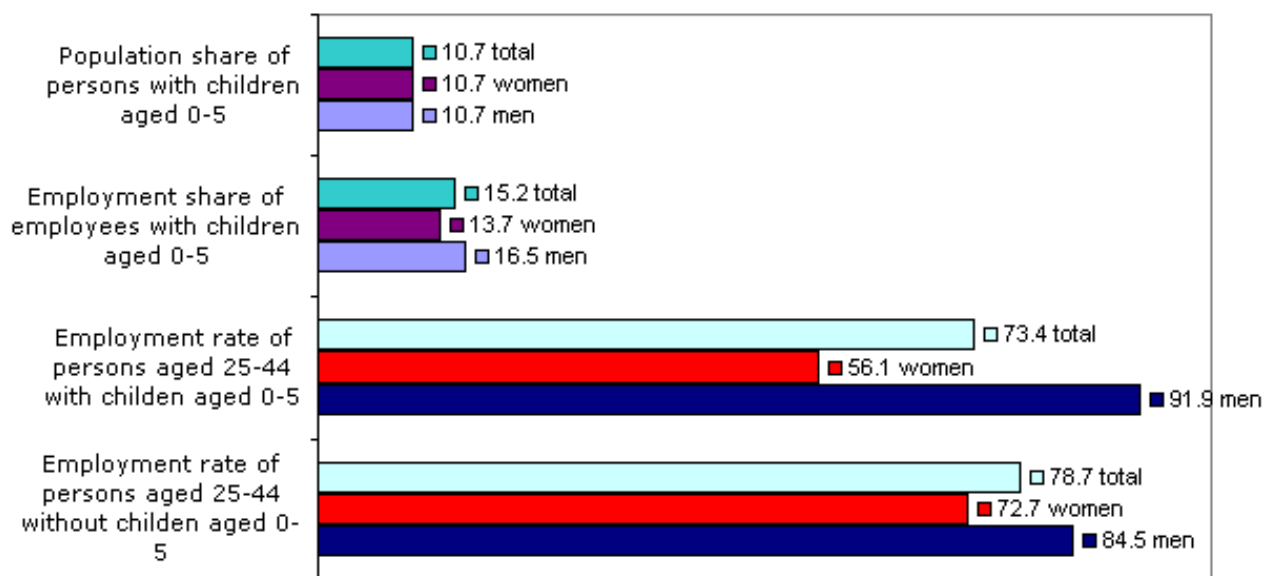
Reconciliation of working and non-working life

Employment and family status

Figure 26 illustrates the impact of small children, of up to five years, on the employment rates of women and men. While the population share of women and men with children aged 0-5 years is equal, differences are evident in the employment share of female and male employees with children of this age.

For people in the 25-44 year age group, small children impact negatively on women's employment rates and positively on men's employment rates. The employment rate of men with small children (91.9%) is higher than the employment rate for men without children up to five years (84.5%). For women, the figures are very different: a 56.1% employment rate with children and 72.7% without children.

Figure 26 Employment share and rates, by family status and gender, EU25, 2002

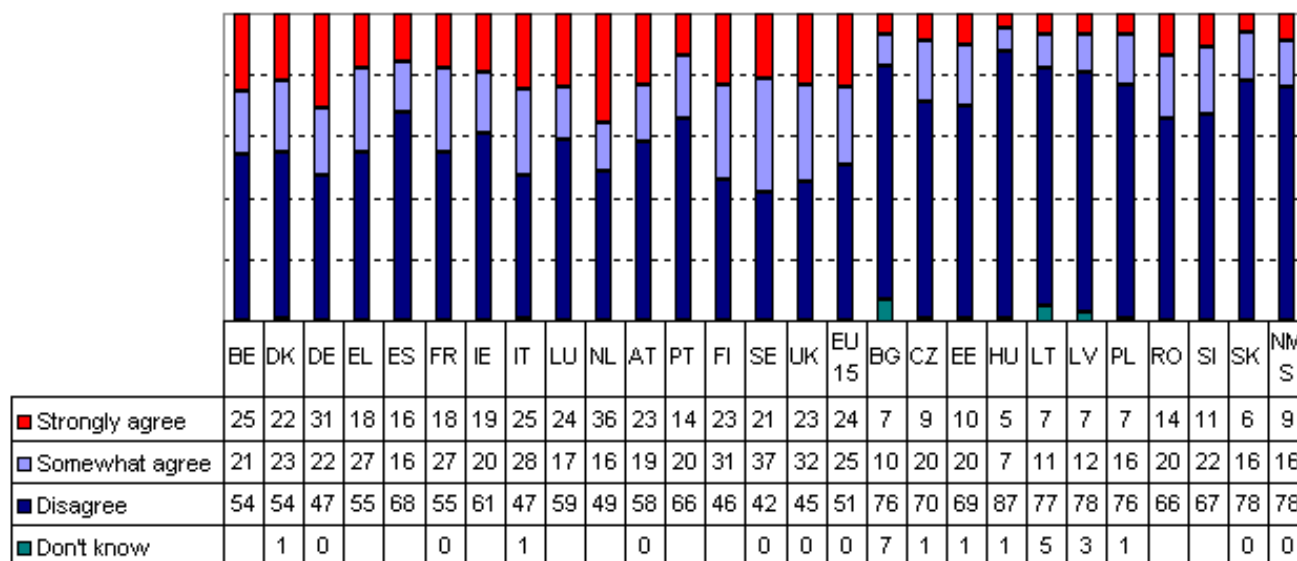


Source: SEC(2003) 937; based on LFS

Flexitime

Figure 27 shows the degree of flexibility in working start and finish times, as perceived by workers across Europe. In the EU15, 49% of workers, compared with 25% in the NMS, strongly or somewhat agree that they can adapt the times when they start or finish work, to fit their personal needs. The highest percentage of workers holding this view was found in Sweden (58%), with the lowest share in Hungary (12%).

Figure 27 Flexibility in work start and finish times (%)



Source: EWCS 2000 and 2001

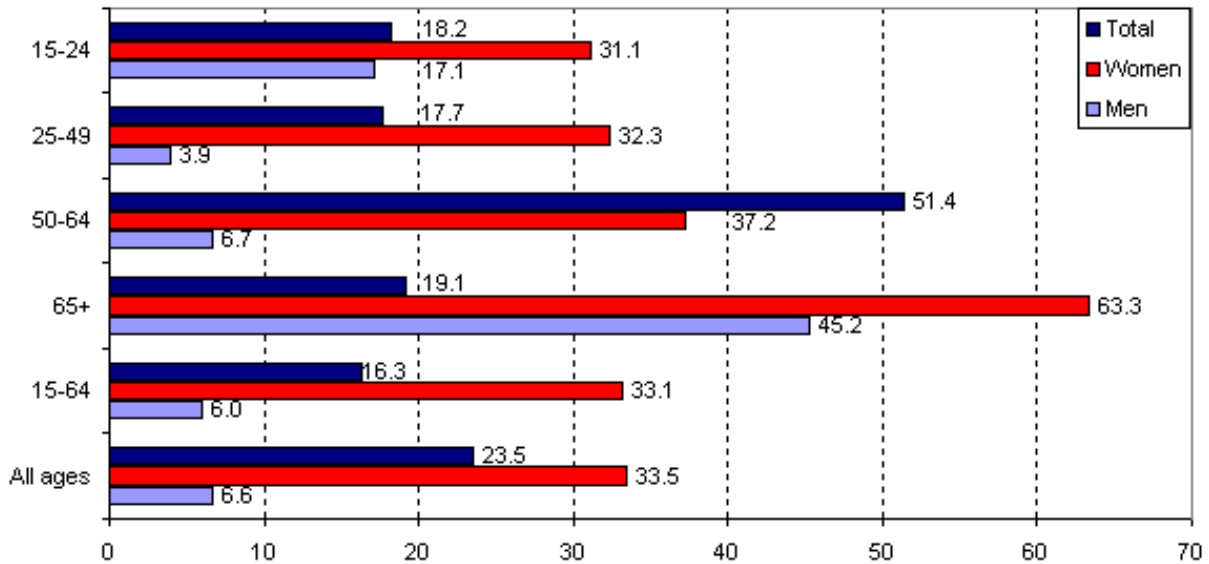
Data from the EWCS indicate that 44.2% of the respondents in the [EU15](#), and 36.5% in the [ACC12](#), can influence

their working hours.

Part-time work

The share of part-time workers differs considerably between women and men, and between age groups (Figure 28).

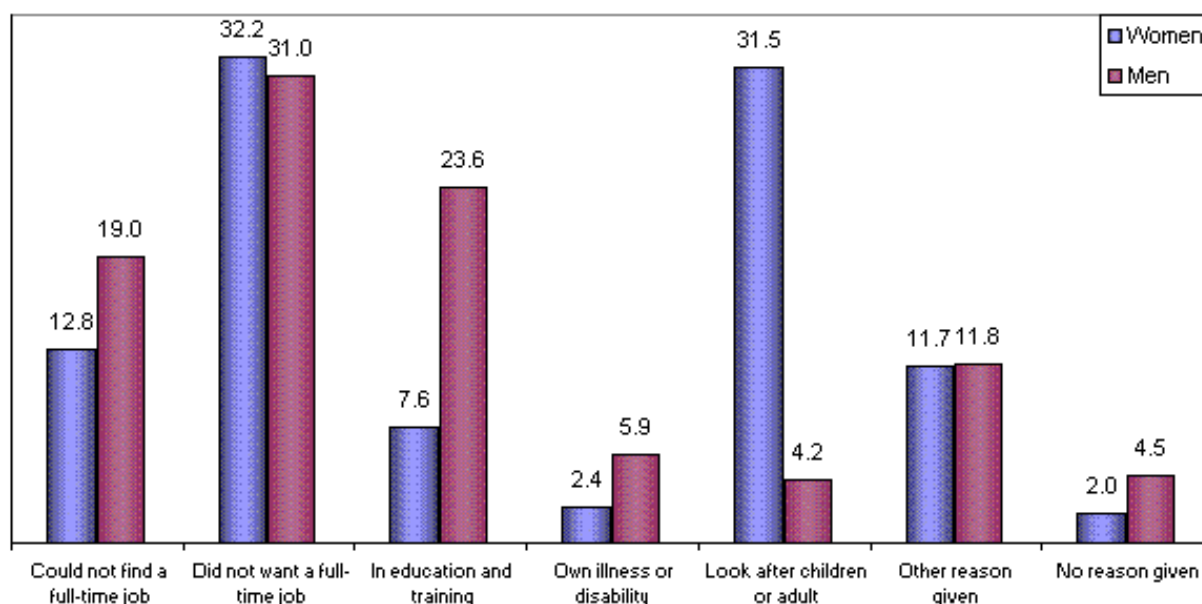
Figure 28 Part-time employment as % of total employment, by age and gender, EU15



Source: LFS 2002

The gender differences clearly reflect the reasons for part-time work (Chart 29). While an almost similar share of women and men state that they work part time because they do not want a full-time job, there are considerable gender differences with regard to other reasons for working part time. A higher share of men (19%) than women (12.8%) work part time because they could not find a full-time job, because of education and training (23.6% for men, 7.6% for women), or because of illness or disability (5.9% for men, 2.4% for women). The biggest difference relates to looking after children or adult dependents: this reason is given by 31.5% of women and only 4.2% of men.

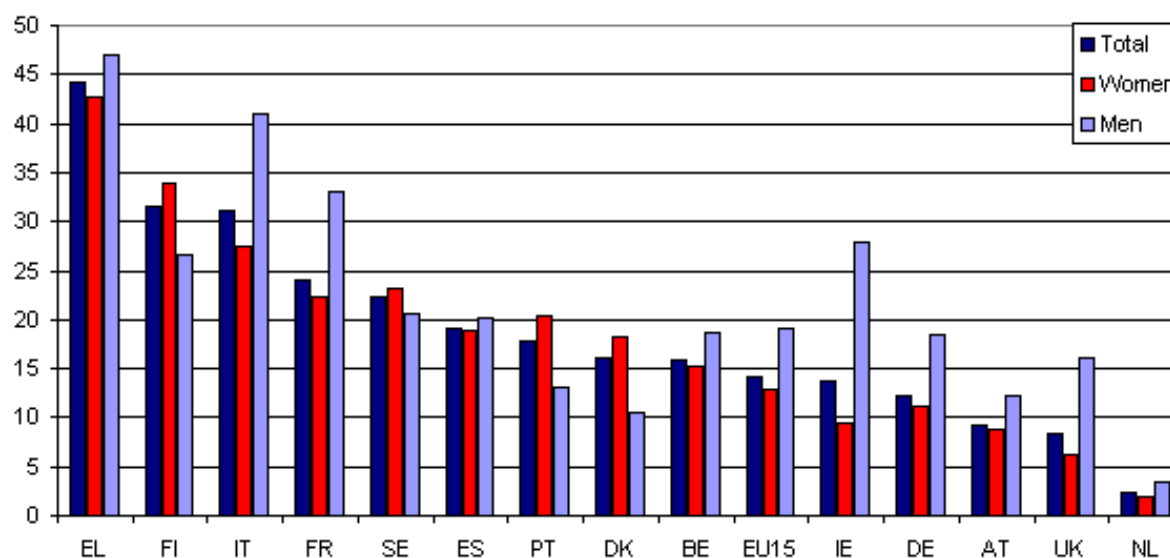
Figure 29 Part-time employment by reason, EU15 (%)



Source: LFS 2002

The gender differences also reflect the share of employees who are involuntarily working part time. Almost 20% of men and 12.8% of women work part time because they could not get a full-time job. Differences by country are significant, ranging from 44.2% in Greece to 2.3% in the Netherlands (Figure 30).

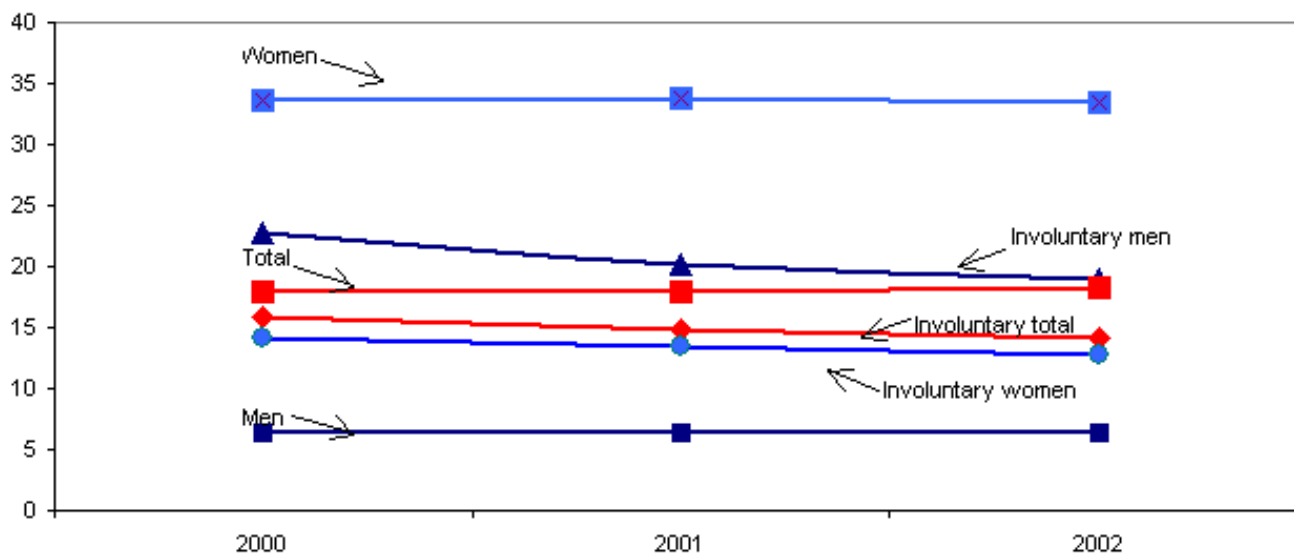
Figure 30 Involuntary part-time employment as % of total part-time employment, 2002, EU15



Source: LFS 2002

Between 2000 and 2002, the share of involuntary part-time work decreased slightly from 15.8% to 14.1% (Figure 31).

Figure 31 Proportions of part-time work and involuntary part-time work, EU15, 2000-2002



Source: Eurostat labour force survey 2001-2003

Anni Weiler, AWWW GmbH ArbeitsWelt - Working World

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Appendix: Methodology

European Labour Force Survey (LFS)

The 2003 LFS was conducted by Eurostat in the 25 Member States of the EU, three EFTA countries and two candidate countries. The LFS is a large household sample survey, providing quarterly results on labour participation of people aged 15 and over, and on people outside the labour market.

Detailed information on the survey method and definitions can be found in the publications: [Methods and definitions of the LFS 2001](#) and [Labour force survey in the acceding countries - Methods and definitions 2002 \(451Kb pdf\)](#) .

The latest available publication is the results of the LFS for the year [2002 \(451Kb pdf\)](#) .

From 2003 on, the LFS provides both quarterly and annual results.

Specific ad-hoc modules are carried out on particular issues:

- work-related health problems in 1999;
- [working overtime \(311Kb pdf\)](#) in 2001.

European Community Household Panel (ECHP)

The [European Community Household Panel \(ECHP\)](#) is an annual survey of representative panel households and individuals, carried out by Eurostat. It is based on a standardised questionnaire, covering a wide range of topics: income, health, education, housing, demographic and employment characteristics, etc.

It was initiated in 1994 in the then 12 Member States. The first survey covered 60,500 nationally represented households, i.e. approximately 130,000 adults, aged 16 years and over.

Key features of the ECHP are:

- multidimensional and simultaneous coverage of a range of topics;
- standardised methodology and procedures across the countries;
- longitudinal or panel design in which information on the same set of households and persons is gathered, to study changes over time at a micro level.

European Working Conditions Surveys (EWCS)

The [European Working Conditions Surveys \(EWCS\)](#) are carried out by the [European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions](#) .

[Surveys](#) were carried out in 1990/1, 1995/6 and 2000. In 2001/2, a survey was conducted in the then acceding and candidate countries. The next survey will take place in 2005.

For the [third survey](#) (2000), 21,703 workers (1,500 in each Member State, except Luxembourg: 527) were interviewed in face-to-face interviews, conducted outside the workplace.

A representative sample of the total active population was sought, i.e. persons who were, at the time of interview, either employees or self-employed workers. The target group was 'persons in employment', as defined by the Eurostat Labour Force Survey.

The [survey](#) on [working conditions in the acceding and candidate countries](#) is similar, in terms of method and content, to the third European Working conditions survey, conducted in the EU15 in 2000.

Continuing Vocational Training Survey (CVTS2)

The Eurostat [Continuing Vocational Training Survey \(CVTS2\) - 1.4Mb pdf](#) focuses on collecting information on continuing vocational training in enterprises. The survey was conducted in 1999 in the EU15, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Poland (Pomorskie region only), Romania and Slovenia.

The survey covered enterprises with 10 or more employees in the [NACE sectors C-K and O](#) .

Course participants: Each person participating in one or more CVT courses during 1999 is counted only once.

Hours spent on CVT courses: The total number of hours of CVT relates to the total paid working time that all participants spent in CVT courses during 1999.

European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW)

The European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW) are based on administrative data, collected by Eurostat each year since 1994 (after a pilot data collection in 1993). The data are based on the declarations of accidents at work, either to public (social security) or private insurance or to the Labour Inspectorate, according to Member State schemes. The most recent available ESAW data refer to 1999 for final data, and to 2000 for a few aggregated estimates.

The ESAW methodology is in accordance with the International Labour Organisation resolution of 1998 concerning 'Statistics of occupational injuries: resulting from occupational accidents'.

For more detail, see: [Accidents at work and work-related health problems, Data 1994-2000 \(2.7Mb pdf\)](#) and [European Statistics on Accidents at Work \(ESAW\) - Methodology - 2001 edition](#) .

For details on the Eurostat, Structural indicators on accidents at work, see: [Accidents at work](#) .

Ad hoc module on accidents at work and work-related health problems, LFS 1999

An ad hoc module on accidents at work and work-related health problems was inserted in the 1999 Labour Force

Survey (LFS), to provide a complementary data source to the ESAW.

For accidental injuries at work, the 1999 ad hoc module covers the same general concept of accidents at work, or in the course of work, as the ESAW data, with two exceptions:

- the reference period of the ad hoc module covers accidental injuries that occurred during the last 12 months, from the date of the interview, while ESAW covers accidents reported during a calendar year;
- the ad hoc module covers all accidents at work, whatever their severity, including those that did not lead to absence from work or that resulted in fewer than four days' absence; ESAW covers only accidents with more than three days' absence from work. ESAW also covers fatal accidents at work, which are not included in the data from the 1999 ad hoc module.

For work-related health problems, the ad hoc module covers all diseases, disabilities and other physical or psychological health problems, apart from accidental injuries, suffered by persons during the past 12 months, which were caused or made worse by work. This broad concept covers much more than the occupational diseases recognised by the national insurance systems. The three main differences from the medico-legal concept of occupational diseases are:

- the concept of work-related health problems in the ad hoc module is based on a self-assessment by survey respondents of their work-related state of health;
- it includes all complaints, irrespective of their severity;
- it also includes health problems considered by the victim as only partly due to their current or past work activities.

The ad hoc module refers to health problems suffered during the year, while the European occupational diseases statistics (EODS) generally refer to the year of recognition by the national insurance scheme.

For more information see: [Accidents at work and work-related health problems, Data 1994-2000 \(2.7Mb pdf\)](#) .

General Population Survey (GPS)

The survey was conducted in April-May 2002 (interviews were carried out between 4 April and 18 May) in the EU15, and in Switzerland and the US, using computer-aided telephone interviews. The survey was coordinated and executed by INRA Deutschland GmbH, Mölln. The population included all persons aged 15 and over, living in private households in the respective countries, and speaking the respective national language(s). Some 11,832 interviews were successfully completed. The average interview length per country varied between 10 minutes (Greece) and 20 minutes (Sweden).

The survey was conducted in January 2003 (interviews were carried out between 1 January and 31 January) in the 10 newly associated states, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia, using personal-aided personal interviews (PAPI). The survey was coordinated and executed by NFO AISA Prague, the Czech Republic. The population for this study included all persons aged 15 and over, living in private households in the respective countries, and speaking the respective national language(s). Some 10,379 interviews were successfully completed. The average interview length per country varied between 20 minutes (Romania) and 40 minutes (Lithuania).

For more details on the methodology see: <http://www.empirica.biz/sibis/statistics/methodology.htm> ,

http://www.empirica.biz/sibis/files/SIBIS_GPS_BasicData_Survey.pdf (1.4Mb) , and information on the [Questionnaires \(231Kb pdf\)](#) .

Adaptability of work arrangements index (AWAI)

For the AWAI index, SIBIS distinguishes between worker-centred and company-centred flexibility. For each of these sub-indices, a number of key indicators were identified. The selection of component indicators was not derived using statistical methods, but through consensus-building, involving experts and policymakers at EU and

national level, taking the SIBIS model of changes in work relationships as a starting point. Data sources are the SIBIS surveys plus the Community Labour Force Survey, the European Working Conditions Survey, the European Continuing Vocational Training Survey and the OECD. For more information, see www.sibis-eu.org.

European Occupational Diseases Statistics (EODS)

The EODS is not survey-based. Instead, it collects statistical data on recognised occupational diseases. Data were provided by 12 Member States (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Italy, Luxembourg, Finland, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and the UK) on incident, non-fatal cases. Six countries submitted data on fatal occupational diseases (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Italy and Luxembourg). The data were collected in 2001 for the first time, under the new annual European Occupational Diseases Statistics, which is currently being implemented in the new Member States. The data include only those 68 occupational disease items that are covered by all national systems.

An occupational disease was defined as a case that was recognised by the national compensation or other competent authorities. Only incident cases were included, i.e. cases that were recognised for the first time during the reference period. As regards fatal occupational diseases, all cases were included, where the death occurred during 2001.

For further information, see: [Statistics in focus 15/2004 \(321Kb pdf\)](#).

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