



European Working Conditions Survey Seminar

Quality of work and employment in Europe: Women or men – does it matter?

Background paper



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2007 – European Year of Equal Opportunities for All

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Introduction

The discussion on gender and work in this paper is primarily centred on the Foundation's analytical framework of quality of work and employment (European Foundation, 2002). This framework encompasses four key dimensions: career and employment security; health and well-being of workers; developing skills; and work–life balance. According to this framework, and indeed in all of the Foundation's activities, gender issues are integrated and mainstreamed at all stages and levels.

Casting the spotlight on the gender dimension in the workplace inevitably leads to an exploration of the different gendered elements of the experience of work in Europe. With this aim in mind, this paper will draw from the findings of the report *Gender and working conditions in the European Union* (Burchell et al, 2007). In turn, this report is based on secondary analysis of the data from the Foundation's fourth *European Working Conditions Survey*, as well as on recently published research from the Eurofound's observatories – the European Working Conditions Observatory (EWCO) and the European Industrial Relations Observatory (EIRO).

The EWCO comparative study *Gender mainstreaming in surveys* (Nicot and Houtman, 2006) is a good starting point for discussing gender, as it highlights why the gender perspective should be embedded in research and policy making rather than treated as a separate issue. The claim is that gender is a social construct encompassing cultural and social practices; the tendency to distinguish – often rather stereotypically – characteristics of men and women has 'resulted in the implicit assimilation of the male characteristic as the normality, as a form of "neutral gender"' (Nicot and Houtman, 2006, p. 3). To avoid the bias of any 'gender neutral' approach that addresses workplace issues from the angle of the implicitly standard male worker, it is argued that gender should be streamlined in the decision-making process in all areas. Over the last decade, gender mainstreaming has also been increasingly a prerequisite when carrying out research on working conditions. It is observed that the gender sensitive issues that have received greater attention in working conditions surveys in recent years are gender discrimination and harassment, specific working conditions (i.e. emotional demands, customer contact, physical risks, autonomy at work), work–life balance, working time, the gender pay gap, and gender equality at the workplace.

From a legislative perspective, gender mainstreaming has been a focal point of EU policymaking since the 1996 Communication from the European Commission on *Incorporating equal opportunities for women and men into all Community policies and activities* (COM (96) 67 final). Gender mainstreaming has also been taken on board in the Community framework strategy on gender equality 2001–2005 (Broughton, 2000). Finally, it became a binding element in subsequent EU directives on equal opportunities (Directive 2002/73/EC; Directive 2006/54/EC) and has been mainstreamed in relevant EU legislation and policies. The gender mainstreaming concept is also evoked in the new Article 3(2) of the Treaty of Amsterdam, which states 'In all the activities referred to in this Article, the Community shall aim to eliminate inequalities and to promote equality, between women and men'.¹

¹ European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, *European industrial relations dictionary* (online), 2007 update, available at <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/areas/industrialrelations/dictionary/definitions/GENDERMAINSTREAMING.htm>

Gender equality in the workplace

Always a key priority of the EU, gender equality in the workplace has attracted increased attention in recent years. Since 2004, the Commission has reported annually on developments leading towards greater gender equality. In 2006, the Commission adopted the communication *A roadmap for equality between women and men 2006–2010* (European Commission, 2006) and amended the proposal for a directive on the implementation of the principle of equal treatment of men and women in matters of employment and occupation (European Commission 2006), which incorporates seven existing directives relating to equal opportunities and gender equality (Giaccone, 2007).

At the 2006 Brussels summit, the Council of the European Union approved the European Pact for Gender Equality in order to foster a range of interventions at EU and Member State level – in terms of gender gaps, gender stereotypes, work–life balance and gender mainstreaming. In the same year, the European Parliament and the Council approved the regulation establishing the European Institute for Gender Equality; this institute will support EU institutions and Member States in promoting equality between women and men and in combating sex discrimination.² The new Institute is due to be in operation by early 2008. In addition, 2007 was officially designated the European Year of Equal Opportunities for All (McKay, 2006).

In spite of these efforts, the Foundation's *Annual review of working conditions 2005–2006* (Giaccone, 2007) suggests that, in relation to the Lisbon Strategy, gender equality is more of a challenge to be achieved than an already existing reality. The gender pay gap remains stable, women work part time far more often than men do, the female employment rate is below the Lisbon target of 60%, and sectoral and occupational segregation is still the norm in the European labour market.

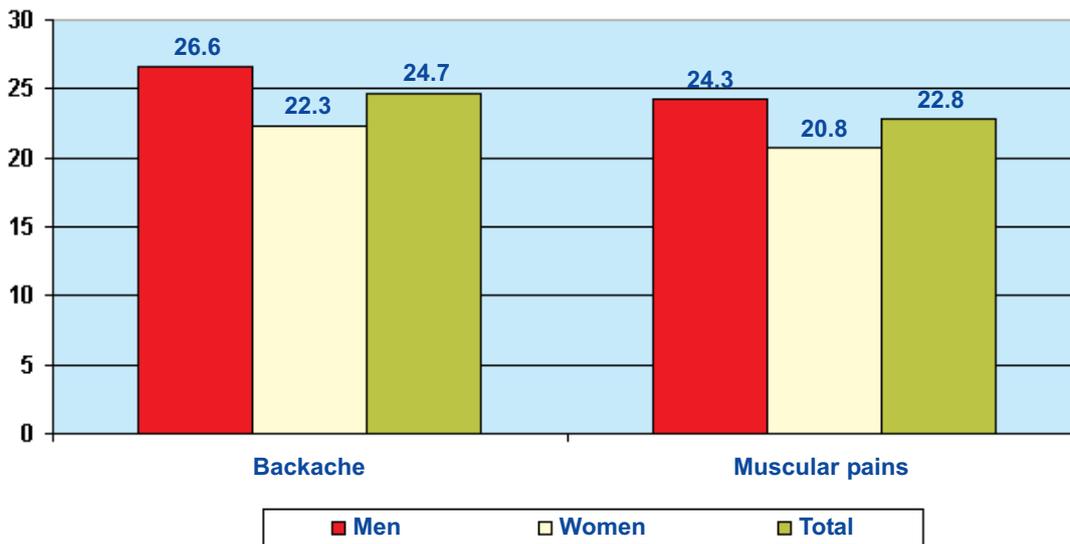
Looking at research on gender equality, a 2004 EIRO comparative study entitled *Gender equality plans at the workplace* (Colclough, 2004) highlighted that gender equality is rarely addressed in collective bargaining above the company level. The study also found that in most countries, most of the implemented gender equality plans are the result of national legislation. In this respect, it is important to note that workplace equality plans are applied only sporadically in the private sector; they are generally more prevalent in the public sector. However, the study does note that, even when they are in place, gender equality plans exist more in paper than in practice.

Gender, work and health

Secondary analysis of the fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* shows that women are less exposed than men to ambient and physical risks (Burchell et al, 2007). However, the gender gap is reversed for certain ergonomic risks such as exposure to repetitive hand and arm movements as well as lifting and moving people. This finding partly reflects persistent gender segregation across sectors and occupations, with women concentrated in the health and education sectors, in service and sales, and in clerical occupations. Gender differences in the self-reported impact of work on health become particularly apparent when occupations are compared. Women in blue-collar craft and professional occupations, and men in labouring and clerical occupations, report a greater impact of work upon their health. In terms of reported ill-health symptoms, musculoskeletal disorders are the most widespread health outcome and are the more likely to be reported by men. This finding is partly confirmed by the Foundation's report *Managing musculoskeletal disorders*, which indicates the presence of a gender gap that ranges between 3.5% (for muscular pain) and 4.3% (for backache) (Giaccone, 2007b).

² (Regulation (EC) No 1922/2006)

Figure 1: Incidence of backache and muscular pains, by gender, EU27 (%)



Source: Giaccone, 2007b

However, when the information from national sources is reviewed a more mixed picture emerges. According to the report, in seven countries – Bulgaria, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovakia and Sweden – higher rates of musculoskeletal disorders emerge for women, either through surveys or official sources of information. By contrast, men report higher rates of musculoskeletal disorders in the Czech Republic. In some other countries, national sources either indicate a different prevalence by gender when different sectors are examined, or illustrate different patterns when different parts of the body or diseases are considered.

As an alternative to taking the country as the main background variable, it is interesting to adopt a different perspective and look at the health impacts of work on male and female workers in terms of the form of work organisation to which they are subjected. This was an approach described in the report – *Work organisation and health at work in the European Union* – of a secondary analysis of the third *European Working Conditions Survey*. In the analysis, four types of work were identified: constrained, flexible, autonomous and automated. More or less systematically, it was found that ‘flexible’ female workers were exposed to greater physical and psychosocial risk and reported higher levels of stress, fatigue and sleeping problems as a consequence of their work. For men, the most at-risk group were those engaged in ‘automated’ work (Daubas-Letourneux et al, 2002).

The issue of increasing incidence of musculoskeletal disorders has been also highlighted in a more comprehensive study from the Foundation, *Quality of work and employment in Europe* (European Foundation, 2007). Based on feedback from the EWCO national correspondents, the research argues that the work environment is increasingly characterised by ‘more complex and potentially stressful relations with others, and a general increase in work intensity’. It is suggested that some countries are lagging behind in addressing these emerging issues; this is especially so in many New Member States, where the main policy concern is compliance with EU regulations and directives, while higher-than average exposure to traditional physical risks persists. It is important to note that some ‘old’ Member States, notably the Mediterranean countries, appear not to adequately address new kinds of occupational hazards in their national health and safety legislation.

Foundation research has noted an upward trend in the incidence of psychological health problems and in levels of exposure to violence. This becomes apparent from an analysis of time trends in the different waves of the *European Working Conditions Survey*, although changes in the phrasing of some questions about exposure to violence and

harassment have made comparisons between the 1995 and 2005 phases rather difficult. According to the fourth *European Working Conditions Survey*, in 2005, some 5% of European workers said they had experienced physical violence at work in the previous 12 months, as against 4% in 1995 and 2000. This upward trend is also confirmed by national statistics, reported in articles from EWCO. It is also argued that women, especially young women, are more exposed than men to harassment and violence: data from the EWCO survey data reports indicate that 11.4% women are exposed to different forms of physical and psychological violence at work, as against 8.5% of their male counterparts.³ It may be the case that levels of reported violence at work represent only a small fraction of its actual occurrence; the survey results may rely on the willingness of respondents to disclose the problem and identify themselves as a victim. Previous Foundation research emphasised the importance of cultural influences and entrenched stereotypes concerning the roles of men and women in society, and the impact of these on reported levels of violence and harassment (Di Martino et al, 2003). Although the phenomenon needs to be explored further, the problem of increasing exposure to psychological violence is recognised in recent policy developments both at an EU level – for example, the April 2007 autonomous agreement of the European social partners on harassment and violence at work (McKay, 2007) – and at the level of individual countries (Hurley and Riso, 2007).

In general, negative health outcomes are associated with higher levels of workplace absenteeism. The fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* indicates that, on average, European workers took 4.6 days off for health reasons over the 12 months prior to the survey, with slightly more women doing so than men (24% as against 22%). Secondary analysis of the survey data provides a more complete picture, and points to considerable variations across occupations and by gender. Women who work full time in professions and in craft and related manual work report the highest number of days of sick leave (6.2 and 6.7 respectively). Although part-time workers take fewer health-related leave days, this pattern does not hold for women working part time in clerical and service jobs (5.6 days), nor for men in professional and blue-collar craft work (3.9 and 5.8 days respectively). It is also interesting to note that workers who report being exposed to psychosocial risks, notably bullying and harassment, are much more likely to take longer periods of absence from work.

Of course, differences between the genders also stem from the institutional structures for reporting and recording work-related ill health. Independent research based on national statistics on occupational diseases from Denmark, Belgium, Italy, the UK and Sweden (Vogel, 2003) came to the interesting conclusion that although the level of occupational ill-health that is reported is often lower for women than men, the percentage of occupational disease claims that are rejected is generally higher for women than men.

Gender pay gap and career paths

Despite the increased attention given to the concept of equal opportunities at the workplace, there continues to be a divide between the jobs taken up by men and women. The fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* confirms that men and women continue to work in different sectors and occupations; only 20% of Europeans work in mixed-gender jobs (where not less than 40% of the workforce is male and not less of 40% of the workforce is female). The most notable consequence of that segregation is a pay gap, with women's pay being on average 15% lower than men's. The problem of the gender pay gap has been recognised by the social partners and governments and is also a priority on the European social agenda (Trinczek, 2007).

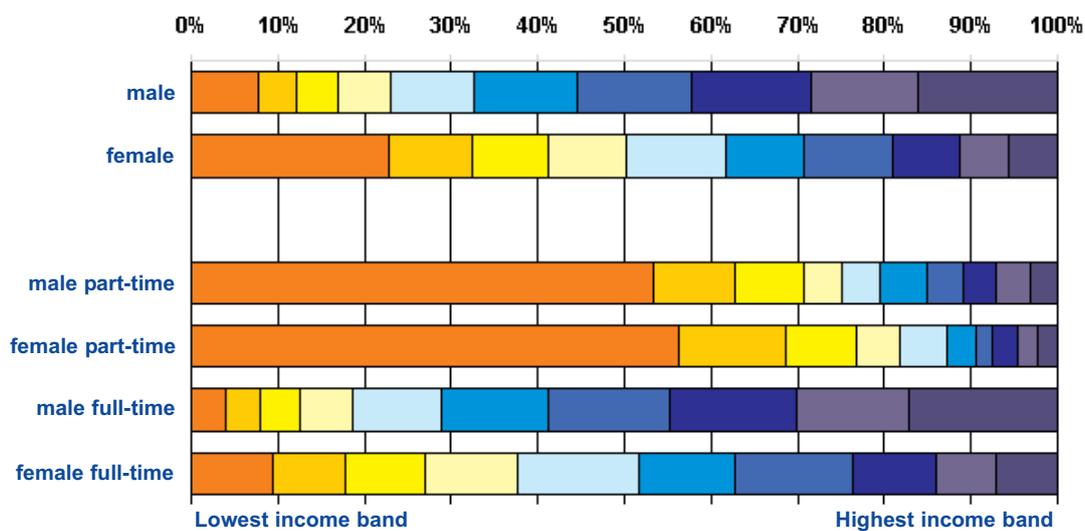
According to the Foundation report *Pay Developments – 2006* (Carley, 2007), the EU27 average for the gender hourly-wage gap is 16.2%. However, the gender wage gap varies considerably between the EU15 and the new Member States, and between individual Member States. In the 12 new Member States the gender wage gap, at 17.5%, is 2.2 percentage

³ Available online at <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/surveys/surveyreports.htm>

points higher than the EU15 average of 15.3%. Country differences are also important, with the hourly-wage gap ranging from 28.4% in Slovakia to 5.2% in Italy; other countries in which the gender wage gap is relatively narrow are Denmark, France, Greece, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and Spain. By contrast, the gap remains comparatively wide in Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, the Netherlands and Portugal.

The fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* points to another type of gender pay gap: differing positions of men and women in the income distribution. The disparities are immediately apparent with women being overrepresented in the lowest income band. Furthermore, when they work part time, women are comparatively less well paid than their male counterparts.

Figure 2: Gender differences in earnings (%)



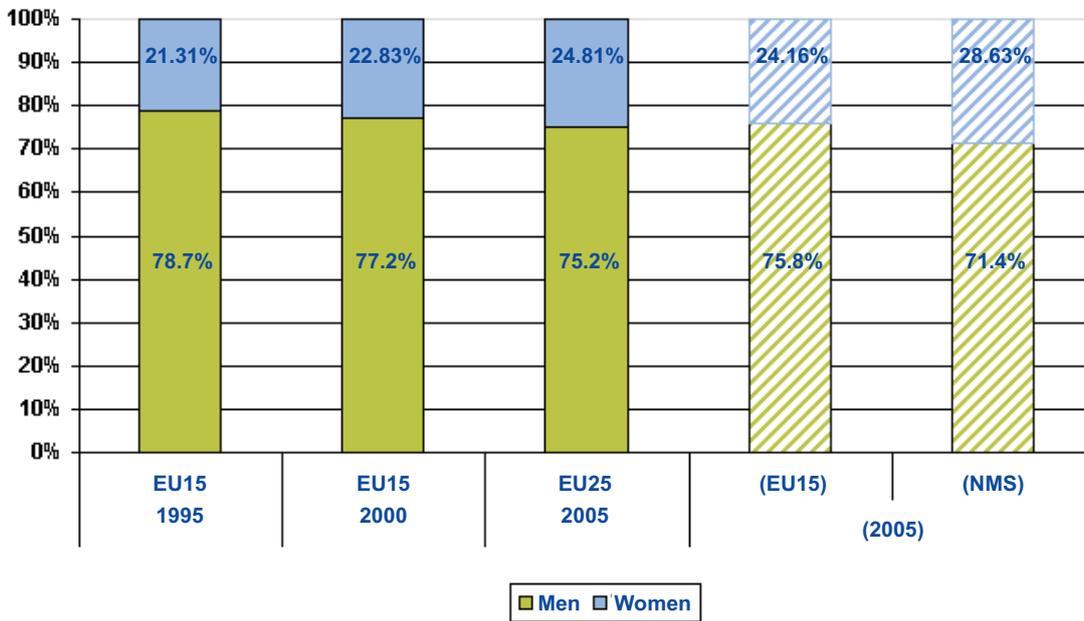
Source: Parent-Thirion et al, 2007

Secondary analysis of the fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* provides supplementary insights into the unequal distribution of income between men and women. It shows that male full-time workers are the most likely to receive compensation for poor working conditions or bonuses for work performance; however, on a more positive note, no gender differences are found for overtime payments (Burchell et al, 2007).

Based on data from the European Labour Force Survey and the European Community Household Panel, an as-yet unpublished Foundation study, *Recent changes in the jobs structure of the EU*, indicates that female jobs rank higher in terms of education than wage in nearly all countries (Stehrer et al, forthcoming). The opposite is the case for men. The researchers argue that the different ranking of female and male jobs has significant implications in terms of the gender wage gap. The underlying argument is not that women are necessarily employed in lower paid and less qualified jobs, but that women are paid less than men for doing the same job.

Women’s lower pay levels are linked to their underrepresentation in the higher paid jobs – a phenomenon commonly known as the ‘glass ceiling’. National sources brought together in a recent EIRO study, *Gender and career development*, suggest that women are still underrepresented in senior positions in European workplaces (Newell, 2006), while top positions – whether management, academic or scientific – are predominantly filled by men. However, as shown in the fourth *European Working Conditions Survey*, this situation seems to be slowly changing, with growing numbers of women in supervisory or managerial positions in most European countries.

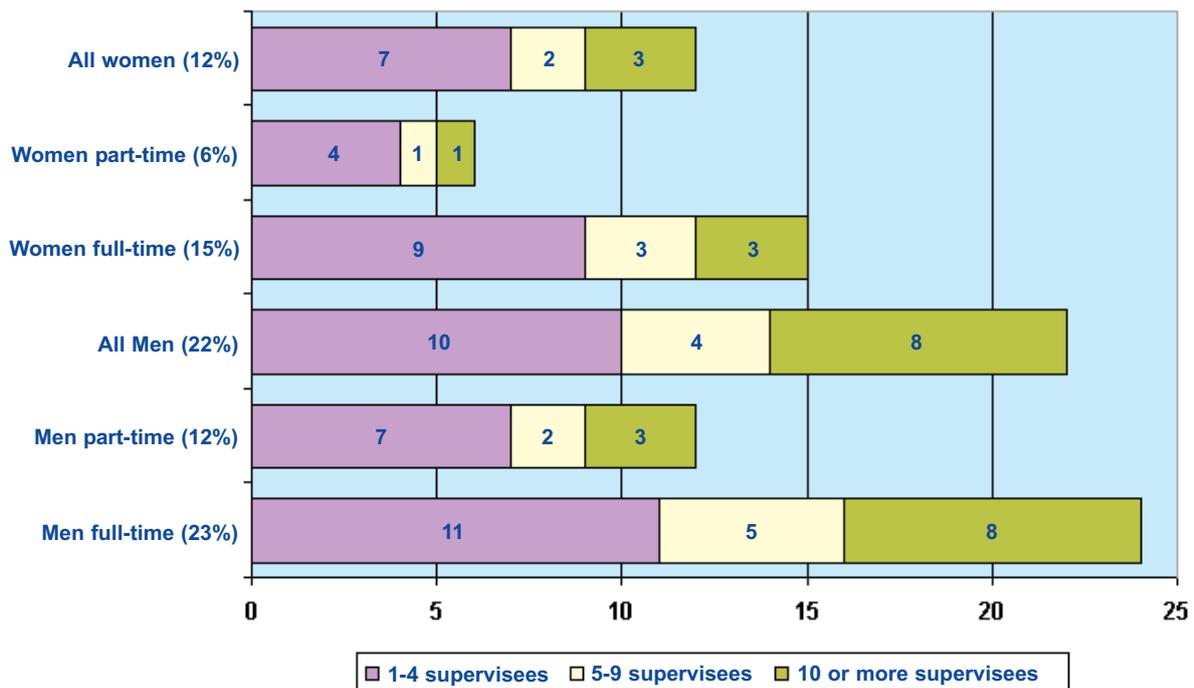
Figure 3: Workers reporting that their immediate boss is a woman, trends over time (%)



Source: Parent-Thirion et al, 2007

Secondary analysis of the survey data provides a more nuanced picture pointing to gender differences in management and supervision in the workplace: men working full time more likely to be supervising 10 or more subordinates than are women who work full time. Working part time makes it less likely that an employee will supervise other employees; nonetheless, for a man, working part time still offers more opportunities in terms of management and supervision responsibilities than it does for a woman.

Figure 4: Gender differences in supervision responsibilities, EU27



Source: Burchell et al, 2007

Furthermore, a very small proportion of men (9%) is managed or supervised by a woman; the percentage jumps to 20% among men working part time. Instead, women are more likely to manage other women: 40% of women working full time and 47% of women working part time have a woman as a manager. Moreover, female managers and supervisors tend to occupy lower positions in the organisational hierarchy, as shown by the number of employees for whom they have supervisory responsibilities.

As pointed out in *Gender and career development*, the high concentration of women in low-qualified and low-paid jobs – not necessarily reflecting a lack of education or skills – has significant consequences in terms of gender equality in careers (Newell, 2006). Another key factor limiting career opportunities for women is that part-time work is often associated with less training, fewer development opportunities and reduced income. All these factors contribute to women's remaining at the bottom of the occupational and organisational hierarchy.

Other evidence from recent EWCO research suggests that, although gender segregation is still prevalent in the labour market, innovative company practices do exist, which demonstrate that gender equality is an attainable target. For example, a comprehensive approach to fostering equal opportunities between men and women is exemplified in a new collective agreement recently concluded by the French branch of the bank Société Générale (Tessier, 2006). The bank's collective agreement includes measures to neutralise the negative effects of parental and maternity leave on women's careers and wages; it also includes qualitative and non-discriminatory provisions in recruitment procedures and awareness-raising initiatives. The case of Société Générale also indicates that social dialogue is of crucial importance in the formulation and development of equal opportunities policies.

Specific working conditions

The secondary analysis of the fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* described in *Gender and working conditions in the European Union* (Burchell et al, 2007), has investigated some of the initial claims resulting from the preliminary results of the survey. For example, the survey originally found that women use computers, and the internet, slightly more at work than do men. However, secondary analysis has demonstrated that the picture is much more mixed when the use of information and communication technologies is viewed in terms of gender and occupation: it appears that male professionals and blue-collar operators show higher levels of use of computer and the internet than their female counterparts.

The fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* found that men are slightly more likely to telework from home with a computer than are women.⁴ Secondary analysis of the survey data provides further insight into gender differences with regard to telework, showing that the gender gap widens when the distribution of teleworkers is investigated in terms of occupation: more men telework for at least 25% of the time in all occupations than do women. This suggests that although telework is often regarded as a family-friendly measure that can help women balance their working life and family responsibilities, it is rarely an option for women in practice.

⁴ It is important to point out that, overall, telework remains marginal: fewer than 2% of workers telework full time while 4% do occasional telework (between one quarter and three quarters of the time).

Another interesting finding emerging from the secondary analysis of the survey data is that women are more likely to spend at least half of their time dealing with non-colleagues. This finding partly reflects the sectoral composition of male and female work. Many of the sectors in which women are overrepresented – health, education, the public sector and clerical occupations – are characterised by greater interactions with customers, clients and other non-colleagues. Greater interaction with people other than colleagues is also associated with emotionally demanding work: perhaps unsurprisingly, more women than men find that their work imposes emotional demands. The opposite is true in terms of the intellectual demands of work: more men report that their job includes the intellectual activities of learning and problem-solving. In the same vein, two thirds of men report that their work involves complex tasks, as against just over half of all working women. This particular gender gap may be the result of a larger proportion of women working part-time: part-time work is commonly associated with more monotonous and less intellectually demanding work.

As a final point, gender differences emerge between men and women with regard to the degree of autonomy they can exercise over their work – autonomy to choose methods, to determine pace and order of tasks, and to take breaks when they decide. Secondary analysis of the survey data reveals that, overall, men in white-collar managerial and professional occupations enjoy more autonomy than their female counterparts. However, a reversed gender pattern can be observed in blue-collar occupations, with more women than men reporting higher levels of autonomy.

Table 1: *Task autonomy over method, pace, order of tasks and taking of breaks (%)*

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

Source: *Burchell et al, 2007*

Working time and work–life balance

When looking at paid working hours, the fourth *European Working Conditions Survey* reveals that, on average, women worker shorter hours than men in the labour market. While there are more women than men engaged in part-time work, men are overrepresented in terms of working long hours. This gender pattern is apparent in all countries.

Table 2: Mean weekly working hours and the gender gap, by country (%)

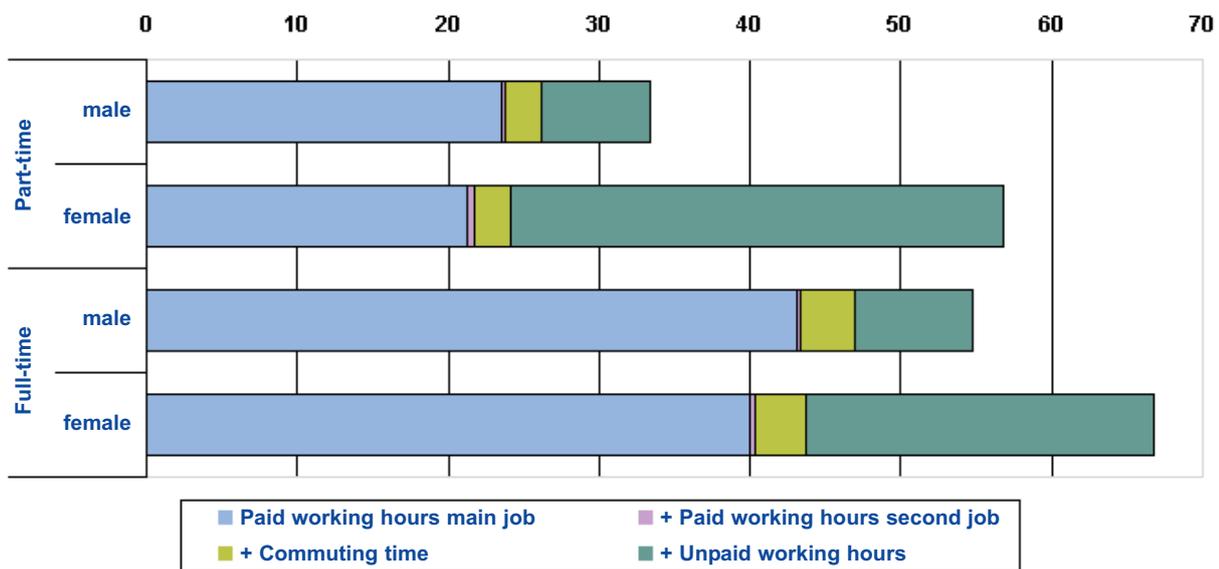
	Men	Women	Gender gap
Netherlands	38	26	-12
Ireland	43	31	-12
United Kingdom	40	29	-11
Greece	49	40	-9
Belgium	41	33	-8
Italy	42	34	-8
Luxembourg	41	34	-8
Malta	43	35	-8
Germany	41	34	-7
EU27	42	35	-7
Austria	43	36	-7
Sweden	41	35	-6
Spain	43	37	-6
Hungary	45	39	-6
Denmark	39	33	-6
Poland	47	41	-6
Czech Republic	44	39	-5
Finland	40	35	-5
Slovakia	45	41	-4
Lithuania	43	38	-4
France	37	33	-4
Romania	48	44	-4
Estonia	42	38	-3
Latvia	43	40	-3
Cyprus	41	38	-3
Portugal	43	41	-2
Slovenia	43	40	-2
Bulgaria	45	43	-2

Source: Burchell et al, 2007

It is often argued that one of the major developments in the labour market over the last decade has been the increasing participation of women. This has led to significant changes in the household distribution of work, with dual-earner and ‘one and a half’ earner households increasingly prevalent. However, one of the implicit bargains behind this transformation – that men would assume a greater share of domestic, unpaid responsibilities to counterbalance increased

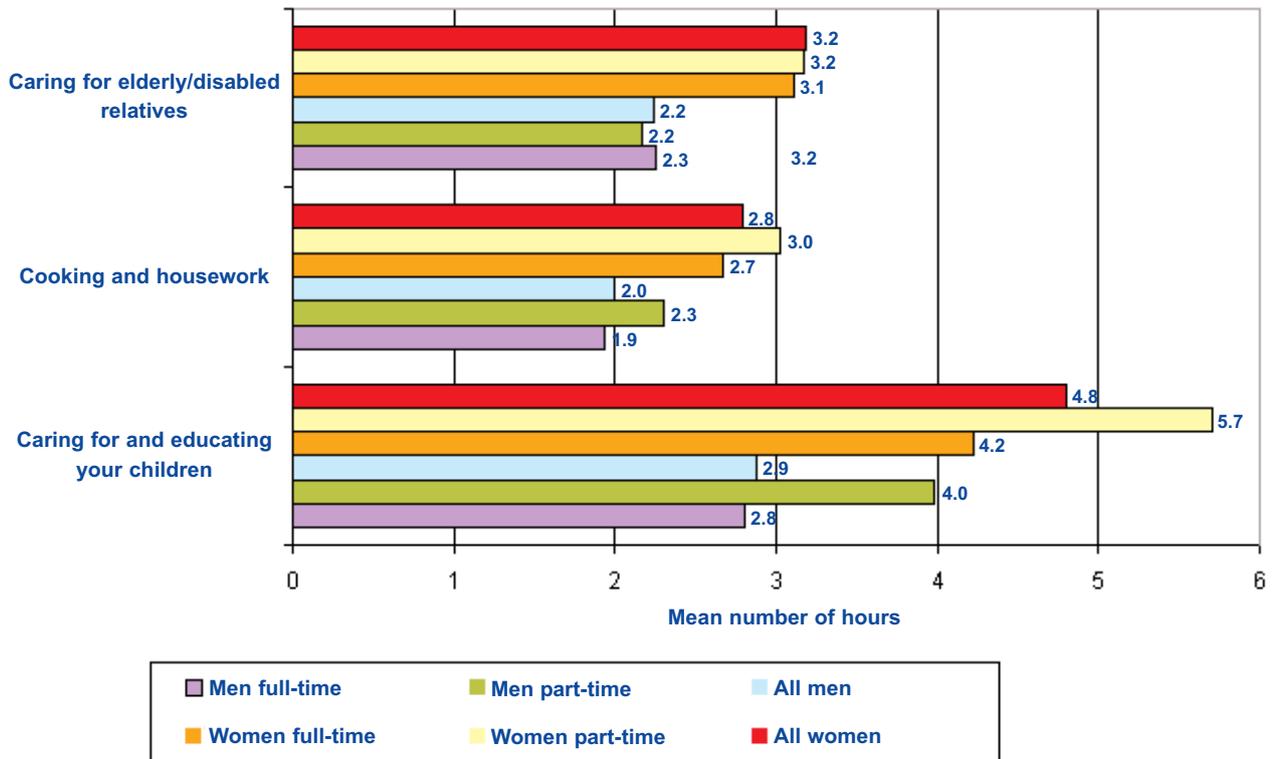
female involvement in paid work – has yet to materialise. Survey data demonstrate that there is a persistent 3:1 ratio in the amount of time that working women spend on caring and housework compared with working men. In the analysis of data from the fourth *Working Conditions Survey*, a composite working-hours indicator was developed by summing the time spent in paid employment, in commuting and in doing unpaid domestic and care work. This indicator makes it possible to explore working time in a more comprehensive way and gain a better insight into its different components. For example, it emerges that when both paid and unpaid work is taken into consideration, women working part time work longer hours overall than do men who work full time (Figure 5). The unequal gender division of unpaid domestic work is more clearly illustrated in Figure 6. Women working part time use a significant proportion of the time they ‘save’ by not working full-time to perform unpaid domestic and care work; they do this to a much greater extent than both male and female full-time workers, and male part-time workers.

Figure 5: Composite weekly working hours by gender and full-time/part-time status, EU27 (%)



Source: Parent-Thirion et al, 2007

Figure 6: Participation in care/domestic activities

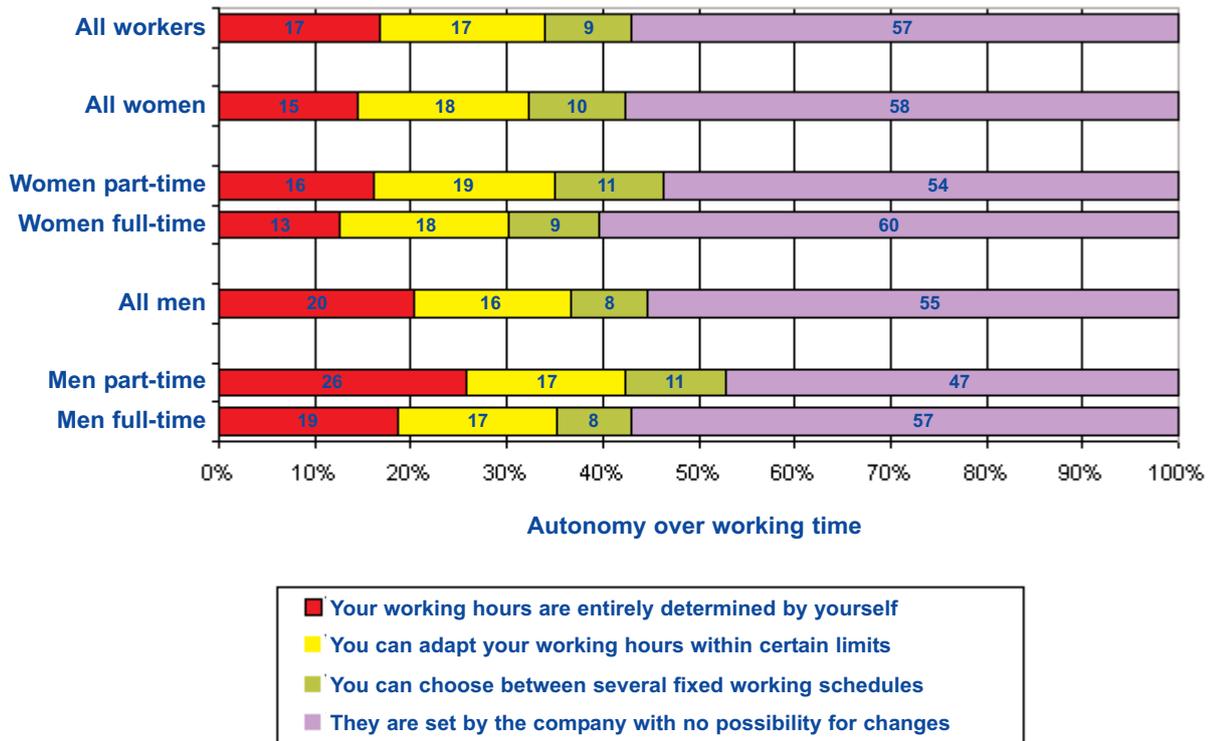


Note: Figures are the mean number of hours per day for all those who report performing care or domestic activities every day.
 Source: Burchell et al, 2007

Therefore, while part-time work is often regarded as an employment option for reconciling work and family obligations, in practice it fails to do so. As suggested by the authors of the EWCO comparative report *Combining family and full-time work* (Parnanen et al, 2005), part-time jobs also tend to be low-skilled and a source of reduced income. The report concludes that part-time work per se should not be regarded automatically as a flexible working time arrangement that contributes to a better work–life balance. In addition, national sources from the Czech Republic, Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal and Sweden seem to suggest that men tend to have more positive flexibility – that is, the possibility of adapting the working schedule to suit their own needs – than do women. However, the report argues that men do not necessarily use their increased flexibility to share the burden of household activities.

Secondary analysis of the *fourth European Working Conditions Survey* sheds further light on the organisation of working hours by gender. It highlights the fact that women are more likely to have a regular and predictable working schedule; however, men – especially part-time workers – are more likely to be able to determine their working hours.

Figure 7: Working time autonomy by gender and full-time/part-time status, EU27 (%)



Source: Burchell, 2007

It can be concluded that work–life balance is a growing challenge for individuals – in particular, working parents – and is not sufficiently addressed in policymaking at national level. Only in the Nordic countries is a gender-sensitive work–life balance (particularly for families with children) a clear objective of friendly-family policies. In some other countries – Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and the UK – work–life balance has become a serious issue; however, solutions are not necessarily keeping pace with the problem. Finally, in the rest of the Member States (including most of the new Member States in eastern Europe), traditional gender divisions persist and flexible family-friendly policies are underdeveloped (Morley, 2007). At European level, European social partners have made significant progress on work–life balance issues through drawing up framework agreements and through the framework of actions on gender equality: however, more remains to be done. The Commission suggests that ‘those Member States with far-reaching policies, which have resulted in both higher female employment rates and birth rates in those countries, should lead the way towards improved reconciliation between professional, private and family life across Europe’ (Weiler, 2007).

Conclusions

- An increasing proportion of the overall workforce is female (45% in 2007); however, a number of gender gaps – in pay, employment rate and working time – persist in the European labour market.
- The labour market is highly gender segregated, with certain sectors overwhelmingly male (manufacturing, construction) and others predominantly female (health, education).
- Women's work tends to be more emotionally demanding than that of men and often involves a high level of interaction with non-colleagues. Women are also more exposed to psychological violence (harassment, sexual harassment) in the workplace than are men.
- While the proportion of European workers reporting that their immediate boss is a woman has risen in recent years, 75% of workers still have a male boss. Where women are bosses, they tend to be the bosses of other women.
- If both paid work and unpaid domestic work are taken together, working women have significantly longer working weeks than working men. Despite the increase in female labour market participation, working women continue to devote three times as much time to household and caring responsibilities as their male partners.

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(Note: all URLs accessed 4 December 2007)

Annex: Articles on gender and work from the Foundations observatories in 2007

The table below is not an exhaustive list covering all Europe countries under consideration, but it aims to give an indication of the extent to which gender issues are debated and investigated at national level. Here the focus is on country information updates published in 2007 (the European Year of Equal Opportunities for All) from the European Working Conditions Observatory (EWCO) and the European Industrial Relations Observatory (EIRO). The titles in darker shades of grey refer to EIRO articles, while those in lighter shades of grey refer to EWCO articles.

	Gender equality	Health	Employment conditions and career paths	Working conditions and work organisation	Working time and work–life balance
AT				Work and employment in the creative industries (02/03)	Parliament endorses more flexible childcare benefit scheme (19/11) Trade unions reject call for tax relief on childcare by women in business group (19/02) New government to amend childcare benefit scheme (19/02)
CY			New findings on gender pay gap (24/09)		
			Low participation of women in the labour market (14/05)		
CZ			Gender pay gap shown to be highest in top jobs (29/01)		Provisions available to parents in support of work–life balance (08/03)
DE	Women still underrepresented on works councils (07/05)				
DK	New industry agreement gender equality (22/05) Social partners agreement in manufacturing containing improvements on gender equality (04/01)				
EE			Widening of the gender pay gap (04/04)		Need for greater flexibility in parental benefit system (27/08)
FI	Two thirds of companies have introduced gender equality plan (03/09)				Working time flexibility improves work–life balance of working parents (29/10) Employment rates of women and men with children (05/02)

	Gender equality	Health	Employment conditions and career paths	Working conditions and work organisation	Working time and work–life balance
EL	More progress in gender equality needed (30/07)		Landmark ruling gives men same right to early retirement as women (28/05)	Employment patterns of female migrant workers (13/08)	Study highlights role of father in work and family life (12/03)
	Continuing progress towards gender equality (06/08)				
HU			Women in unfavourable position in labour market (14/05)		
IT	Working towards equal opportunities for women in employment (10/04)		Gender pay gap wider for better educated women (12/02)		Employment trends and maternity rights for women (07/05)
LT	Disparity between awareness of and compliance with gender equality (29/10)				Employer attitudes towards employees with preschool age children (02/07)
LU			Women’s career span shorter by retirement age (09/10) Women underrepresented in company decision-making processes (18/06) Fewer women than men hold senior positions (23/03)		
MT			Barriers to women’s participation in decision-making positions (16/07) Towards gender equality in IT jobs (14/03)		
NL		Women not more exposed than men to work-related physical risks (18 June)	Lack of agreement on proposals to minimise gender pay gap (19/02)		Increasing women’s labour market participation through childcare provision (04/01)
NO			Influence of collective bargaining model on gender wage gap (10/09) Gender pay gap wider in private sector (19/02)		
PL	Proposal to regulate telework aims to ensure equal treatment (19/02)				
RO	Law to provide for equal treatment in occupational social security (13/08)		Concern expressed over gender gap in pension reform (27/04)		Factors behind low take-up of parental leave (04/04)
	National strategy regarding European year of equal opportunities (27/04)		Unpaid work prevalent in agricultural sector (16/04)		

	Gender equality	Health	Employment conditions and career paths	Working conditions and work organisation	Working time and work–life balance
SE			Gender pay gap decreasing but wide variations between sectors (27/08)		Increase in parental benefit has minimal impact on fathers' take-up rate (03/09)
SL			Rise in labour market participation of migrant workers (30 July)		
ES	Gender equality plans to be part of company collective agreements (03/05) Unions propose inclusion of gender equality and wage revision in collective agreements in Valladolid (12/03)		Barriers to promotion for female managers (09/10) Wage disparities between men and women, regions and occupations (19/02) Sustained growth in salary levels over generations (07/05)		Parliamentary report recommends actions to improve work–life balance (06/08)
UK	Gender equality still a long way off (03/09)				

Compiled by Sara Riso