

Development of working time in the EU

Pub.: Thomas Händel / Dr. Axel Troost



*Die Linke-La Gauche - La sinistra -Venstre-
Vasak-H Αριστερά- An Chlé -Vänsterpartiet -
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A esquerda-La izquierda-Leva-Die Linke-La*

The Left

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*»Time is the hem of human development.
A person who has to have no free time
whose whole life, apart from the merely physical
Interruptions of sleep, meals and so on,
through his work for the capitalist
is claimed, is less than a pack animal.
He is a mere machine for the production of foreign wealth,
broken physically and mentally brutalized.
And it shows the whole history of modern industry,
that capital, if not kept in check,
ruthlessly and relentlessly works will
the whole working class bringing it to this
the extreme state of degradation«*

Karl Marx

In the Federal Republic of Germany, the massive pressure towards an extension of working hours has lasted for years. Employers often point out that the extension of the individual weekly working hours would be the only possible means for Germany's economy to remain competitive, which in turn – almost automatically – would lead to more and more secure jobs. However, this debate does not only take place in Germany, but also at the EU level.

Since the 1980s the fronts and conditions for the organisation of working hours have shifted substantially. The implementation of the 35-hour week in the 1980s and 1990s was the successful answer to the growing intensity of work and the weakening of employees by mass unemployment. With respect to this, one of the authors of this study, Steffen Lehndorff, stated in 2002: "The labour market policy of the 1980s was marked by the reduction of working hours and the trade unions' leading role in influencing public opinion. Despite the historic success which was obtained in the metal industry, the extension to the European level could be achieved only rudimentarily." The Capital never accepted this defeat regarding the issue of working time and has been pressing for a revision since then. The fight for working time is the hottest social debate, as in this aspect distribution questions coincide with questions of power. Since the temporary end of this debate which had been going on for decades, employers successfully pressured for a roll-back: Working hours are increasing on a broad front again.

To interpret this as a "failure of trade unions", however, would be too simple. Since the mid-1990s, trade unions have lost significance in the time issue in society, and particularly in companies. This is the expression of the defensive position trade unions got into in the course of the neo-liberal hegemony. The formation of a new market regime under the aegis of a new Capitalism driven by the financial market is crucial for this development.

For about 30 years we have been experiencing an exorbitant increase in private property: Compared with 1980, in 2006 financial assets were already three times as large. The slowing-down of economic growth in the developed Capitalist countries which had been taking place for many years and the "rise" of previous development regions such as South-East Asia led to a spiral of weak economic growth, unemployment and a massive redistribution of income and wealth from bottom to top.

The partly politically forced under-use of the possible scope of distribution at the expense of earned income has weakened private consumption and in this way further slowed economic growth. Under the leadership of capital investors, the growing Capital searches for increasingly profitable investment vehicles. Capital investors demand higher and higher profits and therefore change the conditions for all economic and social processes by exerting increasing competitive pressure and force them to subordinate all traditional social conditions to the principle of the maximisation of profits.

Development of working time in the EU

The balance of power between labour and capital achieved in the post-war period, which means the basis of social welfare, is being increasingly dismantled by the dominating role and the strategies of this financial capitalism. Social security as indispensable civil right was replaced by insecure precarious perspectives. The wealth of the upper classes increases as well as the number of working poor. Individual competition replaces social solidarity.

The still powerful neo-liberal roll-back against the social and democratic progresses of the past 40 years and against the social and political progress achieved after the Second World War was continued in companies.

"The most important task of executives is to create an environment in which employees are passionately determined to succeed in the market. Fear plays an important role in order to develop and maintain this passion. The fear of bankruptcy, the fear of making mistakes and the fear of losing can be strong motivating factors," Andrew S. Grove, manager of Intel wrote in a management bestseller in 1996. The characteristic title: "Only the Paranoid Survive" had a good hearing.

"The absolute orientation toward the customer and to break down the pressure of the financial markets to every individual employee, this is the trick which will decide the survival of enterprises", the chairman of the employers' association "Gesamtmittel" Martin Kannegiesser stated in 2000. The enormous ideological pressure in enterprises ("Not we pay the wages, but the customer" "results liberate" (sic!) - both used by Siemens), "paved the way for the merciless exploitation of the so-called "top performers", while at the same time the "less useful" were sorted out.

Under the primacy of the competition between locations, the issue of working times degenerated to an economic adjusting screw also in social consciousness. The extension of working hours was accepted by the staff - who were often blackmailed - became the "pressure-relief valve" for keeping wage levels, make work cheaper and therefore locations "competitive" at least on a short-term basis. The potential for blackmailing created by mass unemployment and the imminent fall to Hartz IV add to this.

Employees feel the effects a million times over: "The management is not interested at all in the performance of the individual employee any more. They say: 'You have to adjust your workplace yourself to become faster, and if you are not able to do this, well, bad luck! In this case we are not able to maintain the department, the workplace!' The competition we had had with other enterprises earlier was transferred to our department. We achieved that our colleagues still earn the same wages as before, the working conditions, however, have become much harder. Many of these processes have largely lost their drive." a member of the works council from Nuremberg describes the situation.

The "market" appears as an anonymous, objective existence-threatening power, while the management presents itself as "ally" in the fight for the employment battle, and therefore extorts an increasing number of concessions from the employees. While employment security has become the predominant subject, it is difficult for trade unions to counteract.

However, the growing resistance in companies against the extension of working hours and the so-called "trust-based working times" as well as the slowly reawakening of the debate on the working time issue in trade unions and social movements give rise to hope. This new debate accompanies history since the fight for the 8-hour day, and it can establish the principle of reduction of non-autonomous work as participation in the grown prosperity of society as standard for chances of participation and distributive justice.

25 years after the fight for the 35-hour week, working time is still a lifetime. The fights and strikes for the 35-hour week have set important milestones for the development of employment and working conditions. The motto of the campaign of IG Metall "Her mit dem guten Leben" (give good life to us) can be reckoned as a new debate on the further development of working hours policy. It is the task of the political left to utilise the experiences of these fights.

These new debates have to include the macro-economic conditions of working time reductions. It is a crucial element for a considerable reduction of continuous mass unemployment. Due to reliable increases in productivity, the extensive reduction of working hours is indeed fundable. Given the gigantic redistribution from bottom to top since the 1970s, this would merely be another redistribution of social prosperity. The situation in Germany has lately revealed that the reduction of working time by the short-work regulation accompanied by a bunch of company-level and collectively agreed measures can secure employment – even with (partial) wage adjustment. Even more would indeed be fundable. However, the roll-back sketched above is still to continue. During the last parliamentary term, the European Parliament rejected the worsening of the existing Working Time Directive (RL 2003/88/EG). However, it would be naive to believe that this is the end of the discussion. The next draft amendment - i.e. worsening—of the working time regime will be on the agenda before long. The consultation procedure of the management, and labour by the European Commission is already in progress.

This stocktaking of actual working hours in Germany and Europe, which was compiled by Christine Franz, Steffen Lehndorff and Alexandra Wagner, shall serve as foundation for this debate. Based on this, the background of the planned extension of working hours in Europe is explained in order to present the possible political demands for another, employee-orientated labour policy.

We wish all readers an informative read.

Thomas Händel

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Executive Summary	11
1 Introduction.....	21
2 Tendencies in the development of working hours in the EU-27	29
2.1 Full-time.....	29
2.1.1 Legal and collectively agreed working time normalities in the EU	29
2.1.2 Changes compared with 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (CEEC).....	31
2.1.3 Working time of employees with different levels of qualification.....	33
2.1.4 Arbeitszeiten von Beschäftigten unterschiedlicher Qualifikationsstufen.....	35
2.2 Part-time employment and gender-specific differences in working hours.....	38
2.2.1 Development profiles of female employment.....	38
2.2.2 Part-time and full-time employment: Contrasts between genders, contrasts between countries	40
2.2.3 Mathematical average working hours.....	44
3 Country-specific working time normalities.....	47
3.1 Comparison of working time profiles.....	47
3.2 France: Two steps forward and one step back	49
3.2.1 Changes in the legislation on working hours since 2000	50
3.2.2 Changes in actual working hours since 2000	52
3.2.3 Employment effects of the 35-hour week	55
3.3 Great Britain: reduction of working hours on a high level.....	56
3.4 The differentiation of social norms in Germany.....	60
3.4.1 Working hours of women: Restriction on working hours instead of reduction of working time.....	61
3.4.2 Full-time employees: A roll backwards towards longer working times.....	63
3.5 The shaping of social standards by indirect regulation: A comparison between Northern Europe and Germany	67
4 Employment participation and working times in the household context.....	71
4.1 Employment constellations in the family context	72
4.2 Employment rates of women and men with children.....	74
4.3 Changes in the employment of women after the birth of children	78
4.4 Working times of women and men with children	80
4.5 Gainful employment and total working hours.....	82
5 No uniform tendency regarding atypical working hours.....	85
5.1 Overlong working times and overtime hours.....	86
5.2 Atypical scheduling of working hours.....	90
5.2.1 Atypical scheduling of working hours in enterprises.....	90
5.2.2 Weekend workt	91
5.2.3 Night and evening work.....	95
5.2.4 Shiftworkt.....	97
6 Prospect.....	101
7 Annex.....	103
7.1 Literature.....	103
7.2 Abbreviations.....	110
7.3 International Standard Classification of Occupations ISCO ()	111
7.4 Annex Table.....	112

Verzeichnis der Abbildungen und Tabellen:

Figure A: Average usual working hours per week, full-time employees, 2008 (in h.).....	12
Table A: Difference between the average usual working hours per week of men and women (all employees, 2008) as well as increase and decrease of this difference compared to 1995 (EU-15) respectively 2000 (CEEC) (in h.), selected EU countries.....	14
Table B: Employment rates* of women in selected EU countries, 1995/2001/2007 (%).....	15
Figure B: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Great Britain.....	16
Figure C: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Denmark.....	16
Figure 1.1: Decrease in actual working hours per week compared with the respective quarter last year, Germany and EU average, Q1-Q3 2009, all employees, h/week.....	22
Tabelle 1.1: Average actual working hours in Germany according to different data sources.....	25
Figure 2.1: Degree of collective bargaining coverage, selected countries, 2006, (in %).....	30
Figure 2.2: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees, EU-27, 2008 (in h.).....	31
Table 2.1: Average of collectively agreed usual working hours of full-time employees in selected EU countries, 2008 (in hours).....	32
Table 2.2: Assessment of actual working time per annum in selected EU countries (2008*).....	32
Figure 2.3: Average usual working time per week of full-time employees, 2000/2008, CEEC.....	33
Figure 2.4: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees, 1995/2008, EU-15.....	34
Table 2.3: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees in selected EU countries (2000, 2003, 2005, 2008).....	35
Table 2.4: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification, selected EU countries*, 2008.....	36
Table 2.5: Difference between the longest and the shortest working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification groups, 2000* and 2008 (in hours).....	37
Table 2.6: Employment rates* of women in selected EU countries, 1995/2001/2007 (%).....	39
Figure 2.5: Share of part-time employees according to gender, EU-27, 2008 (in % of all employees).....	40
Figure 2.6: Changes in part-time employment rates according to gender, 1995/2008, EU-15 (%).....	41
Figure 2.7: Changes in part-time employment rates according to gender, 1995/2008, CEEC (%).....	41
Table 2.7: Average usual working hours of part-time employees according to gender in selected EU-countries, 2008 and changes (only women) compared with 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (CEEC) (in h.).....	42
Figure 2.8: Average usual working hours per week of men and women, full-time employees, EU-27, 2008* (in h.).....	43
Table 2.8: Average usual working hours of full-time employees according to gender, 1995/2008 (EU-15) resp. 2000/2008 (CEEC) (in hours), selected EU countries.....	43
Table 2.9: Average usual working hours of all employees according to gender, 2008 as well as the difference M/F in 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (new member states) (in h.), selected EU countries, (ordered by amount of the difference M/F).....	44
Figure 3.1: of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Germany, 1995/2008.....	47
Figure 3.2: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Denmark, 1995/2008.....	48
Figure 3.3: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Hungary, 2000/2008.....	48
Figure 3.4: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Great Britain, 1995/2008.....	49
Table 3.1: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, France, 1995, 2000, 2003 and 2008.....	50
Figure 3.5: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64 men and women, France, 2000 and 2008.....	50
Table 3.2: Usual working hours of employees in France, full-time, 1998-2004.....	53
Figure 3.6: Collectively agreed average working hours per week of full-time employees in enterprises with 10 and more employees, France, from 1996 to 2009.....	53
Table 3.3: Changes in the usual working hours in France for selected occupational groups, full-time employees, 2000-2002, 2003-2008.....	53
Figure 3.7: Observed employment and estimated employment, France, 1985-2001.....	57
Figure 3.8: Employment trends in enterprises with and without reduction of working time in France before and after the first Aubry law came into effect (Sept. 1996 = 100).....	57
Table 3.4: Parameters of female employment in Great Britain.....	58
Figure 3.9: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, men and women, Great Britain 2000 and 2008.....	59
Table 3.5: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees in Great Britain, selected occupational groups (in h.).....	59
Figure 3.10: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, men and women, Germany 2000 and 2008.....	61
Table 3.6: Working hours of men and women according to the number of children (part-time and full-time employees).....	62
Figure 3.11: Development of the collectively agreed* and actual (usual) average working times per week of full-time employees in Germany (1984-2006).....	63

Development of working time in the EU

Table 3.7: Working time per week of full-time employees in enterprises with and without collective bargaining coverage and with and without works council.....	64
Table 3.8: Usual working times of full-time employees in large economic sectors, Germany (h./week).....	65
Table 3.9: Changes in collectively agreed working time regulations in the public services in Germany, 2005-2008.....	65
Figure 3.12: Working time and employment trends* in the metal and electrical industry (Germany, 2000-2006).....	66
Figure 3.13: Distribution of usual working hours in Germany, Denmark, Finland and Sweden, female employees aged 15-64, 2008	67
Table 3.10: Distribution of usual working hours of male and female employees in Germany and in Northern European countries (15-64, 2008).....	68
Table 3.11: Changes in the working hours and working time structures in Denmark, 1995 and 2008.....	69
Table 4.1: Employment status of single persons without children and of single parents, 2006, age 25 to 49 (%).....	72
Table 4.2: Employment constellations in couple households with and without children, 2006, age 25 to 49 (%).....	73
Figure 4.1: Non-activity rate of persons aged 25 to 54 according to gender and main reason for being non-active 2006.....	74
Figure 4.2: Non-activity rate of persons aged 25 to 54 according to education level, 2006.....	75
Table 4.3: Employment rates of women and men with children under 15 years and without children (age group 25-49)–2006, in percent.....	75
Table 4.4: Employment rate of women according to the number of children - 2006, persons aged 25 to 49 (%).....	76
Table 4.5: Employment rates of women with children 2008.....	77
Table 4.6: Employment rate of women according to education level and number of children - 2006, persons aged 25 to 49 (%).....	78
Figure 4.3: Labour participation of women after parental leave (in %).....	79
Figure 4.4: Employment status of mothers (aged 18-45) two years before (t-2) and two years after (t+2) the birth of a child.....	79
Table 4.7: Working hours of single people and single parents according to full-time and part-time, 2006, persons aged 25 to 49 (in h.).....	80
Table 4.8: Working hours of women and men according to the age of the youngest child in the household (2008).....	81
Figure 4.5: Working hours per week of men and women without children according to family status* (h.).....	81
Figure 4.6: Average total working hours of employed mothers and fathers ordered by the number of hours in country comparison (h.).....	82
Figure 4.7: Average paid and unpaid working hours of gainfully employed mothers in country comparison (h.).....	83
Figure 4.8: Average paid and unpaid working hours of employed fathers in country comparison (h.).....	83
Tabelle 5.1: Comparison of the operating hours in six EU countries, 2004*.....	85
Figure 5.1: Normal working hours and deviations 2005, EU 15.....	86
Figure 5.2: Duration of working times and health.....	87
Table 5.2: : Overlong working hours (more than 48 hours) according to gender (in hundred of all employees) 2008.....	88
Table 5.3: Development of overlong working times (more than 48 hours) since 2000 (difference of the share value 2008 minus 2000).....	88
Table 5.4: Regulation of the payment for overtime, as of 2009.....	89
Figure 5.3: Share of companies in which overtime hours were worked during the past 12 months, in percent (spring 2009).....	89
Figure 5.4: Overtime compensation in country comparison.....	90
Figure 5.5: Enterprises with atypical scheduling of working time according to sector.....	91
Table 5.5: Share of companies with atypical scheduling of working time, 2009.....	91
Figure 5.6: Share of employees with atypical working times in percent, 2008.....	92
Table 5.6: Saturday work of employees.....	93
Table 5.7: Sunday work of employees.....	94
Figure 5.7: Employees with weekend work according to gender and the existence of children in the household, 2006, age 25 to 49.....	94
Figure 5.8: Scheduling of working time and accident risk.....	95
Figure 5.9: Share of employees with night and evening work in percent, 2008.....	95
Table 5.8: Evening work of employees.....	96
Table 5.9: Night work of employees, 2008.....	97
Table 5.10: Shift work of women and men.....	98
Figure 5.10: Shift workers with and without children, 2006, persons aged 25 to 49.....	99
Table 7.1: Average usual working hours per week of employees, full-time (h.).....	112
Table 7.2: Average usual working hours per week of employees, part-time (h.).....	112
Table 7.3: Average usual working hours per week of employees, full-time, women (h.).....	113
Table 7.4: Average usual working hours per week of employees, full-time, men (h.).....	113
Table 7.5: Average usual working hours per week of employees, part-time, women (h.).....	114

Table 7.6: Average usual working hours per week of employees, part-time, men (h.).....	114
Table 7.7: Average usual working hours per week of employees (h.).....	115
Table 7.8: Average usual working hours per week of employees, women (h.).....	115
Table 7.9: Average usual working hours of full-time employees according to gender, 1995/2008 (EU-15) resp. 2000/2008 (CEEC) (in hours).....	116
Table 7.10: Average usual working hours of all employees according to gender, EU-27, 2008 (ordered by amount of the difference M/F) as well as the difference M/F in 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (new member states) (in h.).....	116
Table 7.11: Average usual working hours per week of employees, men (h.).....	117
Table 7.12: Average usual working hours per week of employees, working time intervals, women (h.).....	118
Table 7.13: Average usual working time intervals of employees, men (h.).....	122
Table 7.14: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification, 2008.....	125
Table 7.15: Difference between the longest and the shortest working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification groups, 2000* and 2008 (in hours)	125
Table 7.16: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Manufacturing industry without metal industry - full-time.....	126
Table 7.17: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Manufacturing industry - full-time	126
Table 7.18: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Metal industry - full-time	127
Table 7.19: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Building industry - full-time	127
Table 7.20: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Private services - full-time.....	128
Table 7.21: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Retail trade - full-time	128
Table 7.22: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Public services–full-time.....	129
Table 7.23: Average usual working hours (h.)legislators, senior officials and managers in the private sector- full-time.....	129
Table 7.24: Average usual working hours per week (h.) – technicians and associated professionals – full-time	130
Table 7.25: Average usual working hours per week (h.)of clerks - full-time.....	130
Table 7.26: Average usual working hours per week (h.) plant and machine operators and assemblers – full-time	131
Table 7.27: Employment rate of women according to the age of the youngest child (%).....	131
Table 7.28: Average usual working hours of women according to the age of the youngest child in the household (h.)	132
Table 7.29: Average usual working hours of men according to the age of the youngest child in the household (h.).....	134
Table 7.30: Employees, Sunday work: never	135
Table 7.31 / 7.32: Employees, Sunday work: occasionall	136
Table 7.33 / 7.34: Employees, Sunday work: usually.....	136
Table 7.35: Employees, Saturday work: never	137
Table 7.36: Employees, Saturday work: occasionally	137
Table 7.37: Employees, Saturday work: usually.....	138
Table 7.38: Employees, evening work: never	138
Table 7.39: Employees, evening work: occasionally.....	139
Table 7.40: Employees, evening work: usually	139
Table 7.41: Employees, night work: never.....	140
Table 7.42: Employees, night work: occasionally.....	140
Table 7.43: Employees, night work: usually	141
Table 7.44: Employees who practice shift work: Women (%)	141
Table 7.45: Employees who practice shift work: Men.....	142
Table 7.46: Employees who practice shift work: Women and men	142



Since the 1980s the landscape of working hours has increasingly diversified. On the one hand, the standardization of working hours has spread by means of collective agreements, or means of law – which is of growing importance. For instance, the Central and Eastern European countries (as with Portugal before) gradually followed with the legal anchorage of the 40-hour standard. At the same time, the European Working Time Directive set the European standard at a maximum of 48-hour working week. However, this limitation had been controversial from the beginning and was accompanied by a number of special provisions (opt out).

These tendencies of standardisation – in spite of all limitations – were faced with the diversification of working times in many of Europe's developed capitalist countries. At the same time, numerous new "stakeholders" and political actors for working hours policy appeared:

- With the massive increase in female employment, part-time employment has, in many countries, become a broadly based society norm. However, it seldom became the subject of the organizational policy of contracting parties.
- In some countries, among others Germany in particular, the trade unions tried to undercut the 40-hours threshold in the 1980s and early 1990s by collectively agreed reductions of working hours. After occasional initial successes, however, these efforts largely waned and therefore have not become wide spread across Europe. But in some cases – especially in France after 1998 – the government took the initiative for an extensive reduction of working hours. Similar to the trade unions' initiatives ten years earlier, now aspects and aims of employment policy were the focus.
- In many countries, the 1990s were increasingly marked by the transition to flexible working times initiated by employers. Especially where the regulation of working times had been greatly marked by union initiatives previously – as was the case in Germany – this initiative then mainly shifted to the employers. In these countries, the transition to flexible working times, and the decentralisation of the regulation of working times were two sides to a coin. In some cases, again especially in some industrial sectors in Germany, this was followed by strong pressure exerted by employers' associations to achieve longer working times.
- In some countries, the diversification of working times, according to occupational groups, with regard to function and qualification, became an increasingly important aspect of this transition to flexibility.

The most recent crisis added another facet to the growing diversity of working times in Europe. In a number of European countries, working time decreased clearly during the crisis. This trend was most distinct in Germany, where the average working hours had risen immensely in the years before the crisis. In this way, a topic believed to be forgotten since the beginning of this decade, was once again in focus: The possible contribution of shorter working times for safeguarding or even perhaps creating employment. In a number of EU countries the legal regulations on short-time work were an important source for the reduction of working hours. However, these were replenished by collectively agreed instruments for safeguarding employment by a temporary reduction of working hours as well as by making use of the companies' means of adaptation, which had grown along with the transition to flexible working hours. In 2009, this "breathing potential" of working times in its entirety made a crucial contribution to curbing the effects of the immense economic crisis had on the labour market in some European countries. At the same time, however, it became clear that this potential was only used in some countries. The diversification of working times in Europe has thus been once more confirmed during the crisis.

The huge variation in developments during the last one or two decades are background to and reason for this report. To a large extent, it is based on the database most suitable for such a stocktake, namely the European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS). As this survey (individual questioning) among employees does not contain details about the companies' organisation of work, this report is limited to a stocktake of the differences and changes in the duration of working times in EU countries. When properly used and in consideration of its inherent methodical problems (which are pointed out in detail wherever necessary), the EU-LFS allows interesting insights into the changes of working times in the European Union. The basis of the presented information about the development of the actual working hours is the answers from the surveyed employees to the question "How many hours do you normally work per week?" This information about the actual working hours (in contrast to contractual or negotiated working hours) will be called "usual" or "actual" working hours in the following text.

For this stocktake we used data from 2008 (the most recent data available when this report was worked out) and compared them with data from 2000 as well as 1995 (for countries of the EU-15). The years 2008 and 2000 are suitable for an analysis of working hours inasmuch as they mark the peaks of two successive economic cycles.

Contradictory trends in full-time employment

The first emphasis of this stocktake will be the developments of working times for full-time employees. There are good reasons for this focus. Despite the constant increase in part-time employment in many countries, the majority of employees in EU countries currently still work full-time. The political and institutionalised character of full-time employment should be considered, too. It is full-time employment that is limited by law and collective agreements, and therefore it is traditionally the main subject of working

The average of the actual number of hours normally worked per week in the EU-27 was at 40.5 hours per week in 2008. Ireland and the Netherlands have the shortest usual working times, also some Central and Eastern European countries (CEEC) - clearly at the top - Great Britain has the longest (Figure A).

In the CEEC, the working hours are mostly scattered around the 41 hours mark. This corresponds to the introduction of the statutory 40-hour week in most of these countries around the turn of the millennium. Although data for some of these countries show a distinct reduction of the usual working hours per week, in view of some problems of measurement we should

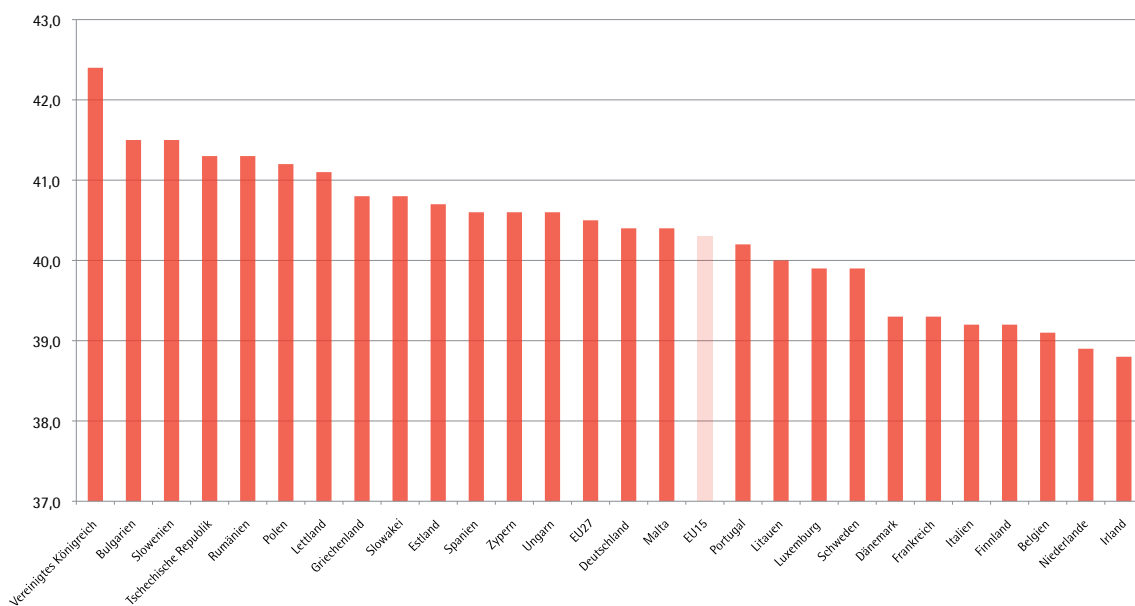


Figure A: Average usual working hours per week, full-time employees, 2008 (in h.)

time policy. Disregarding few but important exceptions, there have been only a few changes in the area of collectively agreed or legal norms that serve to limit the duration of working times. One of these exceptions is – besides the establishing of the statutory 40-hour standard in a number of European countries along with the application of the European 48-hour limitation to British law – the introduction of the statutory 35-hour week in France. However, in many countries the collectively agreed norms lie below the legal standard of working hours. In this way – depending on the degree of collective bargaining coverage in each country – the average contractual working times are distinctly shorter than the legal limitations provide for. This movement, which could be seen in the reduction of working hours by collective agreements in some European countries until the 1980s, however, has mostly come to a standstill. Carefully assessed, the average of collectively agreed working hours is about 39 hours per week in the EU-27.

rather assume a stabilization of working times between 40 and 41 hours per week. The adaptation to the so called "acquis communautaire" in the social legislation of these countries lead to the establishment of a statutory 40-hour norm. Actual working times had remained longer at the beginning of the transformation period. However, they, too, have been gradually adapting to this norm since the beginning of the 1990s.

Unlike the CEEC, the EU-15 show strongly varying tendencies, regarding medium-term as well as long-term trends on EU-15 average, there has been no visible tendency to reduce or extend working times for full-time employees since the Mid-1990s. The average working time per week was 40.3 hours in 2007, the same as it had been in 1995. The stability of the average working times on the one hand, is due to largely unchanged working times in some countries like Sweden or Spain. On the other hand, it is based on opposed parallel processes of extension and reduction of working hours in particular countries. The greatest

reductions were made in Great Britain (1.5 hours per week), Ireland (1.4 hours per week) and Portugal (1 hour per week). The greatest extensions were carried out in Germany (0.7 hours).

The fluctuations of working hours in France are particularly worthy of attention. With regard to the modifications in survey procedures, it can be said that the usual working hours per week were reduced by two hours over a period from 1998 to 2002, which is to say in the course of the initial voluntary agreement and later statutory establishing of the 35-hours week. Following the change of government in 2002, working times were extended by 0.5 hours per week until 2008. This u-shaped movement reflects the changes in the legal regulation of working hours after 1998 and then the development in the opposite direction since the beginning of the year 2003. The "net effect" of the reduction of statutory working hours from 30 to 35 hours per week in France should therefore amount to around 1.5 hours per week.

The different trends in working times, according to occupational groups, partly play a role in the reductions or extensions of the average working hours in some countries. The characteristics of highly qualified employees' working hours are to be pointed out in particular. In some countries these employees' working times are longer than that of other occupational groups, in other countries (above all in Southern European) they are often traditionally clearly shorter. In Germany, France and Great Britain the differences are striking (in these three countries highly qualified workers on average work between 2.0 and 1.7 hours per week more than less qualified employees). In Great Britain, however, this difference has been shrinking drastically since 2000 (from 2.3 to 1.7 hours), whereas it increased strongly in Germany (from 1.3 to 1.9 hours) and particularly in France (from 0.2 to 2.0 hours).

Especially in France, this differentiation has contributed considerably to the extension of the average working hours since 2002. For employees with low or medium qualifications, the introduction of the statutory 35-hour week – despite its emasculation in 2003 – still had a net reduction effect of one hour per week (taking into consideration the modifications in the survey's procedures). For highly qualified workers, on the other hand, the there and back of the regulation of working times even caused a minimal net extension of working hours.

Strong and largely differing dynamics of part-time employment and the gender-specific differences in working time

Regarding part-time employment, the differences between countries, together with the dynamics of change, are considerably more distinctive than those regarding full-time employment. The reason for this is that part-time employment continues to be mainly spread among women. Moreover, female work is the most dynamic factor in the labour markets of most European countries.

Firstly, the different part-time employment rates in the EU countries are striking. There is a great difference between the part-time employment rates in the Central and Eastern European countries (CEEC) on one side, and most of the "old" EU countries on the other. However, even the differences within the EU-15 are immense: Within the EU-15 part-time employment continued increasing between 1995 and 2008 in the Netherlands, the European leader regarding part-time employment. There has also been an increase in Germany, so that its part-time employment rate outdid that of Great Britain. Whereas in Great Britain part-time employment increased only among men, while slightly decreasing among women. In Southern Europe, the importance of part-time employment has been increasing gradually (in Italy rapidly). In Northern Europe, we notice that the part-time employment rate among women has been decreasing in Denmark and Sweden. At the same time, it has been increasing slightly in Finland, where the level is still very low, however. Additionally, in the CEEC, the development is varied. However, in contrast to the EU-15 the drop in part-time employment predominates on a level that is much lower, anyway.

Not only the amount of part-time employees, but also their average working hours can differ widely from one country to another. Particularly in Belgium, France, Hungary and Sweden the part-time working hours of women are far above EU average. Whereas in Germany working hours of female part-time employees are the lowest in the whole EU: In 2008 they amounted to 18.5 hours per week, which means a decrease of 1.2 hours since 1995. At the same time, they increased by one hour in Sweden and thus amounted to 25.3 hours per week in 2008.

These contrasting trends regarding part-time employment substantially influence the differences in working hours between men and women. They are partly reinforced by the differences regarding full-time employment: On average, male full-time employees work longer than female full-time employees, everywhere. As for the EU average, this difference amounts to two hours per week (41.3 hours for men, 39.3 hours for women). In Great Britain this difference between the working hours of male and female full-time employees is the greatest (3.8 hours per week), while the smallest is in Luxemburg and Sweden (0.1 and 0.2 hours per week respectively).

Development of working time in the EU

However, the differences within the woman's group are partly greater than the differences between men and women. The great importance of part-time employment and especially of marginal part-time employment in some countries leads to strong contrasts within the structures of the working hours of women. In this respect, the impact of different levels of education and qualification is immense. Highly qualified women are more likely to be working, their working hours are longer and their course of employment is more stable than that of less qualified women. Moreover, in many – but not all—countries they do not differ much from the average of the men in these aspects.

The various characteristic differences in working hours between men and women can be developed by the comparison between the average working hours of all male and female employees that means full-time workers and part-time employees. Average working hours are often used for international comparisons without pointing out that these data contain part-time employment. That means that we are dealing with aggregated data, the meaning of which can only be revealed with the help of detailed explanations. In order to clarify the gender specific aspects of working hours, however, this data is extremely meaningful (Table A).

Markedly simplified we can summarize these data as follows: In many economically less developed EU countries (judged by GDP per capita), the gender differences regarding average working hours are small. Along with an increasing level of economic development the results turn out differently: Countries with small differences in working hours between men and women (Northern Europe, France) stand in opposition to countries with enormous differences, like Germany, Great Britain and the Netherlands. Within the first group, the difference in working hours between men and women decreased slightly in Denmark and even clearly in Sweden, while the level of difference in both countries is still higher than that in Finland. Within the second group of countries, however, Great Britain and Germany show opposite trends: The increasing gender-specific segregation of working hours in Germany is opposed to the – although still on a high level – decreasing segregation in Great Britain.

These different trends intensify most regarding the gender-specific aspects of working hours and employment in the employment rates in full-time equivalents (Table B).

The employment of women continues to increase all over Europe. Comparing the growth rates for employment rates per person to the growth rates of employment rates converted to "full-time jobs", however, this makes clear to what extent the increase in female work simultaneously leads to an increase in the volume of work contributed by women on the whole. This rift is particularly deep in Germany, followed by Italy and the Netherlands. In

Northern Europe, on the other hand, the volume of work contributed by women grew a little faster than the employment rate per capita. This corresponds to the decrease of the part-time rate as well as the increase of the average working hours of women in these countries. At the same time, these are the countries in which the differences between the employment rates of women and men, both counted in full-time job equivalents, are already the smallest of all European countries (this is expressed by the so-called "gender gap" in the last column of the table). At the other end of the scale are Germany, Italy and the Netherlands with the greatest "gender gap" in the employment rates – a profile that is usually concealed by the common depiction of the increase in employment rates of women (as seen in the first column of the table).

	Δ M/F 2008	Changes of Δ compared with 1995 resp. 2000
Netherlands	10,0	-1,0
Great Britain	9,5	-3,3
Germany	8,6	+1,9
Italy	6,9	+1,9
Belgium	6,7	+0,3
Spain	5,7	+1,3
France	5,3	-0,3
Denmark	4,5	-0,4
Sweden	3,9	-1,4
Poland*	3,8	+0,2
Greece	3,5	+0,4
Finland	3,4	+0,9
Portugal	3,1	-1,7
Czech Republic	2,5	-0,2
Slovakia	1,7	+0,3
Lithuania	1,4	-0,3
Hungary	1,3	-1,0
Bulgaria	0,9	+0,1
Romania	0,7	-0,1

Table A: Difference between the average usual working hours per week of men and women (all employees, 2008) as well as increase and decrease of this difference compared to 1995 (EU-15) respectively 2000 (CEEC) (in h.), selected EU countries Basis: 15-64 year old employees * year of reference 2001

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

Contrasting tendencies in the formation of new social standards for working hours

The differentiation of working hours which varies from one EU country to another is expressed by changes in the frequency of certain amounts of working hours per week. The differences between these "working hours' profiles" of the individual countries are somewhat stronger than those of the average working hours. This can be seen when comparing Great Britain (Figure B), the country with the longest working hours of full-time workers in the EU, to Denmark (Figure C), which is one of the countries where full-time workers have relatively short working hours. Because of the different levels of part-time employment in these two countries, the average working hours of all

the standard working time of full-time employment. The reduction of the statutory working time from 39 to 35 hours per week in 2000 lead to a noticeable reduction in actual working hours. The latter, however, did not reach the same extent as the statutory reduction of working time. Additionally, part of this reduction was reversed after the change of government in 2003 (see above). Despite this relativisation, France is one of the European countries in which full-time workers have the shortest working hours.

In Great Britain, too, full-time workers experience, on average, a reduction of their actual working hours per week, although still on a very high level. On average, British full-time workers work less because the influence of particularly long working hours is decreasing among them especially

	Increase in the employment rate* between 1995 (resp. 2001) and 2007 (in ppt.)	Increase in the employment rate in full-time job equivalents** between 1995 (resp.2001) and 2007 (in ppt.)	Employment rate in full-time job equivalents** 2007	"gender gap"**** 2007
EU-27***	+4,0	+2,6	49,8	-20,6
EU-15	+10,0	+6,9	49,2	-22,4
Finland	+9,5	+10,1	63,9	-7,4
Denmark	+6,5	+5,5	62,8	-13,4
Sweden	+3,0	+3,4	61,9	-11,7
Czech Republic***	+0,4	±0	55,6	-19,6
France	+7,9	+6,2	52,4	-14,6
Great Britain	+3,8	+4,3	51,3	-21,9
Hungary***	+1,1	+1,3	50,1	-14,8
Poland***	+2,9	+1,9	48,6	-14,8
Spain	+23,0	+19,6	48,5	-26,6
Germany	+8,7	+2,1	48,2	-23,0
Netherlands	+15,8	+10,6	44,4	-29,1
Italy	+11,2	+7,7	41,5	-28,3

Table B: Employment rates* of women in selected EU countries, 1995/2001/2007 (%)

* Women in work in relation to the number of all women aged 15-64

** Women in work in relation to the number of all women aged 15-64, converted to „full-time jobs“

*** year of reference 2001

**** difference compared to the employment rate in full-time job equivalents of men in percentage points

Source: European Commission 2007, European Commission 2008, own calculations

employees are not far apart (36.6 hours per week in Great Britain, 34.4 hours per week in Denmark). But the contrast between the profiles of working hours could not be greater. It shows the importance of an integral view on working hours that aggregates the different trends of full-time and part-time work.

Some of these country profiles will be described in more detail in this report. Firstly, France merits our special attention. Here – particularly because of its child care which has been well-developed for decades – the differences in working hours between men and women are traditionally less important than the changes of legal regulations of

working hours above the legal limit of 48 hours per week. At the same time, Great Britain is the country with the most distinctive dispersion of working hours in Europe. However, the extremely strong influence of very short part-time hours, notably typical for the working hours of many women, is decreasing – although much slower than the decrease of overlong working hours. The polarization of working hours between the genders is gradually decreasing. During the last decade, all these trends have been supported by a government policy that, in spite of all inconsistencies, provided better starting points for social – above all trade union – efforts to realize more equality.

Development of working time in the EU

In contrast, we can see a reverse trend in Germany where full-time workers have clearly shorter working hours than in Great Britain, and the polarization of working hours is not as distinctive. Short part-time employment decreased among women, while the average working hours of full-time workers were extended. In Germany's case, it is particularly surprising that working hours were extended by 0.8 hours per week between 2003 and 2008. This led to the fact that the average level of working hours of full-time workers in Germany at the climax of the latest economic cycle was higher than at the climax of the preceding one which, in turn, had been preceded by a distinct extension of working hours in West Germany since

the Mid-1990s. Apart from strong political pressure in the direction of longer working hours, this also reflects the crisis of the German collective agreement system which - in contrast to numerous other European countries - hardly recognises compensatory state support like the declaration of general application of collective agreements any more. The increasing differences in working hours between men and women, too, are boosted on the one hand by a lack of government measures to promote gender equality in the labour market (particularly in the area of child care), and on the other hand by state institutions in the labour market seriously promoting gender segregation (like the split system of income tax and the so-called mini-job regulation).

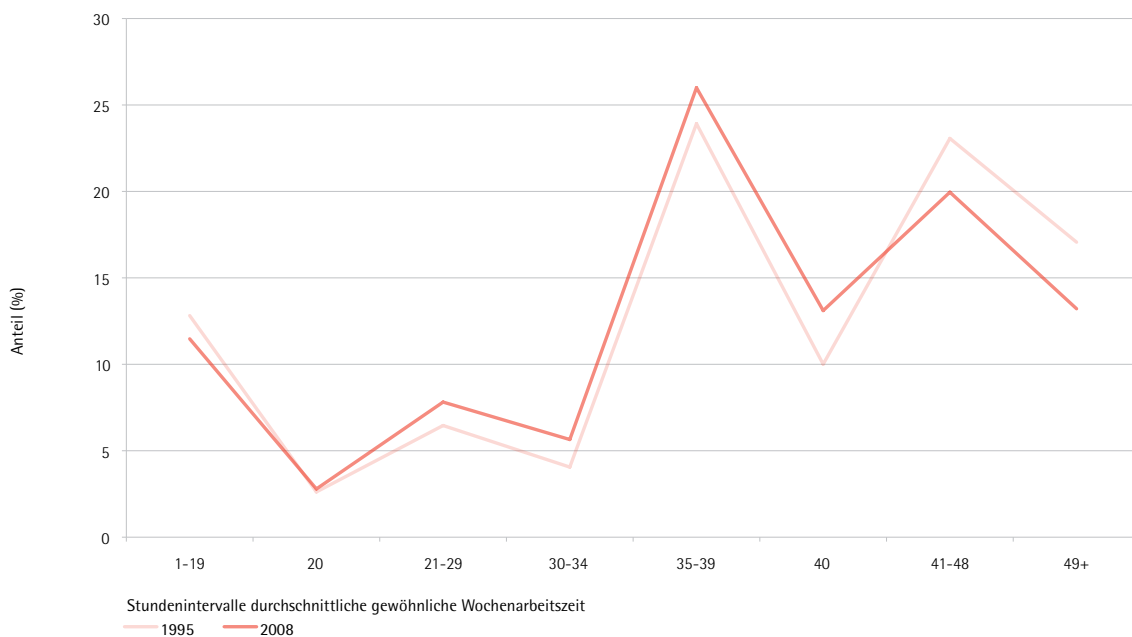


Abbildung B: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Great Britain

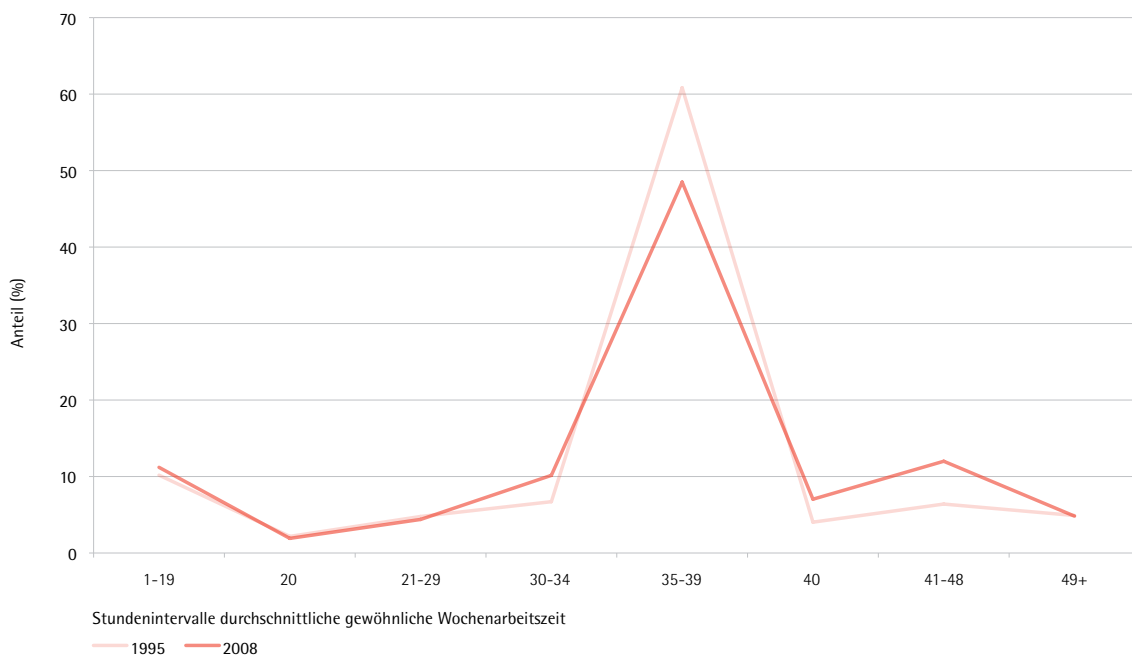


Abbildung C: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Denmark

The last mentioned factors influencing working hours can also be called "indirect" regulation of working hours. Compared with the direct regulation especially from collective agreements, its significance for the dynamics of working hours is constantly increasing. This becomes particularly apparent when we contrast the working hours profile of Germany with three Northern European countries. Naturally, in Northern Europe the working hours profiles of women still differ from those of men, too (Table 1.3). However, we can see that the accumulation of the usual working hours per week of women and men in Sweden, Finland and Denmark are close, especially in the last two countries.

It can be said that most likely in Northern Europe social working time standards are not gradually disintegrating. On the contrary, they are rather regenerating based on a high female employment rate and effective collective agreement systems. To a certain extent in Finland, but mostly in Denmark, however, this happens at the price of the increasing significance of working times above the 40-hour benchmark. In this aspect, Denmark strongly resembles France, where the significance of long working times (although still below the 48-hour limit) has increased substantially during the last decade. This increase is not limited to men, but it is more distinctive among men.

That is one of the reasons why the working time standards of Northern European countries cannot serve as an example for the future development in other countries without difficulty. However, we can still draw two conclusions from the developments in Northern Europe: Firstly, strong institutional support is needed, in order to make progress on the elimination of gender inequality regarding working hours despite relatively long full-time standards. Meanwhile the influence of indirect regulation of working times - from child care as well as the tax and welfare system - on the actual distribution and duration of working times, is stronger than most collective agreements. Secondly, the more working time policy from collective agreements can interplay with direct regulations of working hours by the state - especially the statutory limitation of working hours - the more effective it becomes. Restrictive state limitations which can be adapted to the interests of the actors at the level of sectors or companies - as is the case in Sweden and France - are a model of success which could be imported to other countries without having to change the country-specific overall architecture of industrial relations.

Greatly differentiated working hours in couple households

Household circumstances have a strong impact on the working hours of men and women. Even in households without children cultural models (like the conservative sole wage earner or main wage earner model) together with financial incentives coming from the tax and welfare system can lead to an unequal distribution of working hours between men and women. The "gender gap" regarding income and employment rates can have a huge impact on this unequal distribution, too. In the case of women particularly, average working hours have always to be seen in context with (in some countries for particular groups relatively low) employment rates. If the household includes children or people in need of nursing, the care that these household members need, and the respective public infrastructure (child care, day care, care facilities) as well as measures related to family policy (especially parental leave, maternity or paternity leave and the temporary leave of absence for homecare responsibilities) are further relevant factors influencing the working hours of the partner able to work. The existence of children in particular, increases the differences between the genders in a number of EU countries - however, the differences between countries are particularly large in this respect.

The level of education has a substantial influence on the extent of participation in the labour market of mothers. Higher qualified women show a tendency to remain at work when they have children, while women with lower educational qualifications show altogether lower employment rates. Additionally, the more children they have, the less likely they are to be employed. In addition to that, the range of opportunities for part-time employment plays an important role, as for mothers part-time employment may be an alternative to dropping out of work or remaining in full-time work.

With all due caution, regarding the working hours of men and women in couple households, we can distinguish between the following groups of countries within the EU (see also European Foundation 2007b, Bielenski et al. 2001, Fuchs 2004): For the Nordic countries, high employment rates and comparatively small differences in working hours between genders are characteristic. In Great Britain as well as the Continental European countries of the EU-15 - except France and (to a certain extent) Belgium - there are great differences in the employment of men and women, especially mothers and fathers. This is due to a high and, in part, still growing portion of female part-time work. For the Southern European countries - except Portugal - EU comparison reveals the lowest employment rates of women, above all while raising a family. However, the differences to the Continental European group are decreasing rapidly (respectively as is the case in Spain, where they have already disappeared). If women are in work, they mostly work full-time. However,

Development of working time in the EU

the importance of part-time employment is increasing in Southern Europe, too. In many Central and Eastern European member states, the dual full-time model was traditionally the norm. However, this has partly changed – be it because of the situation in the labour market, be it because of the high costs for child care. On the whole, high employment rates continue to be connected to relatively long working hours, whereas part-time employment is still not widely spread in these countries.

Comparable patterns of gender-specific aspects of working hours in households with children can also be found with regard to occupational trajectories (European Foundation 2007b: 88f.): A mostly continuous integration of women into the labour market – in full-time or comparatively long part-time work – can be found in Northern Europe and Portugal, where the employment rates of women are high. However, this phenomenon can also be seen in Slovenia and Latvia. Although the employment rates are lower there, women are mainly employed in full-time jobs. France and Belgium belong to this group, too. However, the mothers' participation in the labour market is somewhat lower in these two countries. The continuously decreasing rate of part-time employment among women in Sweden and Denmark, which only 20 years ago had been among the countries with the highest share of part-time employment in Europe, is characteristic for this model in Northern Europe. In contrast, according to the traditional model, women drop out of work or reduce their working hours after the birth of children, and still remain outside the labour market or on a reduced level of employment after their children have reached school age. It is true that the traditional "exit model" according to which mothers drop out of the labour market completely is becoming rare among the coming generation of young women with children. However, in Southern Europe (except Portugal) and Poland, the model of a "parting of the ways" is still predominant. According to this model, mothers either remain out of work or go back to full-time employment. In contrast, in a number of non Continental European countries, such as Great Britain and Ireland, the model of "reduced return" is widespread. There, women remain in part-time employment on a long-term basis after maternity leave. In many of these countries, time and extent of the return to working life are also influenced by the respective regulations of parental leave and parenting money.

Although such typification of EU countries is verified by the data presented in this report and numerous other studies, nevertheless the strong dynamics in this area have to be taken into consideration. For example, studies on occupational trajectories (cf. European Foundation 2008b) show considerable cohort effects. Recently, women and mothers have less often withdrawn from the working market, and to a lesser extent than ten or more years ago. In view of altered life plans and economic constraints, the EU countries are subject to a considerable pressure to

change. Political reforms provoked in this way can support the prevailing social trends, but they can also lead to new inconsistencies (Bosch et al. 2009; Lehndorff 2009). An example for the latter is Germany. Here the female employment rate in full-time job equivalents is hardly rising, although an increasing number of women are working.

No uniform tendency regarding unsocial working hours

With regard to the spreading of atypical working hours, there are great differences between EU countries. In terms of changes in recent years, there has been no uniform tendency within Europe. The most common phenomenon is Saturday work, followed evening work and shift work. In contrast, Sunday work and above all night work are less common – not least because of the legal limitations in many countries.

The differences between countries regarding unsocial working hours might reflect structural effects (industrial branches, size of a company and the like). However, investigations reveal that this can only partly explain the differences. Apparently, country-specific habits, regulations and practices are particularly important. That means that there obviously exists a scope for design. These reasons for the differences between countries regarding the extent of unsocial working hours, however, have not been sufficiently investigated, yet.

Overlong working times of more than 48 hours on the one hand are realized on the basis of (paid) overtime; on the other hand, on the basis of the "boundless" working times for highly qualified workers which are partly excluded from legal and collectively agreed regulations of working time. Highly qualified workers often accept long working times due to their relatively privileged situation, and are able to compensate the negative effects to a large extent. In the case of less qualified employees with overlong working times, however, often a number of stress factors like low wages, shift and night work, little influence on working hours, high physical exertion etc. accumulate. When examining the average, these differences disappear. However, they are extremely important when dealing with the question of limiting working times as the completely different situations require completely different approaches.

Overlong and unsocial working times, especially night and shift work bring health risks for employees, particularly as they frequently crop up in combination. Research results show that these risks can be influenced by different factors like, for example, the organization of the shift schedule on an ergonomic basis, safeguarding regular recovery times by means of an appropriate regulation of break times, the duration and frequency of work at

atypical times but also a general reduction of working hours for shift and night workers.

Overlong and unsocial working times can also originate from the fact that couple households compensate the lack of child care possibilities by complementary working hours (work on weekends, evening work or night work). Another reason may be that employees who earn low wages increase their salary by means of additional incomes through paid extra work as well as higher hourly wages for unsocial working times. Therefore, unattractive working hours are accepted in order to alleviate other problems. Consequently, the limitation of unsocial working times does not only require legal, collectively agreed and company regulations on working hours; on top of that it requires a social policy that aims at improving the working and salary conditions as well as the compatibility of family and profession.

1 Introduction

Until well into the 1980s, working times had primarily been a subject matter of trade union movements. Essentially, their aim has always been the limitation of the time employees are available to employers in a way that leaves an adequate amount of time for recreation and for a life outside work. At the same time, they wanted to turn these limitations of working hours into reliable standards by means of collective agreements. This should help uncouple the duration and time of the working hours of huge occupational groups within society from possible market fluctuations. In many countries, such collectively agreed standards were adopted by the legislators. In some countries – such as the USA and France – the legislator even went ahead with the parties for collective agreement. By and large we can say that by these methods the social standard of the eight-hour day and the 40-hour week were anchored in most of the developed capitalist countries in Europe.

Since the 1980s, however, the landscape of working times has increasingly diversified. On the one hand, there have been tendencies towards the continuation of the standardisation of working hours:

- In the Central and Eastern European countries (as well as Portugal) the anchorage of the 40-hour standard has been adopted gradually since the beginning of the 1990s. As a rule, this did not primarily happen under the leadership of trade unions in Central and Eastern Europe because their strength was not sufficient. Moreover, in most of these countries, the collective agreement system lacks the required widespread impact throughout society. The main subject of collective agreements are, and have been wages. The initiative for the anchorage of the 40-hour week was rather to be found with the legislators who in this way carried out the adoption of the so-called "acquis communautaire".
- At the same time, the European Working Time Directive set the European standard to a maximum of 48 working hours per week. Health and safety protection in the workplace was the motive for this type of working time limitation. However, this limitation had been controversial from the beginning and was accompanied by a number of special provisions (opt out).

This trend towards a spreading of the eight-hour day and the 40-hour week – in spite of all restrictions – was faced with a diversification of working hours in many of Europe's developed capitalist countries. At the same time, numerous new "stakeholders" and actors of working times policy appeared:

- With the massive increase in female employment, part-time employment has become a broadly based normality in many countries' societies. However, it seldom became the subject of the organizational policy of social partners.
- In some countries, among others Germany especially, the trade unions tried to undercut the 40-hour threshold in the 1980s and early 1990s by collectively agreed reductions of working hours. After occasional initial successes, however, these efforts largely waned and therefore have not become widespread across Europe. Nonetheless, in some cases – especially in France after 1998 – the government took over the initiative for an extensive reduction of working hours. Similar to the trade unions' initiatives ten years before, now aspects and aims of employment policy were the focus.
- In many countries, the 1990s were increasingly marked by the transition to flexible working times initiated by employers. Principally, where the regulation of working times had been greatly marked by union initiatives before – as was the case in Germany – this initiative now mainly moved on to the employers. In these countries, the transition to flexible working times and the decentralisation of the regulation of working times became the two sides of the coin. In some cases, again particularly in some industrial sectors in Germany, this was followed by a strong pressure exerted by employers' associations to achieve longer working times.
- In some countries, the diversification of working times according to occupational groups, especially according to function and qualification, became an increasingly important aspect of this transition to flexibility.

The most recent crisis added another facet to the growing diversity of working times in Europe. In a number of European countries, working time decreased clearly during the crisis. This trend was most distinct in Germany, where the average working times had risen immensely in the years before the crisis (Figure 1.1).

Development of working time in the EU

1

Thus a topic that had seemed to be forgotten since the beginning of this century has come back to the top literally overnight: The possible contribution of shorter working times to safeguarding or maybe even creating employment. In a number of EU countries, the statutory regulations of short-time work have been an important source for the reduction of working time (Messenger 2009). However, they were replenished with collectively agreed means of job security by a temporary reduction of working time as well as the full utilization of the arsenal of company adaptation measures, which increased along with the transition to flexibility (Glassner/Galgóczy 2009). According to the EU Commission, this "breathing potential" of working hours in its entirety has made a crucial contribution to curbing the effects of the immense

so, we distinguish between full-time and part-time and bring out the importance - differing widely according to individual countries - of female employment for this aspect of the differentiation of working hours (chapter 2). Then we concentrate our attention on some countries, respectively groups of countries which may be particularly interesting in the political debate on working times. These highlighting views are based on one core question: To what extent can we still assume the existence of social standards for working hours, or is it possible that new social standards are becoming apparent? (chapter 3). Chapter 4 then addresses a topic that may contain the perhaps strongest dynamics of change regarding working hours, namely the increasing employment of women. This topic also covers the associated question of how the

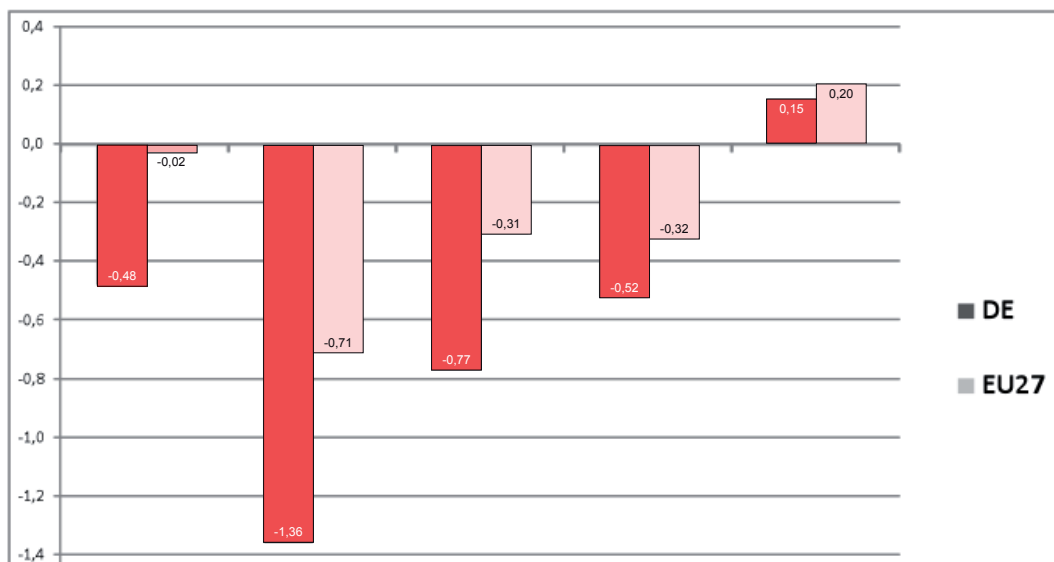


Figure 1.1: Decrease in actual working hours per week compared with the respective quarter last year, Germany and EU average, Q1-Q3 2009, all employees, h./week

economic crisis in 2009 on the labour market in some European countries (ECFIN 2009). At the same time, however, it became clear that only in some countries this potential was used. The diversification of working times in Europe has thus been confirmed once more during the crisis.

The strongly differing developments during the last one or two decades are background to and reason for this report. To a large extent, it is based on the database that is most suitable for this kind of stocktaking, namely the European Labour Force Sample. As this survey among employees (individual questioning) does not contain details about the companies' organisation of work, this report is limited to a stocktaking of the differences and changes in the duration of working times in EU countries.

The report is structured as follows: In a first step, we intend to provide an overview of the main trends in the development of working hours in EU countries. In doing

working hours of men and women are reconciled with the personal necessities of life, especially the interest in living with children. Finally, we turn our attention to the subject that is crucial to the debate on the European Working Time Directive, i.e. the significance of long working times and unsocial working hours for the health of employees (chapter 5).

In order to gain a better understanding of this stocktaking, however, it is necessary to take into account the possibilities but also restrictions the available database provides for this analysis or imposes on it. As the measurement of working time is a comparatively difficult task. Although the statistical coverage of working hours has a long tradition, there is some confusion about what was actually measured, but also about the comparability of different data records. Data related to working hours can be provided by surveys conducted in industry or surveys among individuals. The results can differ widely

because, in the first case, the agreed working hours, or the "usual" working hours in the respective company are investigated. In contrast, the varying working hours of individuals are considered. In addition, there is the possibility to evaluate collective agreements in order to gain information about collectively agreed working hours. Individual working times can differ considerably from working times agreed in the company. Moreover, the agreed working hours in companies without collective agreements cannot be taken into account by evaluating collective agreements. Company-specific data on working hours can provide interesting insights into the organisation of working time. However, they do not enable an analysis related to certain categories – such as for example gender, part-time and full-time employment, or level of qualification. Such data can only be obtained by individual interviews. The disadvantage of this method, however, is that these individual statements are naturally subjective and may include many uncertainties. The quality of the answers often can only be verified by plausibility checks. The advantage of this method enables us to compare the data on the different occupational groups, gender and other characteristics, outweighing the disadvantages.

The EU Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) is as such an individual survey. It provides comparable data on the socio-economic situation in the union's member states. The harmonisation of the survey in all EU member states makes the comparative study of employment and unemployment possible. Therefore, it is extremely important to use standard definitions, expressions and classifications, to coordinate surveys and sampling, to carry out repeated and standardised acquisition of characteristics, as well as the central data collection and processing in the Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat). Among others, the monthly reports on unemployment in the EU member states are based on the EU-LFS data. Moreover, the results of the Labour Force Survey contribute to the calculation of the EU indicators for employment policy and sustainable development. Additionally, they are taken into account in the process of resource allocation in the European Regional Fund as well as the European Social Fund.

Since 1968, the EU Labour Force Survey has been carried out in all member states of the European Union on a regular basis. The harmonised survey of the EU-LFS was initiated in 1983. The standardised terms and definitions are based on recommendations by the ILO. Currently, the European Labour Force Survey contains data for 33 countries: The 27 member states of the European Union as well as Iceland, Norway, Switzerland and some candidate countries. The European Labour Force Survey is a random sample. It is carried out in the form of an official household survey, whereas the number of households is determined according to the population size of the respective member state. The conducting of the survey lies

with the national statistical offices in cooperation with the Statistical Office of the European Union. In Germany, the EU Labour Force Survey is carried out together with the micro census, however, only at 0.5 percent of all households, compared to the one percent sample of the micro census. Most of the characteristics of the Labour Force Survey are also characteristics of the micro census – further details are given on a voluntary basis.

The EU ordinance for the Labour Force Survey of 1998¹ provides for a change in the methods of data collection for the EU-LFS in all participant countries. Before the application of this regulation, the national statistic offices provided annual data based on a survey in the second quarter. Exceptions were France and Austria, which carried out the survey in the first quarter. The concept of a fixed reference week² had been the method of data collection for the micro census until 2004, and, accordingly, also for the EU-LFS for Germany. The application was carried out in the participant countries at different times (see European Commission 2009a). The deadline for this interim phase was 2002; derogations were made for Italy (2003) and Germany (2004). From 2005 on, the EU-LFS has comprised quarter-related data as well as data on the annual average that include all quarters. This method of quarterly surveys respectively surveys throughout the year, spreads the collection of data uniformly over all the weeks of the year. Here, the last week before the survey is the reference week (flexible reference week). The documentation and regular reporting of the Statistical Office of the European Union provides references for methodical questions and specific national aspects. The following text is an extract about the continuous survey and the concept of the flexible reference week in the EU-LFS.

¹ Council Regulation (EC) No 577/98 of 9 March 1998 on the organisation of a labour force sample survey in the Community (OJ No L 77/3).

² According to the concept of a fixed reference week, the questions were related to facts about one single reference week in the year, mostly the last week in April. Therefore, this method of collecting data provided a snapshot of the spring quarter. Thus, the results could be influenced by seasonal variations.

Reference week: The EU-LFS is designed as a continuous survey with interviews spread uniformly over all the weeks of the quarter. The reference week starts on Monday and ends on Sunday. The first week of the year or quarter is the week that includes the first Thursday of the year or the quarter. As Croatia adopted it in 2007, Turkey and Switzerland have remained the only two countries not conducting a continuous survey. Turkey, although producing quarterly results, only covers the first week of each month, whereas Switzerland only has an annual survey carried out in the second quarter. Among those countries conducting a continuous survey, the first week of 2007 started on Monday 1 January 2007 in all but three countries, Ireland and the United Kingdom, where the year 2007 started respectively in the 49th, in the 52nd week of 2006, and Iceland, where 2007 started from the 2nd week of the year. The actual sample is spread over the 13 weeks of the quarter in all countries except Bulgaria, where the sample only covers the first 12 weeks of each quarter. The sample is uniformly spread over the weeks in all countries except in Hungary, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Germany, the Netherlands and, as concerns the second quarter, Switzerland. (European Commission 2008).

Therefore now, besides the annual average, quarterly averages are also available.³ The changes in the methods of data collection until 2005 might possibly influence the comparability of the data over time. In the following, we would like to point out possible effects on our evaluation in particular.

Belgium is a good example for such an effect. For the period reviewed in this report, the EU-LFS shows an extension of working times which essentially goes back to a leap from 38.5 working hours per week in 2000 to 39.2 working hours per week in 2001. In the years before and afterwards, the working hours only vary by 0.3 hours at most. Therefore, it seems reasonable to suppose that this "extension of working hours" is a so-called statistical artefact that stems from the change in the method of data collection. Among the few countries in which the change is reflected obviously in the data are Italy (working hours per week jumped by 0.6 hours between 2003 and 2004) and France (working hours per week jumped by 1.1 hours between 2002 and 2003; we will discuss this aspect in more detail later). In Germany on the other hand, the changes were made in 2005, but there has been no prominent leap in the time series between 2004 and 2005 (2003: 39.6 hours per week, 2004: 39.8 hours per week, 2005: 40.0 hours per week, 2006: 40.3 hours per week).

Surveys among employees, such as the EU-LFS or the micro census, do not provide insights into the organization of working time in a company. Moreover, using this data base, it is not possible to analyse the duration of collectively or individually agreed working times. An analysis of the development of working hours based on employment data can be based on the information from employees about their "actual" or "usual" working hours per week alone.⁴ In so doing, we must assume that the interviewees' statements are based on the negotiated working hours and normally or frequently accruing overtime work. This is illustrated by the definition of the term "usual" working hours in the EU Labour Force Survey.

Number of hours per week usually worked: The number of hours given here corresponds to the number of hours the person normally works. This covers all hours including extra hours, either paid or unpaid, which the person normally works, but excludes the travel time between the home and the place of work as well as the main meal breaks (normally taken at midday). Persons who usually also work at home (within the definitions given in the notes to Col. 58) are asked to include the number of hours they usually work at home. Apprentices, trainees and other persons in vocational training are asked to exclude the time spent in school or other special training centres. Some persons, particularly the self-employed and family workers, may not have usual hours, in the sense that their hours vary considerably from week to week or month to month. When the respondent is unable to provide a figure for usual hours for this reason, the average of the hours actually worked per week over the past four weeks is used as a measure of usual hours. (European Commission 2003)

Thus, in this analysis we assume that the interviewees give a realistic assessment of their average actual working hours per week. However, it remains to be seen to what extent the working hours that exceed the contractual working time are paid as overtime, deposited or remain unpaid. All the particularities originating in the flexible or irregular organisation of working hours remain open, too – for example "bundling" days off or "parking" of overtime hours on working time accounts. Of course, this is not unproblematic because for many employees it becomes increasingly difficult to give a precise answer to the questions how many hours they usually work per week. The shift towards more flexible working hours makes their working time per week increasingly abstract. We have to keep in mind this lack of precision and the problems it causes.⁵ Despite such uncertainties, we can assume that the self-assessment of employees provides us with a comparatively realistic picture of the development of the

actual working hours over the course of time (whereas – as pointed out earlier – the changes in the methods of collecting the data and the possible irregularities have to be kept in mind).

Against this background, we can also understand why the concrete formulation of a question or its position in a questionnaire may have such a great impact on the result. We can illustrate this with different data sources on working times in Germany. Apart from the annual volume of work calculations of the Institute for Employment Research, which is a creation of data from different sources, the individual data on working time in Germany are included in three data bases that are based on the acquisition of subjectively assessed working times over a period of time. In addition to the micro census and the European Labour Force Survey, these are the studies on working time of the SFS (formerly ISO-Institute) as well as the German Socio Economic Panel (SOEP) by the German Institute for Economic Research (as longitudinal study). The respective results differ widely (see Table 1.1 taking the example of 1999).

The working times based on the SOEP are considerably longer than those based on the micro census/ EU-LFS. According to an analysis by Schief (2003), one of the reasons for these differences are variations in the formulation of the questions as well as their order. (so-called halo effect). For example, the SOEP asks for the actual working hours by explicitly referring to the inclusion of possible overtime worked:

“How many hours are stipulated in your contract (excluding overtime)?” (Questionnaire SOEP, English version)

The micro census which is part of the EU-LFS phrases the question as follows:

“And how many hours do you normally work per week?” (Question 46, translation).

³ The working time reports by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (European Foundation 2008) use statements about working times in the third quarter of the respective year. That is why they differ from the data presented in this report.

⁴ The EU Labour Force Survey respectively the micro census include questions about the “actual” working hours in one particular week as well as questions about the “hours normally worked per week” (see European Commission 2008). The answers to the former were partly dependent on seasonal variations until the harmonisation of the survey procedures (see comment 2). That is why we only use data based on the question about the “hours normally worked per week” in this report – Figure 1.1 – being the only exception. Although we occasionally use the expressions actual or effective working hours in this report, we always mean „usual“ or „hours normally worked per week“.

⁵ For methodological problems of the measurement of working times using the European Labour Force Sample as an Example, see Robinson et al. (2002) as well as Bruyère/Chagny (2002). The former compare the results of the EU-LFS with so-called diary entries, a method of data collection that is considered particularly reliable. According to this analysis, diary entries on average lead to a little shorter working times than the EU-LFS, because especially men with very long working times state shorter working times when using the diary method. Regarding women, however, the results of both methods of data collection are more similar.

Whereas the question about overtime work refers to another given period, namely the reference week (see above, comment 4):

“How many hours (including overtime) did you actually work in the reference week?” (Question 48, translation)

In the reports on working time by the ISO-Institute and later SFS, on the other hand, overtime work was not explicitly mentioned in the beginning. Instead the order of the questions drew the interviewees' attention to the difference between collectively agreed and actual working hours.

We can assume that the explicit referral to possible overtime worked results in longer working hours, than the mere question about the usual working time per week. Given the problems of this issue outlined above, it has to remain open, which of these answers is “more correct”. The explicit reference to overtime work, for instance, does not guarantee more precise information, but may lead to a distorted perception. This is also indicated by an observation made by Bruyère/Changny (2002), namely that diary entries show even shorter working hours than the EU-LFS, which already shows the shortest working hours of the three surveys in Germany presented here. What is important is that cross-section analyses are not possible among surveys with differing formulations of questions. Therefore each should be used separately. Then the structures and trends resulting from the separate analysis can, on the other hand, be definitely compared to each other, but cautiously so.

Unfortunately, at least in one case known to us within the EU-LFS, the data is not always comparable, either. Some years ago, the statistical office of Austria added a new question on overtime. This obviously resulted in the phenomenon that was described here for the SOEP (see box). As it deviates from the EU-LFS standard, Austria is not included in the cross-section analysis of this report.

Name of the survey	All employees	Full-time employees (35 hours and more)	Full-time employees (self-assessment)
SOEP	38,5	43,0	42,7
Arbeitszeit 99 (iso)	37,5	41,7	--
EU-LFS	35,9	40,3	40,1

Tabelle 1.1: Average actual working hours in Germany according to different data sources

Source: Schief, 2003, S. 192

1

In 2004 the Austrian statistical office changed the formulation of the question about working hours on own initiative by explicitly asking about over-time work and, against this background, about the usual working time per week (Stadler 2006). The EU-LFS shows a leap of 2.8 hours between 2003 and 2004 regarding full-time employees' working hours per week. This leap presumably can only be explained by the change in the method of collecting data. According to the EU-LFS, Austria shows the longest or second longest working times in Europe (e.g. 42.2 hours per week in 2008). Obviously, using such data for cross-section analyses is pointless, therefore we did not include them in our analysis. Before the changes, working hours of full-time employees in Austria developed without any major fluctuations (40.1 hours per week in 2000, 40.0 hours per week in 2003). The same is true for the time after the changes (42.8 hours per week in 2004, 42.4 hours per week in 2006, 42.2 hours per week in 2008). As these data show - given consistent methods of collecting data - we can even assume a tendency towards a slight reduction of usual working hours of full-time employees in Austria during the last decade.

This report is based on the latest available average annual data of the EU Labour Force Survey (2008). The presentation of trends in working hours refers to the period 1995-2008 for countries of the EU-15, and 2000-2008 for the Central and Eastern European Countries (CEEC). We evaluated the actual working times per week (the amount of hours "normally" worked per week). Unless otherwise stated, the data refer to employees aged 15-64 years.⁶ The working hours are analysed separately for men and women, full-time and part-time employees. Moreover, the working hours are examined according to qualification structure as well as in some cases according to great industrial branches.⁷

⁶ Generally the working times of self-employed persons are considerably longer: In 2005 more than 42% of self-employed without staff and 49% of employers stated that they normally work more than 48 hours per week (European Foundation 2009a: 57). Self-employed persons are - with very few exceptions - not included in the analyses of this report. In case, these exceptions where the whole working population is considered, are pointed out explicitly.

⁷ As stated above, the EU-LFS does not provide data on the organization of working time - except statements on unsocial working times. Therefore, the shift towards more flexible working hours is not the subject of this report.

2 Tendencies in the development of working hours in the EU-27

This chapter provides a first overview over the basic data concerning working hours in 2008 as well as the development of working times since 2000 in the EU-27 countries resp. since 1995 in the EU-15. The changes and the differences between countries described in this chapter will be subject to a more detailed analysis in chapter 3 (country profiles) and 4 (parents' working hours).

2.1 Full-time

When talking about the development of working times, we mostly talk about the working times of full-time employees. This is for good reasons. Despite the constant increase in part-time employment in many countries, the majority of employees in EU countries currently still work full-time. The political and institutionalised character of full-time employment should be considered, too. It is full-time employment that is limited by law and collective agreements and therefore it is traditionally the main subject of working time policy. In the European Union the maximum of working hours stipulated by law – with certain reservations and flexibilities – is 48 hours per week. Therefore, especially in the EU-15 countries collective agreements have played a central role for decades because in them the norms for the duration of the working week are set. With the gradual transition from the statutory or collectively agreed 40-hour week and 5-day week since the 1950s, these norms simultaneously have had a tremendous impact on the social standard of working time.

That is why the following chapter is dedicated to the development of working times per week of full-time employees. Afterwards, we turn our attention to part-time employment, and thereby also to the differences between the working hours of men and women. As we will see, this field shows much stronger dynamics regarding changes of working time than that of full-time employees.

2.1.1 Legal and collectively agreed working time normalities in the EU

Working times can be limited by law or by collective agreement. The effective significance of one or the other depends on the respective national traditions. However,

⁸ According to an overview by the European Foundation (2008) the national limitations are not lower than the EU Working Time Directive in 17 out of the 27 EU countries. At a more detailed differentiation between standard working time and maximum working time, however, the group of countries with statutory norm working hours or standard working times of 40 hours per week would be larger. Moreover, Germany now is the only EU country which has no explicit limitation of working hours per week. The 48-hours limitation of the "usual" working time only exists implicitly in the combination of the limitation of the daily working hours and a six-days working week. The implicit maximum working time therefore is 60 hours per week and in exceptional cases even 72 hours per week.

the less common collective agreements are in a country, the more important legal regulations might be – though this is not necessarily the case, as is shown by the British example. Conversely, it can occur that the tradition of limiting working hours exclusively by collective agreements is so dominant that any legal regulation is seen as an interference with the collective bargaining autonomy and is regarded as an alien element in the industrial relations (this was the case in Denmark when the European Working Time Directive was to be transposed into national law).

One of the basic characteristics of legal limitations of working time is that they may contain three elements:

1. standard working time (e.g. 48 hours per week in the European Working Time Directive).
2. period of time, within which the standard working time must not be exceeded on average,
3. an upper limit, that must not be exceeded, even in the case of fluctuations – except for clearly defined cases – (e.g. ten hours per day in the European Working Time Directive).

A fundamental publication by the ILO (Lee et al. 2007) offers a brief history of the regulation of working time since the 1920s that starts with the proclamation of a limitation of working times to 48 hours per week in the first ILO convention in 1919. In this publication, this type of limitation of working hours is called "limits on normal hours". That was, therefore, the definition of a norm for the duration of the daily and weekly working time. It is allowed to deviate from this norm – for example by definition of authorised overtime hours – up to a defined maximum limit. In many country comparisons this differentiation between standard working time and maximum working time is done only vaguely, or not at all. This is also true for the overview over the legal limitations on working hours in the EU countries published by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (European Foundation 2008a: 14 ff). However, these regulations' complexity – not to be understood by the amount of standard working time and maximum working hours alone – is rightly pointed out in that publication.

In numerous EU countries, the legal working time norm is less than 48 hours per week⁸. In two countries, France and Belgium, it is even less than 40 hours (35 resp. 38 hours per week). Moreover, the experiences in France and Belgium show that under certain social or economic conditions, the changes of statutory working hours can give a considerable impulse for working time realities in society and companies. The generalization of the 40-hours

Development of working time in the EU

norm in Portugal in the 1990s serves as an example for this possibility.

On the other hand, within the group of EU-15 countries having the statutory 48-hours week, the actual average working time is clearly shorter. In Denmark, the application of the first legal limitation of working time, the EU Working Time Directive, was strongly opposed by both, management and unions. However, it is one of the countries with the lowest actual working time in the EU.

Let us now turn our attention to the limitations of working time by collective agreements (further on, we provide an overview in comparison to the actual working hours; see Table 2.1). These, too, are increasingly taking over the character of standard working times according to the definition above – this trend is most distinct in

collective agreements) (Figure 2.1). However, it remains open to what extent the collective bargaining coverage shown in the figure includes collective agreements on working hours.

In contrast, for countries with little collective bargaining coverage, information on the average collectively agreed working time should have only limited value. This applies to Great Britain, for example. Apart from the public services, there hardly exists any regional union agreement⁹. Nevertheless, also in a country like Germany, with medium collective bargaining coverage, caution should be exercised, as the data on collective bargaining coverage do not reflect regional union agreements alone. Thus in 2006 collective bargaining coverage by means of regional union agreements amounted to 54% in Germany. To this number we have to add the company agreements

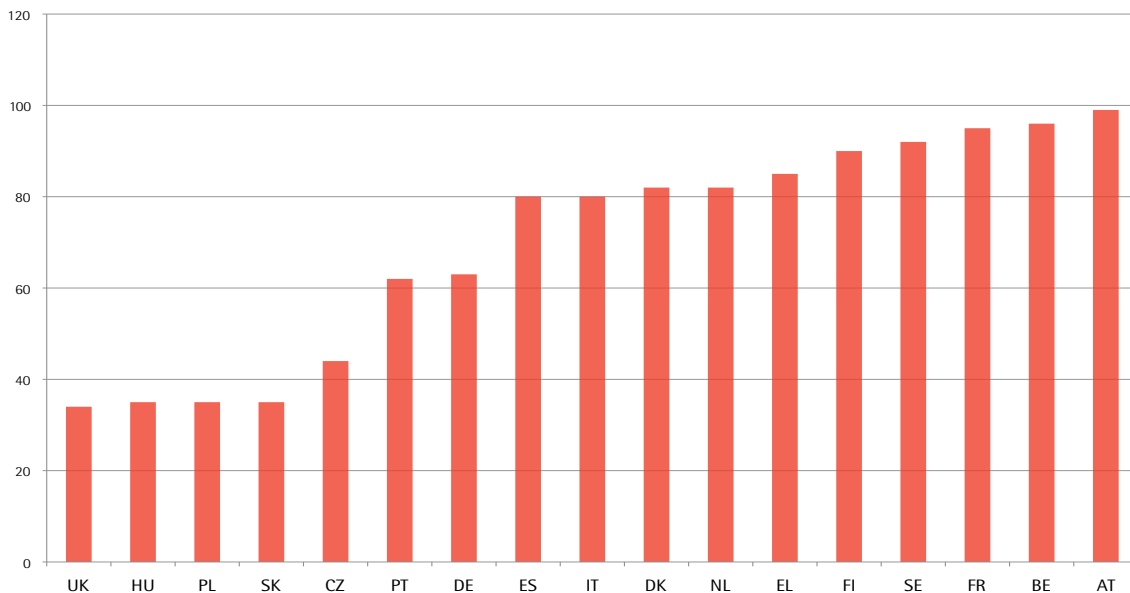


Figure 2.1: Degree of collective bargaining coverage, selected countries, 2006, (in %)

Source: ICTWSS database

Germany, in which the statutory maximum working time is, in part, assumed implicitly. Of course, this can also differ from one country to another.

Information on the average collectively agreed working time is really meaningful only for countries with high collective bargaining coverage. This is especially true for the Northern European Countries, but also for other countries with high collective bargaining coverage like France, Spain, the Netherlands, Austria and Slovenia (above all because of the significance of the extension of

which extended to another 9% of employees (Bispinck 2008). The collective bargaining coverage of 63% shown in the diagram therefore does not mean that all these employees enjoy the working time regulations defined by regional union agreements. In addition, we have to consider that there are exemptions even in companies bound by a collective agreement like the 13/18%-quota in the metal industry, which might additionally increase the actual average collectively agreed working time.

The average collectively agreed working time of 38.6 hours per week stated in the following paragraph in Table 2.1 for the EU-27 is therefore to be seen as – from a trade unionist point of view – an optimistic assessment. In fact, the average is likely to amount to 39 hours weekly. Moreover, we should not overlook that – depending on the degree of collective bargaining coverage, and the

⁹ Although the amount of the average collectively agreed working time in Great Britain stated by European Foundation is based on the evaluation of more than 400 in-company and inter-company agreements (European Foundation 2008: 309), however, the weight of agreements in the public sector probably is overwhelming. It is no coincidence that the figure stated there lies very close to the 37 hours per week agreed on as working time per week in the municipal administrations of Great Britain (ibid: 12).

stipulations of the collective agreements in particular – the employees' average working hours agreed in individual contracts might clearly exceed this mark. According to the latest sfs survey (Groß 2009a: 28; see also Table 3.7), the average contractual working time of full-time employees in companies bound by collective agreements in Germany in 2007, amounted to 38.7 hours per week. This is clearly above the average collectively agreed level of 37.6 hours. According to the same survey, full-time employees who work in companies not bound by collective agreements had an average working time of 40.0 hours per week. This means that the average contractual working time of all full-time employees amounted to 39.2 hours. In this way, it becomes even clearer to what extent the gap between collectively agreed and actual working times can reach. We want to focus on the latter, now.

2.1.2 Usual working hours of full-time employees in 2008

In the EU-27, full-time employees on average work 40.5 hours per week (resp. 40.3 hours in the EU-15).¹⁰ The range goes from 38.0 hours per week in the Netherlands to 42.4 hours per week in Great Britain (data for 2008). On the whole it becomes clear that the working hours are scattered around the 40-hours mark (Figure 2.2).¹¹

The strong East-West divide of working hours is typical for these countries – except for Great Britain. Apart from some exceptions, the working hours in the Central and Eastern European acceding countries (CEEC) are longer than those in the EU-15 countries. Germany's 40.4 hours are an EU average. Within the EU-15, only full-time employees in Great Britain, Greece and Spain work longer than those in Germany. This is in stark contrast to the German's own gladly publicly cultivated judgement of their country as the "world champion in leisure time". The short working time in Ireland is remarkable. It reminds us of the fact that the common grouping of the (former) "Celtic Tiger" into the "Anglo-Saxon model" of Capitalism is at best based on a gross over-simplification. Furthermore, it is noticeable that some of the particular efficient national economies in the EU, among them the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark and Finland, reach their high per capita incomes through average working hours around the 39-hour week. The contrast between the Southern European countries, Italy and Greece, is also eye-catching. On the other hand, their structures of working time have a lot of similarities in other areas, as we will see later. Finally, it should be pointed out that the average working time in France is considerably longer than the statutory 35-hour week might suggest. However, that does not alter the fact that France is one of the countries with the shortest working week in Europe (we will return to this subject later).

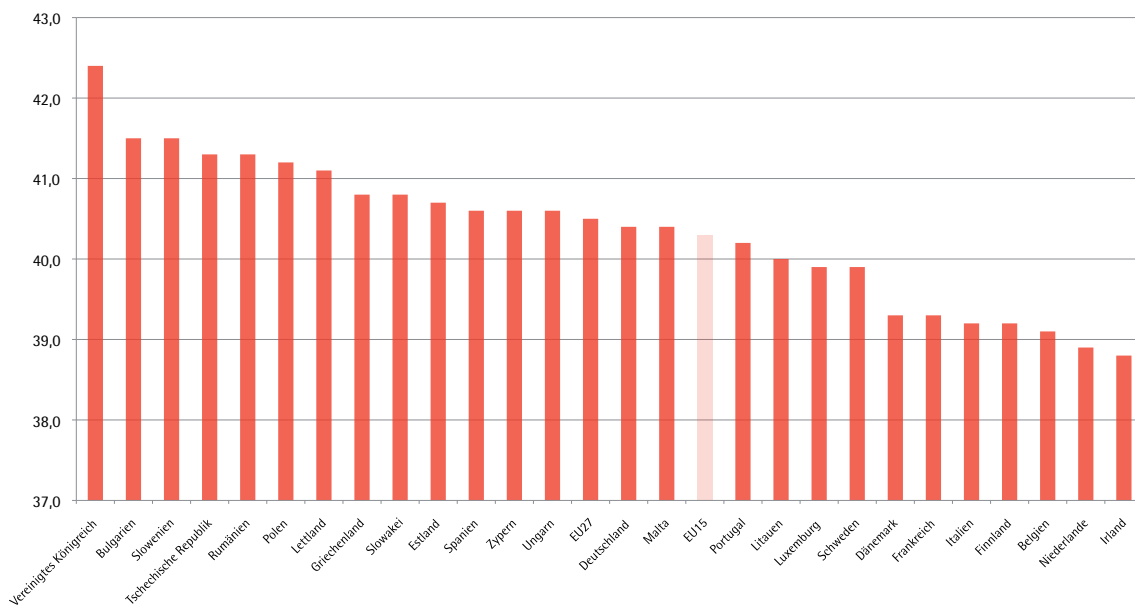


Figure 2.2: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees, EU-27, 2008 (in h.)
 Basis: 15-64 year old employees
 Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

¹⁰ The most recent average figures available for the EU-27 and EU-15 generally date back to 2007.

¹¹ Austria was left out of this and other cross-sectoral comparisons; See explanations in the introduction.

Well, how long are these actual working times compared to the above presented collectively agreed working time norms? Table 2.1 provides an overview.

As expected, the gap between collectively agreed and actual working hours in Great Britain is particularly large. However, the practical significance of this gap is relatively

Development of working time in the EU

	Collectively agreed	Effective	Difference
EU-27*	38,6	40,5	1,9
EU-15	37,9	40,3	2,4
Hungary	40	40,6	0,6
Sweden	39**	39,9	0,9
Italy	38	39,2	1,2
Poland	40	41,2	1,2
Netherlands	37,5	38,9	1,4
Belgium	37,6	39,1	1,5
Slovenia	40	41,5	1,5
Finland	37,5	39,2	1,7
Denmark	37	39,3	2,3
Spain	38,3	40,6	2,3
Slovakia	38,4	40,8	2,4
Germany	37,6	40,4	2,8
Czech Republic	38	41,3	3,3
France	35,6	39,3	3,7
Great Britain	37,3	42,4	5,1

Table 2.1: Average of collectively agreed usual working hours of full-time employees in selected EU countries, 2008 (in hours)

* Actual working hours in 2007

** Estimation based on the fact that sectoral collective agreements refer to the statutory working time of 40 hours per week. Moreover, shorter working times in certain sectors are only agreed for shift workers. Additionally, there may be works agreements with shorter working times. Therefore, the amount of 37.5 hours per week for Sweden in the report by the European Foundation (2008a) is not comprehensible. Our estimation of 39 hours per week is quite low. However, in any case we can assume a number near 40 hours. That's why the estimation of 0.9 hours difference between collectively agreed and actual working hours per week in case of doubt is rather too high than too low.

Sources: European Foundation (2008a); concerning France: Ministère du Travail (2008); Concerning Sweden: own assessment based on expert evaluation; actual working times: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

small due to the low collective bargaining coverage. At the other end of the spectrum, countries with short working times are in line with the expectations: Among others Italy, Belgium and the Netherlands, but also Germany with its difference slightly above average. Perhaps it is more surprising that in Hungary and Poland, which means countries with low collective bargaining coverage, the gap between collectively agreed and actual working hours is that small. However, the level of collectively agreed working hours is to a great extent concurrent with the statutory standard working time. Thus, there is obviously a large overlap of collectively agreed and legal norms on the one hand, and social normalities on the other (see chapter 2.1.3).

Most strikingly, however, is the situation in France: Despite high collective bargaining coverage, the discrepancy between the two indicators of working time is well above average. The objection could be made that improved data would reduce the gap as the collectively agreed average working time does not include small enterprises. Those

	Collectively agreed annual holiday (days)	Number of week-holidays	Number of working days	Annual working hours
SE	33	10	208	1660
IT	28	11	212	1662
DK	30	8	213	1674
FR	25	11	215	1690
FI	25	10	216	1693
NL	26	7	218	1696
DE	30	10	211	1705
PT	25	12	214	1721
IE	20	9	222	1723
ES	22	12	217	1762
EL	23	10	218	1779
CZ	25	9	217	1792
HU	20	8	223	1810
PL	20	10	221	1821
SI	20	11	220	1826
LV	20	7	224	1841
UK	25	8	218	1849

Table 2.2: Assessment of actual working time per annum in selected EU countries (2008*)

* data on leave of absence and public holidays for 2006; Data on collectively agreed holidays are not available for all EU countries

Source: European Foundation (2007a); EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

were included in the statutory 35-hour week only with a time delay and with many exemptions. On the other hand, such statistical deficiencies can be expected regarding other countries, as well. This drifting apart of actual and collectively agreed working time therefore still needs explanation, in any case. We will return to this issue later (chapter 3.2).

The following is a closing cross-section comparison based on annual working hours. According to the assessment method¹² applied by Schief (2004) at the Institute for Work and Technology, Table 2.2 combines the actual working time per week of full-time employees with the data on leave of absence and public holidays provided by EIRO (European Foundation 2007a).

Due to the fact that their number of collectively agreed holidays is above average, the Northern European Countries and also Germany, move up a little in the hierarchy of countries. The working hours per week in Germany are precisely on the EU average. Therefore, it moves to the lower midfield in the "ranking" of annual

¹² More sophisticated calculation methods would consider the annually changing situation of public holidays either on a weekend or during the week; and furthermore probably even the average number of sick leave days. For the purpose of our comparison, however, we do not consider this necessary – especially when considering the other uncertainties.

¹³ For the country-specific regulations see the articles in Keune (2006) and Strzeminska (2008).

working time. The basic proportions within the EU remain unchanged, even when examining the annual working hours: On average, working times in the CEEC are considerably longer than those in the EU-15. Within the group of EU-15 countries, Great Britain, Spain and Greece still remain the countries with the longest working times.

2.1.3 Changes compared with 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (CEEC)

Let us now turn our attention towards the changes in the average working time of full-time employees over time. Before discussing some details of the development, we will start with a medium-term retrospective. For most of the CEEC, the available information reaches back to 2000 or 2001; concerning the countries of the EU-15, we can go back as far as 1995.

Let us begin with the retrospective regarding the group CEEC (Figure 2.3). What is most striking in this context is the fact that in seven countries out of ten, the EU-LFS shows minor reductions of working hours during the last decade. In three cases, the reductions of working time have even been considerable.

In this context, too, we have to point out the possibility of a statistical artefact. In the Czech Republic, the statutory 40-hours week was established in 2001. Before, the 43-hours week applied, whereas this standard working time provided for a 30 minutes lunch break per working day as part of the paid working time. The 40-hours week, in contrast, does not include breaks (Fassmann/

Cornejová 2006: 67). If we take the 5-days week as basis, then the actual working time had to be reduced by only 30 minutes. We can assume that the result of a company survey would have been the reduction of the normal contractual working time by three hours per week between 2000 and 2001. A survey among individuals will not necessarily lead to a similar result, as the employees answers are based on their individual perception and not on official calculation methods. However, the new legal regulation and the official establishing of a 40-hours norm can indeed influence the individual perception. This theory is supported by the fact that the working time in the Czech Republic shown by the EU-LFS decreased from 43.3 hours per week in 2000 to 41.1 hours per week in 2001. The situation in Slovakia is similar (Cziria 2006): There the statutory 40-hours week was established on 1 January 2003, using the same recalculation as the Czech Republic. The EU-LFS shows a decrease in actual working hours in Slovakia from 41.4 to 40.0 hours between 2002 and 2003. In both countries, working times were mostly stable in the years before and afterwards. Whether similar redefinitions took place in Latvia, too, is not known.

As a result, working hours are currently scattered around the 41 hours mark in the CEEC. This corresponds to the introduction of the statutory 40-hour week in most of these countries around the turn of the millennium (Keune 2006: 20). It is allowed to exceed this norm by doing overtime work. The laws contain regulations for this, so that the 40-hour week becomes a statutory standard working time that is complemented by a statutory maximum working time.¹³

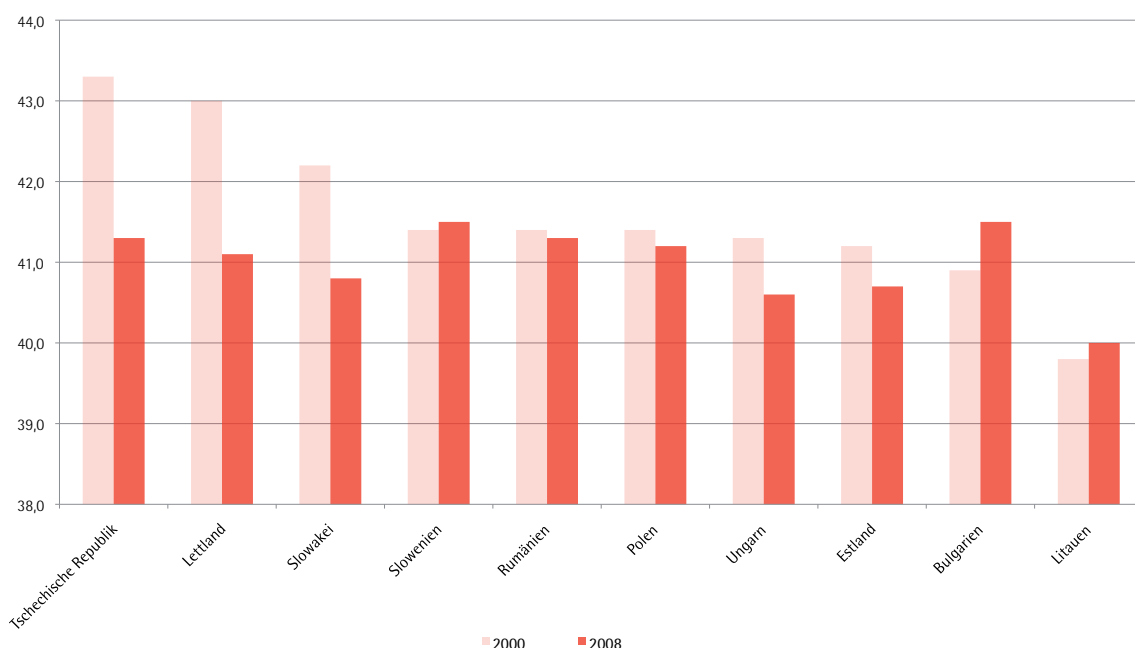


Figure 2.3: Average usual working time per week of full-time employees, 2000/2008, CEEC
 Basis: 15-64 year old employees
 Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

Development of working time in the EU

To sum up, as for the measurement problems, we should not talk about a strong tendency towards reduction of working time in the CEEC, but on the contrary about an extensive stabilisation of working times between 40 and 41 weekly working hours. The adaptation to the so called "acquis communautaire" in the social legislation of these countries has led to the establishment of a statutory 40-hour norm. To this norm the actual working hours, too, have gradually adapted, although at the beginning of the transformation period, they had remained longer.¹⁴ Generally undercutting this norm by collectively agreed reductions of working hours is not the priority subject of employees and of trade unions, nor do they consider it realistic. However, there are a number of collective agreements stipulating a shorter working time in some CEEC (see also country contributions in Keune 2006).

Unlike the CEEC, the EU-15 show strongly varying tendencies regarding medium-term as well as long-term trends. On average in the EU-15, there has been no visible tendency towards reducing or extending working hours of full-time employees since the mid-1990s. The average amount of working hours per week was 40.3 hours in 2007, the same as it had been in 1995 (Figure 2.4). The stability of average working hours in the EU-15, on the one hand, is due to largely unchanged working hours in some countries like Sweden and Spain. On the other hand, it is based on parallel processes of extension of working hours in some countries and reduction of working hours in others. The greatest reductions took place in Great Britain (1.5 hours per week), Ireland (1.4 hours per week) and Portugal (1 hour per week). The greatest extensions were made in Germany (0.7 hours) and – at least according to

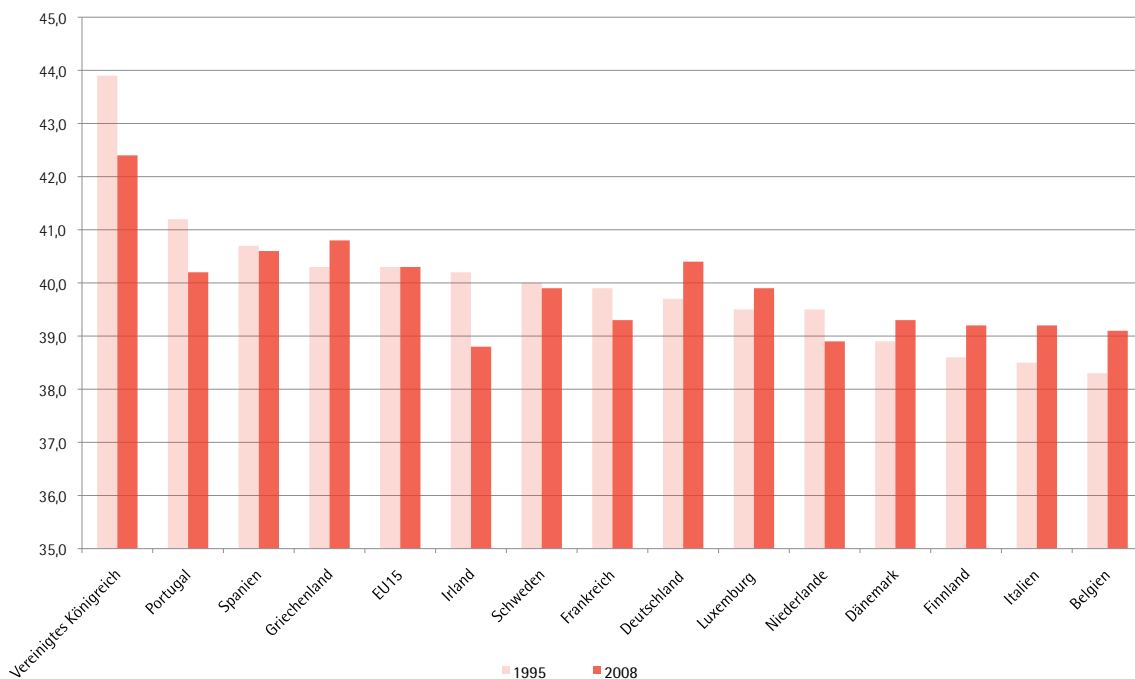


Figure 2.4: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees, 1995/2008, EU-15

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

Particularly interesting are, for example, agreements in the manufacturing industries in Slovakia, which provide for shorter working times for two-shift and three-shift operations. On average, the agreed working time for two-shift operation amounted to 35.5 hours per week in 2004, for three-shift operation they amounted to 33 hours per week (in 2002 they were at about 38 hours, both; Cziria 2006: 232).

¹⁴ A similar development can be seen in East Germany, too. However, there it was closely connected to collectively agreed regulations.

¹⁵ The reference year 2003 offers the additional advantage that at this point of time all EU countries except for Germany and Italy had already harmonised the survey's procedures (see information in chapter 1). Therefore, a comparison between 2008 and 2003 is more reliably than the comparison with 2000. This is the reason why 2005 was incorporated in the table as the first year with uniform survey procedures (except for Austria). The examination of the comparison of the years 2003, 2005 and 2008 proves that the assessments for Germany are not the result of a statistical artefact, but there was indeed a relatively continuous increase in working hours between 2003 and 2008.

the statistics – in Belgium and Italy (0.8 resp. 0.7 hours per week). Nevertheless, we feel obliged to emphasize the possibility of measurement problems in the statistics for the latter two countries (see also remarks in chapter 1).

We would like to replenish the medium-range examination reaching back to 1995 by a "peak-to-peak" comparison of 2008 and 2000, the two peaks of the last two economic cycles. Moreover, we will add a "trough-to-peak" comparison, i.e. a comparison of working times at the trough of the last economic cycle (2003) and those at the peak of the same cycle in 2008. This shall contribute to a better understanding of the different tendencies and help avoid possible misinterpretations based on methodological problems (Table 2.3).¹⁵

The more detailed reproduction of the development of working hours makes it clear in comparison with the other EU-15 countries that the development in Germany has been rather unusual. The reduction of actual working hours in times of recession or stagnation, as seen in Germany, is actually not surprising. There are also examples in other EU countries for a certain extension of working time during the economic recovery, as well. What is particularly surprising, however, is the extension of working hours by 0.8 hours per week during the last five years (last column). This led to the fact that: at the peak of the last economic cycle, the average level of working hours of full-time employees in Germany was higher than at the peak of the preceding one, which, in turn, had been preceded by a distinct extension of working hours in West Germany since the mid-1990s (see chapter 3).

In contrast to the extension of working time in Germany, the reduction of actual working hours in Great Britain and Ireland are remarkable. In Ireland, working hours were on the EU average in the mid-1990s and decreased steadily afterwards. In contrast, Great Britain shows a continuous reduction of working hours with a high level of actually worked hours – indeed still the highest in the EU.

extended by 0.5 hours per week until 2008. This u-shaped movement reflects the changes in the legal regulation of working hours after 1998 and then in the opposite direction since the beginning of the year 2003. Since the change of government in 2003, the effects of the statutory 35-hour week could obviously be undone, at least partly, or for certain occupational groups.

2.1.4 Working time of employees with different levels of qualification

The presented comparison of full-time employees' working hours will now be replenished by some brief insights into the average working hours of the full-time employees of large qualification groups. The EU-LFS enables us to classify the qualification of employees as "low", "medium" or "high". The category "low qualification" comprises unskilled and semi-skilled workers who completed an internship before being employed. Employees with a "medium qualification" are defined as employees who successfully completed vocational training, or vocational education, but also technicians, master craftsmen, or those with an equivalent vocational education (or

	2000	2003	2005	2008	Δ 2008-2000	Δ 2008-2003
EU-15	40,3	40,0	40,3	40,3*	±0	+0,3
DE	40,1	39,6	40,0	40,4	+0,3	+0,8
IT	38,6	38,6	39,2	39,2	+0,6**	+0,6**
FR	38,9	38,8	39,1	39,3	+0,4***	+0,5
ES	40,6	40,4	41,0	40,6	±0	+0,2
NL	39,0	38,8	38,8	38,9	-0,1	+0,1
FI	39,3	39,1	39,3	39,2	-0,1	+0,1
SE	40,0	39,8	39,9	39,9	-0,1	+0,1
DK	39,3	39,2	39,4	39,3	±0	+0,1
BE	38,5	39,2	39,0	39,1	+0,6***	-0,1
IE	39,3	39,3	39,2	38,8	-0,5	-0,5
UK	43,5	43,1	42,6	42,4	-1,1	-0,7

Table 2.3: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees in selected EU countries (2000, 2003, 2005, 2008)

* 2007

** data of 2008 only to a limited extent comparable with 2000 and 2003

*** data of 2008 only to a limited extent comparable with 2000

Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), analysis by IAQ

Finally, the extensions of working time in France are particularly worthy of attention. With regard to the modifications in the survey's procedures (see detailed remarks in chapter 3.2.2) Finally, the extensions of working time in France are particularly worthy of attention. With regard to the modifications in the survey's procedures (see detailed remarks in chapter 2.2.2), it can be said that the usual working hours per week were reduced by two hours over a period from 1998 to 2002, which is to say in the course of the initially voluntary agreement and later statutory establishment of the 35 hour week. Following the change of government in 2002, working times were

graduation from a vocational school in the GDR). Graduates from universities of applied sciences and arts, technical colleges and universities are considered employees with "high qualification".

The qualification structure of the working population greatly reflects – and influences – the economic development of the national economy. Over time, we can see a distinct trend towards higher qualification in the developed capitalist countries. We want to illustrate this tendency using Germany as an example: In this country,

Development of working time in the EU

the share of employed people with a degree from a university of applied science and arts more than doubled between 1976 and 2006 from 7.0% in 1976 (old Federal Republic) to 15.9% in 2006. We also notice an increase in medium qualifications, i.e. particularly regarding vocational training, master craftsmen and technicians. In this field, the share of employed people has risen by about three percentage points. In contrast to this development, the share of employees without any vocational education has decreased considerably during the last three decades. While in 1976 about one third of all interviewed employees stated they had no formal vocational degree, in 2006 only 18.9% of all interviewees, i.e. less than one fifth, belonged to this group (Kümmerling et al. 2009).

These structural changes may have a great impact on the development of working hours. For example, it is possible that employees of medium or low qualification will form the majority of those groups of workers and employees who fall within the scope of collectively agreed regulations of working time – as has been analysed for Germany many times. In this way their usual working time is influenced by earlier collectively agreed reductions of working hours. Many higher qualified employees, however, due to different reasons, work under circumstances where such regulations apply only to a small extent or not at all (Haipeter/Lehndorff 2004). Considering such observations,

it is remarkable that on the EU-27 average, we can hardly notice any differences between the working hours of the three large levels of qualifications. Only within the EU-15, and even clearer in particular countries, can we see, in part, substantial differences (Table 2.4).

In some countries, those belonging to the highest level of qualification have the longest working time. Sometimes, their working time is considerably longer than the average working time of all full-time employees. This is particularly the case in Germany (1.2 hours per week more than the average of all full-time employees in Germany), France (with a difference of 1.2 hours per week) and Great Britain (0.7 hours per week). It is remarkable, that in Germany and France the difference is bigger than in Great Britain, although in Great Britain the absolute duration of the working time of highly qualified employees is the longest of all EU countries.

Regarding the three Northern European countries: in Denmark the differences between the working time of highly qualified employees and the average is bigger than that in Sweden (0.6 opposed to 0.4 hours per week); whereas the working hours of highly qualified employees in Finland are even slightly below national average.

	High qualification	Medium qualification	Low qualification	Total
EU 27	40,47	40,56	40,44	40,5
EU 15	40,63	40,14	40,31	40,3
Belgium	39,33	38,9	38,83	39,1
Denmark	39,85	39,06	38,99	39,3
Germany	41,64	40,04	39,71	40,4
Finland	38,99	39,14	39,59	39,2
France	40,52	38,9	38,5	39,3
Greece	37,29	41,85	43,08	40,8
Italy	36,74	39,2	40,44	39,2
Netherlands	38,78	38,86	39,18	38,9
Poland	38,48	42,12	42,89	41,2
Portugal	38,92	39,97	40,66	40,2
Sweden	40,28	39,57	39,66	39,9
Slovakia	40,39	40,91	41,04	40,8
Slovenia	41,62	41,47	41,57	41,5
Spain	39,9	40,76	41,24	40,6
Czech Republic	42,71	41,16	40,45	41,3
Hungary	40,26	40,7	40,61	40,6
UK	43,11	42,32	41,42	42,4

Table 2.4: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification, selected EU countries*, 2008

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

ISCED 1D: Third level education, Upper secondary education, Lower secondary education

* In this report the countries for the tables are selected according to the particular aspects of the respective subject of examination; The complete overview over the EU-27 can be found in the Annex tables

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

In numerous other countries, however, highly qualified employees have shorter working times than the average of all full-time employees. This generally applies to the CEEC (except for the Czech Republic), but in the Southern European Countries it is particularly strong: Greece (3.5 hours per week less than the average), Italy (2.5 hours per week) and Portugal (1.3 hours per week); the difference is lowest in Spain (0.7 hours per week). Obviously, the traditional understanding that a high qualification gives employees the right to privilege, including working hours, can still be felt in Southern Europe, today. It is revealed in the fact that the working time of white-collar workers is usually shorter than that of blue-collar workers (although the latter aspect is also influenced by the gender-specific aspects of working hours, which also exist among full-time employees – as shown above). Additionally, in some countries highly qualified employees are mainly civil servants who have considerable privileges over other employees – this is especially true for the highly segmented labour markets in Italy and Greece (concerning Italy see Simonazzi et al. 2009, concerning Greece see Karamessini 2009). The fact that the difference in working hours in Spain is lower than in the other three Southern European countries, might be due to the rapid modernisation of the Spanish employment model during the last two decades (see below for female participation in the labour market; concerning changes in the Spanish employment model in general see Banyuls et al. 2009).

When comparing the working time of medium qualified employees with the average of all full-time employees in the individual countries and groups of countries, it becomes clear that – unsurprisingly – this group of employees is the one substantially marking the average. On the other hand, in relation to the average, the working hours of the lowest qualification level are the mirror-image of the working time of the highest qualification level. That means that in Southern Europe as well as in the CEEC, low-skilled full-time employees usually have longer working hours than the average. In this case, the key role might lie with this occupational group's traditionally low wages, which can be increased by paid overtime work. In Great Britain, in comparison, skilled workers obviously have better chances than unskilled workers to increase their salary by means of overtime.

The difference between the group with the longest working time and the group with the shortest working time can serve as general indicator for the differentiation of working hours according to the level of qualification. In this respect, Greece, Italy and Poland are on top. The Benelux countries, Hungary and above all Slovenia form the counterpart with particularly low differentiations (of 0.5 hours per week or less). In the three Northern European countries, the differentiations at least lie below the 1-hour threshold, while that of Germany, France and Great Britain lie clearly above it. Surprisingly, in Great Britain the gap is smaller than in Germany, while in France

it is bigger than in Germany (Table 2.5).

As the table shows, in most countries there have been no dramatic changes in the qualification-specific differences in working time since 2000. At best, we can talk about the tendency towards a gradual alignment of working hours in most of the CEEC. With the exception of Greece, these differences are decreasing in the Southern European countries, too. Above all this is due to the gradual approximation of the working hours of the so far privileged group of highly qualified employees to the general level of working times (for example, highly qualified employees in Italy only worked 34.6 hours in 2000, whereas this data was partly influenced by the statements of teachers).

The opposite trends can be found in Germany and Great Britain. Between 2000 and 2008, the working hours of highly qualified full-time employees in Germany on average increased to a greater extent than those of the other occupational groups. Great Britain, on the other hand, shows the most distinct reduction of working hours for this qualification group within the EU-15 (a reduction of 1.4 hours). The highly qualified employees who work particularly long thus contributed most to the reduction of working hours of all full-time employees by 1.1 hours between 2000 and 2008.

	2000	2008	Δ 2008 gegenüber 2000
EU 27	0,1	0,1	±0
EU 15	0,4	0,5	+0,1
Greece	5,8	5,8	±0
Italy	5,4	4,7	-0,7
Poland*	6,2	4,4	-1,8
Czech Republic	2,6	2,2	-0,4
France	0,2	2,0	+1,8
Germany	1,3	1,9	+0,6
Portugal	4,4	1,8	-2,6
UK	2,3	1,7	-0,6
Spain	1,7	1,3	-0,4
Denmark	1,9	0,9	-1,0
Sweden	0,9	0,7	-0,2
Finland	0,5	0,6	+0,1
Slovakia	0,6	0,6	±0
Belgium*	0,7	0,5	-0,2
Netherlands	0,4	0,4	±0
Hungary	1,3	0,4	-0,9
Slovenia	0,3	0,1	-0,2

Table 2.5: Difference between the longest and the shortest working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification groups, 2000* and 2008 (in hours)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

ISCED 1D: Third level education, Upper secondary education, Lower secondary education

* 2001

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

In Denmark, however, the working times of highly qualified employees decreased even in face of an opposite overall tendency. This contributed to the fact that the qualification-specific differences in working hours decreased considerably in this country.

Contrary, we can observe a particularly strong growth of these differences in France. This is connected to the fact that the working hours of highly qualified employees, as shown by the LFS, increased by 1.5 hours between 2000 and 2008. Although we have to consider the problems caused by the change in the survey's methods as described in chapter 3.2.2, but in practical terms this leap is indeed relevant as the measured working time of the other qualification groups remained constant during the same period of time (medium qualification) or decreased slightly (lower qualification). This widening gap regarding working hours according to qualification groups reflects the way of implementing the statutory 35-hours week (see below). That means that the reduction of the effects of the 35-hours week is mostly caused by the extension of working hours among highly qualified employees.

This and other developments of working hours in individual countries can only be understood by comprehensive analyses, which are unfortunately only to a limited extent available. In chapter 3 of this report, we will try to identify several determinants of the development of working hours in selected countries, as far the research results available to us make it possible.

2.2 Part-time employment and gender-specific differences in working hours

When examining working hours – as with examining wages – gender-specific aspects are particularly interesting. Because of the different historical developments of female work (especially considering the formerly socialist countries in CEEC), and the different welfare systems, we can assume considerable gender-specific differences regarding working hours. We would like to begin our overview with a brief sketch of the great trends regarding the employment of women, which provide an important assistance for the then following interpretation of the changes in working time.

2.2.1 Development profiles of female employment

In EU documents, the activity rate, the employment rate, as well as the full-time equivalent employment rate (FTE), all serve as parameters of employment. The employment rate shows the percentage of all people in employment in relation to the number of people aged 15-64. The activity rate, in contrast, also includes unemployed people. On the other hand, the employment rate in full-time equivalents, includes the actual average working time, therefore it converts the volume of work to "full-time jobs."¹⁶ Table 2.6 provides an overview of the "ranking" of selected EU countries regarding this parameter for the integration of women into the labour market and the changes in this field compared with 2001 resp. 1995.

As the comparison of the employment rate based on individuals with the employment rate in full-time equivalents shows in the CEEC, the difference between these two parameters is clearly smaller than the average of the EU-15. In Sweden and Denmark this difference more or less corresponds to the EU-15 average. Nevertheless, these two countries' difference is based on distinctly higher employment rates which, calculated in full-time equivalents, are the highest within the EU – as in Finland. The comparison between Finland and the Netherlands is particularly interesting: The latter show a higher employment rate based on people than Finland. However, regarding the employment rates in full-time equivalents, the Netherlands are behind Greece and only slightly ahead of Italy. Calculated on the basis of individuals, Germany, too, is above EU average. In full-time job equivalents, however, the employment rate of women ranks in the lower third within the EU.

¹⁶ The expressions used are activity rate, employment rate und full-time equivalent employment rate (FTE). The latter is defined as follows: „The full-time equivalent employment rate is calculated by dividing the full-time equivalent employment by the total population in the 15–64 age group. Fulltime equivalent employment is defined as total hours worked on both main and second job divided by the average annual number of hours worked in fulltime jobs“ (European Commission 2008: 283).

¹⁷ The currently obvious indication that in the particular case of Greece we can assume a particularly high number of unreported cases of informal employment only means that female employment probably is considerably more advanced in Greece than in Germany.

When comparing the female employment rates in full-time equivalents over time, it is obvious that in an EU comparison, Germany's position has been deteriorating since 2001. Within twelve years, the share of hours worked by women in the employment potential of women of this age group has risen by only two percentage points; this means that compared with 1995, in 2007 only a slightly larger number of working hours – referring to all women of working age – was preliminarily redistributed to a larger number of women. The already mentioned gap opening between the developments in Great Britain and Germany becomes clear in this comparison, too.

The contrasting dynamics in Southern Europe should also be pointed out. Regarding the two indicators, Portugal ranks just behind the Northern European countries. Therefore, the traditional gap between Portugal and the other three Southern European countries has widened. In Italy and Greece, the dynamics concerning the employment of women even in full-time equivalents, clearly surpass that of Germany, for example¹⁷ However, the most rapid development can be observed in Spain. Within the 12-year period examined here, the employment of women in Spain rose by about 20 percentage points, even when counted in full-time equivalents. Thus it almost reached the EU average.

	Employment rate 2007	Δ ompared with 1995 (**resp. 2001) (in ppt.)	Employment rate in full-time job equivalents 2007	Δ compared with 1995 (**resp. 2001) (in ppt.)
EU 27**	58,3	+4,0	49,8	+2,6
EU 15	59,7	+10,0	49,2	+6,9
Finland	68,5	+9,5	63,9	+10,1
Denmark	73,2	+6,5	62,8	+5,5
Sweden	71,8	+3,0	61,9	+3,4
Portugal	61,9	+7,5	58,3	+6,0
Czech Republic**	57,3	+0,4	55,6	±0
France	60,0	+7,9	52,4	+6,2
Great Britain	65,5	+3,8	51,3	+4,3
Hungary**	50,9	+1,1	50,1	+1,3
Poland**	50,6	+2,9	48,6	+1,9
Spain	54,7	+23,0	48,5	+19,6
Germany	64,0	+8,7	48,2	+2,1
Greece	47,9	+9,8	45,8	+8,9
Netherland	69,6	+15,8	44,4	+10,6
Italy	46,6	+11,2	41,5	+7,7

Table 2.6: Employment rates* of women in selected EU countries, 1995/2001/2007 (%)

* women in employment in relation to the number of all women aged 15-64

Source: European Commission 2007, European Commission 2008, own calculations

The greatest contribution to these different development dynamics was made by the development of part-time employment among women. This is the subject we are now going to turn to.

Development of working time in the EU

2.2.2 Part-time and full-time employment: Contrasts between genders, contrasts between countries

The importance EU countries attach to part-time employment varies substantially. Typically, part-time employment is spread more widely among women than among men. However, the extent of the gap is different in each country. Firstly, there is the strikingly great difference between the part-time rates in the Central and Eastern European countries (CEEC) on one side, and most of the "old" EU countries on the other. Nevertheless, even the differences within the EU-15 are immense: Finland and Portugal stand out due to very low part-time employment rates, the Netherlands because of very high ones. Apart from Great Britain, Germany, too, is characterized by a part-time employment rate above average (Figure 2.5).

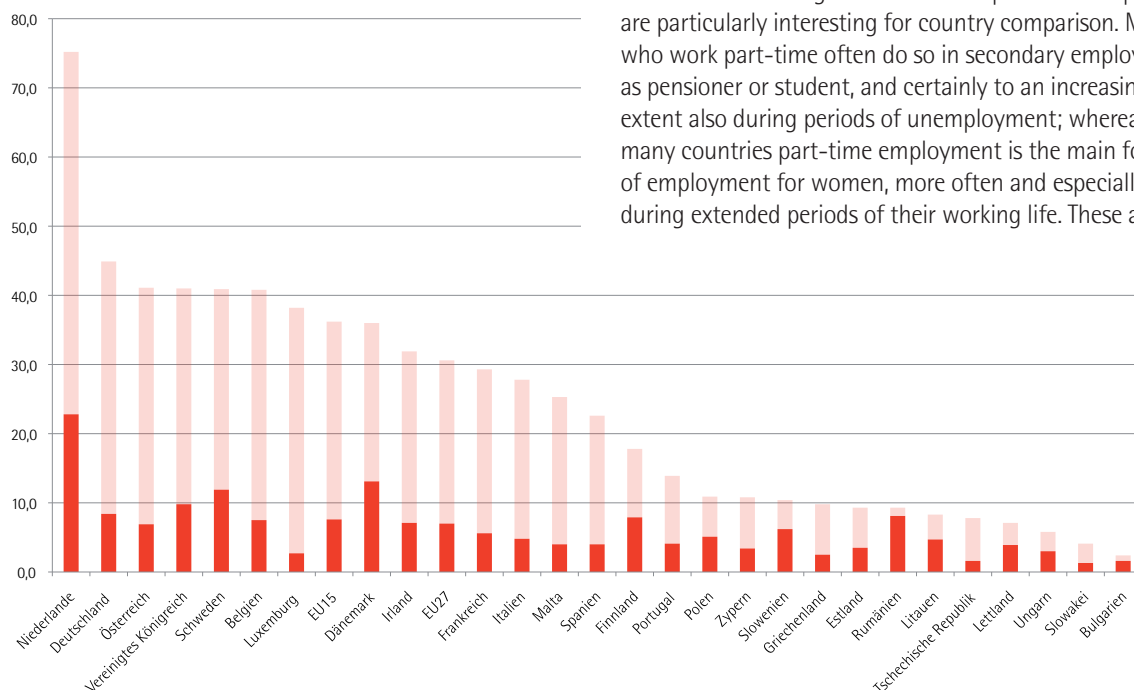


Figure 2.5: Share of part-time employees according to gender, EU-27, 2008 (in % of all employees)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Light-coloured part of the bar: Women; dark-coloured part: Men

Source: European Commission (2009c), European Labour Force Survey

In the period between 1995 and 2008, part-time employment continued increasing in the EU-15, particularly among women, but to a lesser extent also among men. But once more we find opposing developments in the individual countries (Figure 2.6). In the Netherlands, the European number one regarding part-time employment, the significance of part-time employment continued increasing not only among women but also among men. There has been an increase in Germany, too, so that its part-time employment rate outdid that of Great Britain. In Great Britain, part-time

employment increased only among men, while slightly decreasing among women. In Southern Europe, the importance of part-time employment has been increasing gradually (in Italy rapidly). In Northern Europe, we notice that the part-time employment rate among women has been decreasing in Denmark and Sweden. At the same time, it has been increasing slightly in Finland; however, the level is still very low there.

In the Central and Eastern European countries the development is varied, too. However, in contrast to the EU-15, the drop in part-time employment predominates on a level that is much lower, anyway (Figure 2.7). Merely in Hungary, Slovenia, Slovakia and Estonia the share of part-time employment in total employment increased.

Not only the share of part-time employees, but also their average working hours can differ widely from one country to another. The working hours of female part-time employees are particularly interesting for country comparison. Men who work part-time often do so in secondary employment as pensioner or student, and certainly to an increasing extent also during periods of unemployment; whereas in many countries part-time employment is the main form of employment for women, more often and especially during extended periods of their working life. These are

the reasons for the fact that the average working time of men in part-time employment partly is shorter than that of part-time working women. In Table 2.7 we compiled the average working hours of part-time employees in 2008. The last column of the table shows to what extent the working hours of female part-time employees increased or decreased compared with the reference year 1995 resp. 2000.

The cross-section analysis shows that particularly in Belgium, France, Hungary and Sweden the part-time working hours of women are far above EU average.

Tendencies in the development of working hours in the EU-27

Whereas the working hours of female part-time workers in Germany are the lowest in the whole EU (for a complete country comparison see Annex tables). Within Germany there is a huge East-West gap: In 2006 female part-time employees in East Germany on average worked 21.8 hours per week, whereas in West Germany they only worked 17.5 hours per week (Kümmerling et al. 2008). In this case, the mini-job regulation which is unique in Europe in this form,

leaves its marks (although the data on mini-jobs obviously has not been recorded completely in the micro census so far; see Jansen et al. 2009). Moreover, the working time of female part-time employees in Germany has decreased by more than one hour per week since 1995.

In Great Britain, one of the countries with similarly strong gender segregation on the labour market, we

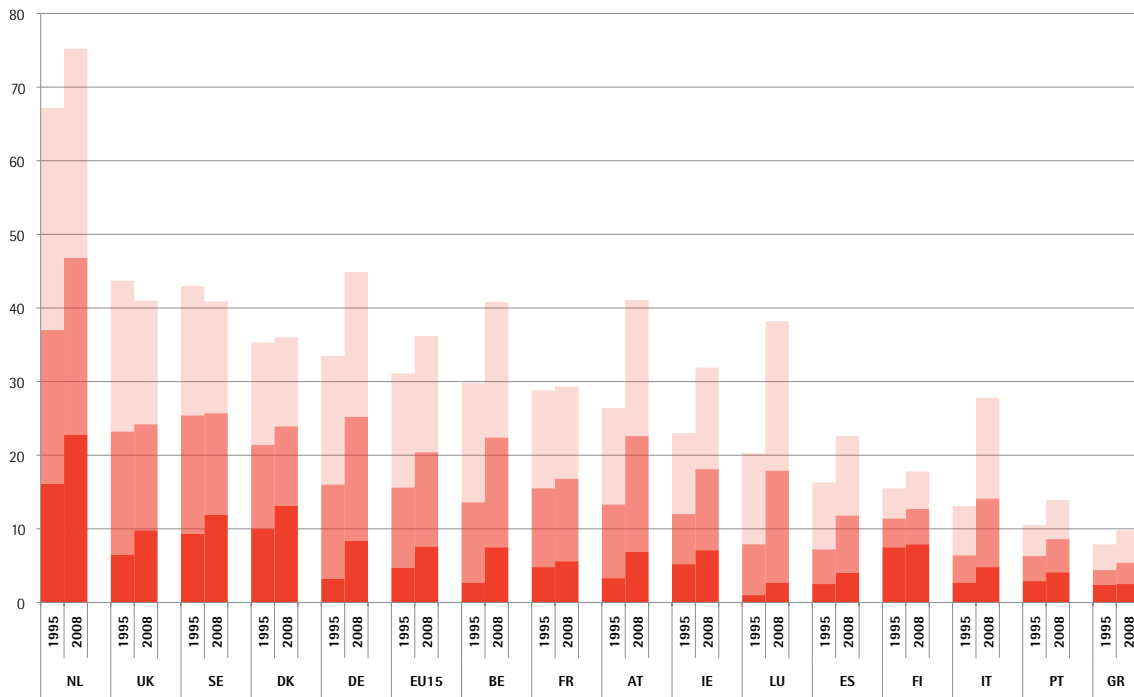


Figure 2.6: Changes in part-time employment rates according to gender, 1995/2008, EU-15 (%)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Legend: black: Men; light grey: Average; dark grey: Women

Source: Eurostat



Figure 2.7: Changes in part-time employment rates according to gender, 1995/2008, CEEC (%)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Legend: black: Men; light grey: Average; dark grey: Women

Source: Eurostat

Development of working time in the EU

can observe the opposite trend during the same period: There, the working times of female part-time employees amounted to 18.1 hours per week in 1995, and therefore were the shortest in Europe. However, they then increased to 19.5 hours by 2008. This example shows that gender segregation regarding working times during the period under review decreased slightly in Great Britain, whereas it continues to increase in Germany. Other parameters presented in this report show a similar tendency.

is largest (3.8 hours per week), while it is smallest in Luxemburg and Sweden (0.1 and 0.2 hours per week respectively). In Figure 2.8 the countries are ordered by the extent of this difference.

During the period under review, the EU-15 average of this gender-specific difference in working hours remained unchanged at 2.2 hours per week. In Great Britain, the country with the greatest differences, the gap between the working hours of male and female full-time employees shrunk from 5.1 hours per week in 1995 to 3.8 hours per week in 2008. This decrease was due to the fact that the working hours of men decreased considerably more than the (shorter) working times of women (around 1.8 compared with 0.5 hours per week). In contrast, the difference between the working hours of men and women among full-time employees grew from 0.8 to 1.1 hours per week in Germany, as the working times of men grew somewhat faster than those of women (by 0.9 compared with 0.6 hours per week). In the CEEC, there has been no considerable change in the already low differences between the working hours of male and female full-time employees (Table 2.8).

The different levels of education and qualification also have a great impact on the employment and working time of women. Highly qualified women are more likely to be working, their working hours are longer and their course of employment is more stable than that of less qualified women. Moreover, in many countries, but not all, they do not differ much from the average for men in these aspects. For example, the employment rate of women with university education is about 30 percentage points higher than that of women with a lower level of education.

This is true for both women with and women without children. When comparing the results of the individual countries to each other, we notice that the difference between the continuity of employment for women with children and those without children is unusually large in Germany. Women with children are considerably less likely to be continuously in employment. Here, too, mothers with university education are clearly more likely to be continuously employed. They are even more often continuously employed in full-time jobs than mothers with low-level education (OECD 2002: 79).

The individual parameters for the extent of gender segregation regarding working times presented so far will be combined in order to examine the mathematical average working time of all employees.

	All part-time employees	Men 2008	Women 2008	Changes compared with 1995 resp. 2000 (only women)
EU 27 (2007)*	20,2	19,2	20,4	+0,4
EU 15 (2007)	20,1	19,0	20,3	+0,3
Belgium	23,7	24,6	23,5	+2,1
Czech Republic	22,6	21,8	22,9	-3,3
Denmark	19,8	15,1	21,7	+0,5
Germany	18,1	16,3	18,5	-1,2
Ireland	18,9	19,4	18,8	+0,5
Greece	20,4	21,9	19,8	-2,1
Spain	19,3	19,2	19,3	+1,7
France	23,4	22,5	23,6	+1,0
Italy	22,0	22,1	22,0	-0,5
Hungary	24,3	24,4	24,2	+0,5
Netherlands	19,8	19,3	19,9	+1,6
Poland	22,1	22,5	21,9	-0,7
Slovakia	21,3	20,3	21,7	-2,3
Finland	20,2	19,1	20,6	-1,5
Sweden	24,3	20,7	25,3	+1,0
Great Britain	19,2	18,2	19,5	+1,4

Table 2.7: Average usual working hours of part-time employees according to gender in selected EU-countries, 2008 and changes (only women) compared with 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (CEEC) (in h.)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

* earliest year of reference possible: 2001

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

Regarding full-time employment, the differences between female and male employees are not as pronounced as those regarding part-time employment. However, they are still clearly noticeable in many EU countries. Everywhere, male full-time employees on average work longer than female full-time employees. On EU average, this difference amounts to two hours per week (41.3 hours for men, 39.3 hours for women).

Men work longest in Great Britain (43.9 hours per week) and shortest in the Netherlands (39.1 hours per week). Women work longest in Bulgaria (41.2 hours per week) and shortest in Ireland and Italy (36.9 resp. 37.0 hours per week). In Great Britain this difference between the working hours of male and female full-time employees

Tendencies in the development of working hours in the EU-27

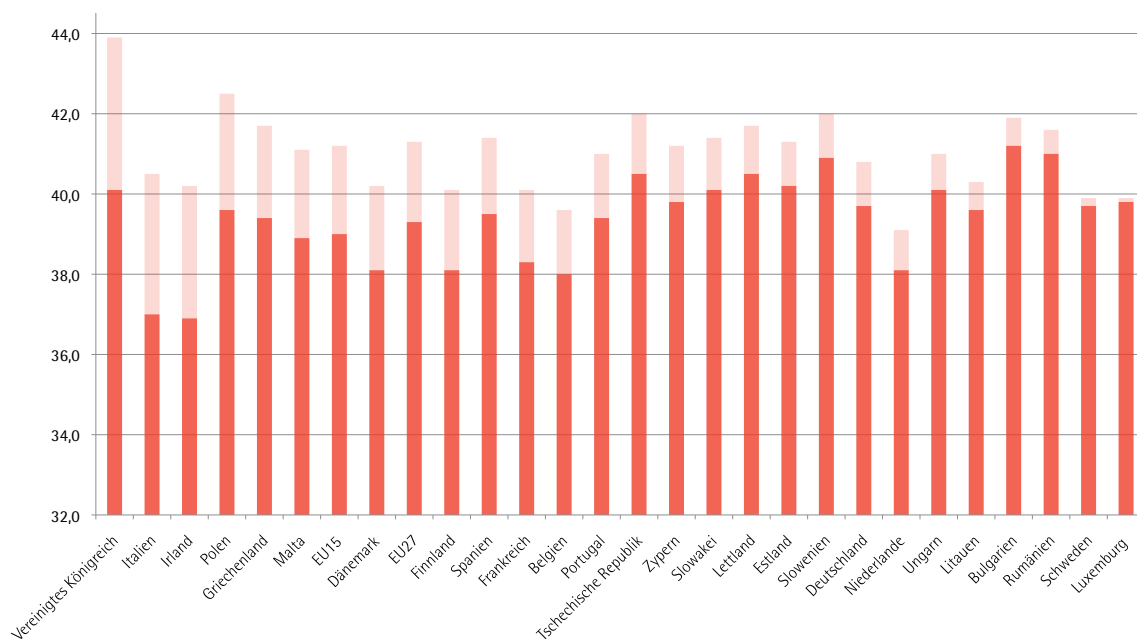


Figure 2.8: Average usual working hours per week of men and women, full-time employees, EU-27, 2008* (in h.)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

*EU27/EU15 2007

Light-coloured part of the bar: Men; dark-coloured part: Women

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	M/W	M/W
	1995	1995	1995	2008	2008	2008	Diff. 1995	Diff. 2008
EU 15*	40,3	41,1	38,9	40,3	41,2	39,0	2,2	2,2
Denmark	38,9	39,6	37,9	39,3	40,2	38,1	1,7	2,1
Germany	39,7	39,9	39,1	40,4	40,8	39,7	0,8	1,1
Spain	40,7	41,2	39,6	40,6	41,4	39,5	1,6	1,9
France	39,9	40,6	38,7	39,3	40,1	38,3	1,9	1,8
Italy	38,5	39,7	36,2	39,2	40,5	37,0	3,5	3,5
Netherland	39,5	39,6	39,1	38,9	39,1	38,1	0,5	1,0
Portugal	41,2	42,8	39,2	40,2	41,0	39,4	3,6	1,6
Finland	38,6	39,2	37,9	39,2	40,1	38,1	1,3	2,0
Sweden	40,0	40,1	39,8	39,9	39,9	39,7	0,3	0,2
Great Britain	43,9	45,7	40,6	42,4	43,9	40,1	5,1	3,8
CEEC	2000	2000	2000	2008	2008	2008	Diff. 2000	Diff. 2008
Czech Republic	43,3	44,0	42,4	41,3	42,0	40,5	1,6	1,5
Hungary	41,3	42,2	40,4	40,6	41,0	40,1	1,8	0,9
Poland**	41,4	42,9	39,8	41,2	42,5	39,6	3,1	2,9
Slovakia	42,2	42,7	41,7	40,8	41,4	40,1	1,0	1,3

Table 2.8: Average usual working hours of full-time employees according to gender, 1995/2008 (EU-15) resp. 2000/2008 (CEEC) (in hours), selected EU countries

* most recent data 2007

** first data 2001

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

Development of working time in the EU

2.2.3 Mathematical average working hours

The average working time of all employees is often used in international comparisons. It may be a useful unit of measurement for certain purposes, the comparison of labour productivity per person-hours, for example. For the comparison of working hours, however, it is useful only to a certain extent. These data are highly condensed and their meaning can only be revealed with the help of detailed explanations. Nevertheless, such explanations are usually scarce. For example, German media frequently use the data on average working hours in the OECD countries published annually by the OECD, to prove that working times are particularly short in Germany. However, they fail to point out that these data include part-time employment. Because of the complexity and the misunderstanding it might cause, we use data on average working hours only with great reserve and caution in this report.

In order to clarify the gender specific aspect of working hours, however, this parameter is extremely meaningful. Naturally, this indicator has to be one of several in order to depict the stage of development of gender equality on the labour market. Other indicators, particularly income differentials (gender wage gap), but also employment rates have to be included. The comparison of working hours contributes to this analysis.

Table 2.9 gives an overview over the mathematical average working hours of all employees. Therefore it gives an impression of the country-specific differences between male and female working hours. On EU average, male employees worked 39.8 hours per week in 2007, female employees, in contrast, only worked 33.4 hours weekly. In Germany this working time gap amounted to 8.6 hours per week, which is more than two hours above EU average.

The gender-specific working time characteristics of certain countries are even more distinct in this table than they were regarding the comparison of part-time employment rates and part-time working hours. The last column shows the extent of the increase or decrease of the gender-specific differences in working hours in the individual countries compared with 1995 (EU-15) respectively 2000 (CEEC); Countries where the changes are particularly massive are highlighted (the increase by almost two hours per week in Germany and Italy is contrasted by a considerable decrease in Sweden, Portugal and especially Great Britain - although on a substantially higher level). In having opposite trends, the results of Germany and Great Britain show a tendency of approximation on a high level of gender-specific differences in working times.

	Women	Men	All employees	Δ M/W 2008 (h.)	Changes of Δ compared with 1995 resp. 2000 (h.)
EU 27 (2007)*	33,4	39,8	36,8	6,4	+0,2
EU 15 (2007)	32,1	39,4	36,0	7,3	± 0
Netherland	24,3	34,3	29,6	10,0	-1,0
Great Britain	31,7	41,2	36,6	9,5	-3,3
Germany	30,0	38,6	34,5	8,6	+1,9
Italy	32,8	39,7	36,7	6,9	+1,9
Belgium	31,7	38,4	35,2	6,7	+0,3
Spain	34,8	40,5	38,0	5,7	+1,3
France	33,9	39,2	36,6	5,3	-0,3
Denmark	32,1	36,6	34,4	4,5	-0,4
Sweden	33,7	37,6	35,7	3,9	-1,4
Poland*	38,0	41,8	40,0	3,8	+0,2
Greece	37,8	41,3	39,8	3,5	+0,4
Finland	35,1	38,5	36,8	3,4	+0,9
Portugal	37,4	40,5	39,0	3,1	-1,7
Czech Republic	39,1	41,6	40,4	2,5	-0,2
Slovakia	39,4	41,1	40,3	1,7	+0,3
Lithuania	38,4	39,8	39,1	1,4	-0,3
Hungary	39,2	40,5	39,9	1,3	-1,0
Bulgaria	40,8	41,7	41,3	0,9	+0,1
Romania	40,9	41,6	41,2	0,7	-0,1

Table 2.9: Average usual working hours of all employees according to gender, 2008 as well as the difference M/F in 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (new member states) (in h.), selected EU countries, (ordered by amount of the difference M/F)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees | * year of reference 2001

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

The fact that gender-specific differences in working hours are very small in the CEEC is remarkable – though not surprising (this phenomenon is the reason for the difference being clearly lower on EU-27 average than on EU-15 average). Even in Catholic Poland this difference is not bigger than, for example, in Sweden. Remarkably the smallest differences can be found in the poorest countries of this region (for example, determined by the – certainly very rough indicator –GDP per capita). The trends of the past decade, however, are varied. For example, the increase in the differences of working times in Slovenia is contrasted by a further considerable decrease in Hungary – both on a low level.

Another remarkable point is that three so very different countries such as Portugal, Greece and Finland show similar differences in working times (the labour markets of Portugal and Greece do not only differ considerably from that of Finland; regarding the employment of women, they also differ strongly from each other!).¹⁸ It is noteworthy that in Portugal this difference decreased substantially whereas it increased in Finland – although still on a low level. Because of this trend, Finland differs from the other two Northern European countries: The difference in working hours between men and women decreased slightly in Denmark and even clearly in Sweden, whereas the level of the difference in both countries is still higher than that in Finland.

This comparably low gender-inequality regarding working hours in the three Northern European countries still presents a striking difference compared with most of the other countries in the economically strongest zone within the EU-15. In France gender-inequality regarding working hours is clearly below EU-15 average, too. In contrast, Italy, Ireland, Germany, Great Britain and the Netherlands form the group of countries with the greatest gap between male and female working hours.¹⁹ In Italy and Germany this gap has grown considerably since 1995, whereas in the Netherlands it has shrunk substantially – and even more so in Great Britain.

However, applying this approach, we must not neglect the fact that there is an absolute gap of seven hours per week between the two extremes, namely Great Britain and the Netherlands. The inequality of men and women on the labour market in Great Britain, as far as it is reflected by working hours, may therefore be similar to that in the Netherlands. However, at least at first glance the much-invoked compatibility of family and profession still seems to be easier to achieve in the Netherlands than in Great Britain. On the other hand, according to this approach, the Netherlands put the emphasis on family, whereas in Great Britain the integration of women into the labour market is considerably more advanced than in the Netherlands (in this field one of the countries at the bottom of the league in Western Europe). We can therefore assume that the Netherlands still has to master the real challenges regarding the question of compatibility (see also chapter 4).

In this context, the comparison between Great Britain and Germany is particularly impressive. In Great Britain, the gender-specific difference between working hours decreased by 3.3 hours per week, whereas it increased by 2.1 hours per week in Germany. These opposite developments were based on a continuous growth of female employment in both countries. The contrast can be summarized as follows: In Great Britain the increasing employment of women was accompanied by a gradual decrease of the part-time employment rate among women and a gradual extension of the average working hours of women working part-time as well as women working full-time. Simultaneously the working time of full-time employed men decreased considerably. In Germany, on the other hand, the increase in female employment was primarily based on part-time employment, while the average working hours of part-time employees even dropped below the already low level of 1995. At the same time, the working hours per week of full-time employees increased, to wit stronger among men than among women.

Greatly simplified, we can summarize the presented data as follows: In many of the poor countries in the EU, the gender differences in average working hours are small. Along with an increasing level of economic development, however, the results start to vary: Countries with small differences in working hours between men and women (Northern Europe, France) stand in opposition to countries with enormous differences (Germany, Great Britain and the Netherlands). Within the second group of countries, however, Great Britain and Germany show opposite trends: The increasing gender-specific segregation of working hours in Germany is opposed to the – though still on a high level – decreasing segregation in Great Britain.

Against this background and based on the presented data, we come to one central conclusion: When examining the working hours and the structures of working time within the EU, it becomes clear that the development of female employment has the potential for strong dynamic change. The working hours – of the mainly male – full-time employees, being the traditional target group of working time policy, however, show comparably little changes. This brings us to the question whether the conventional means of regulating working time – law and collective agreements – may still be seen as the institutions mainly influencing societies' working time normalities. We are going to discuss this question in the next chapter.

¹⁸ Portugal has been one of the countries with the highest female employment for decades. Simultaneously it shows one of the lowest part-time employment rates for women in Europe. Since its „Carnation Revolution“ it is an exception among the Southern European Countries. Actually concerning the main parameters of female employment, it shows more similarities with Finland than with the southern Mediterranean countries (see the comparison between Portugal and Spain by Castro et al. 2009).

¹⁹ Austria, too, belongs to this group of countries; For the reasons stated above, we do not include Austria in country comparisons.

3 Country-specific working time normalities

In the previous chapter, we saw that the extent of differentiation of working hours between various occupational groups varies from one EU country to another. This is true for the working hours according to qualification level, for example, but especially for the differences between the working times of women and men. In statistics, such differentiations are most generally expressed by the changes in the frequency of certain of working times per week. The differences between the singular countries are sometimes considerably more distinct than those between average working hours. Additionally, there are also amazing differences between countries regarding the stability or dynamics of change of these "working time profiles", as we will call them.

3.1 Comparison of working time profiles

Before examining certain countries in more detail, we want to present and compare a number of working time profiles. The following figures will make no distinction between men and women, in order to depict the country-specific stabilities and dynamics of change more clearly. Then we will discuss the gender-specific aspects on which obviously many of these profiles are based.

Let us start by looking at the example of Germany. Figure 3.1 shows what percent of employees normally worked what hours per week in 2008, and how these hour intervals have changed since 2000. The clearly visible shifts in working times structures within these eight years mainly

reflect the two great tendencies already sketched roughly above: Regardless of the level of collectively agreed working times, the prevalence of working times around 40 hours per week and more increased (above all at the expense of working times around 39 hours). At the same time part-time employment in its various forms increased.

Now we will contrast this picture with the working time profiles of other countries. Denmark (besides Sweden and Finland) is suitable to serve as the opposite of Germany. As Figure 3.2 demonstrates, there have been no major changes during the period under review. Actual working times per week are still centred at 37 hours. However, the fields of part-time work and working hours exceeding 40 hours per week show strong differentiations.

Now we turn our attention to countries where the working time on average decreased. In this case, Hungary will serve as example for the reduction of working time for full-time employees with an otherwise largely unchanged structure. As Figure 3.3 shows, the reduction of the average working time of full-time employees can almost entirely be put down to the distinct reduction of the proportion of employees with more than 40 hours, which furthered another concentration within the 40-hours standard.

Great Britain is yet another contrast to this development. Here, the reduction of the average working time since 2000 originated in the fact that basically the relative weight of all working times exceeding 40 hours per week decreased while that of working times of less than 39 hours per week increased. Due to the strong diversification and the - despite the declining trend - still dominant importance of working times above the 40-hours

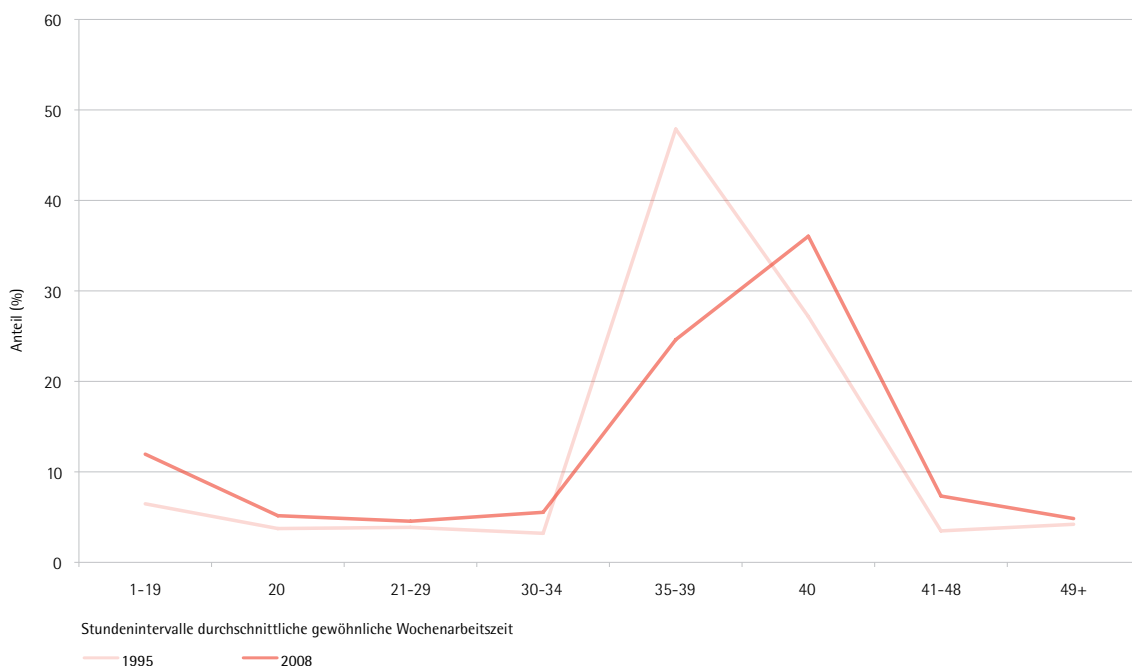


Figure 3.1: of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Germany, 1995/2008
Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), special analysis IAQ

Development of working time in the EU

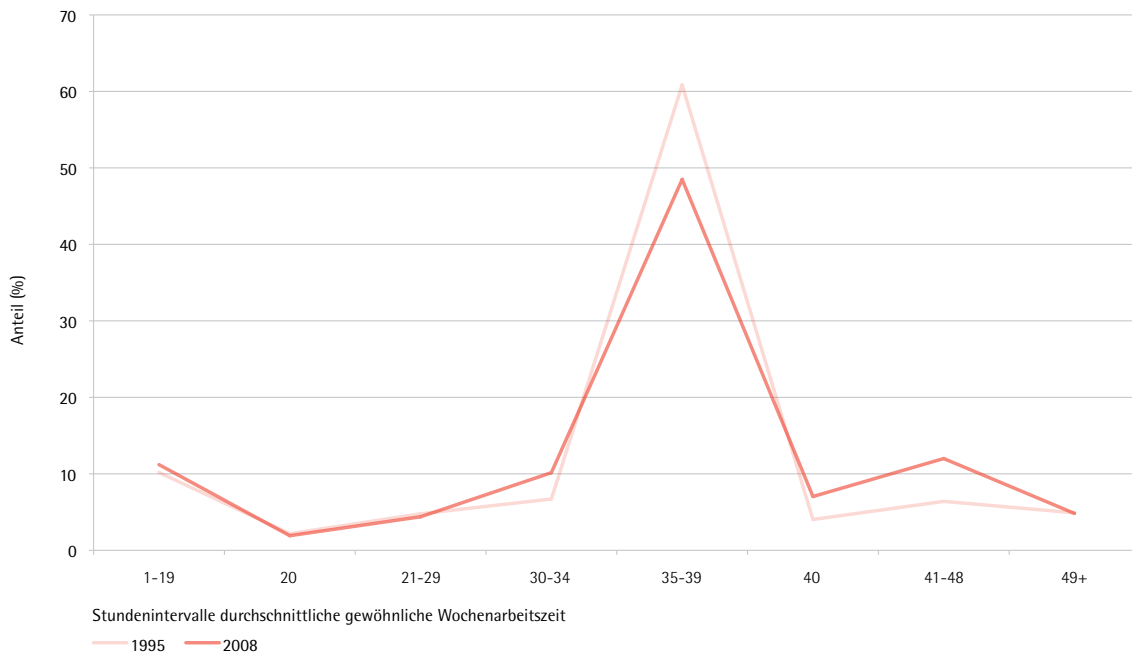


Figure 3.2: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Denmark, 1995/2008
Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), special analysis IAQ

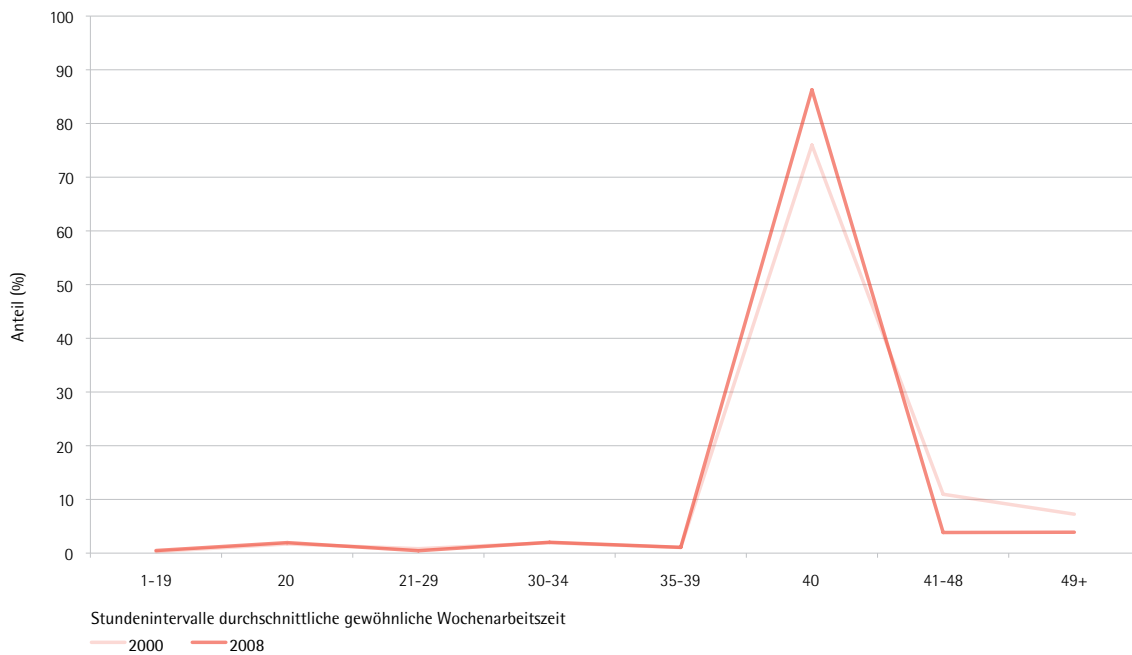


Figure 3.3: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Hungary, 2000/2008
Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), special analysis IAQ

threshold, the working time profile of Great Britain is unique throughout Europe. It seems as if there was no social working time standard apart from the "long-hours culture" in this country (Figure 3.4).

These striking differences between profiles and tendencies give rise to two questions which are connected with one another. These questions are of interest both as research strategic as well as political: How can these country-specific, factual social working time normalities

be explained? To what extent is the "normal" in society influenced by legal or collectively agreed norms? And: Are there institutions beyond collective agreement and law which also have an influence – and maybe an even greater one – on the development of working hours, and the changes of social working time normality or working time normalities?²⁰ We will try to at least come close to the answer to these two questions by using individual countries as example.

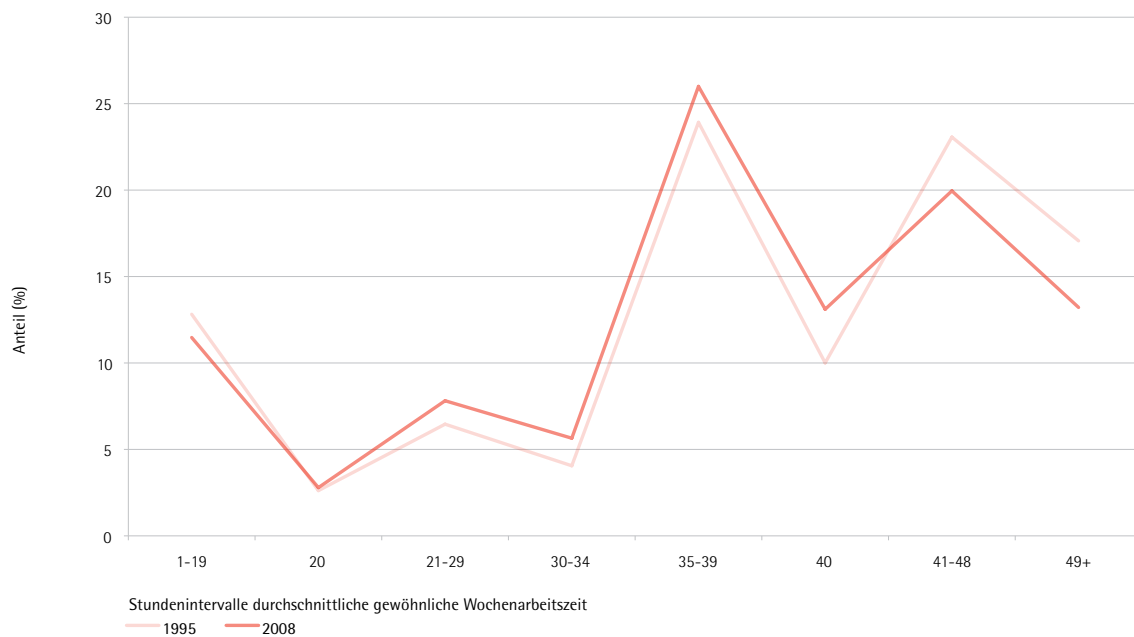


Figure 3.4: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, Great Britain, 1995/2008
Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), special analysis IAQ

3.2 France: Two steps forward and one step back

France ranks among the countries with the shortest working times and comparably homogeneous working time structures in Europe. The typical profile is that of a dominating full-time standard near the statutory working time. The regulation of working time, primarily through legal norms, is a tradition that goes back to the people's front government in the mid-1930s, which - almost at the same time as the USA - introduced the statutory 40-hour week. Between the 1950s and the 1970s actual working hours gradually adapted to the legal norm. Therefore, the introduction of the 39-hour week by the first government under president Mitterrand in 1981 could affect actual working times immediately. Collective agreements have always just followed the changes of the legal working time norms - a practice that still lives on today mostly unbroken.²¹

The legal norm decisively influences the full-time standard, which in turn influences the actual working hours of women almost as strongly as those of men. Similar to the situation in Southern Europe and Finland, in France part-time employment is not as widely-spread as in the EU average. Nevertheless, the employment of women has developed considerably faster since the 1950s than in other Mediterranean countries (the early extension of public child care has its roots in the population policy of the first post-war years). Although the employment of women, counted in people, is not above EU average - it has actually been somewhat below the level of Germany, lately - however, the still quite low part-time employment rate, and the comparably little differences in working hours between men and women still cause the female

employment rate in full-time job equivalents to lie above the EU average (see chapter 2.2.1).²²

This basic structure was not changed much by the introduction of the statutory 35-hours week, either (Figure 3.5). When looking at the left part of the diagram, we can observe that during the last decade, the importance of classical part-time work among women (20 hours per week) as well as short part-time (less than 20 hours per week) has even decreased slightly.

The actual dynamics can be observed in the field of full-time employment. The great change is the "left shift" of the area of working hours where the huge majority of employees work. Table 3.1 depicts, in more detail, this dynamic since 1995. The concentration of working hours in the area of 39/40 hours per week started to relativise as early as the 1990s, for the benefit of a shift towards the 35-hour week. The latter was then becoming the range with the greatest concentration of working hours until 2003 - just under one-third of all employees usually worked 35 hours per week then. Only half as many employees as three years earlier normally worked 39 or

²⁰ The differentiation between norm and standard we make for analysis purposes is borrowed from the world of technology: The term 'standard' has a double meaning: technological language usage differentiates between "de jure standard" and "de facto standard". In order to clarify the differences, we will use the terms 'norm' and 'normality'.

²¹ That is why working time has been an important subject of collective bargaining policy until recently. In German language, a brief and informative overview over the history of the French working hours policy is provided by Freyssinet (1998), the general historical review in English can be found in Cross (1989).

²² The certain stagnation in this field might be due to the labour market policy of the past 15 years, which strived for a strengthening of part-time employment for women and for longer employment interruptions after the birth of a child, in order to raise the employment level.

Development of working time in the EU

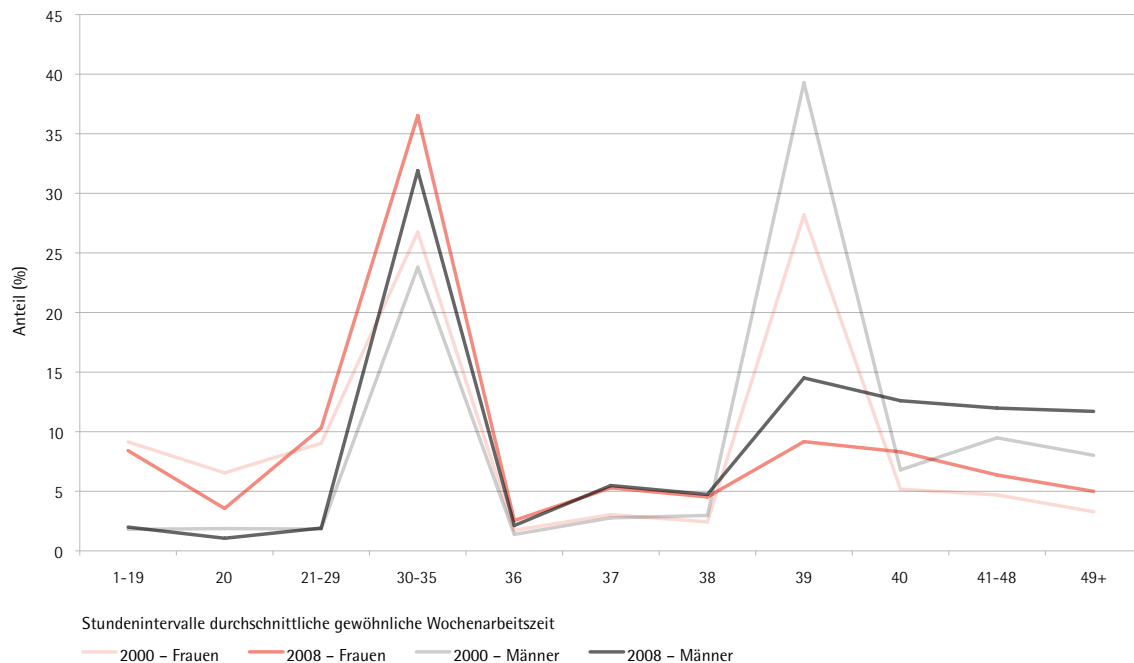


Figure 3.5: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64 men and women, France, 2000 and 2008

Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), analysis by IAQ

40 hours. Nevertheless, at that point the trend started to reverse to a certain extent: The proportion of employees with a 35-hour week as usual working time decreased by almost four percentage points by 2008, while all working time intervals exceeding 35 hours grew stronger.

This table also underlines the – according to EU standards – relatively balanced distribution of working hours between men and women, but with important differentiations. Full-time employment dominates among women as well as among men, while part-time employment is mainly situated in the range of longer part-time. The full-time standard among women is 35 hours. Given the almost 37% of female employees with working hours between 30 and 35 hours per week, with reservations, we can call shortened or reduced full-time the widest spread working time normality of French women. However, longer full-time is gaining importance, too. Among men, in contrast, the full-time standard is now divided almost equally between the three main

	< 20	20-29	30-34	35	36-38	39-40	> 40
1995	5,0	9,8	4,9	2,3	7,0	56,3	14,8
2000	5,3	9,4	6,7	18,5	7,1	40,0	13,0
2003	5,5	8,1	6,5	31,8	11,5	20,4	16,0
2008	5,1	8,3	6,1	28,0	12,3	22,4	17,7
2008 M	2,0	3,0	2,5	29,4	12,3	27,1	23,7
2008 F	8,4	13,9	9,9	26,6	12,4	17,5	11,4

Table 3.1: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, France, 1995, 2000, 2003 and 2008

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

working times 35, 39/40 and more than 40 hours. In the following, we want to concentrate our attention on these changes in the area of full-time employment.

3.2.1 Changes in the legislation on working hours since 2000

The Aubry-legislation – named after the then Employment Secretary – as of the beginning of the year 2000 reduced the statutory working time for all private enterprises with more than 20 employees from 39 to 35 hours per week.²³ Smaller enterprises were to be included two years later. Working hours above the statutory working time are counted as overtime subject to surcharge, as long as there are no other agreements on company level – like, for example, in the form of annual working hours. The maximum permitted working time was reduced from 48 to 44 hours per week (on a 12-week average), for defined exceptional cases to 46 hours. Per capita a maximum of 130 overtime hours was permitted, unless they are compensated by free time or sector collective agreements, defining a different limitation.

Previously, a first Aubry legislation had already established a two-year transitional phase in 1998 while companies were encouraged to voluntarily introduce the 35-hours week based on collective agreements at company level (in defined exceptions based on sector collective agreements) by a system of financial incentives (reduction of employers' contributions, regressively graded by wage level). In order to be granted these subsidies, enterprises had to commit themselves in the agreements to reduce working time by about 10% while increasing the number of employees by

6%, or refraining from originally intended and announced redundancies of the same proportion. The second Aubry legislation of 2000 then rendered compulsory the definition of statutory working time to 35 hours. Moreover, this definition was replenished by the definition of an annual working time of 1600 hours. The conditions for granting reduced employers' contribution were relaxed considerably.

In France, the group of white-collar employees and executives ("cadres") is broader than, for example, in Germany. In a special stipulation, this group was divided into three categories: actual executives without statutory working time (more or less comparable with the executives (leitende Angestellte) in Germany); Employees who are integrated into the working pattern of their departments to an extent that they are subject to the regulations of working times based on the 35-hour week; finally the middle, which among others comprises employees from research departments: Their statutory working time is not necessarily defined by hours. For them daily rates (so-called "forfaits en jours") of a maximum of 218 days annually can be agreed without limitation of hours (except for the European Working Time Directive) – a possibility which was used in the majority of work agreements.

After the takeover in 2003, the new government passed the Fillon legislation named after the new Employment Minister. This legislation raised the upper limit for permitted overtime hours from 130 to 180 per year and confirmed the option of another increase by collective agreement. By the end of 2004, this limit was raised once more to 220 hours. The definition of surcharges to be paid set to 25% by the Aubry legislation was entrusted to the sector collective agreements. Unions and management are allowed to agree surcharges between 10% and 25%. The Aubry legislation stipulated that the application of the statutory 35-hour week in small enterprises should be delayed by two years. However, it was postponed repeatedly – first by the Fillon legislation and later by following legislation. Finally, the reductions of the employers' contributions were combined with other subsidies and decoupled from the duration of contractual working time. Other legislation passed in 2005 served for the "flexibilization" of the 35-hour week; among other things, this legislation abolished the limitation of the amount of hours permitted to be accumulated on the working hours account. Two more pieces of legislations, passed in 2007 and 2008, aimed at a more substantial reformulation of the statutory working time. The opportunities of unions and management to increase the limitation of overtime hours were widened once more.

²³ The Aubry legislation was preceded by initiatives by the governments in the second half of the 1990s. Those initiatives aimed at the creation of incentives for company-level reductions of working hours. Especially the "Robien legislation" brought individual successes, but its impact was limited. The widespread impact only came with the Aubry legislation, as the EU-LFS data shows. The data show a tendency toward actual reductions of working hours starting in the end of the 1990s and intensifying considerably between 2000 and 2002. This overview over the legislation on working hours is based on Dufour (2006), Bloch-London et al. (2008) and Michon (2009) as well as the webpage of the French Labour Ministry. See also the detailed description of the Aubry legislation in Lehndorff (2001) and Flecker et al. (2001).

The regulations on overtime surcharges were simplified: In the case of a company agreement or a sector collective agreement, the surcharge is at least 10%, without collective agreement it is 25%, and from the 45th hour on it is 50%. Of particular importance is the fact that there are reduced social security contributions on surcharges. This applies to employees (this had been introduced earlier) as well as employers. For the occupational group of "cadres", the extension of working time was made more attractive: The limitation of day rates to 218 days annually ("forfaits en jours") was kept, however, an extension of up to 235 days – already possible under certain circumstances earlier – can now be recompensed, too: Effectively, up to 17 holidays can be "sold" to the employer in this way (Ministère du travail 2009).

One important reason for this legislative amendment was – besides ideological reasons – obviously the great dissatisfaction of the employers' associations regarding the statutory 35-hours week.²⁴ The government came to power with the declared goal of repealing the 35-hours week. However, it soon turned out that the majority of employees, who had been sceptical of the 25-hour project because of fear of income losses, now did not want to relinquish the reduction of working time anymore. Although in opinion polls the consequences for working conditions were indeed reviewed critically or controversially (above all partly because of the intensification of work and the introduction of flexible working hours), however, the gain in free time lead to clear majorities in favour of the keeping of the 35-hours week (Dufour 2006; Ministère du travail 2006). Surprisingly, now many enterprises, too – regardless of the position of their leading associations – did not question the once negotiated organization of work based on the 35-hour week. The latter aspect is closely connected to the effects the Aubry legislation had on the practice of industrial relations: Particular enterprises, that had introduced the 35-hour week due to the first Aubry legislation 1998 ff, often had established negotiations on the organization of working time in the company for the first time. This also happened in companies that had had no trade union representation before.²⁵ Even though the increase in company-level negotiations on working times was accompanied by an increase in conflicts – above all conflicts concerning payment – (Bloch-London et al. 2008), many firms could not or would not step back behind the institutionalised negotiating structures, i.e. the newly established practice of company-level negotiations with "agreed compromises" (Charpentier et al. 2006).

²⁴ Economic and employment policy reasons were at best of secondary importance, as the economy and the labour market had shown a quite positive development in the years before. As factual argument, however, the hint that comparably small employment effects were bought at a high price, plays an important role (Michon 2009: 17). Further down, we will have a closer look at the employment effects of the working time reduction in France (chapter 3.2.3).

²⁵ In at least one third of the enterprises which in the course of the first Aubry legislation negotiated voluntary working time agreements with union "representatives" ("salariés mandatés") there had been no company-level union representation, before. In one out of ten of these enterprises, such a representation was formed in the course of the negotiations (Bloch-London et al. 2008).

The series of legislation on working time since 2003 can therefore be seen as the attempt to riddle the 35-hour week in a way that practically little is left, but without formally extending statutory working hours. The essence of the procedure is to make overtime hours more attractive to employees or employers, and at the same time abolish former legal limitations of flexibilization as far as possible – especially for white-collar employees.²⁶

How did the back and forth of the state's working hours policy affect effective working times?

3.2.2 Changes in actual working hours since 2000

The working times negotiated on company level were affected most directly and most substantially by the Aubry legislation. They are recorded in a quarterly company survey (ACEMO). Figure 3.6 demonstrates the strong effect on the working times negotiated at company level even in the first phase of voluntary and publicly subsidised negotiations on the 35-hour week. An even greater thrust was caused by the introduction of the binding norm of 35 hours per week in 2000 while public subsidies were continued. The duration of the average working week negotiated at company level has remained stable at 35.6 hours per week since 2003 (Ministère du travail 2010a).

When we now take a look at the consequences of this statutory as well as contractual reduction of working time for the actually worked hours, we first have to deal with another methodological problem: The already mentioned change in the procedures of the Labour Force Survey within the scope of the harmonisation of the EU-LFS (see chapter 1), which is from a quarter-related collection method to a continuous collection method throughout the year. The change in the collection method had a particularly strong impact in France because this country was one of the few that used to do the quarter-related collection of data in the first quarter of the year. From experience, in this quarter the working times are shorter than on annual average (European Commission 2009a: 27). Therefore, until 2002 seasonal influences (in this case shorter working times in some sectors due to wintertime) might have had a greater impact on the data in France than in other countries. In France, the change in the method of data collection was carried out in 2002.

²⁶ A quite interesting side-aspect is, to whom the respective financial incentives for the extension of working hours are addressed. In the case of the "forfeit en jours" the addressees obviously and exclusively are the employees, because the opportunity to a contractual or informal increase in working days per year already existed before; however, it had financially been of little interest to employees. Employees who now took advantage of the opportunity to "sell" working days to their employers, are now provided a financial compensation – a fact that might not please all employers. Regarding overtime the situation is the other way round: The lowering of the supplement charges makes overtime less interesting to employees. They only got a financial advantage by the recently realised reduction of the employees' contribution to these supplement charges. The legislator seems to assume that in the case of "normal" employees the employer has the upper hand when it comes to putting through ones interest and that this is not the case with higher employees. That is why they have to be offered more to achieve a self-managed extension of working hours.

The French Labour Ministry documented the effect this change had on the working hours stated in EU-LFS in 2002 (Table 3.2): The change in the data collection method alone is responsible for an extension of working hours by 1.1 hours per week shown in the statistics.

When examining the period of time that is crucial to assessing the impact of the statutory 35-hour week on the actual (more precisely: "usually worked") working times, it becomes clear that the extensions of working hours by 0.4 hours per week between 2000 and 2008 resp. by 1.6 hours per week between 2002 and 2008 is to this extent a statistical artefact. It is more realistic to assume that in the course of the reduction of the statutory working time, the actual working hours per week at first decreased by 1.2 or even two hours per week considering the period between 1998 and 2002. Then, however, it increased step by step by 0.5 hours per week in total (2002 to 2008). This U-shaped motion reflects the depicted changes in the statutory regulation of working hours. Therefore, the "net-effect" of the reduction in statutory working hours from 39 to 35 hours per week, should amount to about 1.5 hours per week.

With that in mind, it is useful to examine the two periods – until 2002 and from 2003 on – independently when tracing the development of working hours in detail. As the change in working hour's policy was initiated at the beginning of 2003, this division is even more reasonable. Table 3.3 provides an overview that makes it possible to analyse in-depth the reduction and extension of working time during these two periods.

To take up the assessment based on Table 3.2, the following can be stated: over the whole period from 2000 to 2008, the hours normally worked per week probably have decreased by about 0.7 hours. In the case that this assessment is right, then about 40% of the previously achieved reductions of working hours were reversed after 2002. If we also count the reductions of working hours agreed in 1998 and 1999, then the portion of reversed reductions of working hours only amounts to 25%.

This back and forth was accompanied by a structural development, the basic pattern of which may be summed up simply as follows: The variations in the working times of different occupational groups have increased. To a lesser extent, this is also true for the differences in working hours between men and women. Much more striking is the gap between the three qualification groups and job categories which are set out in Table 3.3. Employees with medium or low qualification profit considerably from the reduction of working time (though to a lesser extent than might be expected when considering the reduction of contractual working hours). The then following extensions of working time only had a below-average impact on the working time of these employees. In the case of low qualified employees, it indeed hardly had any impact. Similar trends can be seen in

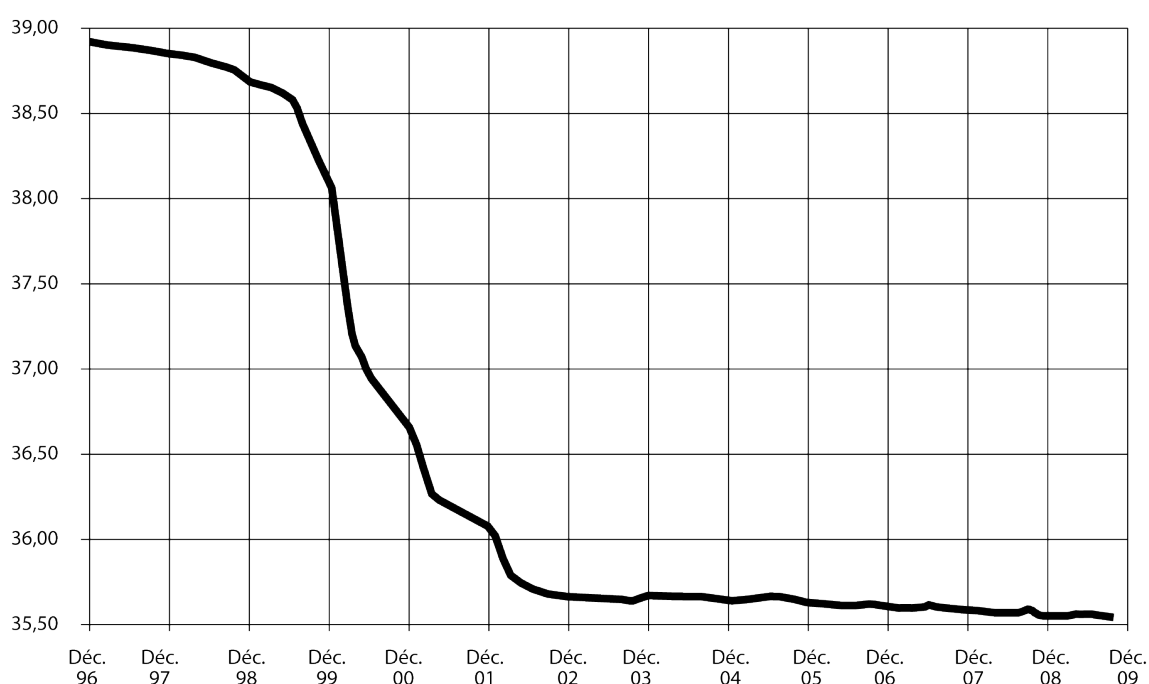


Figure 3.6: Collectively agreed average working hours per week of full-time employees in enterprises with 10 and more employees, France, from 1996 to 2009

Source: Ministère du Travail (2010a)

the context of the three selected job categories. In 2008 the Labour Force Survey showed an even shorter working time for office workers than in 2000 – despite the changes in the survey's procedures. Due to the fact that office workers now have shorter working times than in 2000, whereas those of executives became longer, the gap between the average working hours per week has grown from 6.6 hours in 2000 to 8.6 hours in 2008.

In a nutshell, the partial reversal of the effects of the working time reduction is mostly based on the extension of working hours among highly qualified employees. For employees with low or medium qualifications, the introduction of the statutory 35-hours week – despite its emasculation since

2003 – still had a net reduction effect of one hour per week (taking into consideration the modifications in the survey's procedures). For highly qualified workers, on the other hand, the to and fro of the regulation of working time even caused a minimal net extension of working hours.

When we connect these results to the shift in working time profiles shown in Figure 3.5 and Table 3.1, it becomes clear that these changes to varying degrees reflect the two emphases of the changes to law since 2003: to a small degree the increase in the financial attractiveness of overtime hours for firms and (less strong) for employees. Considerably more distinct is the increase in the financial attractiveness of the extension of annual working hours for employees in high positions.

Fixed-date method / quarter-related	Year	Hours/week
	1998	39,7
	1999	39,6
	2000	38,9
	2001	38,3
	2002	37,7
Annual average data / continuous	2002	38,8
	2003	38,8
	2004	38,9
	2005	39,1
	2006	39,1
	2007	39,2
	2008	39,3

Table 3.2: Usual working hours of employees in France, full-time, 1998-2004
Source: Ministère du travail (2010b) until 2004, from 2005 on EU-LFS analysis by IAQ

	2000	2002	Δ	2003	2008	Δ
Average	38,9	37,7	-1,2	38,8	39,3	+0,5
Dto. Men	39,5	38,2	-1,3	39,5	40,1	+0,6
Dto. Women	38,0	36,9	-1,1	37,6	38,3	+0,7
High qualif.	39,0	38,3	-0,7	39,6	40,5	+0,9
Medium qualif.	38,9	37,5	-1,4	38,5	38,9	+0,4
Low qualif.	38,8	37,4	-1,4	38,3	38,5	+0,2
Industrial workers*	38,4	37,2	-1,2	38,2	38,7	+0,5
Office workers*	37,8	36,4	-1,4	36,7	37,1	+0,4
Executives*	44,4	43,6	-0,8	45,1	45,7	+0,6

Table 3.3: Changes in the usual working hours in France for selected occupational groups, full-time employees, 2000-2002, 2003-2008 (in hours/week)

* ISCO 8, 4 and 1; see explanations in annex tables
Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

However obvious this connection between the changes to law and the changes in the actual working hours may be, it cannot be easily proven in detail. The official statistics on overtime seem to be suited to show to what extent the increase is caused by overtime work. In fact, the statistics on overtime reported by companies have been showing a clear increase for several years now (Ministère du travail 2010c). However, the greatest part of the registered overtime is worked in (above all small) enterprises, where the usual contractual working time is longer than 35 hours, anyway. It is possible that these companies started registering their overtime hours when they were offered the opportunity to profit from reduced social contributions (Michon 2009).²⁷ Therefore, we still lack more detailed information on how the extensions of working time were carried out during the past years, particularly in the area of medium qualification and in the industry.

3 It is similarly complicated to prove, in particular, the practical significance of the newly created incentives for "cadres" to extend their annual working time. Firstly, we would like to point out that naturally long working times are not limited to "cadres" in France, either. For example, Devetter (2008) stated that only half of the employees with working times of more than 48 hours per week (in 2008 this was true for at least about 8.5% of all employees in France, contrasted by 4.8% in Germany) belong to the group of "cadres". The other half comprises, in equal shares, public employees (in this case probably the healthcare system plays an important role) as well as workers and employees with low qualification. The characteristic feature of the "cadres" is the connection between long working times and the character of the working time organization: More than half of the employees with particularly long working times in this group state that they can "decide freely"²⁸ on the scheduling of their working time (among all other groups of employees this is true only for 20%; Devetter 2008: 65). At this point, the increasing significance of agreements on annual working time comes into play. In 2009 about 11% of all employees in the private sector had this kind of contract relating to "forfaits en jours", whereas in 2003 this applied to only 7.7% (Ministère du travail 2004 and 2010a). Those "cadres" which have signed this kind of contract are not congruent to the group of "executives" in Table 3.3. However, the dynamics regarding the "forfaits en jours" in the context of long working time – even on EU average – of executives and highly qualified employees make clear that obviously the same "grey zone of working time regulation" is developing in France, which we already pointed out in the case of Germany. Another similarity between the two countries seems to be the effect this development has on the major trends in the development of working hours.

As an interim balance, we want to emphasise two experiences obtained in the development of working times in France during the past decade. Firstly, – besides Denmark – France is one of the few Western European countries in

which social full-time standards of men and women traditionally strongly overlap. However, this does not happen at the cost of forcing those women into part-time employment for whom this working time is too long. As a result of the latest changes in working times in France, this overlap has shrunk. Along with the extensions of working times, the working hours of men have diversified more distinctly upwards. Whereas the working times of women rather have stuck to the statutory and collectively agreed norm of 35 hours per week. This development – and that is the problem that arises from a union point of view – has only emerged clearly during the phase of extensions of working times since 2003. However, it has its origins in the previous phase of working time reductions that affected the actual working times of the different occupational groups to varying degrees.

Secondly, France is still – from a union point of view in a positive as well as a negative sense – an example for the potential of the immediate as well as mediate (indirect) regulation of working hours by the state. For decades, indirect regulation has supported the development of – according to Western European standards – a quite advanced equality of gender-specific working time patterns. The direct regulation by a statutory standard working time or norm working hours also has decades of tradition. What was new in character and form of regulation initiated by the Aubry legislation was the interaction between state and collectively agreed regulations in the shape of an upswing of negotiations on the company-level organization of working times. At this point the French example, though often viewed as following its own statist path, becomes particularly interesting even to countries with a more advanced tradition of collectively agreed and company-level negotiations concerning working times. Some comparably rigid norms that can be adapted to diversified combinations of interests only by collective agreements are obviously a strong driving force for inner-company and inter-company collective negotiations.

How did the introduction of the statutory 35-hours week, that should expressly help reducing unemployment, affect employment?

²⁷ This fact, too, proves the assessment based on EU-LFS data that the furthering of overtime raised tempers most strongly in the public debate on working time legislation in France, however, the considerably less conspicuous changes in the regulation of the annual working times of "cadres" probably had stronger effects on actual working hours.

²⁸ This also shows why the working hours of executives are of interest to the working hours policy of trade unions. Executives frequently have a great influence on the working time cultures of companies. Especially the working times of white-collar employees are subject to "indirect control" and self-organisation and therefore might be easily pushed towards long working hours by their superiors. When comparing the EU countries, we notice considerable differences regarding the working times of executives: In the Netherlands, the average working times of this occupational group are only slightly longer than the average working time of all full-time employees; To a lesser extent, this applies to Sweden and Finland, too. There the differences are slightly bigger, but according to EU standards they are still dramatic. At the other end of the scale, – besides Great Britain – especially France catches the eye, as executives have particularly long working hours. The working hours of executives in Germany, on the other hand, lie on EU average (see annex tables).

3.2.3 Employment effects of the 35-hour week

It is widely acknowledged that the introduction of the 35-hour week contributed to the positive employment trend observed in France at the time of its introduction. At that time, France showed distinctly higher rates of economic growth than Germany, especially. This was due to the expansive economic policy of the Jospin government (Logeay/Volz 2001): Between 1997 and 2001 France's GDP on average increased by 3.5% annually, compared to 2.5% in the rest of the Euro zone (Logeay/Schreiber 2006: 382). This huge growth formed the basis of the above-average development of employment, whereas the reduction of working time probably intensified this effect considerably. Of course economists evaluate the extent of this contribution differently. Husson (2002: 89), who provides an overview of the controversial debate among French economists on these findings, talks about the "theoretical pessimism" of neo-classical economics, which, in an attempt at giving an ex-post explanation of the above-average employment development in this relevant period, is faced with mysteries hard to be solved: Between 1997 and 2001, the number of employees increased by 7.2%. This rate had never been achieved in 20th century except by France within four successive years of economic growth (ibid: 79). In a newspaper article in 2001, Olivier Blanchard, today Chief Economist of the International Monetary Fund, advised his colleagues to take stock in an unbiased empirical way (see box). This article is symptomatic of the rethink on the part of the French economists, who due to the actual development freed themselves to some extent from "theoretical pessimism".

„At first, to many, including me, the transition to the 35-hour week seemed to be a dangerous reform that threatened to push up hourly wages, and along with that also companies' costs. However, this did not happen. Up to now, wage restraint made it possible to reduce working hours without increasing labour costs. Some figures and facts: Since 1997 the productivity per hour on average increased by 1.8% annually. The small growth in productivity per employee by only 1.2% reflects the reduction of working time. During the same period the (inflation-adjusted) real wage per employee increased by less than 0.5% annually.“
Olivier Blanchard, « Pas de panique », Libération, 30. April 2001 (quoted in Husson 2002, translation).

There have been different empirical attempts to circumscribe the employment effects of this huge reduction of working time, although its extent cannot be determined with ultimate precision. Unfortunately, empirical research on the effects of the 35-hour week was mostly dropped after the change in government in 2002 (Michon 2009). Most research was carried out between 2000 and 2002, i.e. at a time when the 35-hour week had been declared statutory working time only shortly before, and therefore the transition to the 35-hour week was still in progress in the majority of enterprises. That is why they

mainly refer to the period of the first Aubry legislation in 1998/1999 when the introduction of the 35-hour week had been voluntary still and the subsidies were granted only under the condition of inner-company negotiations on employment objectives. Partly, however, they also include the years 2000 and 2001.

Previously, the impact analyses of the Robien legislation had shown that the recruitment of new employees to a large extent was realised by taking over fixed-term employees or temporary workers as permanent employees (Bloch-London among others 1999). The majority – about half – was formed by workers and the share of companies with lower income groups was high. However, according to a survey among employees on behalf of the ministry, at least 46% of those newly recruited had been out of work before. Part of the employment effect was caused by the expansion of part-time contracts (Ministère de l'Emploi et de la Solidarité 1999).

Such precise surveys on the extent and structure of employment effects were, unfortunately, not carried out for the phase of the introduction of the 35-hour week anymore (at least not on behalf of the Labour Ministry). However, research on the extent of the employment effects in the period of "Aubry 1" carried out by the research department of the ministry (DARES) do exist. Additionally, at the beginning of the decade, there have been some macroeconomic model calculations for the period up to and including 2001. These model calculations attempt to capture the crucial phase of the transition to the statutory 35-hour week.

The decisive methodological problem of all these attempts to determine the employment effects of the reductions of working time is that nobody knows exactly how the employment rate would have developed without the reduction of working time (see the detailed discussion of the problem in Bosch/Lehndorff 2001 and Lehndorff 2001). We can only advance founded hypotheses, which in turn are incorporated into macroeconomic model simulations. This route was taken by Husson (2002) and Logeay/Schreiber (2006).²⁹ Their approach basically is to extrapolate the actual employment trend between 1985 and 1997 (resp. between the end of the 1970s and 1999) by means of macroeconomic models for the period from 1998 resp. 2000 on; By taking into account the actual development of the GDP in the period of investigation, they derived economic forecasts for the employment trend in the period of investigation from the development of the most important aggregate parameters in the course of past economic cycles. Husson carried out three simulations (with varying model assumptions), Logeay/Schreiber did only one but more complex simulation. The authors then compared the forecasts with the actual employment trends in the respective period of investigation, which means from 1998 respectively

²⁹ Her essay was also published in German (Schreiber / Logeay 006).

2000 to the end of 2001. The difference between the forecasts (or extrapolation) and the actual development of the employment rate amounts to 500,000 employees. Logeay/Schreiber (2006) call this a cautious assessment. Depending on the assessment of employment rates, Husson concludes that between about 450,000 and more than 500,000 recruitments can be explained by the reduction of working time.

Econometric assessments by other institutions partly resulted in smaller employment effects than the two studies presented here. However, the determined employment effects have been positive in all of them (Husson 2002). For example, the OECD Secretariat, which is certainly no sympathizer with the general working time reduction, on the basis of its own model estimates that the reduction of working time will lead to a growth in employment within the next five years that is 0.3 to 2 percentage points higher than that of a scenario with unchanged working time. The OECD (1999: 126) also pointed out explicitly that its modelling assumptions are more pessimistic than that of the French macro-simulations.

The Department of Studies and Research of the French Labour Ministry (DARES) developed a completely different, new type of econometric estimation procedure for the evaluation of the employment effects caused by the 35-hour law (for the following see Gubian 2000). Based on the official statistics on business premises, the employment trends in companies with a reduction of working time were compared with other companies of the same size in the same sector before the reduction of working time as well as after the introduction of the 35-hour week (Figure 3.8). This was possible because the years 1998 and 1999 were chosen as periods of investigation. Back then, the 35-hour week was not statutory working time, and only a portion of the companies reduced working hours by voluntary work agreements.

We find that the reduction of working time was carried out in enterprises which had shown a better employment trend than those which still hesitated to introduce the 35-hour week; It is possible to interpret that they tended to be economically rather successful enterprises with good prospects for growth and a high level of competitiveness which negotiated work agreements on the 35-hour week before it became the statutory working time. If we now extrapolate the difference in the employment figures of enterprises with reduction of working hours and those of the reference group before the reduction of working hours, the result is a hypothetical employment trend without reduction of working time that can be compared to the actual one. This procedure enables a comparably precise assessment of the employment effect in this period.

In a further step, the identified employment effect was compared with the mathematically possible employment effect that results from the degree of the reduction of working hours. The outcome was that between one third and 40% of the mathematically possible employment effect was consumed by the induced increase in productivity. Therefore, the employment effect that could be traced back to the reduction of working hours by 12% on average amounted to about 7% net.³⁰ This relation between the mathematical and the actual employment effect of about 1:0.6 approximately corresponds to the effects, or the first steps towards a 35-hour week in the West German metal industry as calculated by the DIW at the end of the 1980s (Stille/Zwiener 1997).

Although the extent of the employment effects cannot be determined with ultimate precision, we can still note the following: The introduction of the statutory 35-hour week substantially intensified the positive employment trend that had been initiated by the economic growth at the beginning of the past decade.

Without a doubt, Great Britain is one of the countries with the most severe contrast with France regarding working hours. This applies to the duration as well as the structure of working times. Now we will turn our attention to this country, which is particularly important for the working hour's policy of the EU.

3.3 Great Britain: reduction of working hours on a high level

Great Britain is the country with the least developed standardisation of working hours in Europe. Judging from the EU-LFS we could also state: The extreme dispersion of working hours is the real social normality. The reasons for this structure of working hours can only be outlined roughly based on the analyses available to us. Until the 1960s/70s, Great Britain showed the secular tendency towards a reduction of working time for full-time employees, which could be seen in other developed capitalist countries, too. The collectively agreed 40-hour norm applied in the public as well as the private economic sector, or was even undercut slightly. Nevertheless, the actual working hours certainly were considerably longer, especially in the industrial sector, as there was a distinctive overtime culture (see the example of the automotive industry Lehndorff 1993). This practice had its origin not only in the limited symbiosis of the enterprises' interests in longer and more flexible working times, and the interest of many employees in payments for overtime. It was

³⁰ Gubian (2000) compared this employment effect also with the planned hiring of employees, respectively the hiring of employees agreed on a company-level. In the preparation period („Aubry 1“) before the introduction of the statutory 35-hours week, the works agreements provided for an increase in the number of employees by 8.3% in total. The estimated actual employment effect therefore was 1.3 percentage points lower than that stipulated in the works agreements.

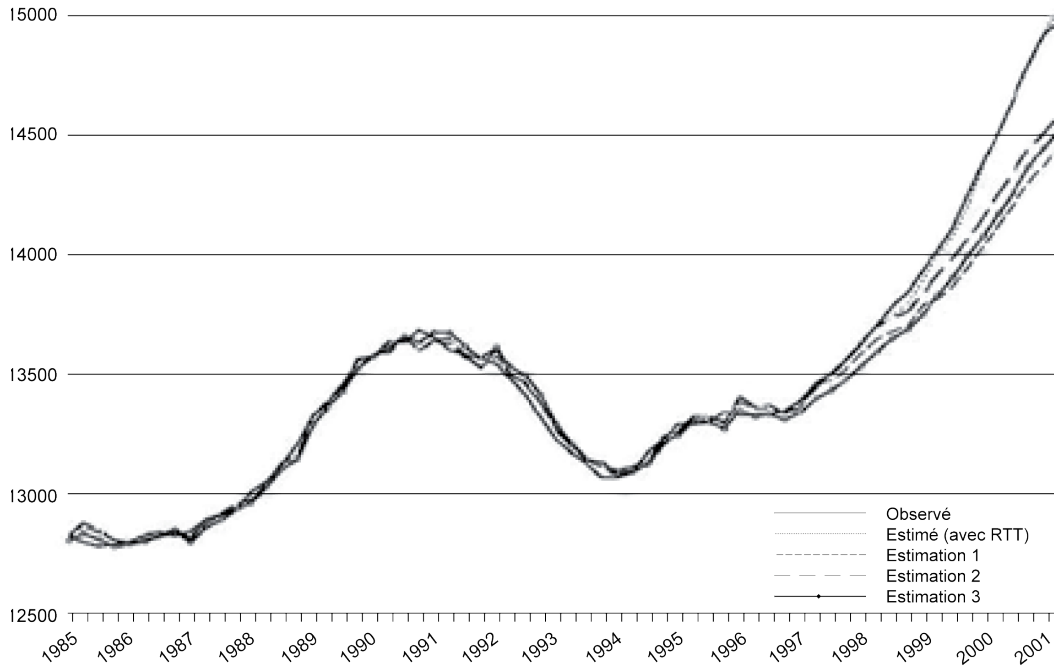


Figure 3.7: Observed employment (with reduction of working time) and estimated employment (without reduction of working time), France, 1985-2001
Source: Husson (2002)

Inkrafttreten des „Aubry-Gesetzes“

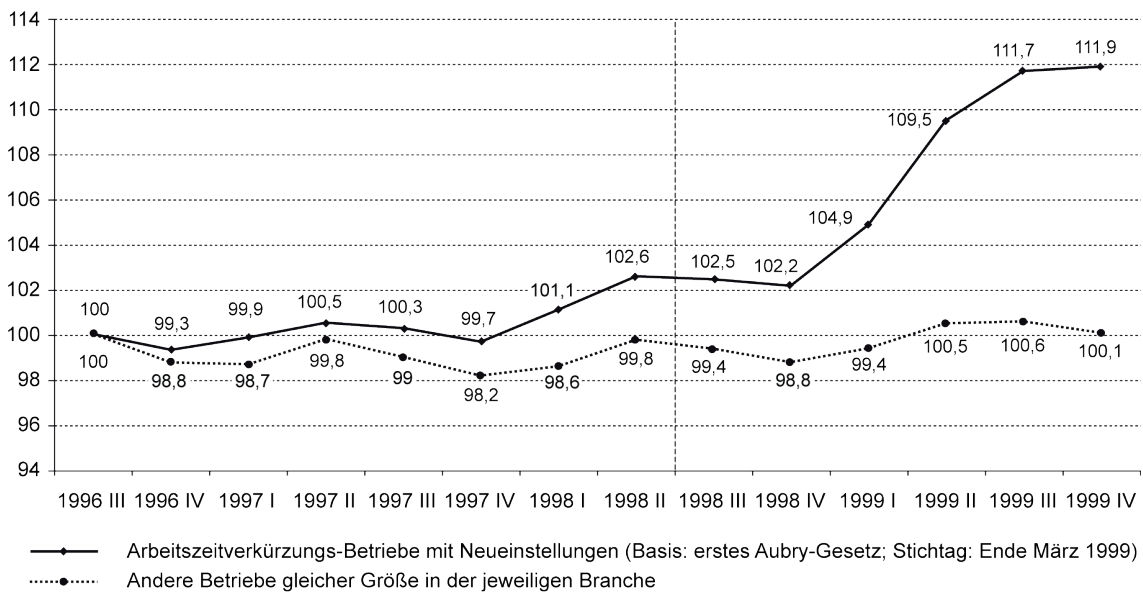


Figure 3.8: Employment trends in enterprises with and without reduction of working time in France before and after the first Aubry law came into effect (Sept. 1996 = 100)
Source: Gubian (2000: 18)

Development of working time in the EU

additionally furthered by the fact that the job control, i.e. the control of the compliance to defined work assignments and demarcations were part of the core influence of trade unions and their shop stewards.

The change came in the beginning of the 1980s (Green 2001). The old world of industrial relations was shaken rigorously during the Thatcher era: The unions' influence was pushed back substantially, and in the private sector collective bargaining coverage decreased dramatically. The trade unions' attempts to achieve once more collectively agreed reductions of working time in the metal industry by the end of the 1980s, resulted in a de facto disbanding of the regional union agreement in the manufacturing sector. According to Green's analysis (2001), the 1980s were the decade of "dispersion" of working hours in Great Britain, whereas the degree of this dispersion remained largely unchanged in the 1990s.

As can be seen in Figure 3.9, however, this dispersion not only occurred in the field of long working times, but almost equally strong in the field of short and very short working times. This development is connected to the increase in female employment under the conditions of the initially prevailing main wage earner model. This model is known in Germany in a similar form.

As the figure shows, this structure remained basically unchanged during the past decade. However, some changes are discernable and shall therefore be examined in short now.

Let us start at the left side of the figure. The share of female employees with working hours of less than 20 hours per week is still unusually high compared with EU average. However, it decreased conceivably (decrease from 22.5% of all female employees in 1995 to 17.5% in 2008) – this tendency is even more distinct when regarding it in a medium-term context.³¹ Fagan (2009) basically traces this trend back to a series of tax reforms by the Labour government since 1998. These reforms abolished regulations similar to the German mini-jobs. Before these reforms, the employers' social security contributions were reduced for short working times (typically less than 15 hours per week) and the respective employees were exempt completely from these contributions. Although there are still certain tax incentives for short part-time employment, the strong pull that came from the former regulation was dropped this way.

This change should also be seen in the larger context of the dynamics and structural changes in the field of female employment in Great Britain. The employment rate in full-time job equivalents increased faster in the medium term than the employment rate on a personal basis (Table 3.4). This unusual development (see chapter 2.2.1) is connected to the fact that the part-time employment rate of women decreased while the working time of female

part-time employees on average was extended (the extension of working time among female part-time employees overcompensated the slight reduction of working time for female full-time employees). As a result, the huge gap between the working hours of women and men decreased by at least slightly more than three hours.

A certain – certainly not yet massive – decrease in gender inequality regarding working hours can also be seen in the fact that the field of "short full-time employment" (30 to 35 hours per week) is of growing importance among British women. The field of full-time is regulated by collective agreements (here: 37–38 hours per week), which plays a particularly great role for municipal employers, is of slightly more importance to the working time profiles of women in Great Britain.

However, these changes pale into insignificance due to the little importance the working time intervals which are bound by collective agreements have in Great Britain on the whole. When examining the whole interval of working times between 36 and 40 hours per week, for which we can suppose an immediate influence of collective. However, at this high level we observe a certain medium-term reduction of working hours which is mainly based on the fact that – as can be seen for the period since 2000 in Figure 3.9 – the share of male employees with long working times has been decreasing. In 1995 still 59% of all male employees worked more than 40 hours per week.

This shift led to a slight but clear, and above all continuous, reduction of the average working hours of full-time employees in Great Britain (Table 3.5). The working times of those occupational groups that had particularly long working times before, have mainly

	1995	2008	Δ
employment rate (%)*	61,7	65,5	+3,8
employment rate, VZÄ (%)*	47,0	51,3	+4,3
Part-time employment rate (%)	43,7	41,0	-2,7
working time part-time employees (h.)	18,1	19,5	+1,4
Δ working time M/F all employees (h.)	12,8	9,5	-3,3

Table 3.4: Parameters of female employment in Great Britain
* years of reference 1995 and 2007

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ; European Commission 2007, European Commission 2009c, own calculations

decreased in the period under investigation: Men, highly qualified employees, construction workers and employees in the educational system. In this respect, we can also state a slight reduction of the particularly distinct dispersion of working times.

Therefore, the changes in the average working hours obviously have been substantially influenced by changes in the number of employees with working times of more than 48 hours per week. This might be the reason for the

³¹ Respective comparative figures for Germany: Increase from 13.1% to 20.8%.

Country-specific working time normalities

	1995	2000	2008	Δ 2008 / 2000
All full-time employees	43,9	43,5	42,4	-1,1
Men	45,7	45,1	43,9	-1,2
Women	40,6	40,6	40,1	-0,5
High qualif.	kA	44,5	43,1	-1,4
Medium qualif.	kA	43,2	42,3	-0,9
Low qualif.	kA	42,2	41,4	-0,8
Private services	44,2	43,7	42,8	-0,9
Public administration	41,8	41,5	41,1	-0,7
Manufacturing industry	44,2	43,6	42,9	-0,7
Construction	45,2	45,2	44,2	-1,0
Retail	43,3	42,3	41,1	-1,2
Hospitality industry	46,2	43,6	42,8	-0,8
Credit and insurance	41,5	41,8	42,3	+0,5
Education	43,6	43,9	42,1	-1,8
Health	41,4	41,2	40,4	-0,8
Office workers	39,9	39,7	38,7	-1,0
Operators, assembly workers	45,8	45,4	44,5	-0,9
Employees, M, 49+ Std./W. (in %)*	27,3	24,7	20,5	-6,8 ppt.
Employees, F, 49+ Std./W. (in %)*	5,6	6,1	6,3	+0,7 ppt.

Table 3.5: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees in Great Britain, selected occupational groups (in h.)

Basis: 15-64 year old full-time employees

* Basis: All employees aged 15-64

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

increase in the – on average on no account strikingly long – working times in the credit and insurance business, which is one of the sectors with a particularly high number of employees working more than 48 hours per week. However, the share of employees with particularly long working times, amounting to 16% in this sector in 2008, is surpassed by the mining sector (31%) the building industry (22%) and the sector of communications and transportation (20%). The education system (14%) and the manufacturing industry (15%) the shares also lie above the average of about 13% (TUC 2008: 7).

These figures indicate that classical reasons for particularly long working times, like doing paid overtime work, are still significant (39% of employees with working times of more than 48 hours state that they need the higher income that comes with it; Grimshaw et al. 2008: 22). This might also be the reason for the still long average working times in the building industry and the occupational group of operators and assembly workers. Nevertheless, the emphasis lies with the “long hour’s culture” in the field of white collar employees, and there especially in the field of higher qualified and better paid employees (DTI 2004). The increasingly wide-spread indirect management and the results orientation make informal working time practices possible to an extent, which in turn makes long working times appear as a practical constraint (Rubery et al. 2005).³²

³² From a German point of view we should add: |Although the share of enterprises with flexible annual working time regulations has increased to about one forth until 2007 (Fagan 2009: 42), the implementation of new measures of control and more flexible working time regulations do not lead to longer working times in Great Britain, as is the case in Germany (see above).

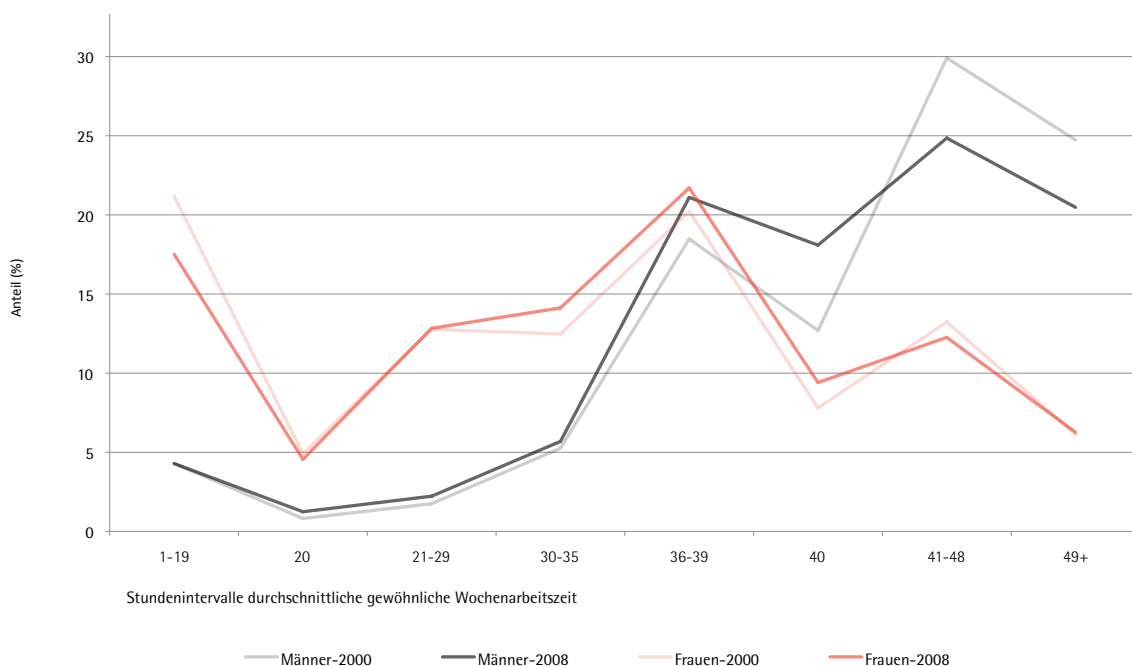


Figure 3.9: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, men and women, Great Britain 2000 and 2008

Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

Those occupational groups with particularly long working times are in the centre of public attention in Great Britain (in British publications, the expression "long hours" usually refers to working times of more than 48 working hours per week). In the past decade, conflicts mostly concentrated on the introduction and implementation of the statutory 48-hour week. In 1998 the Labour government introduced the Working Time Regulation Act, which basically incorporated the EU Working Time Directive into British law (besides the limitation of the working time per week, the law provides for the definition of daily regeneration times as well as – in an amendment of 1999 – a minimum of four weeks' leave). One of the gaps this law leaves is the famous "opt out" clause, which enables employers to negotiate individual agreements on the permissibility of longer working hours with their employees. From a gender-equality political point of view, the abolition of this clause is seen as the most important measure in order to push back the "long hour's culture" (Rubery 2008: 305). The trade unions, too, have often criticised not only this clause, but the whole weak instrumentation that was created for the legal implementation of the statutory limitations on working time (TUC 2008).

Among other things, the weakness of the regulation can be seen in the fact that three quarters of all employees with "long working times" made a written agreement with their employer on the possibility to "opt out" of the 48-hour limitation. However, 60% would be glad if their employer would agree to a limitation to 48 hours (Grimshaw et al- 2008: 22; see also DTI 2004).

The British government stresses the gradual decrease in the share of employees with "long working hours" and interprets this as an indication for the effectiveness of the law (DTI 2006). This assessment certainly is not unrealistic; however, it should be seen in the context of the diverse public debate regarding the introduction and implementation of the law. The trade unions declared the practical anchorage of the 48-hour law one of the main subjects of their activities in the field of working times policy. Among other things, they developed strong initiatives in the public health care sector and the education sector in order to achieve agreements with the (generally public) employers on the compulsory adherence to the 48-hour limitation. Among these activities are far-reaching agreements on the reorganisation of labour employment and work organisation. For example, the aim of the "Teachers' Workload Project" was the reduction of the strain on teachers due to administrative tasks. Moreover, the pilot project "Hospital at Night" aimed at replacing on-call service by shift work. In the private sector, they started best practice initiatives which targeted "working time and productivity negotiations". Many of the projects of this kind are controversial even within trade unions (Exell 2006). However, the decrease in employees with long working times can probably not be explained without these public and political debates.

According to an assessment by the TUC based on the more recent quarter data of the British Labour Force Survey, there have even been indications for the "return of the long hour's culture" since 2007. It says that between 2007 and 2008 working times of more than 48 hours per week increased once more especially in the field of financial services and in parts of the public services (TUC 2008: 7). Irrespective of the current open question whether this is a temporary phenomenon, such fluctuations certainly prove one thing: The law did not create a gradual self-driven adaptation of actual working hours to the statutory working time. The disputes about overlong working times therefore will continue further. At the same time, however, we can state that it is of immense importance for these disputes that there is such a law – although it undoubtedly is truly in need of improvement.

3.4 The differentiation of social norms in Germany

Let us return to the changes in the working time profiles of Germany. Now we will examine the differences in working times according to gender (Figure 3.10).

As can be seen in the figure, there have been several intertwined changes:

- Part-time employment remains female; simultaneously, working times with less than 20 hours per week have increased. The latter was probably mainly furthered by the latest reform of the so-called mini-jobs in 2003.
- Working times between 30 and 35 hours per week – which are sometimes called "vollzeitnahe Teilzeit" (part-time close to full-time), but should rather be called "short full-time" – are more significant for women than for men. The importance of this working time interval is gradually increasing among women, and has already overtaken the classical 20-hour week. However, it still ranks far behind the mini-jobs.
- The share of employees whose working times are less than 40 hours either due to individual reductions or due to reductions by collective agreements, considerably increased between 2000 and 2008 among men as well as among women. Thus, the share of women with working times between 35 up to and including 39 hours per week decreased from 32% to 21%. That of men decreased from almost 44% to almost 28% (figures are rounded).

- In contrast, the 40-hour week as old and new full-time norm once more gained importance. This is especially true for men. Among them the increase in the share of employees with a 40-hour week from 38% to 45% seems to be responsible for the decrease in the number of employees with 35 to 39 hours per week. The parallel development among women, however, is less distinct. As a result, in 2008 more than one quarter of women usually worked 40 hours per week, compared to 38% with less than 30 hours and 20% with less than 20 hours.
- Working times of more than 40 hours per week also gained importance. However, thereby we do not mean the so-called overlong working times of more than 48 hours per week (i.e. above the statutory limitation), but the range between 40 and 48 hours which has doubled among women on a low, and among men on a distinctly higher level: From 2% to 4% among women and from 5% to 10% among men.

We now want to examine these overlapping trends in more detail. We start from the left of Figure 3.10, which represents the diversification towards an increasingly widespread of short part-time. This phenomenon expresses the gender-specific inequality regarding working times in Germany most distinctively.

3.4.1 Working hours of women: Restriction on working hours instead of reduction of working time

More than half of all female part-time employees in Germany state family obligations and personal responsibilities as reasons for part-time employment (2008 57% in West Germany and 14% in East Germany; Puch 2009). While the employment of married women and mothers has continued to increase during the past years (statistically this can be traced back to the increase in employment of married women and women with children in West Germany alone), we can observe a decrease in the amount of hours actually worked by the same group. This gender-specific aspect becomes especially clear when we compare the working times of women with and without children with the respective group of men (Table 3.6). On the whole, the rule is: The more children a man has, the longer his working time is. However, the more children a woman has, the shorter her working time is. Two further characteristics are easy to spot: Firstly, there is a considerable East-West divergence within Germany which is indiscernible in the usual all-German average figures. Secondly, it is remarkable that the gender segregation regarding working times depicted here was stronger in 2006 than five years before.

This development is in stark contrast to the long-term shift in attitude among the population regarding the

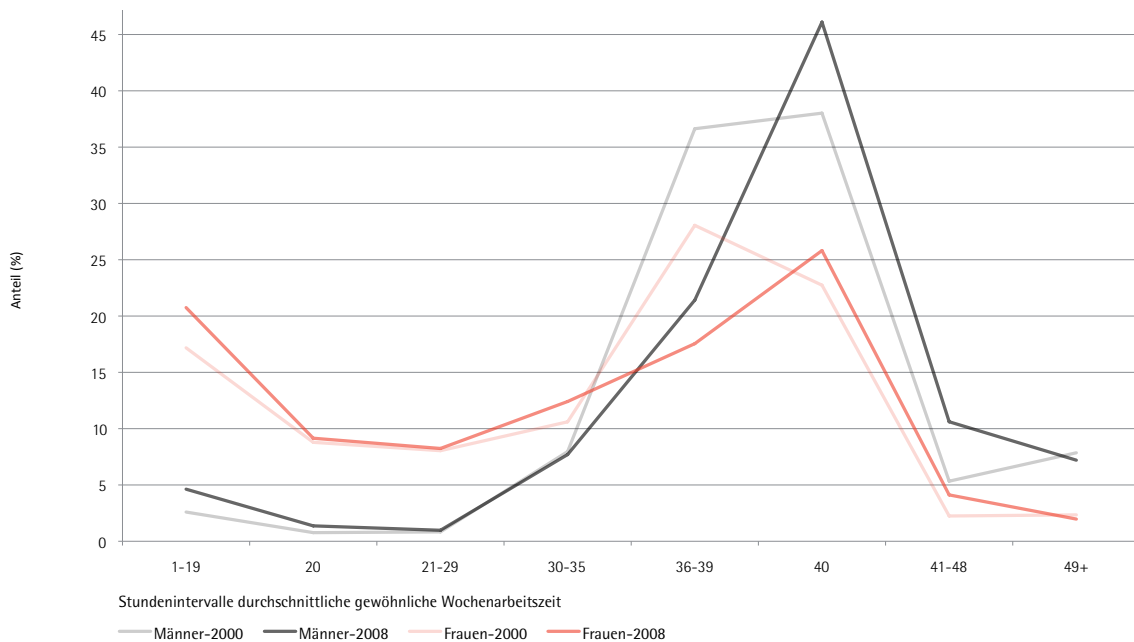


Figure 3.10: Distribution of usual working hours, employees aged 15-64, men and women, Germany 2000 and 2008
Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

consequences of employment of mothers for their children. Although in West Germany the norm of not, or only to a small extent, employing mothers is still much more widespread than in East Germany, but the anchorage

Development of working time in the EU

of the traditional family model is decreasing in both parts of Germany (Cornelißen 2005). Nevertheless, this change neither caused an increase nor just the stability of working times of women with children. Obviously, a structural pressure makes women work only a few hours per week, although this pressure stands in contrast to the preference especially of East German women (Holst 2007). This

Although here too, as already pointed out in Figure 3.10, the boundaries are permeable: On average full-time employed women work less than male full-time employees and the share (and even the absolute number) of women with short full-time employment is higher than that among men. We should also consider that the decision of women with children in favour of part-time employment

	Germany 2001	Germany 2006	West 2001	West 2006	East 2001	East 2006
Men without children	40,5	39,6	40,5	39,7	40,1	39,0
Women without children	33,8	32,8	33,4	32,4	35,8	34,4
Men with 1 child	41,0	40,7	41,0	40,7	41,2	40,5
Women with 1 child	29,8	27,6	27,8	25,9	35,6	33,6
Men with 2 children	41,9	41,5	42,0	41,6	41,4	40,4
Women with 2 children	26,0	23,0	24,1	21,6	34,2	31,4
Men with 3 or more children	42,2	41,6	42,4	41,8	40,7	39,7
Women with 3 or more children	24,5	22,2	23,5	21,4	31,1	29,2

Table 3.6: Working hours of men and women according to the number of children (part-time and full-time employees)
Source: Micro census, evaluation by IAQ, Basis: all employees

pressure has its origins not only in the still remaining lack of public child care facilities and full-time day schools, but also in important institutions of the German tax and social systems: Examples for this are particularly the separate taxation of married couples in the income tax law that furthers strong income differentials between husband and wife together with it the mini-job regulation, which provides an effective economic incentive for women to reduce their employment to a low level of hours per week. Counteracting incentives like the gradual extension of the child care system and the introduction of parenting money are still considerably weaker.³³ Against this background, it is particularly alarming that the realisation of the newly implemented mandatory child crèche placement is likely to suffer in the coming years due to the consequences of the crisis for the public - above all the municipal - budget.

As a result, in interaction with a quite alive conservative family ideology, the increasing employment of women (above all in West Germany) mainly still occurs in the form of a rigid definition of restrictive career and employment patterns for women. What seems to be an individual reduction of working time is in fact a restriction of working time - partly self-imposed, partly imposed by others. Despite the increased integration into the labour market, many women cannot reach beyond the role as supplementary-earner and thus remain financially dependent on their husband. Given the further increase in female employment, a division between the various female groups of employees is developing. Basically, women content with the role of supplementary-earner are opposed to more strongly career-oriented women, whose working hours are largely similar to the traditional full-time norm dominated by men.

or mini-jobs is not always necessarily a decision that leaves its indelible mark on their whole future working life. There is still considerable research needs regarding more detailed analyses of these type of changes in working hours in the course of life and in cohort comparison. But: At least we know that, of course, the life perspective does not only present a challenge for research but also particularly for social and political

practice (Klammer et al. 2008). Changing between part-time and full-time in the course of life up to now is much rarer than changing between part-time and economic inactivity. 46% of all women in Germany, who worked part-time during the second half of the 1990s, were still employed in part-time jobs ten years later, whereas only 18% had a full-time job (Fourage et al. (2008: 31) based on the SOEP). This phenomenon is most distinctive among women with children on the lower and medium income and qualification levels (O'Reilly/Bothfeld 2002).

The data on the drifting apart of working hours between men and women, on the one hand, and between different groups of women in the labour market, on the other, are therefore more than just a snapshot. They hint at a structural problem of working times in Germany. For future progress regarding gender equality and the much-trumpeted "compatibility of family and profession", especially short full-time employment between 30 and 35 hours per week might play a key role. From that point of view, most "working time pioneers" in today's Germany are female. The mainstream of working time practice has not affected them thus far. This is partly caused by a strong - especially political - pressure in the direction of longer working hours for full-time employees. This reinforces the anyway overwhelming weight of usual working time patterns in enterprises. Those already run that deep that they make the patriarchal full-time working practice appear as factual constraint (Klenner/Kohaut 2010).

³³ Against this background, it remains to be seen how the implementation of the parental allowance as of 1.1.2007 will influence the labour participation of women. An initial evaluation of the parental allowance stated positive effects: The number of women, who continue following their career visions after the birth of a child, has increased and more women than before want to be economically active after parental leave (BMFSFJ 2008). Whether these intentions can be fulfilled, remains to be examined in future working time analyses.

Equally important and equally political, on the other hand, is the significance of the institutional conditions which influence employment and working times of women with children in a restrictive and channelling way. We call this phenomenon "indirect regulation of working times" which may at least be as effective for influencing the actual working times as the direct regulation of working hours by collective agreement or by law. We will come back to this subject in chapter 3.4.

Let us now examine the other side of the drifting apart of working times in Germany: the average extension of the working hours of full-time employees.

3.4.2 Full-time employees: A roll backwards towards longer working times

In order to better understand the reasons for the extension of working hours in Germany, a glance at the different developments in West and East Germany may be helpful (therefore, we have to base our investigations on the German micro census that was available when composing this manuscript, only 2006). According to the micro census, working times in West Germany surpassed the originally longer East German working times for the first time in the past cycle of growth (40.1 hours per week).³⁴ In a long-term retrospective, we can observe that – starting in the mid-1990s – West German working hours gradually detached from the collectively agreed level. In 2006, West German full-time employees on average worked 40.4 hours per week, and in this way reached the level of actual working times of 1988, while the collectively agreed level remained stable from the mid-1990s. The East German working times, in contrast, gradually decreased along with

the reduction of collectively agreed working times and stayed remarkably stable even during the past economic upswing (Figure 3.11).

The reason for the widening gap between collectively agreed and actual working hours in Germany (especially the West) can be mainly found in long-term economic structural changes in close connection to changed political power relationships. Three reasons or categories of reasons seem particularly important for the explanation of this phenomenon.

Firstly, the share of enterprises without collective bargaining coverage (Kohaut/Ellguth 2008), or without works council (Ellguth/Promberger 2007) is growing – both are characteristics which are more likely to exist in the private service sector than in the industrial sector; they are more common in small enterprises than in large ones, and are more frequently found in newly established companies than in pre-existing ones. For working times these changes are extremely relevant: In enterprises without collective bargaining coverage, the average contractual working time is more than one hour longer than that in enterprises with collective bargaining coverage; additionally, as in the former more overtime hours are worked, the actual working time in companies without collective bargaining coverage is at least 1.5 hours per week higher than that in enterprises with collective bargaining coverage (Groß 2009a). What has to be taken into consideration at this

³⁴ This probably surprising development had been becoming apparent for some time. Employees in the West German industry have shorter working times than those in East Germany, but in the service sector with its proportionally greater importance, working times in West Germany have been longer than those in East Germany since the 1990s (Lehndorff/Wagner 2004).

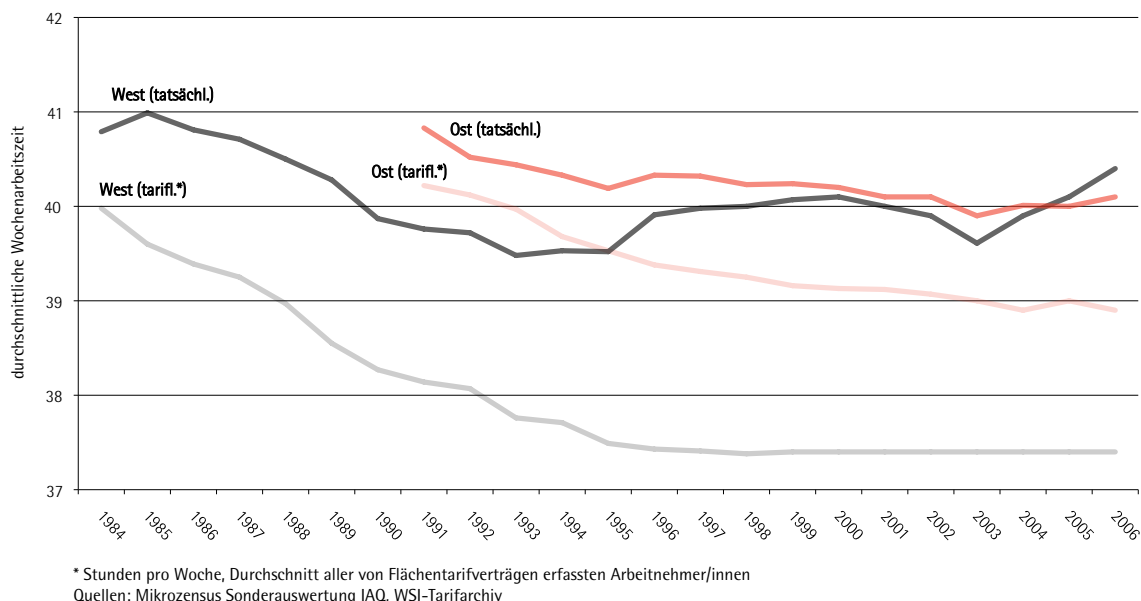


Figure 3.11: Development of the collectively agreed and actual (usual) average working times per week of full-time employees in Germany (1984-2006)

* hours per week, average of all employees under regional collective agreements Sources: Micro census, evaluation by IAQ; WSI archive of collective agreements



Development of working time in the EU

point is that in this type of company survey it is not possible to collect data on unpaid overtime work. However, especially with regard to informal overtime, we can also assume differences between both categories of enterprises. This is indicated by the fact that results from the same survey: working time accounts are more often unregulated in enterprises without collective bargaining coverage than in those with collective bargaining coverage (Table 3.7). In this way a grey zone is created, in which the boundaries between flexible working times and extensions of working

	Bound by collective agreement	Not bound by collective agreement	With works council	Without works council
Contractual working time (h./week)	38,7	40,0	38,7	40,1
Actual working time (h./week)	39,6	41,1	39,4	41,3
Working time accounts completely regulated (%)	67,4	46,9	71,6	40,9
Working time accounts completely unregulated (%)	11,2	19,4	8,3	23,1

Table 3.7: Working time per week of full-time employees in enterprises with and without collective bargaining coverage and with and without works council

* As the here reproduced data are based on a company survey, the actual working times could only be calculated by the addition of contractual working time and paid overtime. Source: Groß (2009a)

times become permeable. In this aspect, the existence, or the lack of a works council plays an important role, as can be seen clearly in the same table. Where the characteristics "with works council" and "bound by collective agreement" coincide, these differences become even more evident: While, according to the management, in only 8.2% of enterprises of this category, working time accounts are completely unregulated, this is true for almost one quarter (23.7%) of all enterprises, which are neither bound by collective agreement nor have a works council (Groß 2009a: 43).

The regulation of working times by collective agreements can – secondly – also lose importance because of structural changes in the labour market. If it is true that – as it has been frequently heard since the dot.com boom in the 1990s – "knowledge work" is necessarily bound to unregulated and long working hours, and if there is simultaneously an increasing number of highly qualified employees, then this naturally pushes up working hours. As shown in chapter 2.1.3, in the EU as a whole, there are no indications for the thesis that working times of highly qualified employees are unlimited – but developments rather vary from one country to another. In Germany, however, there are indeed indications for such a phenomenon. Here, highly qualified employees meanwhile have the second longest average working time – behind Great Britain – of all EU countries in this employment category.

The trend that highly qualified employees work particularly long has been observed in Germany since the 1980s (Lehndorff/Wagner 2004). As can be seen in the annex tables, the difference of about two hours per week between the working times of employees with high and medium qualification during the period of investigation has not increased during the past decade; this means that working times have increased for the employees of all qualification levels. However, the working times of employment groups such as highly qualified employees are traditionally influenced by collective agreements to a lesser degree than those of employees with medium qualification. Moreover, they are underrepresented in growth sectors, and newly established companies and their collective bargaining coverage is comparably low. In relation to other occupational groups, this group is growing which leads to a mathematical extension of the average working times of all employees.

Both factors probably influence average working times only on a medium-term basis and do not explain why, especially during the past years, there has been such a remarkable extension of working times. At this point – thirdly – from a short-term perspective possibly the most important driving force of working times in Germany comes into play, namely the political pressure in favour of extensions of working hours by collective agreements or company-level deviations from regional collective agreements. This pressure has been particularly prominent in the West German public since 2003. It is clearly visible in the data on working times on a sector level (Table 3.8). The medium-term extension of average working hours from 1995 goes back to extensions of working times in all large sectors. But the approximate uniformity of the development ends with the period of recession and stagnation around 2003:

- In the private service sector, working times fluctuated along with the economy, but they did not surpass the level of 2000 before 2008.
- This is contrasted by the working times in the public services, which are less dependent on the economy, but increased considerably from a medium-term perspective.³⁵
- In the manufacturing industry, working times fluctuated in along with the economic cycle, but then increased and surpassed the level of 2000 during the economic upswing. This was mostly caused by the development of working hours in the metal industry, where the working times per week on average increased by more than one hour between 2003 and 2008.³⁶

These sector differentiations are no coincidence. In the West German metal industry employers' associations' efforts to achieve deviations from the regional collective agreements were particularly intensive. And the public debates on the supposed necessity of extensions of

	1995	2000	2003	2008
Private services*	40,4	41,0	40,3	40,9
Public services**	39,3	39,7	39,6	40,4
Metal industry	38,3	38,6	38,2	39,3
Manufacturing industry without metal industry	39,5	39,9	39,6	40,3
Manufacturing industry total	38,8	39,2	38,8	39,7
National economy	39,7	40,1	39,6	40,4

Table 3.8: Usual working times of full-time employees in large economic sectors, Germany (h./week).

* NACE 50-52, 55, 60-67, 70-74, 90-93, 95

** only public administration, NACE 75

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), special analysis IAQ

working times concentrated on this flagship of the German export industry. As can be seen from Figure 3.12, after the beginning of the period of recession and stagnation, the reduction of employment started in 2002 and lasted well into the period of economic upturn. The disputes on company-level extensions of working hours, which started in 2003, were strongly represented in the media. From 2004 on, their impact on actual working

deviations from regional collective agreements, but by changing these collective agreements themselves. Besides the railway and building industry (extensions from 39 to 40 resp. from 38 to 39 hours per week in 2005) this was especially true for different areas of the public services where - after severe collective bargaining negotiations in 2005 and 2006 - collectively agreed extensions of working hours were negotiated for West Germany (WSI archive of collective agreements, Table 3.9).

In this case, economic developments were the not reasons, but the withdrawal of resources at the state's expense organised by the federal government by means of tax reforms (Bofinger 2008) which public employers attempted to tackle by staff cut backs, among other things. The result of this policy was the strikingly different tendencies in the development of working hours in private and public services. In contrast to the private service sector, working hours in the public administration increased by 0.8 hours per week between 2003 and 2008. As detailed evaluations of the micro census proved, the extensions of working hours mainly took place in West Germany (Kümmerling et al. 2009).³⁷ In the public administration of West Germany, the actual working hours per week increased by 0.9 hours between 2003 and 2006. As a result, the actual working hours in the public services meanwhile lie clearly above EU average (39.6 hours per week), and among the EU-15 are only surpassed by the working hours in the public services in Great Britain (41.3 hours per week).

2005	Federation (West Germany)	38,5 → 39
	Federation (East Germany)	40 → 39
2006	States (West Germany)	38.5 on average 39.2; (depending on the respective state between 38.7 and 39.7); individual occupational groups still 38.5
	States (East Germany)	unchanged 40
2008	Municipalities (West Germany)	38,5 → 39
	Municipalities (East Germany)	unchanged 40

Table 3.9: Changes in collectively agreed working time regulations in the public services in Germany, 2005-2008

Source: WSI archive of collective agreements; compilation by IAQ

Both sectors with the strongest extensions of working times differ regarding the way they deal with the respective collective agreements: In the metal industry, the extensions of working hours are an indicator for the waning strength of collectively agreed regulations of working hours, whereas in the public service sector, it was the collectively agreed norm itself that was increased. Nevertheless, the outcome is the same: The roll back in working time policy which is not only economically but also politically motivated has left its marks in working time realities.

times could be felt. Then, within only three years, the average working hours increased by one hour per week, whereas the reduction of employment continued in the meantime. Thus the volume of work necessary during the economic recovery was covered by the extension of working hours as well as by temporary employment. Only afterwards, the enterprises of the metal and electrical industry started to increase recruitment themselves (with growth rates of 2.7% in 2007 and 3.8% in 2008; see reference in the figure).

Other than in the metal industry, in some sectors working times were not extended by use of company-level

³⁵ The data in the table are limited to the public administration, because in all other sectors in which the collective agreements of the public service sector are partly valid, there are additionally private forms of ownership. Therefore, a clear delimitation of the working hours of the different collective agreements becomes impossible.

³⁶ This must not divert us from the fact that the metal industry still is the sector with the shortest working times in Germany - but simultaneously it is the sector with the greatest gap between collectively agreed norms and the actual level of working hours per week. In EU comparison, too, the German metal industry - ranking behind the Danish (39.1) and together with the Dutch and Swedish metal industry - has the second shortest working times.

³⁷ The data in the table are limited to the public administration, because in all other sectors in which the collective agreements of the public service sector are partly valid, there are additionally private forms of ownership. Therefore, a clear delimitation of the working hours of the different collective agreements becomes impossible.

Development of working time in the EU

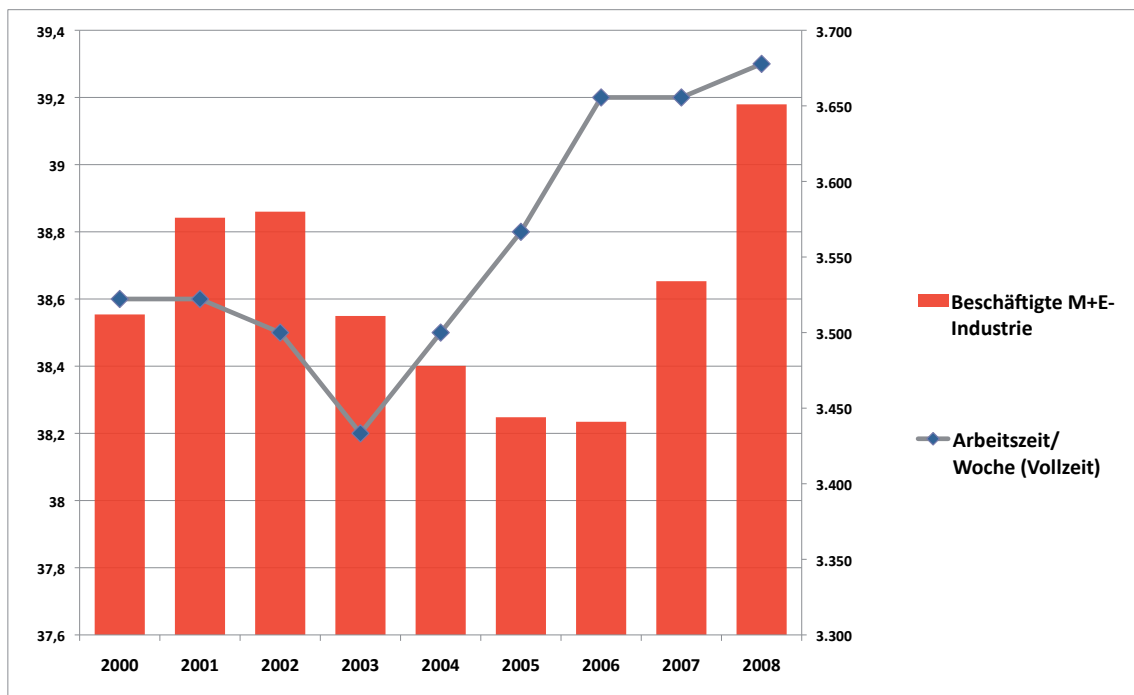


Figure 3.12: working time and employment trends* in the metal and electrical industry (Germany, 2000-2006)

* figures in 1,000, metal and electrical industry (annual average), data for Germany; Without temporary work.

Sources: Gesamtmetall (as of 17.2.2009) (number of employees)

<http://www.gesamtmetall.de/gesamtmetall/meconline.nsf/id/DD850838E4E604F0C1256BBA002D5694> Micro census, evaluation by IAQ (working hours per week)

In this way, extensions of working hours became a phenomenon, which increasingly also affects those workers and employees whose working times are traditionally regulated by collective agreements. This is especially striking among employees whose working times amount to 35 to 39 hours per week. This is the range of working times which is influenced by the collectively agreed reductions of working times in the 1980s and the early 1990s. At this time, the working times shifted particularly toward the 40-hours week at the expense of this hour interval. Additionally, the portion of employees with more than 40 working hours per week increased, though only slightly (see above Figure 3.1). The majority of working time extensions therefore took place in – to take up an image often used in the last years – the centre of working society. In the 1980s and 1990s the usual working times of the majority of these employees was reduced to less than 40 hours by means of collective agreement, the bonding strength of which has obviously decreased.

Let us now return to the original question, whether the working time trends described here possibly show initial indications of the outlines of new social working time standards. For Germany, we can say that the “normal working hours” or a working time standard dominating society strictly speaking no longer exists. On the one hand, there is a widening gap between the collectively agreed working time standard and actual working times: The normality of full-time employees is increasingly deviating from the norms. Especially among male full-time employees, normal working hours increasingly concentrate

on the 40-hours week. However, the working time profiles of female employees in Germany are diversified to such an extent, that we could identify at least three working time standards or normalities (mini-job, classical part-time and much, broader than among men, the scattering full-time levels). The parallel standards in the field of part-time are supported by the tax and social security system. This variety of standards is by no means the expression of freedom of choice, but an indicator of the cementing of gender inequality on the labour market.

This characteristic has a huge impact on the development of working hours and becomes especially clear when we compare the German working time structures with those of the three Northern European EU countries.

3.5 The shaping of social standards by indirect regulation: A comparison between Northern Europe and Germany

In our examination of country-specific working time profiles, we finally turn our attention to Northern Europe. In this, we confine ourselves to the significance of female employment for the development of social working time standards. The countries in this region, which rank at the top regarding female employment, are contrasted with the working time profiles in Germany. Figure 3.13 provides an initial overall impression of the working time profiles of women in the three Northern European EU countries and those in Germany.

substantial differences regarding the significance and level of full-time standards. Among women in Germany the significance of full-time employment on the whole is lower than in the reference countries and the level scatters between the 40-hour week and the range of 35 to 39 hours. The differentiation of full-time does exist in Finland and Sweden, either. In Finland the clear emphasis lies on the 38-hour week, whereas only in Sweden the 40-hour week can most likely be called a full-time standard for women (under the restriction that the combined portions of women with short and reduced full-time together are as high as that of women with a 40-hour week). The full-time standard of female employees in the field of reduced full-time is - besides

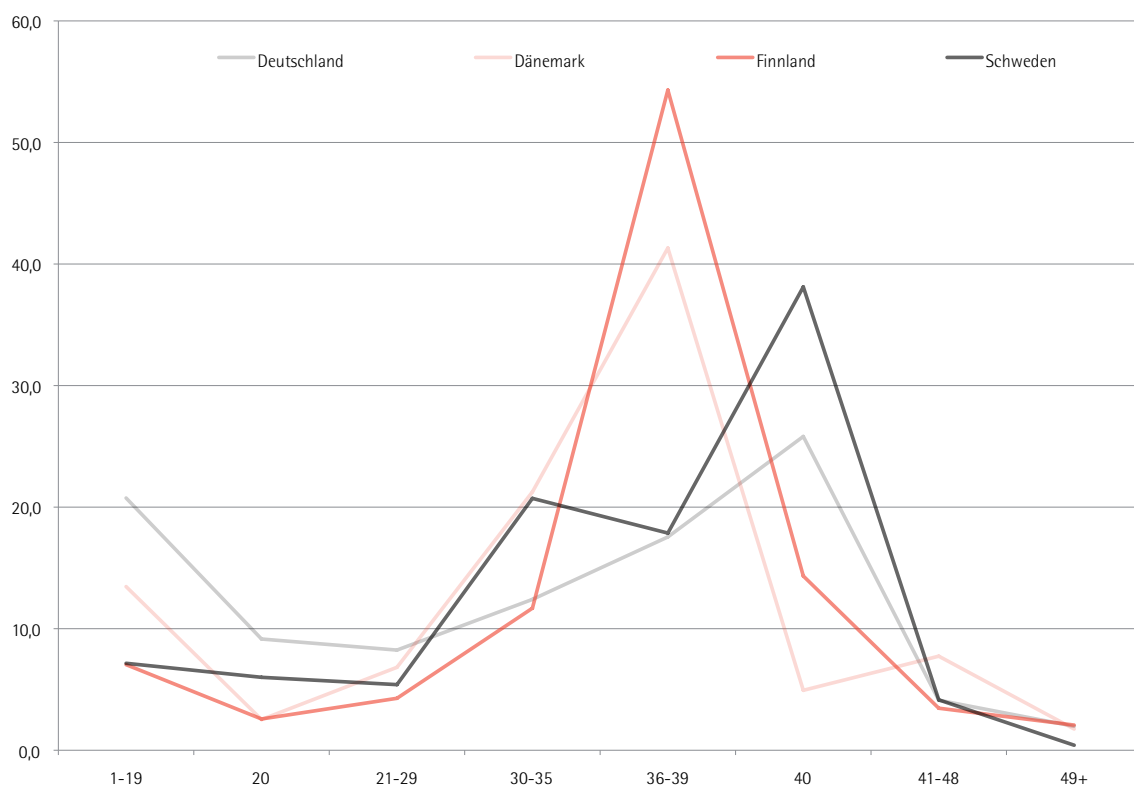


Figure 3.13: Distribution of usual working hours in Germany, Denmark, Finland and Sweden, female employees aged 15-64, 2008
Source: EU-LFS, analysis by IAQ

Firstly, when comparing the working time intervals of women, what catches the eye is the fact that the importance not only of mini-jobs but also of traditional part-time employment (20 to 29 hours per week in Germany with an accumulation at 20 hours) is much greater in Germany than in the Northern European reference countries. Secondly, in Denmark and Sweden, there is an emphasis on "short full-time" (30 to 34 hours per week) and in Sweden there is another emphasis in the range of 35 to 39 hours. These emphasises are more important than traditional part-time employment. In contrast, short full-time amounting to less than 10%, is considerably less distinct in Germany. Thirdly, there are

France (see above) - most distinct in Denmark (about 37 hours per week). Almost half of the women work in this hour interval, so that the reduced full-time, with restrictions, can be regarded as something similar to a working time standard for all women.

Development of working time in the EU

Naturally, the working time profiles of women in Northern Europe still differ from those of men, too. So let us now have a closer look at the form of the hour intervals among men as well as those among women in connection to those of men (Table 3.10).

	BQ*	VZÄ*	< 20	20-29	30-34	35-39	40	> 40	ø VZ
DE M	74,7	71,2	4,6	2,3	2,1	27,6	45,7	17,5	40,8
DE F	64,0	48,2	20,2	17,9	9,3	21,2	25,3	6,1	39,7
DK M	81,0	76,2	9,0	3,3	2,9	51,8**	12,6	23,9	40,2
DK F	73,2	62,8	13,5	9,3	17,7	45,0**	8,3	11,4	38,1
FI M	72,1	71,3	3,4	3,2	3,2	34,4	42,1	13,9	40,1
FI F	68,5	63,9	7,2	6,8	8,7	57,4***	14,2	5,9	38,1
SE M	76,5	73,6	3,8	4,3	4,3	18,1	64,0	5,5	39,9
SE F	71,8	61,9	7,2	11,4	19,3	19,4	38,2	4,6	39,7

Table 3.10: Distribution of usual working hours of male and female employees in Germany and in Northern European countries (15-64, 2008)

* BQ = employment rate; VZÄ = employment rate in full-time job equivalents; Data for 2007; Source: European Commission (2008)

** accumulation at 37

*** accumulation at 38

Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), analysis by IAQ

The comparison firstly shows that in Germany the 40-hour week is not the only prevalent full-time standard, but the prevalent working time standard among men in total.³⁸ To a similar extent this is also true for Finland. However, the 40-hour standard is most distinct in Sweden. Nevertheless, the average working time per week among men in full-time employment in Sweden is still almost one hour shorter than that in Germany because considerably fewer men work longer than 40 hours per week in Sweden. In Denmark, on the other hand, the full-time standard among men lies substantially below the traditional 40-hour week. Secondly, this corresponds to the most distinct homogeneity of female and male working times in Denmark in the field of reduced full-time. However, in Denmark almost one quarter of men and more than one tenth of women work more than 40 hours per week. As far as these characteristics are concerned, the working time structures in Denmark are similar to those in France.

For a better understanding, these working time profiles also require more detailed analyses in each of these countries. In this, it should especially be taken into consideration that the differences between the Northern European countries regarding the systems of working time and labour market regulation are as huge as the common ground. Among the most obvious similarities are the well-developed welfare states which act as a basic condition for

³⁸ This is even more distinctive in the alleged "part-time society" in the Netherlands: There, the 40-hours week is the clear full-time norm – but exclusively for men.

³⁹ As soon as in 1974 the following working hours were agreed for the entire Swedish industry: 39 hours in two-shift operation, 38 hours for partly continuous and 36 for fully continuous shift operation (Anxo 2009).

the advanced development of female employment, the great importance of trade unions in the world of work and the still strong collective bargain coverage.

The development of working hours in Sweden, for example, is influenced in a particular way by the fact that the umbrella organisation of the powerful workers' trade unions (LO) traditionally rejects general reductions of working times by collective agreements. It acted according to its belief that a well-developed welfare state requires a strong tax base, which in turn can only be secured by full employment based on the 40-hour week and the gradual approximation of the working times of women to this standard.

Against this background in the 1990s, in the course of a certain decentralisation of the collective bargaining system following the previous deep crises of the Swedish model, a practice called "negotiated

flexibility" developed (for the following see also Anxo 2009: 56): The framework set by the statutory 40-hour week (plus a maximum of 200 overtime hours per year), is explicitly optional and – except for some special protective measures – can be changed or even partly or completely replaced by collective agreements at a company or sector level. Most sector collective agreements adopt the statutory norm. There are shorter collectively agreed working times, for example, for shift workers,³⁹ some occupational groups in the public services (e.g. 39 hours for firemen and policemen), and about 38 hours in banks and insurers. In the public services, there are also agreements on seasonal working times (about 41 hours from September to April and 37.5 hours for the rest of the year). In the public service sector also, by far the largest employer of the female labour force in Sweden, there are numerous local agreements on individual possibilities for the reduction of working time (in the range of a 30 to 35-hour week, for example) which are used above all by women. Against this background, Anxo (2009: 63) calls part-time employment "rather a historical transition in the frame of a strategy – mainly initiated by the government – to achieve the active participation of married women in the labour market". This assessment is confirmed by the data on working time, which show a high degree of stability for the working hours of men and a gradual extension of the average working time of women. The average working time of many Swedish women has been shifting from classical part-time toward the field of reduced full-time for about 20 years. The result is an increase in the average working hours of all female employees by about four hours per week (Anxo 2009: 69).

Therefore, the working time structures in Sweden are basically marked by an interplay from state institutions (child care, tax and social security system) and statutory norms (working time statute) and bargaining political design. In a similar way, but on completely different historical developmental trajectories, this is also true for Finland. The process we could observe in Sweden in the course of which women were gradually integrated into the labour market on a long-term basis and their average working times slowly adapted to the traditional full-time standard, cannot be seen in Finland. "The Finnish women have never confused working time structures" Julkunen/Nätti (1999: 44) state tersely. Both authors point out that Finland showed a high employment rate among women as soon as the 1950s, long before the other Northern European countries set on this course in the 1960s and 1970s.⁴⁰ That happened before the broad industrialisation and urbanisation which took place in Finland as late as the 1960s. Therefore it happened within the traditional family structures without institutional backing and especially without significant public child care. The expansion of supporting institutions therefore happened only after the far-reaching establishment of the social standard of equal working times for men and women. Given these circumstances, in the 1980s collectively agreed working times below the 40-hour norm were negotiated within a range of 40 to 35 hours in a number of sectors (ibidem: 36).

At the beginning of the 1990s, this arrangement went through a crisis in the course of the serious economic crisis Finland experienced along with the economic breakdown of one of its most important trade partners. The whole system of industrial relations was questioned by the employers' associations. Eventually, the achieved compromise of 1993 provided for a transition to a more flexible and more decentralised bargaining system including the opening clauses - also well-known in Germany - which created a broad space for public negotiations. This led to the Finnish version of "negotiated flexibility", which, however, led to a stronger differentiation of working times than in its neighbouring Western countries (Julkunen/Nätti 2002). While in 1990 still about 70% of all employees usually worked between 35 and 39 hours per week, in 2003 this applied to less than 50% - for the benefit of a considerably greater significance of the 40-hour week (Sauramo 2006: 90). As Table 3.11 shows, this trend has not continued during the past decade, however, as a consequence of the changes made in the 1990s, the working times of men have diversified upwards with at least 14% of all male employees normally working more than 40 hours per

week.

The significance of long working hours therefore is much bigger than that in Sweden, but it still ranks far behind Denmark. Denmark differs widely from its two Northern neighbours, basically because of the completely different traditional significance of working hour's policy by collective. Since the 1960s, when the collectively agreed working time amounted to 45 hours per week, working hours had been reduced repeatedly by nationwide collective agreements step by step to 37 hours per week - a level that has not been undercut since then, but was only replenished by a collectively agreed extension of holidays (Jørgensen 2006). Given the vital importance of collectively agreed regulations of working time, employers as well as trade unions initially opposed the adaptation of the EU Working Time Directive into national law, which before had not comprised any limitations of working time at all.⁴¹

As with many other countries in the 1990s the tendency towards shorter collectively agreed working times was replaced by the tendency towards decentralised negotiations on the organisation of working times (in some cases also: the extension of working times) together with a transition towards more flexible working hours. In

	1995	2008
Share of male employees with 49+ hours (%)*	7,7	7,8
Share of female employees with 49+ hours (%)*	1,6	1,7
Share of male employees with 41-48 hours (%)*	8,2	16,1
Share of female employees with 41-48 hours (%)*	4,2	7,7
Share of male employees with 37 hours (%)*	63,5	46,3
Share of female employees with 37 hours (%)*	48,9	37,8
Average working time full-time, men**	39,6	40,2
Average working time full-time, women**	37,9	38,1

Table 3.11: Changes in the working hours and working time structures in Denmark, 1995 and 2008

* Basis: 15-64jährige abhängig Beschäftigte

** Basis: 15-64jährige abhängig in Vollzeit Beschäftigte

Quelle: EU-LFS, eigene Auswertung IAQ

contrast to its Northern European neighbours - and even stronger than in the southern neighbour country Germany! This transition towards more flexible working hours was connected to a strong differentiation towards long working times. The increasing importance of long working times, however, was mainly limited to the range between 41 and 48 hours. The portion of employees with overlong working times remained constant (apart from economic fluctuations), however, for men it was on a rather high level in the mid-1990s (Table 3.11).

Despite these structural changes, still about 48% of all Danish employees usually work 35 to 39 hours per week - whereas there are relatively small differences between men and women. The Danish full-time standard of

⁴⁰ In 1950 the employment rate of women amounted to 57% in Finland and 33% in Sweden. In 1969 58% of married women were economically active in Finland and 48% in Sweden (Julkunen/Nätti 1999: 45).

⁴¹ The compromise finally agreed on with the EU Commission, stipulated that the EU directive should be adapted by collective agreements and then it should be declared mandatory by law (Jørgensen 2006).

Development of working time in the EU

considerably less than 40 hours per week therefore seems to provide favourable conditions for the convergence of working times of women and men. Nevertheless, from a trade union point of view, a high price has to be paid: The working hours of relatively many – especially male – employees lie above the 40-hour threshold. There are similar indications in Finland, although to a lesser extent. Therefore, in comparison Sweden has demonstrated up to now the most effective limitation of working times at the 40-hour threshold. Similar to a mirror-image of this trend, the individual reduction of working time among women below the collectively agreed level is more distinct in Sweden than in Finland.

3 Thus, we have not yet heard the final word on the matter of the sustainability of the distribution of working time among genders in Northern Europe, either. That is one of the obvious reasons why the working time standards of the Northern European countries cannot serve as an example for the future development in other countries without difficulty. However, we can at least learn two lessons: Firstly, strong institutional support is needed, in order to make progress on the elimination of gender inequality regarding working hours despite relatively long full-time standards. Meanwhile, the influence of the indirect regulation of working hours – by child care as well as the tax and welfare system – on the actual distribution and duration of working times is stronger than that of most collective agreements. Secondly, the more working time policy by collective agreements can interplay with direct regulations of working hours by the state – especially the statutory limitation of working hours – the more effective it becomes. Restrictive state limitations, which can be adapted to the interests of the actors at sector or company level, are a model of success which could be imported from Sweden to other countries – such as Germany – without having to change the overall architecture of industrial relations.

4 Employment participation and working times in the household context

The family context has a strong impact on the working hours of men and women. In couple households without children the unequal distribution of working hours between the partners usually either originates in differing opinions (models) regarding the gender-related division of labour, or in restrictions on the labour market. The tax and social security system can also provide strong incentives for the unequal distribution of working hours (Dingeldey 2002). If the household includes children or people in need of nursing, the care that these household members need and the respective public infrastructure (childcare, day care, care facilities) as well as measures related to family policy (especially parental leave, maternity or paternity leave and the temporary leave of absence for homecare responsibilities) are further relevant factors influencing the working hours of the partners able to work.

Working times of men and women are very likely to change as soon as children are born. In most countries, the direction of these changes to the working times of fathers is generally opposite to those in the working times of mothers: Fathers tend to work longer than men without children, while mothers work less than women without children – culminating in the reduction to zero hours which means the – possibly temporary – withdrawal from employment (see the example of Germany in chapter 3.4.1). Consequently, parenthood has a double effect on employment: It influences activity and employment rate as well as the working hours of mothers and fathers. Within these general trends, however, we find substantial differences between countries and also between the women of different qualification groups.

Those who do not live alone but together with a partner, usually do not alone decide on whether to take up gainful employment, and the number of hours that have to be worked. The decision rather lies with the family as a whole because the possibility of employment depends substantially on how much reproduction work – above all housework, childcare and the nursing of invalid and old family members – has to be done, and how it is distributed among the family members. Of course, the financial needs of the household are also taken into consideration, as well as the income opportunities the different employment constellations offer for the household as a whole. Preferences regarding employment and working hours of men and women respectively fathers and mothers are influenced – and possibly even neglected – by the various country-specific conditions and support structures (childcare institutions, parental leave etc.). Therefore, the household level has to be taken into consideration in order to understand the decisions on working hours of mothers and fathers.

Development of working time in the EU

4.1 Employment constellations in the family context

Household structures vary from one country to another. In France Cyprus and Luxembourg, people who live in couple households with children are predominant (about 50%). In Germany, Austria and other countries, the share of people living in this kind of household is less than 40%, in Latvia just 35%. In contrast, in Finland and the Netherlands a relatively huge share of people (22% and 21%) live in couple households without children, compared with 5% in Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia. In Germany (20%) and Finland (17%) we find the most single people.

in the part-time sector. The majority of single parents are gainfully employed; however they tend to work part-time more frequently than single people without children. Particularly in Great Britain, the Netherlands and Germany, but also in Italy and Belgium the share of part-time employees among single parents is considerably higher than that among single people without children. Moreover, a larger share of single parents is not gainfully employed at all in these countries. This is contrasted by the situation in Finland, where the full-time and part-time shares among single parents and single people are almost equal. This is also the case in the Baltic Republics and some of the other CEEC. In some countries (Estonia,

	Single persons without children			Single parents			Difference: single parents - single persons without children		
	Non-active	Full-time	Part-time	Non-active	Full-time	Part-time	Non-active	Full-time	Part-time
Estonia	12	81	7	14	83	3	2	2	-4
Latvia	17	80	3	14	82	4	-3	2	1
Slovenia	23	72	5	17	76	7	-6	4	2
Romania	16	78	6	22	75	3	6	-3	-3
Bulgaria	21	74	4	24	74	2	3	0	-2
Slovakia	20	78	1	23	74	3	3	-4	2
Portugal	13	82	5	18	74	8	5	-8	3
Austria	12	79	9	18	74	8	6	-5	-1
Finland	21	70	8	19	72	9	-2	2	1
Litauen	20	71	8	19	72	9	-1	1	1
Lithuania	11	84	6	19	72	9	8	-12	3
Greece	15	83	2	22	70	8	7	-13	6
Hungary	17	82	2	26	70	4	9	-12	2
Spain	12	82	6	21	69	10	9	-13	4
Czech Republic	13	85	2	28	68	5	15	-17	3
Cyprus	12	82	5	26	67	7	14	-15	2
Poland	23	73	4	34	61	5	11	-12	1
Italy	14	79	7	21	57	22	7	-22	15
France	20	72	8	29	54	17	9	-18	9
Belgium	26	65	9	38	38	24	12	-27	15
Germany	20	69	11	31	34	35	11	-35	24
UK	18	75	6	39	30	30	21	-45	24
Netherlands	18	62	20	36	20	44	18	-42	24

Table 4.1: Employment status of single persons without children and of single parents, 2006, age 25 to 49 (%)

Order by full-time working hours of single parents

Source: European Commission 2009d and own calculations; Data: Eurostat, EU-LFS

The employment status varies immensely according to the family context.⁴² Single people without children mostly work full-time in almost all countries (see Table 4.1). The Netherlands are an exception, as there at least 20% of the childless single people are employed

(Latvia, Lithuania, Slovenia and Finland), single parents are more likely to be in full-time employment than single people. This might be particularly traced back to the well-developed childcare facilities. On the whole, the country comparison shows that Germany shows the third largest structural differences between single people with and without children, only ranking behind Great Britain and the Netherlands.

⁴² The following explanations are based on European Commission 2009d – if no other sources are mentioned. The review is based on persons aged 25 to 49, that means persons who are likely to be in the "family raising phase".

Employment participation and working times in the household context

Table 4.2 shows the employment constellations in couple households with children as well as in those without children. For couple households without children, the most common constellation is that both partners work full-time – the only exception is the Netherlands. This is especially true for the Central and Eastern European countries, but also for Portugal (72%), the United Kingdom (71%) and Finland (66%).⁴³ This constellation is rarest in the Netherlands (39%), which is also the only country in which childless couples are more likely to choose the full-time/part-time combination than the combination of two full-time positions. Germany and Austria (both 56%) rank third from the bottom regarding full-time/full-time combinations.

In some countries, the combination of one active and one non-active person is the second most common constellation after dual full-time, whereby the share ranges between 12% in the United Kingdom and 34% in Greece. The full-time/part-time combination ranks third. While it is of marginal importance in the Central and

Eastern European countries, in Greece and Portugal (< 7%), it is practised in one fifth of this kind of household in Belgium, Austria and Germany and even almost half (45%) in the Netherlands.

These differences hint at the fact that some of the reasons for the unequal distribution of gainful employment between partners lie beyond childcare; and these are particularly significant in some countries. Besides the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, Germany ranks among those countries, in which the gender-related division of labour is very common even among childless couple households (see below).

In couple households with children, the employment and working time constellations change little in the majority of Central and Eastern European EU member states, Portugal and Greece. In contrast, the United Kingdom,

⁴³ This may also apply to the other Northern European countries which are not listed in this table due to the lack of data.

	Persons in couple households											
	Without children				With children				Difference in percentage points: With children – without children			
	NET/NET	VZ/VZ	NET/ET	VZ/TZ	NET/NET	VZ/VZ	NET/ET	VZ/TZ	NET/NET	VZ/VZ	NET/ET	VZ/TZ
Slovenia	4	67	24	5	2	78	15	6	-2	11	-9	1
Portugal	2	72	20	6	2	68	24	6	0	-4	4	0
Lithuania	3	63	23	11	4	63	27	6	1	0	4	-5
Latvia	3	68	21	7	4	63	27	6	1	-5	6	-1
Estonia	3	69	22	5	2	62	27	9	-1	-7	5	4
Bulgaria	10	61	25	4	8	61	27	4	-2	0	2	0
Finland	4	66	20	10	3	61	26	10	-1	-5	6	0
Cyprus	4	62	26	7	2	60	30	8	-2	-2	4	1
Slovakia	7	71	18	3	5	60	32	3	-2	-11	14	0
Romania	6	65	25	4	7	58	30	6	1	-7	5	2
Czech Republic	3	77	16	4	3	56	34	8	0	-21	18	4
Poland	8	60	27	5	5	52	36	7	-3	-8	9	2
Greece	4	57	34	5	2	50	42	6	-2	-7	8	1
Hungary	6	71	21	2	7	50	39	4	1	-21	18	2
France	4	57	24	14	4	42	28	27	0	-15	4	13
Spain	3	61	24	12	3	39	41	17	0	-22	17	5
Belgium	6	50	23	20	4	35	23	39	-2	-15	0	19
Italy	3	58	25	14	3	33	43	21	0	-25	18	7
Luxembourg	1	64	20	16	1	26	38	35	0	-38	18	19
UK	3	71	12	13	5	25	27	43	2	-46	15	30
Austria	3	56	20	20	3	24	28	44	0	-32	8	24
Malta					4	20	64	12				
Germany	4	56	19	21	5	19	31	45	1	-37	12	24
Netherlands	2	39	14	45	3	6	24	67	1	-33	10	22
Range	9	38	22	43	7	72	49	64				

Table 4.2: Employment constellations in couple households with and without children, 2006, age 25 to 49 (%)
Order according to the share of full-time/full-time among couple households with children

Source: European Commission 2009d and own calculations; Data: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Development of working time in the EU

Luxembourg, Germany, the Netherlands and Austria especially show considerable differences between couple households with children and those without children. In these countries' couple households with children it is considerably less common that both partners are employed full-time. Instead, the share of full-time/part-time combinations is higher, as well as the constellation in which one of the two adults is not active at all. The Netherlands is an extreme case. In only 6% of couple households with children both partners work full-time, but in more than two thirds (67%), one person works full-time and the other part-time. In Germany, too, the full-time/part-time model is dominant within this kind of household (45%), while the constellation with only one gainfully employed person (31%) and the combination of two full-time positions (19%) are considerably less common. The full-time/part-time model is the dominant constellation among couple households with children in Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, Austria and the United Kingdom. In Spain, Italy and Luxembourg, on the other hand, the sole wage earner model predominates.

The different employment constellations, on the one hand, should be interpreted in the context of family policy measures, such as, for example, the availability of all-day childcare facilities, the duration of childcare leave and the possibility for mothers and fathers to reduce their working time during the childcare period. Reasons related to the labour market (unemployment rate, wage level etc.) may also play a role. At least on average in the EU-27, 21% of female employees and 43% of male employees (aged 25-49) stated in 2006 that they only work part-time because they had not found a full-time position (European Commission 2009d: 22; see also Bielenski et al. 2001).

4.2 Employment rates of women and men with children

The origins of the differences between couple households with and without children described in chapter 4.1, can mainly be traced back to the labour participation of women respectively mothers. The evaluation of the reasons for the non-activity of men and women of working age (see Figure 4.1) shows that there are considerable differences between genders regarding these reasons. On average 23.5% of women are non-active. 10.1% of these state personal or family reasons, while only 0.3% of men see the main reasons for their non-activity in these areas. However, the differences between countries are striking. For example, this aspect plays a minor role in Denmark, Sweden, Iceland, Norway, the United Kingdom, France and Slovenia. This might be traced back to the well-developed childcare facilities and the tendency towards an egalitarian view of gender roles as well as – particularly in Great Britain – the widespread anchorage of part-time employment. A comparably huge impact is caused by personal and family responsibilities as reason for non-

activity among women in Turkey, Malta, Luxembourg, Ireland, Greece, Spain, Cyprus and Italy.

Labour participation is also strongly influenced by the education level of the person in question (see Figure 4.2). In all EU countries, those with higher education are clearly more likely to be employed than those with a lower education level. This equally applies to men and women.

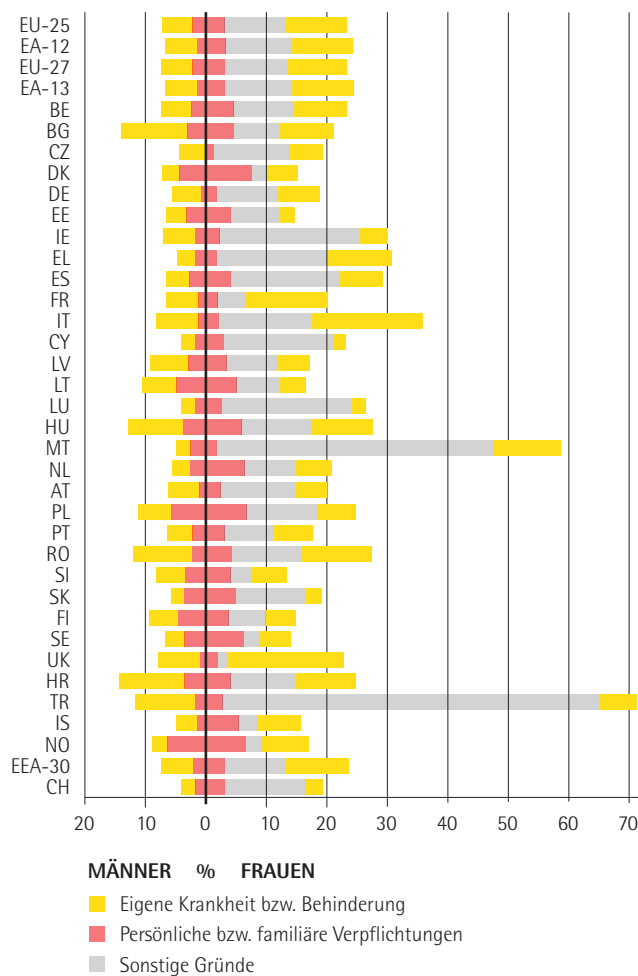


Figure 4.1: Non-activity rate of persons aged 25 to 54 according to gender and main reason for being non-active 2006

Source: Hardarson (2007)

In the following, we want to examine the employment rates of women with children. In general, these have tended to increase during the last decades. Nevertheless, they are still influenced strongly by the number of children and the possibilities for the compatibility of profession and family. As Table 4.3 shows, the activity rates of women with children are lower than those of women without children in almost all EU countries (exceptions are Slovenia and Portugal). The greatest differences can be found in Malta, where the employment rate of women with children is about 34 percentage points lower than that of women without children. But in Germany, too, this difference is above average (about 14 percentage points).

The employment rates of men show the opposite trend: In all EU countries, the employment rates of men with children are higher than those employment rates of men without children.

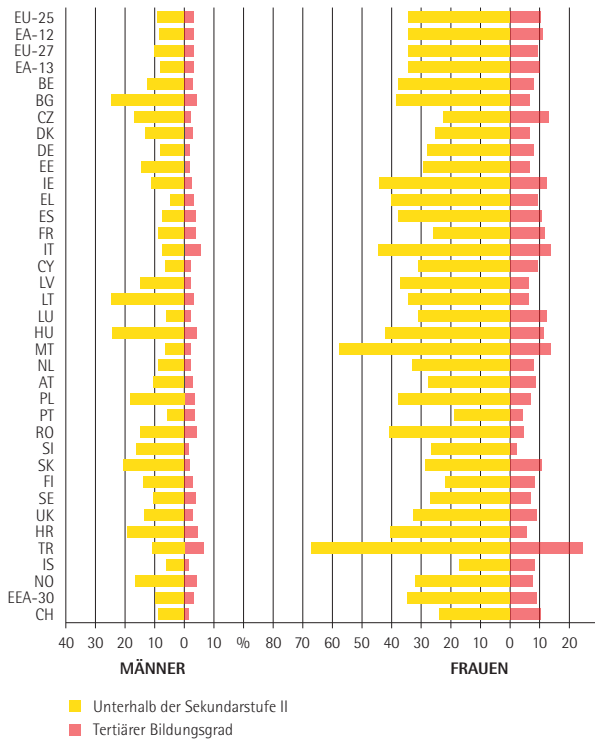


Figure 4.2: Non-activity rate of persons aged 25 to 54 according to education level, 2006

Source: Hardarson (2007)

In most EU countries, the employment rate of mothers declines as the number of children increases, whereas the considerably low employment rate of women with three and more children in some countries especially catches the eye Table 4.4, see next page. The European Commission (2009d: 32f.) traces this back to the fact that mothers with more than two children frequently take charge of childcare themselves, among other reasons because of relatively high costs for childcare – this is particularly the case when they belong to the lower income groups. Based on a study on the costs of childcare in Europe, Da Roit and Sabatinelli (2007) found out that besides the availability of childcare, its costs have a crucial influence on female employment.

The differences between countries regarding childcare are substantial. For example, in Greece only 3% of children under three attend childcare facilities, whereas 60% of children do so in Denmark. The Southern European and Continental European countries (except for France and Belgium), Ireland and the Baltic states show low rates of childcare (below 20%), while Sweden, Denmark and France show the highest rates of childcare (more than 40%). Many EU member states in Eastern and Central Europe have traditionally had a high share of female employment

	Without children		With children		Difference in percentage points	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
EU 27	78,3	82,4	67,0	90,0	-11,3	7,7
EA 15	77,3	82,2	66,3	91,6	-10,9	8,8
Belgium	75,8	81,4	72,4	91,4	-3,5	10,0
Bulgaria	77,3	77,1	71,4	81,2	-5,9	4,1
Czech Republic	84,8	87,8	68,3	93,7	-16,5	5,9
Germany	82,3	81,6	68,5	90,6	-13,8	8,9
Estonia	85,6	83,5	78,7	93,2	-7,0	9,7
Greece	67,3	86,2	59,4	95,1	-7,9	8,9
Spain	75,0	84,1	60,6	91,3	-14,4	7,2
France	79,9	81,1	72,0	91,3	-7,9	10,3
Italy	68,2	82,6	55,8	91,2	-12,4	9,1
Cyprus	82,3	87,2	73,2	95,2	-9,1	8,0
Latvia	81,8	78,9	77,4	87,4	-4,5	8,5
Lithuania	83,0	78,0	80,1	88,1	-2,9	10,0
Luxembourg	82,2	90,1	65,4	94,8	-17,4	4,7
Hungary	79,2	80,5	62,2	85,4	-17,1	4,9
Malta	65,6	87,6	31,4	93,2	-34,2	5,6
Netherlands	85,1	87,7	73,8	94,2	-11,3	6,5
Austria	83,6	88,5	73,9	93,1	-9,7	4,5
Poland	74,1	72,6	66,2	84,6	-7,8	12,1
Portugal	76,2	82,5	76,9	91,9	0,7	9,4
Romania	73,6	78,7	69,6	83,5	-4,0	4,8
Slovenia	79,0	83,1	85,6	93,2	6,6	10,1
Slovakia	79,3	79,0	66,7	88,6	-12,5	9,6
Finland	81,8	80,4	76,8	92,5	-5,0	12,1
UK	85,6	85,5	68,4	90,9	-17,1	5,4

Table 4.3: Employment rates of women and men with children under 15 years and without children (age group 25-49)—2006, in percent

Source: European Commission 2009d; Data: Eurostat, EU-LFS

along with a high availability of state childcare. However, this availability of childcare facilities has decreased during the last decade, which has led to a decrease in female employment and an increase in part-time employment (Da Roit/Sabatinelli 2007).

The employment rates vary between the EU countries and depending on the age of the youngest child in the household, too (Table 4.5, see next page). That which stands out, though, is that in some countries the differences between the employment rates are influenced only slightly or even not at all by the age of the youngest child (the Netherlands with relatively high, Italy with relatively low employment rates). In other countries, however, mothers with at least one child under 6 show comparably low employment rates. Among the latter are extremely different countries, such as some Central and Eastern European countries (Hungary, Czech Republic, Estonia), the United Kingdom, Germany and Austria, but

Development of working time in the EU

also Finland. In those countries, country-specific varying regulations of parental respectively childcare leave might leave there mark in addition to the availability of childcare facilities and gender role models. Apart from a few exceptions (Lithuania and Portugal for children under 6), the employment rate of mothers has decreased during the past years – partially to a large extent. This might be partly explained by improved possibilities from the compatibility of family-friendly policies (see European Commission 2009d), but also by the growth in employment preferences of mothers and/or politically induced growth in employment pressure for men and women with child(ren).⁴⁴

As stated above, education level plays a decisive role in the labour participation of women. The employment rates of women increase with an increasing education level, women with higher education also tend to have more stable career trajectories (European Commission 2009d: 35). From Table 4.6 (next page) we can see that education level has a particular strong impact on the employment rates of mothers. In most countries, the employment rate of highly qualified women decreases only slightly when one or two children live in the household. The Czech Republic, Germany, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Slovakia and the United Kingdom are exceptions. In these countries the difference between women with children and those without amounts to more than ten percentage points. In contrast, some countries' employment rates of highly qualified women with one or two children are even higher than those of childless women at the same education level (Italy, Portugal, Slovenia). The situation of women with low education is different. Their employment rates are lower and decrease in some cases considerably with the increasing number of children. However, in this aspect we also find huge differences in country comparison.

	With one child	With two child	With 3 or more children
EU 27	71,2	67,3	53,0
EA 15	70,3	65,9	53,9
Belgium	75,9	76,3	58,0
Bulgaria	75,2	70,8	36,6
Czech Republic	69,4	70,9	51,3
Germany	73,9	67,7	49,6
Estonia	83,4	76,2	64,0
Greece	61,4	59,2	52,9
Spain	64,7	58,1	50,3
France	77,5	73,9	56,7
Italy	60,1	53,5	41,8
Cyprus	76,6	76,2	63,3
Latvia	80,3	77,2	65,1
Lithuania	81,5	81,6	72,0
Luxembourg	74,0	65,2	51,1
Hungary	66,5	66,4	39,1
Malta	39,1	27,8	21,7
Netherlands	75,3	76,5	65,1
Austria	80,1	72,3	57,9
Poland	69,6	66,9	57,0
Portugal	78,0	77,5	65,8
Romania	73,9	69,1	53,4
Slovenia	84,3	87,2	84,7
Slovakia	70,1	69,6	52,2
Finland	78,7	80,9	66,5
UK	75,5	71,0	47,9

Table 4.4: Employment rate of women according to the number of children - 2006, persons aged 25 to 49 (%)

Source: European Commission 2009d; Data: Eurostat, EU-LFS

⁴⁴ Employment pressures might also result from the policy of "activation" in many European countries. In Germany, the pressure on mothers who are able to work to be available to the labour market increased considerably with the introduction of the SGB II (basic resources for jobseekers) as well as changes in the maintenance law. Therefore many of the mothers receiving transfers are at least marginally employed or in an employment furthered by labour market policy (sometimes not against payment but against compensation for additional expenditure).

Employment participation and working times in the household context

Land	2008			Changes in comparison with 2005			Ranking 2008 (maximum value = 1)		
	Youngest child < 6 years	Youngest child 6 to 11 years	Youngest child 12 and older	Youngest child < 6 years	Youngest child 6 to 11 years	Youngest child 12 and older	Youngest child < 6 years	Youngest child 6 to 11 years	Youngest child 12 and older
European Union (27 countries)	59,0	70,7	71,9	6,1	5,7	4,1			
European Union (15 countries)	60,8	70,6	70,8	5,4	5,1	3,5			
Slovenia	78,8	86,5	86	2,6	2,2	6,8	1	2	4
Netherlands	76,4	78,3	78,8	9,6	7,4	6,2	2	7	10
Portugal	71,8	76,2	74,5	-1,8	1,9	3,0	3	8	13
Cyprus	71,4	74,4	74,3	4,4	7,2	7,1	4	11	13
Belgium	68,2	75,0	73,5	2,9	5,0	5,9	5	9	13
Lithuania	67,1	79,1	83,0	-2,2	5,5	4,0	6	6	5
France	66,2	79,6	76,7	6,3	6,8	1,3	7	5	9
Latvia	66,2	82,2	83,9	28,5	9,6	4,4	7	4	4
Finland	64,4	88,0	88,5	5,6	4,0	2,0	9	1	1
Luxembourg	63,6	68,8	62,6	4,1	5,7	1,3	10	9	12
Austria	63,5	76,9	82,9	4,3	2,5	6,3	11	3	3
Germany	61,7	73,7	76,3	13,0	7,9	1,5	12	5	6
Roumania	58,6	64,7	67,4	3,4	1,6	0,1	13	8	9
Spain	58,1	63,2	62,3	5,3	9,0	10,3	14	9	9
UK	57,6	72,7	79,1	2,3	0,3	1,8	15	5	5
Ireland	57,1	63,3	68	-	-	-	16	7	7
Poland	57,0	69,3	71,4	14,5	11,8	9,8	17	5	6
Greece	53,6	60,7	59,8	2,3	4,3	6,4	18	6	6
Estonia	53,1	85,3	87,6	13,5	10,1	0,7	19	1	2
Italy	52,8	56,8	56,4	3,7	4,6	5,4	20	5	5
Bulgaria	51,4	74,7	80,6	14,7	14,6	9,5	21	3	3
Slovakia	39,3	75,1	82,9	11,3	5,8	6,6	22	2	2
Malta	38,6	39,2	43,7	30,8	21,7	11,5	23	3	3
Czech Republic	33,8	82,6	87,9	-5,3	6,3	2,9	24	1	1
Hungary	33,6	67,1	76,3	1,2	2,0	-0,5	25	1	1

Table 4.5: Employment rates of women with children 2008

Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), analysis by IAQ

Development of working time in the EU

	Low				Medium				High			
	Number of children				Number of children				Number of children			
	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
EU 27	61,3	55,8	49,1	35,2	79,9	73,2	69,1	56,9	87,8	83,7	82,9	75,2
EA 15	61,2	55,3	48,1	36,7	79,9	74,1	68,8	58,0	85,9	82,6	82,5	75,0
BE	53,3	59,5	49,3	30,5	76,9	75,7	75,1	57,5	88,5	88,5	89,6	81,1
BG	46,8	48,5	41,7	26,5	79,0	74,7	76,4	58,4	90,3	87,3	86,7	-
CZ	58,4	55,0	52,9	23,9	86,6	70,5	71,1	55,0	91,3	70,4	77,8	68,6
DE	66,5	55,3	49,2	31,0	82,4	75,0	68,4	54,9	90,8	85,3	81,8	69,1
EE	-	-	-	-	84,7	79,9	74,4	61,2	90,8	89,0	84,2	-
EL	50,6	48,4	44,2	45,7	67,3	60,1	56,6	48,8	82,3	81,3	80,7	77,1
ES	59,9	50,6	45,7	36,4	76,8	68,5	57,9	52,3	83,9	79,6	76,2	72,3
FR	66,5	65,0	57,7	40,9	83,9	80,5	74,1	58,8	85,2	83,8	84,2	74,4
IT	53,8	45,7	35,2	26,1	74,2	68,2	63,3	54,5	77,6	75,0	80,5	75,5
CY	77,2	61,8	63,6	47,5	80,0	76,7	73,1	60,1	86,9	84,1	86,5	82,8
LV	62,2	49,0	-	-	79,3	80,3	77,8	65,4	90,7	89,2	82,9	94,4
LT	-	-	-	-	78,7	77,2	79,2	70,6	93,0	92,6	90,1	86,6
LU	67,6	67,4	60,9	50,5	84,6	73,3	64,3	45,1	89,6	85,4	75,2	63,1
HU	50,2	50,3	41,6	20,2	81,1	68,7	67,9	43,8	93,6	72,7	81,7	71,4
MT	51,0	26,4	18,6	-	86,0	70,7	60,8	-	91,9	81,1	70,9	-
NL	66,4	61,5	58,6	43,1	87,6	77,3	78,6	68,9	91,9	87,3	88,1	81,6
AT	71,0	66,9	56,8	43,1	85,7	82,8	74,1	63,6	90,0	85,8	83,8	70,2
PL	37,9	45,0	45,1	35,8	69,1	66,4	63,9	58,1	90,0	84,7	85,9	86,7
PT	71,1	73,9	72,6	59,0	75,5	81,4	85,2	79,1	86,2	90,4	91,2	89,6
RO	55,9	53,1	49,9	42,4	73,7	74,9	72,0	61,5	90,6	92,3	93,4	-
SI	68,3	72,1	73,5	68,4	76,0	82,9	86,3	84,8	90,2	93,0	95,1	95,3
SK	39,5	42,5	40,0	16,9	81,4	70,6	70,1	59,3	92,7	82,2	78,8	64,9
FI	61,1	70,1	70,4	47,8	77,3	77,5	77,3	65,4	90,9	82,1	85,4	72,9
UK	70,5	63,8	57,6	30,8	86,4	76,3	71,7	49,9	93,0	86,8	82,1	72,2

Table 4.6: Employment rate of women according to education level and number of children – 2006, persons aged 25 to 49 (%)

Source: European Commission 2009d; Data: Eurostat, EU-LFS

4.3 Changes in the employment of women after the birth of children

How do employment and working times of women change after the birth of children? First indications are provided by a survey on behalf of the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working conditions in which managers were, among other things, asked about their observations regarding the employment behaviour of women after maternity leave (European Foundation 2008b, see Figure 4.3). According to this source, in most countries the majority of women continued their employment to the same extent as before after the interruption due to childcare; in Germany, Austria, the Netherlands and (to a lesser extent) Sweden and the United Kingdom this is considerably less common. In these countries, the return to employment in part-time form is predominant. In this respect, we also notice that in Germany and Austria in a relatively huge number of enterprises (18% resp. 20%) mothers frequently do

not continue their employment after childcare leave. The spread of part-time employment seems to play an important role for the modality of the return to employment. In countries where part-time employment is less common, women tend to continue their employment to the previous degree (Denmark, Slovenia, Portugal, Poland, Cyprus, Greece), whereas in some countries the withdrawal from employment is a frequent phenomenon, too (Hungary, Poland).

A more differentiated portrayal of these country-specific patterns enables the examination of the employment status according to the duration of working time two years before and two years after the birth of a child, based on the European Community Household Panel (see Figure 4.4). It shows that the birth of a child on average in the EU leads to the reduction of working hours by 14%. The strongest reduction of working hours was measured in Germany, Hungary and the United Kingdom, while in the Nordic countries as well as Portugal and Belgium labour participation

Employment participation and working times in the household context

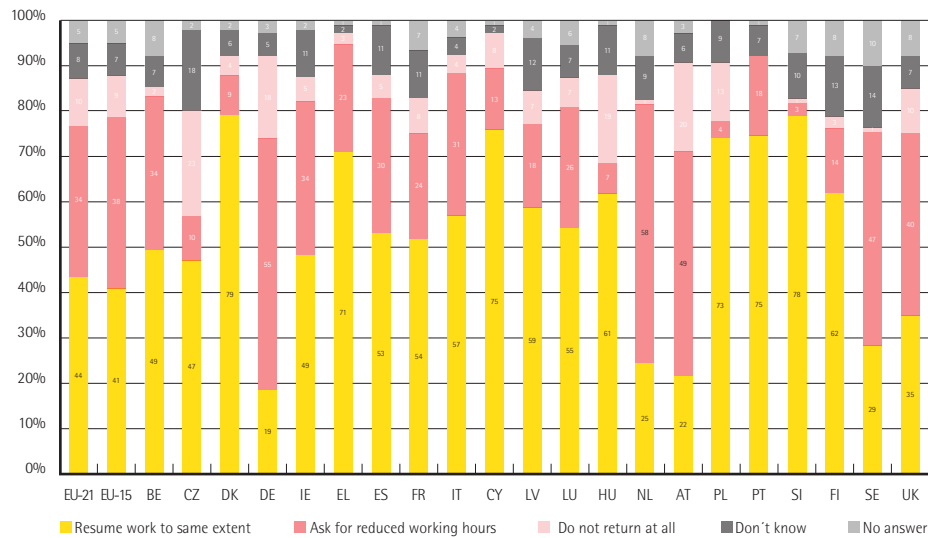


Figure 4.3: Labour participation of women after parental leave (in %)

Source: European Commission (2009d: 102)

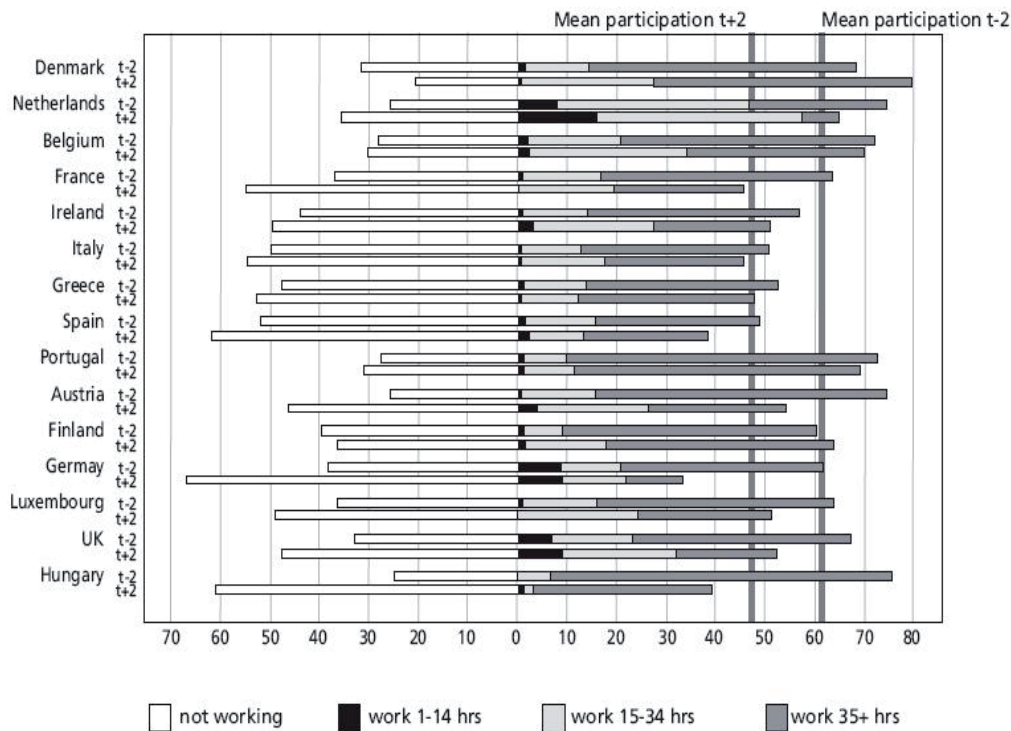


Figure 4.4: Employment status of mothers (aged 18-45) two years before (t-2) and two years after (t+2) the birth of a child

Source: European Foundation (2008b: 28); Statistical basis: ECHP, HHS

remains high, even after the birth of children. A similar situation applies to the Netherlands, but it is particularly common for women to remain in part-time employment.

These patterns of return to employment by women after the birth of children might be influenced considerably by the organization of paternal and childcare leave. The regulations on maternal and paternal respectively childcare leave in the EU follow highly varying logic.⁴⁵ While a high replacement ratio increases the employment binding of mothers on a short-term basis, the long duration of maternity or paternity leave (secured by social

transfers) rather constitute a risk for continual labour participation.

As Figure 4.4 makes clear, the incorporation of working times enables an even more differentiated view on the country-specific patterns of the effects children have on the labour participation of women (and men) than the examination of employment rates only. Therefore, we will have a closer look at the working times of men and women with and without children.

⁴⁵ Detailed explanations on this topic can be found in European Commission (2009: 85ff.).

Development of working time in the EU

4.4 Working times of women and men with children

The withdrawal of mothers from the labour market can be realised by the transition to non-activity as well as by a reduction in working hours. While the first is not reflected in the average working time, the average working hours are reduced in the latter. A perfect 'before and after'-comparison would also include the working times of zero hours (non-activity). However, this is generally not the case with the available data. This restriction must be considered in the following analysis.

In the differences between working hours in connection to the existence of children in a household, at first all those factors are emphasised which were used to explain the different employment rates of men and women with children. Additionally, special regulations related to working hours can exert a certain influence in some countries. Flecker (2010) among others states: the law existing in the Netherlands which stipulates that the change between part-time and full-time is possible without stating reasons; the regulation in Denmark and Portugal according to which involuntary part-time employment is compensated financially; the Belgian law which stipulates the right to a furthered reduction of working hours from one fifth up to complete time-out.

Firstly, we will compare the working hours of single people with those of single parents (see. Table 4.7): In this field, differences are still quite small. Single-parent full-time employees work about two hours less than full-time employed single people; among part-time employees the difference is distinctively lower. However, the just stated limitation should be taken into consideration: The full extent of the differences would only then become discernible if we were able to consider the structures of labour participation presented in Table 4.1.

A detailed examination (see Table 4.8) shows in some cases considerable gender-related differences in working hours of parents. For example, fathers in Germany, the United Kingdom, Austria and the Netherlands work between 16.8 and 11.2 hours longer than mothers, regardless of the age of the youngest child. In these countries mothers show the shortest working times in country comparison. In contrast, gender-related differences regarding working hours are relatively small in countries with a low part-time employment rate (Slovakia, Cyprus, Finland, Czech Republic, Portugal). Apart from a few exceptions (Belgium and Ireland), we observe that the younger the youngest child in the household, the greater are the differences in working hours between mothers and fathers.⁴⁶

On the whole, the range of working hours of mothers is two to three times higher than that of the working hours of fathers. This means that the working hours of fathers are "more similar" throughout the EU than those of

mothers. The high variance, which interestingly increases along with the age of the youngest child⁴⁷, reflects the fact that the country-specific, extremely different conditions for the compatibility of profession and family mainly influence the employment behaviour of women, but hardly that of men.

	Singles without children		Single parents	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
EU 27	41,3	20,8	39,5	21,3
EU 15	41,3	20,9	39,3	21,2
Belgium	35,9	21,6	35,2	21,4
Bulgaria	41,4	13,9	41,0	15,1
Czech Republic	43,5	24,3	41,5	24,9
Germany	41,8	19,6	40,4	20,8
Estonia	40,4	23,0	41,4	20,0
Greece	42,9	20,4	40,6	18,8
Spanien	40,8	19,0	40,3	21,2
France	40,3	22,1	38,9	24,7
Italy	40,5	20,8	38,2	22,5
Cyprus	40,7	20,3	39,7	18,7
Latvia	40,8	19,6	42,2	20,8
Lithuania	35,1	18,1	34,9	18,4
Luxembourg	38,6	23,0	39,0	24,6
Hungary	36,8	20,4	37,8	23,1
Malta	40,3	20,9	39,9	18,8
Netherlands	39,9	25,7	39,5	23,6
Austria	43,7	20,6	42,1	23,1
Poland	42,3	22,7	40,4	23,5
Portugal	41,0	18,9	39,6	20,4
Romania	38,3	6,9	38,8	9,5
Slovenia	43,6	18,4	41,1	18,9
Slovakia	41,2	23,2	40,8	24,7
Finland	39,6	20,9	38,3	22,6
UK	43,3	20,3	39,4	19,5

Table 4.7: Working hours of single people and single parents according to full-time and part-time, 2006, persons aged 25 to 49 (in h.)

Source: European Commission 2009d and own calculations; Data: Eurostat, EU-LFS

⁴⁶ Regarding children aged 0 to 2 years, the (low) employment rate partially is influenced by paternity resp. Childcare leave. Gainfully employed women with children of this age probably put an above-average emphasis on their career. This is reflected by partly longer working hours, as well.

⁴⁷ This phenomenon could as well conceal a cohort effect, i.e. the age of the youngest child tends to correlate with the age of the mother. Correspondingly, employment structures which have changed over time are reflected here. However, even more factors could be crucial for this, like for instance insufficient availability of day nurseries compared with the availability of kindergartens in some countries or the mothers' wish to intensify their personal care for their children at school age.

Employment participation and working times in the household context

Age of the youngest child	Mothers				Fathers				Difference			
	0-2	3-5	6-11	12-14	0-2	3-5	6-11	12-14	0-2	3-5	6-11	12-14
European Union	32,1	31,5	31,4	32,2	41,0	41,1	40,6	40,0	8,9	9,6	9,2	7,8
Belgium	32,2	30,8	30,1	30,6	38,8	39,0	39,3	38,7	6,6	8,2	9,2	8,1
Czech Republic	37,0	37,5	39,0	39,4	42,2	42,6	42,1	41,6	5,2	5,1	3,1	2,2
Germany	27,5	23,6	23,4	25,7	39,7	40,2	39,5	38,7	12,2	16,6	16,1	13
Ireland	30,6	28,2	26,9	28,6	39,8	40,0	39,2	37,8	9,2	11,8	12,3	9,2
Greece	36,9	36,9	36,4	36,7	42,1	41,7	40,9	40,6	5,2	4,8	4,5	3,9
Spain	33,4	33,3	33,6	33,2	41,7	41,4	41,1	40,2	8,3	8,1	7,5	7
France	33,3	33,0	33,1	33,5	39,8	39,9	40,0	39,9	6,5	6,9	6,9	6,4
Italy	31,8	30,8	30,4	31,4	40,4	40,4	40,0	39,8	8,6	9,6	9,6	8,4
Cyprus	38,4	38,0	37,8	37,9	41,4	41,4	40,7	40,6	3	3,4	2,9	2,7
Latvia	38,5	39,2	39,3	40,3								
Lithuania	38,6	38,5	38,5	38,8								
Luxembourg	32,2	29,3	27,9	29,8								
Hungary	37,7	38,8	39,1	39,5								
Netherlands	24,1	22,1	20,8	19,9	37,5	37,1	35,6	31,1	13,4	15	14,8	11,2
Austria	29,5	26,3	28,6	30,4	41,8	42,0	42,6	41,9	12,3	15,7	14	11,5
Poland	37,6	38,0	38,3	38,6	42,7	43,0	42,4	42,4	5,1	5	4,1	3,8
Portugal	38,1	38,2	37,6	37,4	41,4	41,2	40,9	40,2	3,3	3	3,3	2,8
Slovakia	38,3	39,2	39,2	39,2	40,9	41,6	41,3	40,4	2,6	2,4	2,1	1,2
Finland	34,8	35,7	36,1	36,0	39,6	39,5	39,1	38,7	4,8	3,8	3	2,7
UK (2007)	28,9	26,5	28,5	29,4	43,0	43,3	42,9	41,8	14,1	16,8	14,4	12,4
Range	14,5	17,4	19,0	20,4	5,2	6,2	7,3	11,3				

Table 4.8: Working hours of women and men according to the age of the youngest child in the household (2008)

Source: European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), special analysis IAQ

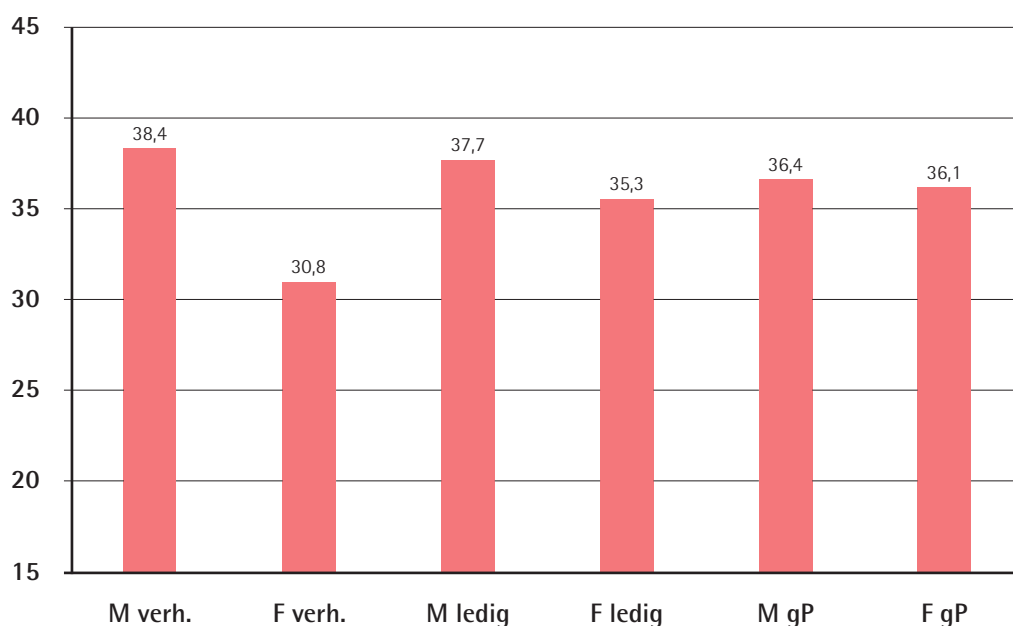


Figure 4.5: Working hours per week of men and women without children according to family status* (h.)

* married, unmarried, same-sex partnership Source: Jansen/Kümmerling (2009) based on the German micro census by the German Federal Statistical Office

Development of working time in the EU

This is particularly distinctive in the German example, which, apart from Great Britain, is the country with the hugest differences in working hours between men and women with children. In chapter 3.4.1 we pointed out that in Germany, the working times of women decrease with the increasing number of children in the household, whereas those of men increase (Table 3.6). However, this effect only intensifies the pattern which is based on the conservative family model still dominant in German politics. As we have already stated, differences in working hours between the partners in couple households can have reasons which originate in the period of time before living with children in the household. It is no coincidence that Germany is one of the EU countries in which the unequal distribution of gainful employment is particularly widespread even among childless couple households (see chapter 4.1). Jansen and Kümmerling (2009) were able to prove this impressively based on the data of the German micro census. While the gender-specific differences in working hours are relatively small among single people and amount to almost zero among men and women in same-sex partnerships, they amount to almost eight hours per week among married couples without children (Figure 4.5).

The comparison between married couples and same-sex partnerships is particularly meaningful. Under German law only (mixed-gender) married couples enjoy the right to considerable subsidies from the tax and social security system (separate taxation for married couples in the income tax as well as the non-contributory co-insurance of the non-active spouse in health insurance). Additionally, there is the tax advantage for short-term part-time (mini-jobs). These kind of subsidies provide a – depending on the income level and the difference between the incomes of the respective partners – considerable financial incentive for the maintenance of the traditional sole wage earner or main wage earner model. Conservative family models like the one predominant in Germany are, therefore, characterised by the fact that they further the gap between working hours (and incomes) within couple households – with tax incentives – and simultaneously enforce it – with the support investment of the social services.

4.5 Gainful employment and total working hours

To return to working time, women spend much more time working in the household than men. The scale reaches from below + 50% of the amount of hours of men in Sweden up to more than + 200% in Italy and Spain (Aliaga 2006: 1). Relating to the “total working hours” of employed women (i.e. employment/education and household activities together) we observe: On the whole, gainfully employed women frequently work longer than gainfully employed men. Exceptions are countries with particularly huge and those with particularly small gender-specific differences in working hours and employment: In Germany and Great Britain on the one hand, and Sweden, Finland and Norway on the other, the total working hours are the same or almost the same (ibid: 8).

When examining the differences between countries regarding the total working hours including unpaid reproduction work by mothers and fathers (see Figure 4.6), we can see that the time strain of mothers as well as fathers increases. In this field, we also notice distinct differences between countries. While gainfully employed

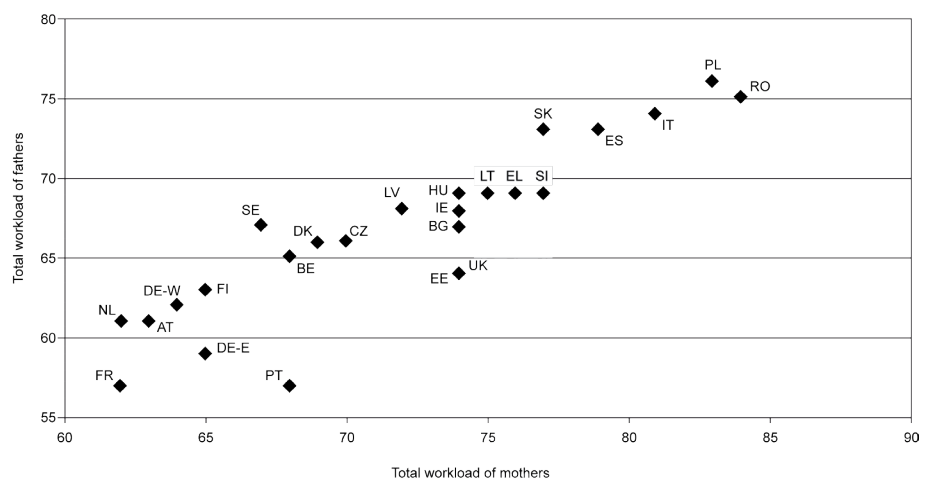


Figure 4.6: Average total working hours of employed mothers and fathers ordered by the number of hours in country comparison (h.)

Source: European Foundation 2007b: 38; Statistical basis: Eurobarometer

mothers and fathers in Poland, Romania, Italy and Spain have very long total working hours (more than 80 resp. 75 hours per week), in France, Portugal, Germany, Austria, Finland and the Netherlands they only amount to 55 and 65 hours per week. In general, the Southern, Eastern and Central European countries – except for Portugal and the Czech Republic – show the longest total working hours for employed parents. This might be connected to a high proportion of self-employment and a less developed infrastructure for household-related services respectively – measured by the household income – relatively high costs for these services. The group of countries with the lowest total working hours (France, the Netherlands, Austria,

Germany, Finland), is formed by countries with opposing working time structures. In Germany, Austria and the Netherlands, the working hours in gainful employment of women are particularly short (with – as the figure also shows – considerable differences between East and West Germany), in France and Finland they are above-average long. The two latter countries, however, offer extensive public services to parents, which reduces the total working hours in these couple households.⁴⁸

This assessment is confirmed by Figure 4.7 Furthermore, the figure shows that in country comparison there is a considerable spread in the structure of the total working hours of women. Great Britain, West Germany⁴⁹ and the Netherlands are noticeable, due to the combination of short working hours of gainful employment and long unpaid reproduction work. This suggests that the long hours dedicated to reproduction work are an important reason for the short working hours for gainful employment. The reasons for the comparably short unpaid working times of mothers in France, Portugal, Finland, Latvia, and the Czech Republic, on the other hand, are less clear. This is due to the fact that not for all of these countries we can assume a high level of availability of childcare facilities (in Portugal, however, traditional family structures might still play a role in relieving mothers). We might suppose, however, that especially in Finland and France short reproduction working hours enable relatively long working times for gainful employment. Furthermore, there is a group of countries (Romania, Poland, Spain, Greece, Italy, Slovakia, Slovenia), in which long working times for gainful employment are combined with long reproduction working hours and gainfully employed mothers are subject to a high total working time burden ("double burden"). Nevertheless, we have to keep in mind that employment rates are not included in these statistics. Therefore, employed mothers with working hours for gainful employment that amount to zero hours – an important factor in Italy, for example – do not appear here.

In contrast, the respective figure for employed fathers (see Figure 4.8), shows that the dispersion in the country comparison is considerably smaller among fathers than

among mothers. The total working hours of fathers are mainly influenced by gainful employment, although the amount of unpaid work is considerable in some countries. In the case of Italy and Spain, we notice that fathers as well as mothers state above-average long unpaid reproduction working hours.⁵⁰ The two extremes are Poland and Romania with very long working hours in both fields and France and East Germany where short working hours of gainful employment are combined with

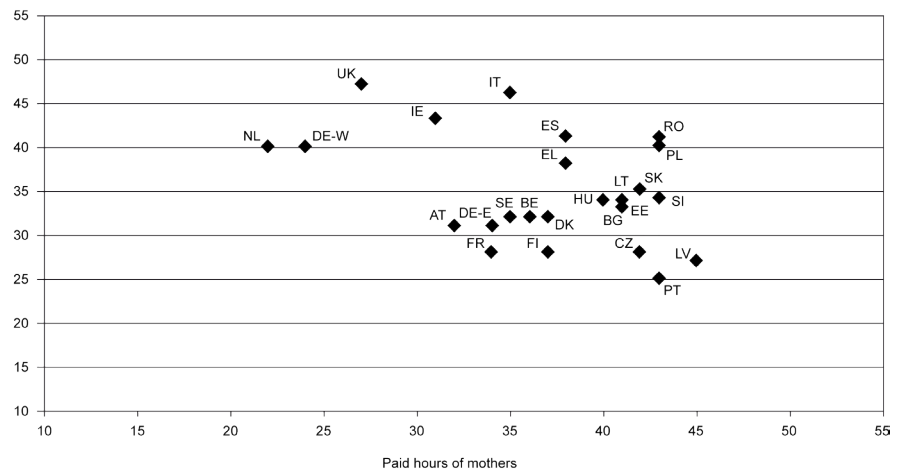


Figure 4.7: Average paid and unpaid working hours of gainfully employed mothers in country comparison (h.)
Source: European Foundation 2007b: 39; Statistical basis: Eurobarometer

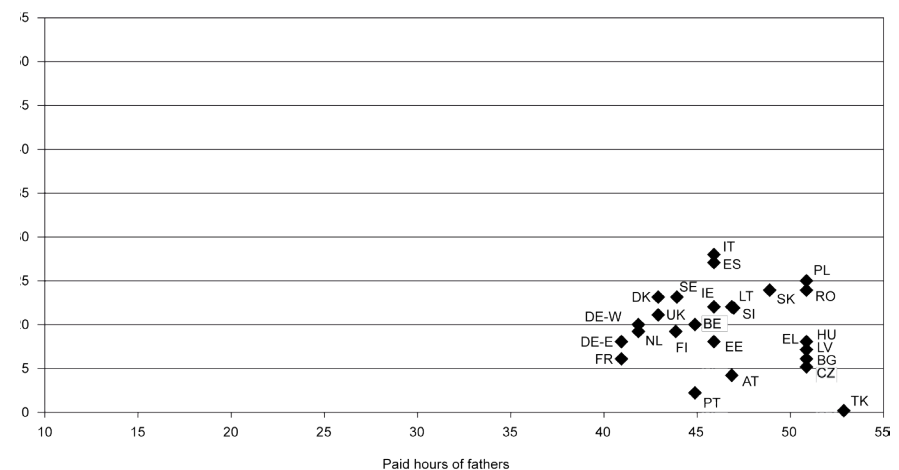


Figure 4.8: Average paid and unpaid working hours of employed fathers in country comparison (h.)
Source: European Foundation 2007b: 40; Statistical basis: Eurobarometer

⁴⁸ Regarding the information on paid working times we have to consider that the data in the following figures are based on another survey than most of the other data used in this report. Therefore, the duration of paid working hours might deviate from that stated in the EU-LFS. As in this chapter, we concentrate on the structures of working times, such possible deviations are insignificant.

⁴⁹ In East Germany gainfully employed mothers combine longer working times with shorter working times for reproduction work. This is partly enabled by the comparably better availability of childcare in East Germany.

⁵⁰ Regarding the amount of hours for unpaid reproduction working times of fathers, we have to take into consideration that these are self-assessments and the hours stated do not only comprise household activities in the literal sense.

Development of working time in the EU

short working hours for unpaid work. Regarding countries with a medium amount of total working hours for fathers, we can distinguish between countries like Denmark and Sweden, where relatively short working times for gainful employment are combined with a stronger contribution to reproduction work, and countries like Turkey and the Czech Republic, where fathers have extremely long working hours and contribute strikingly little to reproduction work..

If we now finally compare the unpaid reproduction working times of fathers with those of mothers, countries with a particularly huge gap and countries with a distinctively smaller gap stand out. For example, in Great Britain the unpaid reproduction working hours of mothers are about 25 hours longer than that of fathers; in West Germany and the Netherlands this difference amounts to about 20 hours. Italy and Poland rank with about 15 hours in the midfield; in France and East Germany the gap is slightly smaller: about 12 resp. 13 hours. With slightly less than 10 hours per week, the gender-gap regarding unpaid reproduction working times is smallest in Sweden, Finland and Denmark. What should be considered at this point is that in these countries the gender-specific differences are also relatively small regarding the working times of gainful employment. Simultaneously they show a below average level of the usual working hours of employed people (see chapter 2.2 and 3.5).

5 No uniform tendency regarding atypical working hours

The organisation of working time has a considerable impact on the wellbeing, health and security at work. When talking about health-promoting working conditions or "good work", the organisation of working hours is a core subject. In this respect, all its dimensions - duration, scheduling and distribution - are to be considered. Moreover, characteristics like time sovereignty (possibilities for employees to influence their working time) as well as the intensity of working rhythms and the working speed should not be forgotten. Duration, scheduling and distribution of working hours influence the extent as well as the quality respectively the possibilities to enjoy leisure time. For example, the quality of leisure time differs according to when it is available, and if the employees know beforehand when they will have free time. This is one of the reasons for the importance of the scheduling of working times in the sense of whether working hours have to be done on weekdays on a normal schedule (about 8 a.m. to 6 p.m.) or at other times of the day (in the evening, at night) or on weekends or public holidays. If the working time lies on (normative) socially usable times, this can lead to impairments at work, as the area of social behaviour is subject to a certain rhythm which basically depends on (not) working times of normal work (Janssen/Nachreiner 2004).

Frequency and the spreading of work at atypical times first of all depends on the economic structure of a country. For example, traditionally night and weekend work was particularly widespread in countries with a significant steel industry. Nevertheless, in the face of structural changes, such clear distinctions become increasingly impossible, today. Along with the increasing importance of the service sector, it is becoming more common for people to work at times when others have free time. Additionally, the competitive pressure pushes many industrial and service companies to extend operating and opening times. Therefore, there are different driving forces behind the extension of opening and operating hours. In some areas, the organisation of production requires an uninterrupted operating time - either due to technical reasons (e.g. power plants) or due to necessary services (accident wards, break down services etc.). Secondly, long machine operation times improve capital productivity, which means the existing capital stock can be used more efficiently. Thirdly, along with growing wealth, the kind of services consumed by users in their free time is increasing, e.g. cultural or sports activities, tourist travel, health and beauty treatment and the like. Fourthly, the demographic change, too, may lead to the growth of sectors like the nursing sector, in which continuous on-call times are necessary.

As the comparison of six European countries by Gross et al. (2004) as well as the analyses based on it by Delsen et al. (2009) show, the expansion of operating and opening hours, however, is not necessarily accompanied by a long duration of individual working times. The company-level organization of working hours rather enables the "decoupling" of working hours from operating hours, which means a combination of short working hours with long operating hours (Anxo et al. 1995). For instance, the average operating hours in Germany are almost as long as in Great Britain, but the former are to a considerably larger extent based on the decoupling of (in Germany: shorter) working hours and operating hours (Table 5.1).

	UK	FR	DE	PT	ES	NL
Operating hours	58,77	58,47	58,10	54,77	51,58	51,18
Working time	41,51	42,51	37,61	51,04	53,52	46,03
Decoupling index	1,47	1,43	1,52	1,42	1,36	1,29

Table 5.1: Comparison of the operating hours in six EU countries, 2004*
 * Operating hours in h./week; Contribution of individual working times (in relation to shift work and shifted working times) in relation to operating hours in %; Decoupling index = operating hours divided by individual contractual working times of full-time employees
 Source: Gross et al. (2004: 45)

This comparison shows that the spreading of certain working time characteristics, like the frequency of particularly long working times, cannot be derived directly from economic parameters like operating hours. It is just as impossible to deduce the spreading of the atypical scheduling of working time directly from economic structures of a country. More detailed analyses on the basis of the ESWT rather revealed that the spreading of the atypical scheduling of working time is predominantly determined by characteristics like the structures of the sector and the size of the enterprise; however, at the same time it is true that countries find various ways to deal with sector-specific requirements – and vice versa. (Kümmerling/Lehndorff 2006).

Against this background, the huge differences between EU countries regarding the spread of unsocial working hours are not surprising. Nachreiner (2009) depicted how working hours are distributed according to "normality characteristics" in the countries of the EU-15 (see Figure 5.1). In total, in the years 2000 and 2005 only 15-25% of employees worked so-called "normal working hours", which means less than 40 hours per week, less than 10 hours a day while not working part-time or shift, night or weekend work (red curve in the figure).⁵¹

⁵¹ The data for this figure are not based on the EU-LFS and therefore might differ from the data presented in the following.

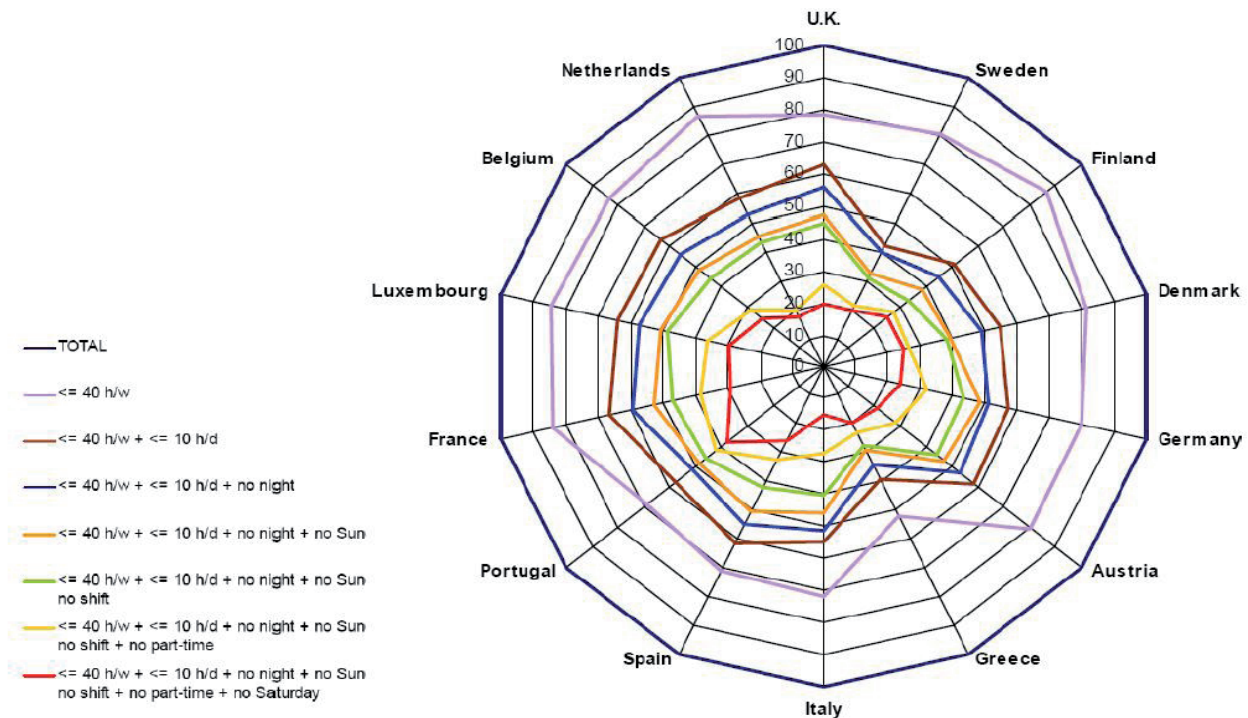


Figure 5.1: Normal working hours and deviations 2005, EU 15
Source: Nachreiner 2009

In the following, we present an overview over data from the European Labour Force Survey on overlong working time and atypical scheduling of working time related to individual components. The visible differences between countries do not always allow an unambiguous interpretation, for the spreading of atypical scheduling of working time – as explained above – is possibly a result of various factors. However, up to now, there is only little established knowledge on the interaction of these factors (see Delsen/Smith 2009 and Kümmerling/Lehndorff 2006).

5.1 Overlong working times and overtime hours

The duration of working times is not only important for socioeconomic reasons (distribution of gainful employment) and reasons of compatibility (combination of paid and unpaid work), but beyond that it is of considerable importance for the health of employees. From an ergonomic point of view, it was proven long ago that the result of work does not change strictly proportionally to working time. For instance, up until the 1930s, examinations revealed that by the well-directed use of breaks according to ergonomic criteria, an even better work performance can be reached within less working hours (see Nachreiner 2004). The explanation for this lies in the fact that long working times are accompanied by fatigue, monotony, or reduced attention. Moreover, high productivity requires motivation, target-oriented working, self-assessment and the optimising of the use of one's

own resources. "Occupations and performances which can be kept up for six hours without impairment, cannot necessarily be kept up for eight or nine hours without any impairment. Therefore, employees prospectively manage their input in a different way, and they do so from the beginning." (ibid.) This shows that atypical working times may not only raise problems for employees, but also for enterprises.

In an investigation on the frequency of health impairments depending on parameters of the duration of working time (see Wirtz et al. 2007, Wirtz 2010) a clear statistically confirmed connection could be proved (see Figure 5.2). Correspondingly, the frequency of some complaints tends to rise constantly with increasing working hours per week. Scientists point out that there are additive effects and interactions between type and intensity of occupational strains and the duration of working time. Long working times combined with further unfavourable circumstances (shift work, irregular and unpredictable working times etc.), mean more complaints are reported. Furthermore, analyses of the accident risk in relation to working time reveal that the risk of notifiable and fatal accidents is growing exponentially beyond the seventh or eighth working hour. Moreover, the efficiency and effectiveness of work decreases exponentially with increased working hours (see Akkermann/ Nachreiner 2001). The extent of the decline in performance is determined by the organisation of breaks, among other things. Therefore, the ceiling of working time is of

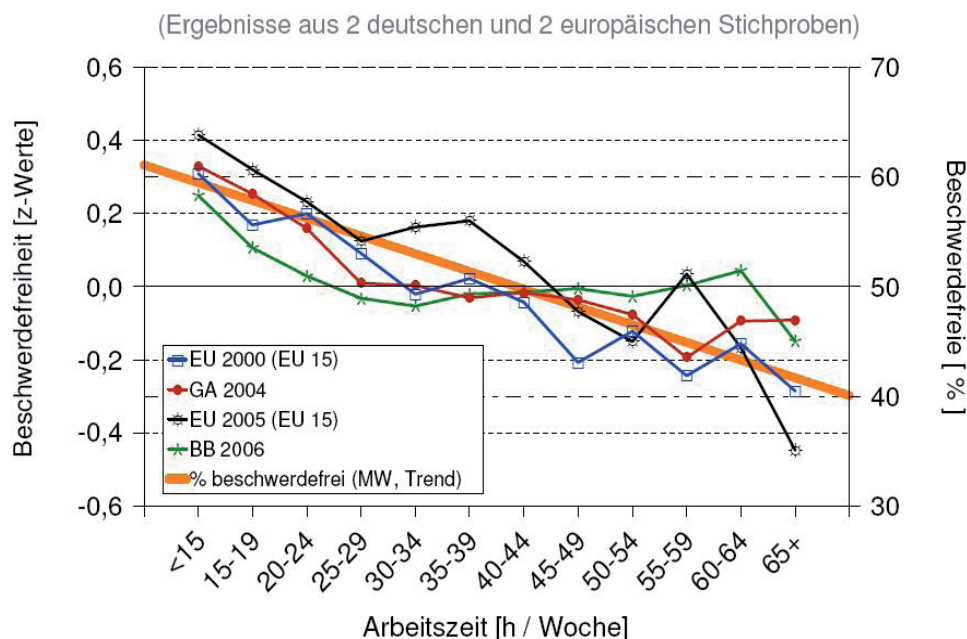


Figure 5.2: Duration of working times and health
Source: Nachreiner 2009

substantial significance. Simultaneously, the long-term European debate on the EU Working Time Directive shows how politically contested this field is.

For the duration of actual working hours, statutory as well as collectively agreed and company regulations are crucial. On the one hand, they may have a limiting effect on working hours, on the other hand, they might also provide incentives in the direction of an extension of working hours (e.g. surcharges on overtime and tax exemptions of supplementary payment for atypical scheduling of working time). It is no coincidence that there is a connection between low wages and long working hours, as for employees with low wages the payment for overtime hours is an important additional source of income (Messenger 2006: 422). The other extreme is the overlong working times of highly qualified employees⁵², which are partly exempt from statutory and collectively agreed regulations of working times. For this employment group a "voluntary" longer working time is frequently bought by an overall package with attractive tasks and conditions, high wages and success-related bonus payments. Due to their relatively privileged situation, highly qualified employees often do not see permanent overlong working time – at least as long as they do not reach extremes – as a problem (Kotthoff/Wagner 2008: 179ff). In contrast, for less qualified employees with

overlong working hours, however, often a number of stress factors accumulate, such as low wages, shift and night work, little influence on working hours, high physical exertion etc. However, they are extremely important when dealing with the issue of limiting working times as completely different situations require completely different approaches.

Currently, 10% of all employees in the EU work more than 48 hours per week (European Commission 2010: 3) and 7% of all employees have more than one employment relationship. Table 5.2 shows the share of employed men and women, who have overlong working hours (in contrast to the source on which the European Commission (2010) bases its analysis, we only consider the working hours of the main employment position in our analysis). Particularly high proportions of overlong working times among men can be found in the United Kingdom, where 21% of male employees work 49 hours or more. In the Czech Republic, France and Spain working times of more than 48 hours per week are also relatively widespread among male employees. In contrast, in the Netherlands and Sweden overlong working hours are a rare exception. Germany ranks in the midfield. For women, with regard to the country comparison, the situation is similar. However, the share of female employees with overlong working times is considerably smaller than that for men.

⁵² For instance, Nätti et al. (2006: 289ff.) could prove that the professional status is a suitable indicator for long working hours, as highly qualified employees tend to have longer working hours compared with others. Moreover, some of the employees could not state their working time and explained this by the "nature of work", which is not controlled by working hours anymore.

Development of working time in the EU

The share of employees with overlong working times has increased in some countries since 2000, whereas in others, it has decreased (see Table 5.3). In the United Kingdom, overlong working times have decreased, however, as a result the high level of their spread has not been reduced sustainably, yet (see chapter 3.3). Here, long working times and overtime remain the means of flexibilisation in order to expand operating hours (see Schief 2009⁵³). In Sweden, Ireland and the Netherlands, overlong working times have further decreased anyway to a low to moderate level. On the other hand, working times of more than 48 hours have increased considerably in France (see explanations of the relevant legal changes in chapter 3.2.1; on a lower level, this is also true for Spain and Italy.

Country	Men	Women	Gender difference (men-women)
Belgium	6,1	2,4	3,7
Czech Republic	14,1	4,3	9,8
Denmark	7,8	1,7	6,1
Germany	7,2	2,0	5,2
Ireland	6,5	1,3	5,2
Greece	7,4	3,3	4,1
Spain	10,8	3,6	7,2
France	12,4	5,5	6,9
Italy	7,8	2,3	5,5
Netherlands	1,0	-	-
Portugal	7,8	3,3	4,5
Finland	6,0	2,1	3,9
Sweden	1,7	0,4	1,3
United Kingdom (2007)	20,9	6,4	14,5

For the countries not listed here, the number of cases was too low in one or both working time categories

Table 5.2: Overlong working hours (more than 48 hours) according to gender (in hundred of all employees) 2008

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, own calculations

The countries not listed in both tables are Central and Eastern European member states (except for the Czech Republic) because these still show a strong standardisation and therefore a smaller range of working hours. For instance, the share of male employees working 40 hours per week amounts to 90% in Lithuania, 86% in Hungary, 84% in Estonia, 80% in Romania, 79% in Latvia, 77% in Bulgaria, 76% in Slovenia, 70% in Poland and 65% in Slovakia. The distribution of the working hours of women is quite similar.

⁵³ According to Schief (2009: 151f.) in the United Kingdom 90% of enterprises with at least 250 employees used overtime to cope with fluctuations in production respectively the provision of services. In contrast, the number of enterprises of this size using overtime as instrument to decouple working times from operating hours amounts to 80% in the Netherlands, two thirds in Germany and 60% in France.

Part of the working hours of those with overlong working times can be traced back to explicit overtime worked, which is regulated in different ways in the individual countries. In most – but not all – EU countries, the conditions for the admissibility of overtime are defined, such as unpredictable events, or other special circumstances, for instance (Flecker et al. 2010). The surcharge payments for overtime work, which partly are defined by collective agreements, partly by law and partly by both, differ widely in the EU countries (see Table 5.4). In Finland, France, Greece, Norway, Poland and Portugal these surcharges are progressive, i.e. higher in case more overtime hours are worked.

Country	Men	Women
Belgium	0,5	0,6
Czech Republic	-2,1	-0,7
Denmark	-0,8	0,0
Germany	-0,7	-0,4
Ireland	-3,5	-1,0
Greece	-1,0	-0,9
Spain	2,6	0,3
France	4,3	2,2
Italy	1,7	0,4
Netherlands	-1,3	-0,2
Portugal (2004)	0,7	-0,4
Finland	-0,6	-0,4
Sweden	-1,2	-0,5
United Kingdom (2007)	-4,3	0,1

For the countries not listed here, the number of cases was too low in one or both working time categories

Table 5.3: Development of overlong working times (more than 48 hours) since 2000 (difference of the share value 2008 minus 2000)

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, own calculations

Overtime is relatively widespread in European enterprises. According to the European Company Survey, on EU average, more than two thirds of companies use this opportunity to expand working times (Figure 5.3). Far above the EU average, companies in Germany, the Netherlands, Finland, Denmark and Sweden use overtime. On the other hand, overtime is rarer in South, Central and Eastern Europe (exceptions are the Czech Republic, Malta and Italy).

There are distinct differences between countries regarding the compensation of overtime, which can be monetary or time off in lieu (see Figure 5.4): In the Mediterranean countries (except for Spain) and the Central and Eastern European countries, the practice of compensating for overtime with money is predominant. In these countries, the result of overtime is an expansion of working hours, but also an increase in payment. This aspect is of

No uniform tendency regarding atypical working hours

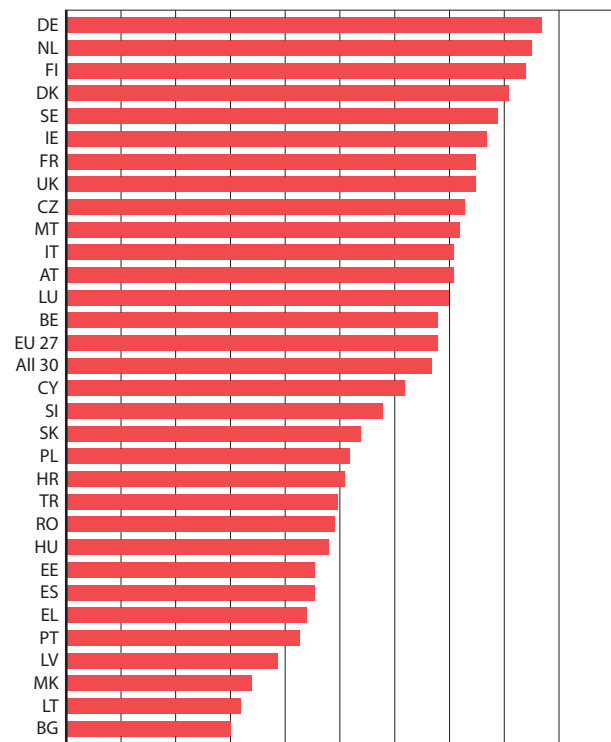
Belgium	50% pay rate (100% at weekends and public holidays) - may be converted into time off in lieu if provided for by collective agreement.
Denmark	Companies with agreement - increased pay rate, then time off in lieu for overtime hours over a threshold (8 hours in 4 weeks in industry sector agreement). Companies without agreement - mostly time off in lieu.
Germany	Increased pay rate and/or time off in lieu, by collective agreement.
Finland	50% pay rate for the first 2 hours per day, 100% above that. May be converted into time off in lieu by agreement.
France	Between 35th and 43rd weekly hour - minimum pay rate of 10% (25% without agreement) or time off in lieu by agreement. From 44th hour - 50% pay rate.
Greece	From the 40th to the 43rd weekly hour - 50% pay rate. From 44th hour - 150% pay rate.
Ireland	25% pay rate (agreements often lay down higher rates).
Italy	10% rate (in absence of agreement on higher rate).
Luxembourg	25% pay rate for blue-collar workers, 50% for white-collar worker. May be converted into time off in lieu at 50% for all workers.
Netherlands	Increased pay rate and/or time off in lieu, by collective agreement.
Norway	40% pay rate (usually 50% by agreement, and 100% after 21.00).
Austria	50% pay rate or 50% time off in lieu
Poland	50% pay rate for the first 2 hours, 100% for further hours (and work at night, on Sunday and holidays. May be converted into time off in lieu at request of employee and with employer's agreement
Portugal	50% pay rate for 1st hour, 75% thereafter that, 100% on rest days and holidays. Plus time off in lieu at 25% of the hours worked
Sweden	Increased pay rate (usually 50% to 100%) or time off in lieu, by collective agreement.
Slovakia	25% pay rate (higher by company-level agreement).
Spain	Increased pay rate (average 18%) or time off in lieu, by collective agreement.
Hungary	50% pay rate (or time off in lieu by agreement), 100% pay rate for work on a holiday (or 50% if time off in lieu granted.)
UK	Increased pay rate or time off in lieu, by agreement.

Table 5.4: Regulation of the payment for overtime, as of 2009

Source: Eichhorst among others 2010a: 34; Information based on: EIRO

particular interest to those who earn low wages. In contrast, in Germany with 46%, the predominant method is to compensate overtime hours with time off. This is also a widespread mode of procedure in Belgium, Luxembourg, Denmark and Romania. The compensation of overtime with time off may mean that the overtime hours do not have the effect of extending working times – namely in the case that they are soon balanced due to working time accounts, as might be the case. If the time off in lieu is carried out via a long-term account, however, the overtime hours increase the actual working times of the current month or year. In many companies both ways – compensation by money and/or time off in lieu – are practised. There is a small group of companies (but still 14% in the Netherlands, 11% in Lithuania, 8% in Belgium, 6% in Germany and Hungary) in which overtime hours are neither compensated for with money nor by time off in lieu. A fact that hints at substantial problems.

Unpaid overtime can be the expression of considerably unbalanced power relations between employee(s) and employers, when the bargaining power of employees is weakened by a tense situation on the labour market. However, it can also be the expression of ineffective forms of working time regulation (trust-based working hours, deleting of hours on working time accounts at the end of the month and other things). Unpaid overtime is worse than the extension of working hours in any case (Haipeter/Lehndorff 2004).



Note: Base = all establishments with 10 or more employees.
Source: ECS 2009

Figure 5.3: Share of companies in which overtime hours were worked during the past 12 months, in percent (spring 2009)

Source: European Foundation (2010b): 11; Source of data: European Company Survey

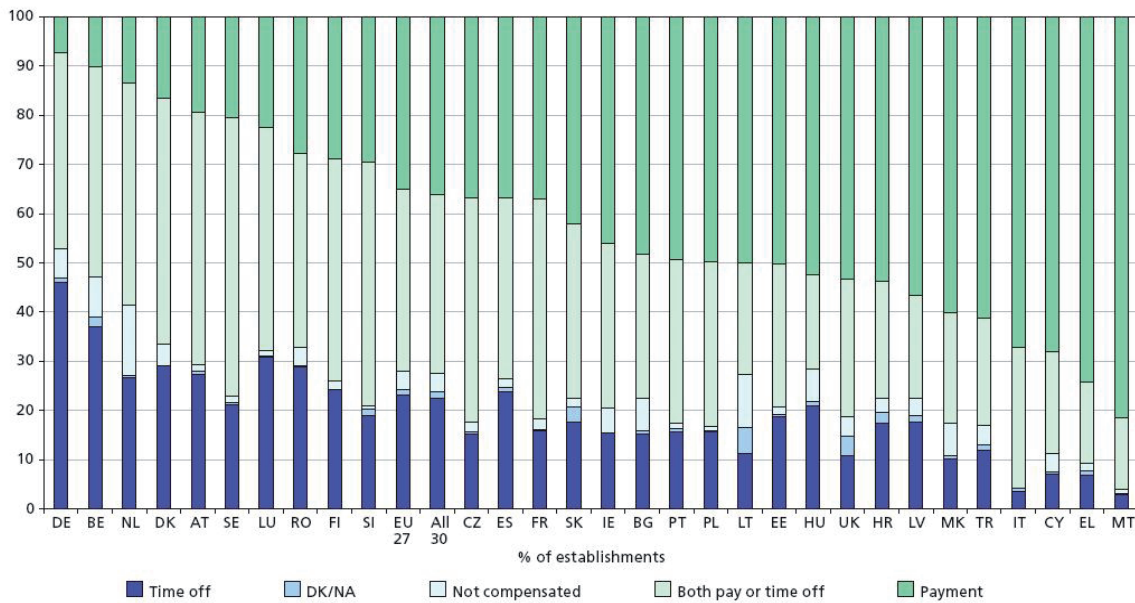


Figure 5.4: Overtime compensation in country comparison
Source: European Foundation 2010b: 13

5.2 Atypical scheduling of working hours

The frequency with which employees work at unusual times during a day or week, to a large extent depends – as stated above – on the duration of opening and operating hours. Although long operating hours tend to be economically advantageous for enterprises, they are still accompanied by negative side effects. For instance, a survey among managers in the frame of the ESWT revealed that in companies with unusual working times managers more often complained about problems due to illness and absence than in enterprises in which no work is done at atypical times (Kümmerling 2007: 8). These problems are particularly distinct in those companies where a huge part of the employees are subjected to atypical forms of working hours. Moreover, managers of enterprises with unusual working times complain more about problems related to personnel loyalty, as is the case in enterprises in which employees do not have to work at these times (ibid). The extension of working time into the night or the weekend, and the introduction of changing working times, are therefore – at least partially – bought at the price of personnel problems.

5.2.1 Atypical scheduling of working hours in enterprises

The spreading of so-called atypical scheduling of working time can be measured on company respectively enterprise level as well as on employee level. At first, we examine the spreading of such scheduling of working time among companies (see Table 5.5). The data of the European Company Survey (European Foundation 2010b: 20) show that throughout the EU in about 44% of companies, employees frequently have to work at atypical times. In

this context, Saturday work is the most widely spread type (40%). Sunday work, in contrast, is practiced regularly in only about one fourth of companies. Night work is even rarer among European companies (18%). These data mostly correspond to the survey carried out a few years before (ESWT 2004–2005). Only the spread of Saturday work has increased slightly. There are no clearly visible country profiles regarding the use of atypical scheduling of working time in companies. However, it is striking that in the United Kingdom all types of atypical scheduling of working times are above-average widely spread.

As Figure 5.5 shows, the spreading of work at atypical hours is connected closely to the kind of sectors the companies belong to. Weekend and night work are particularly frequent in the hotel and catering sector as well as in the health care and social services sector. These are also the sectors with the highest share of enterprises, in which at least partly shift work is done. This results from the requirement that certain services should be available continuously, at least with an on-call service. In contrast, the relatively strong spread of shift work in the industrial sector might rather be traced back to the wish for an efficient use of machinery and installations in order to achieve high capital productivity. In no way are the origins of long operating hours always objective technical necessities (such as regarding the operation of a blast furnace).

Figure 5.6 (Page 92) provides an overview over the spread of shift and weekend work related to the share of the employees concerned. It shows that this view also reveals immense differences between countries. In the following, we want to examine the individual forms of working times in detail.

No uniform tendency regarding atypical working hours

	Night work (11 p.m. – 6 a.m.)	Saturday work	Sunday work	Shift work
	1	2	3	4
AT	17	36	21	18
BE	20	52	29	31
BG	23	44	35	36
CY	17	59	31	27
CZ	22	33	28	40
DE	16	38	18	31
DK	14	30	25	14
EE	19	37	31	36
EL	12	39	15	31
ES	17	34	17	29
FS	21	38	28	36
FR	19	47	26	36
HU	14	24	16	22
IE	21	54	33	35
IT	11	38	14	27
LT	22	37	29	36
LU	17	47	26	28
LV	31	54	42	41
MT	27	65	36	30
NL	12	36	18	15
PL	25	37	26	44
PT	18	34	18	19
RO	14	29	17	28
SE	19	36	33	27
SI	16	39	24	39
SK	22	32	27	35
UK	24	54	40	36
EU 27	18	40	24	31

Table 5.5: Share of companies with atypical scheduling of working time, 2009
Source: European Foundation 2010b: 20; Statistical basis: ECS

5.2.2 Weekend work

For many families, the long weekend is no longer a society time-institution. Throughout Europe more than 40 percent of employees occasionally, or frequently work on Saturdays and about one fourth of employees occasionally, or frequently work on Sundays. Weekend work including Sunday implies that free days are distributed to the remaining weekdays (Monday to Friday). If weekend work is done regularly, it can reduce the quality of free time, as free time often is spent in social contexts (family, friends). Those who often or even regularly work when others have free time, and have free time when others have to work, might therefore be partially exempt from the participation in social life – at least this situation requires an enormous planning and organizational effort in order to limit these restrictions. In this context, it might be crucial how often and to what extent (how many hours) employees have to work on weekends. Ergonomic studies hint at the negative effects of Sunday work (see among others Nachreiner o.J., Lehdorff/Kpmmmerling 2007, Boisard 2005). The evaluations of different data sets show concurrently that regular work on Sunday increases the risk of social as well as health problems and even increases the risk of work-related accidents. One reason for these results is the fact that this kind of working time is not compatible with the usual social rhythm and particularly the recreational and utility value is still higher on Sundays than on other work days (INQA)⁵⁴

⁵⁴ See summary of selected research results on the webpage of the Initiative New Quality of Work: <http://inqa.gawo-ev.de/cms/index.php?page=aktuelle-forschungsergebnisse-themen#So>.

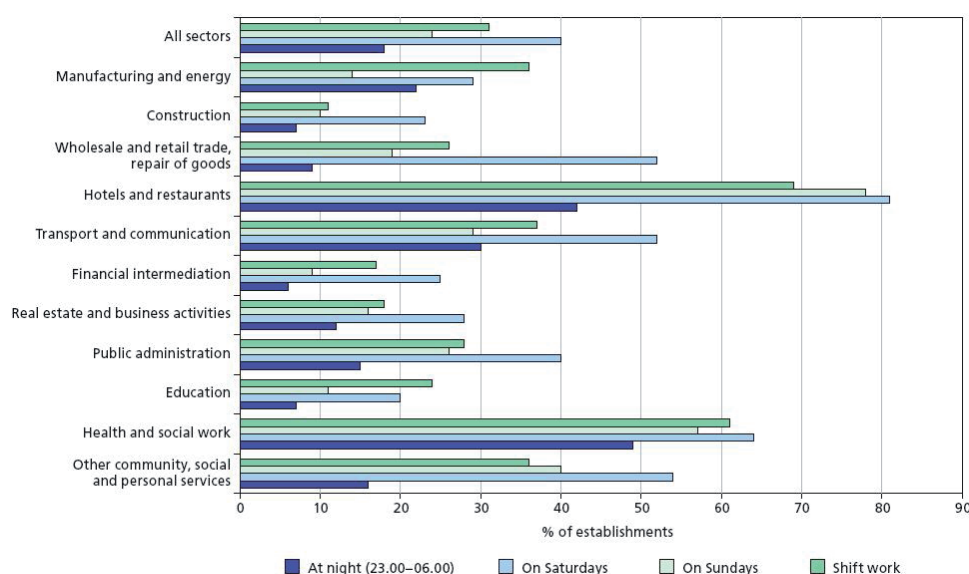


Figure 5.5: Enterprises with atypical scheduling of working time according to sector
Source: Eichhorst among others 2010a: 32

Development of working time in the EU

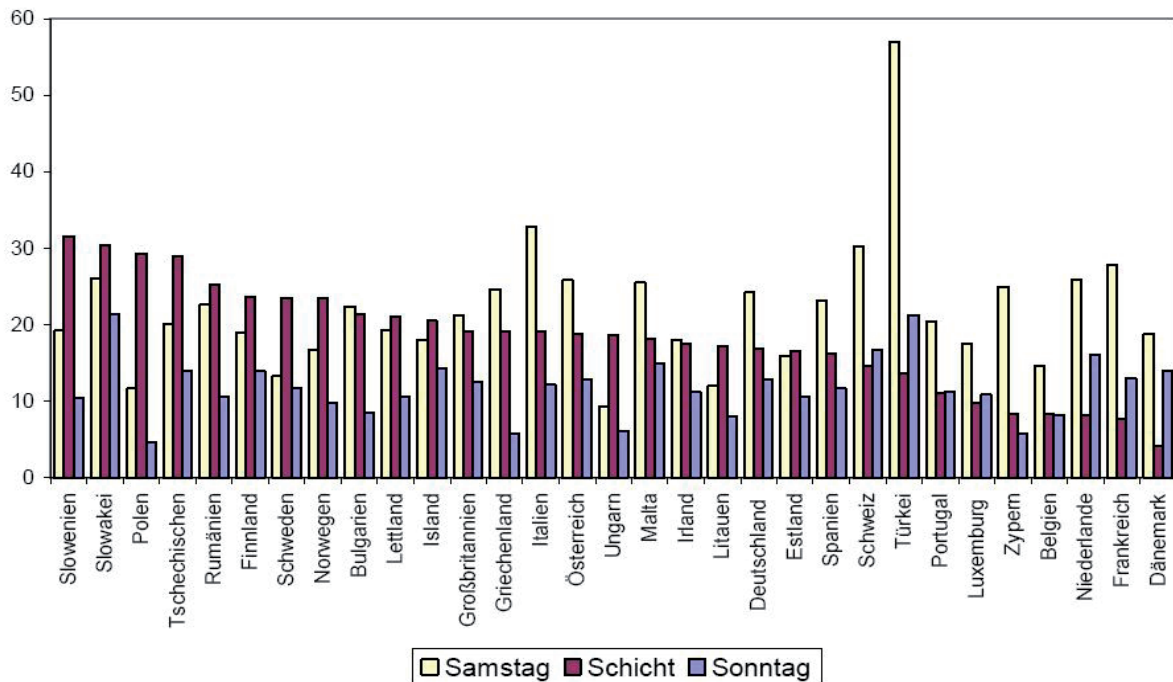


Figure 5.6: Share of employees with atypical working times in percent, 2008

Source: Eichhorst among others 2010b: 32

Saturday work is relatively widespread throughout the EU. Almost one fourth of employees usually works on Saturdays; another fifth occasionally works on Saturdays. The differences between countries regarding Saturday work are relatively large and distinctly larger than those regarding Sunday work: For instance, in Hungary less than one tenth of employees regularly work on Saturdays, whereas in Italy almost one third of employees do so; in Slovenia only 43% of employees never work on Saturdays, in Luxemburg, however, this applies to 74% of employees. The spreading of Saturday work is above average in France, Slovakia, the United Kingdom, Poland and Slovenia. Since 2002, we can observe an increase of the shares of those who never work on Saturdays as well as of those who usually work on Saturdays throughout the EU. However, this is no cross-border tendency, but rather the result of different developments in the individual states. For instance, the spread of Saturday work has increased during the past years in France and Slovakia, while it has fallen in Latvia, Romania, Estonia, Sweden, Spain, Hungary and the United Kingdom. Regarding the changes, we can see that regular Saturday work has increased particularly at the expense of those who up to now only occasionally worked on Saturdays.

Sunday work is a comparatively uncommon form of atypical scheduling of working time. This might be particularly connected to the fact that in many countries it is limited to few exceptions. The original EU Working Time Directive as of 23. November 1993 in article 5 provided for the general inclusion of Sundays into the weekly minimum rest time. However, this stipulation was

invalidated by the European Court of Justice in 1996, as the connection between Sunday work and the health of employees was not explained sufficiently.

Throughout Europe, currently about 12% of employees regularly work on Sundays and a further 12% do so occasionally, while more than three quarters of employees state that they never work on Sundays. The country indicators related to the occurrence of Sunday work lie between 85% of employees never working on Sundays in Spain and 66% in the United Kingdom; while in the majority of countries between 70% and 80% of employees state they do not to work on Sundays. Regular Sunday work is most common in Slovakia (21.5%), the Netherlands, Malta, Denmark, the Czech Republic and Finland (between 16.1% and 13.9%). It is rarest in the Central and Eastern European countries (except for the Czech Republic and Slovakia) as well as Cyprus, Greece and Belgium (less than 11% to 4.5% in Poland). Germany ranks in the midfield of all EU countries regarding the occurrence as well as the frequency of Sunday work.

It is interesting that during the past years the tendency towards a more distinctive demarcation of employees who work on Sundays, seems to have taken place throughout the EU. Less employees "occasionally" work on Sundays, whereas the number of those "usually" working on Sundays is increasing as well as the number of those who never work on Sundays. However, the differences between countries are considerable in this field, as the dynamics of development of Sunday work do not follow a uniform pattern. While in countries like Latvia, Sweden and Estonia

No uniform tendency regarding atypical working hours

the extent of Sunday work decreased (more employees now never work on Sundays and fewer employees usually work on Sundays), in countries like Slovakia, France, Portugal, Slovenia, Germany and the Netherlands we can observe the opposite trend.

A considerable part of those who work on weekends, according to their own statements think that this is "advantageous for private life". Of the 25-49 year old women and men in the EU, who at least occasionally worked on weekends, in 2004 about two thirds stated that they thought that this was advantageous, given their

personal life circumstances (Hardarson 2007b). However, we have to consider that in the majority of countries with a huge share of those who think that weekend work is advantageous for their private life, the share of employees who actually work on Saturdays or Sundays is below average. What has to be taken into consideration particularly is that it is not really clear what they exactly mean by "advantageous". This becomes particularly apparent in the fact that employees with children are distinctively more likely to practice weekend work than those without children (see Figure 5.7, page 94). This might be connected to the fact that for parents, weekend work

is a functional equivalent to overtime on weekdays, which they cannot provide due to childcare responsibilities. At the same time, the reason for a stronger spread of weekend work among parents might be that they provide a means for securing complementary care hours, which means mothers and fathers can care for their children alternately. Possibly, this is a welcome solution in case public childcare facilities are either not available or too expensive or not wanted (European Commission 2009d: 118).

Country	2008			Changes compared with 2002 ¹ (2008-2002 in percentage points)		
	never	sometimes	usually	never	sometimes	usually
European Union (27 countries)	57,7	19,1	23,2	5,3	-7,5	2,2
Europäische Union (25 Länder)	57,7	19,1	23,3	5,4	-8,1	2,8
European Union (15 countries)	58,5	16,4	25,1	5,8	-8,4	2,6
Belgium	69,7	15,7	14,6	2,0	-4,6	2,6
Bulgaria	56,9	20,8	22,3	4,0	-6,2	2,2
Czech Republic	64,4	15,5	20,1	4,7	-18,7	14,0
Denmark	63,6	17,6	18,8	1,5	-0,4	-1,1
Germany	55,2	20,6	24,2	-2,1	0,6	1,5
Estonia	65,7	18,4	15,9	5,4	0,7	-6,0
Ireland	52,8	29,3	18,0	2,6	-1,6	-0,9
Greece	52,7	22,7	24,6	0,4	0,9	-1,4
Spain	71,5	5,2	23,3	4,6	0,0	-4,7
France	49,9	22,3	27,8	-3,8	-3,1	6,9
Italy	58,5	8,7	32,8	7,4	-10,7	3,4
Cyprus	60,5	14,8	24,8	1,1	-2,3	1,3
Lettland	63,1	17,4	19,5	14,0	-6,6	-7,5
Litauen	57,7	30,3	12,0	1,4	-5,0	3,6
Lativa	74,3	8,0	17,6	16,7	-19,7	2,9
Hungary	69,1	21,7	9,3	6,1	-3,3	-2,7
Malta	53,6	20,8	25,6	4,5	-5,3	0,8
Netherlands	58,7	15,4	26,0	-1,1	1,6	-0,4
Austria	61,2	12,9	25,8	2,8	-8,3	5,5
Poland	44,4	43,8	11,7	3,0	-1,5	-1,6
Portugal	57,6	22,0	20,4	-0,6	-1,6	2,2
Romania	58,5	18,9	22,6	4,4	2,4	-6,8
Slovenia	43,0	37,8	19,2	-1,2	-0,3	1,5
Slovakia	51,3	22,6	26,1	-7,8	1,4	6,3
Finland	68,9	12,1	19,0	0,3	0,1	-0,4
Sweden	70,9	15,9	13,3	6,7	-1,7	-5,0
United Kingdom 2007	48,8	29,9	21,3	4,6	-3,0	-1,7

¹ Bulgaria, Spain 2004; Germany 2005 Netherlands 2006

Table 5.6: Saturday work of employees

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, own calculations

Development of working time in the EU

Country	2008			Changes compared with 2002 ¹ (2008-2002 in percentage points)		
	never	sometimes	usually	never	sometimes	usually
European Union (27 countries)	76,3	12,0	11,6	3,0	-5,1	2,1
European Union (25 countries)	76,2	12,0	11,7	3,0	-5,5	2,4
European Union (15 countries)	76,6	11,0	12,4	3,6	-6,2	2,6
Slovakia	66,9	11,6	21,5	-4,9	-0,7	5,6
Netherlands	72,7	11,2	16,1	-1,1	1,6	0,5
Malta	71,6	13,4	14,9	0,0	-0,5	0,4
Denmark	70,6	15,4	14,1	0,9	0,0	-0,8
Czech Republic	75,6	10,4	14,0	2,0	-11,3	9,3
Finland	77,0	9,2	13,9	-0,3	0,3	0,1
France	71,1	15,9	13,0	-3,8	-1,8	5,6
Austria	79,5	7,6	12,9	0,9	-3,2	2,3
Germany	74,3	13,0	12,8	-1,8	1,1	0,8
United Kingdom 2007)	65,6	21,8	12,6	3,2	-2,9	-0,4
Italy	82,6	5,2	12,2	0,4	-5,9	5,4
Spain	84,8	3,5	11,7	0,9	-0,3	0,7
Sweden	73,1	15,2	11,7	6,2	-1,1	-5,1
Portugal	77,7	11,1	11,3	-3,6	1,1	2,6
Ireland	70,6	18,1	11,3	-0,5	-0,5	1,0
Luxembourg	83,7	5,3	10,9	7,1	-11,7	4,5
Estonia	76,9	12,4	10,7	4,0	0,2	-4,2
Latvia	75,9	13,3	10,7	9,3	-2,8	-6,6
Slovenia	72,2	17,2	10,5	-3,1	1,2	1,8
Romania	78,6	10,9	10,5	2	0,8	-2,9
Bulgaria	77,6	14,0	8,4	4,2	-2,4	1,8
Belgium	80,6	11,1	8,2	2,7	-4,7	1,9
Lithuania	72,9	19,1	8,0	-0,3	-2,6	3,0
Hungary	78,5	15,4	6,1	2,4	-0,7	-1,7
Greece	77,4	16,9	5,8	1,3	0,6	-1,8
Cyprus	82,1	12,2	5,7	1,0	-2,0	1,0
Poland	74,3	21,1	4,5	0,8	0,7	-1,7

¹ Bulgaria, Spain 2004; Germany 2005 Netherlands 2006

Table 5.7: Sunday work of employees

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, own calculations

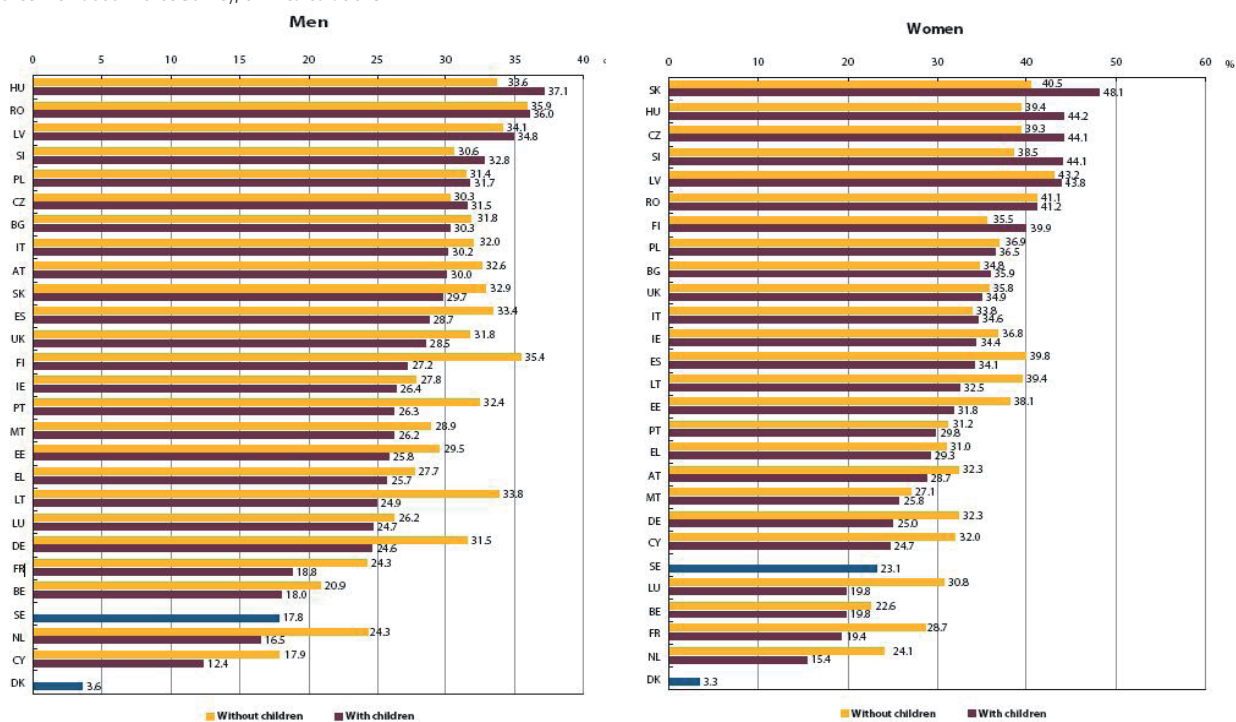


Figure 5.7: Employees with weekend work according to gender and the existence of children in the household, 2006, age 25 to 49

Source: European Commission 2009d: 119. Statistical basis: LFS

5.2.3 Night and evening work

Until well into the 1980s, night work for women was mostly banned in industry in most European countries. The corresponding agreement existed under the auspices of the ILO since 1919 and was modified in 1948 by ILO Convention 89. In 1991 the European Court of Justice criticised the incompatibility of this regulation with gender equality. The gender-related ban on night work has already been abolished by the adaptation to European law in all countries⁵⁵. However, night work is dealt with in a restrictive way in many countries – for both genders. Especially in view of the health of employees this is of great importance because night work disturbs the biological day-night rhythm. Therefore, it does not only

have problematic effects on the organisation of family and social life, but beyond that also for the individual health of the employees concerned. Among employees who do night work, insomnia is unusually widespread. This in turn, can lead to further health problems (loss of concentration, nervousness, lack of appetite, indigestion etc.). Furthermore, research results show that “at a comparable basic risk, the comparison of early shift, late shift and night shift reveals that the highest accident risk exists in night shift.” (Wirtz 2010: 28; see Figure 5.8).

Regarding night and evening work, there are huge differences between EU countries, as well, whereas night work is distinctively rarer than evening work (see Figure 5.9). In respect to these forms of working times, Slovakia, the United Kingdom, Germany and the Netherlands rank top. As already shown at the beginning of this chapter,

the differences between countries among other things can be traced back to the different structures of sectors (continuous production in different industrial branches), the varying frequency of company size categories as well as the differing statutory regulations (e.g. regarding opening hours), but also the different forms of work organisation respectively working time organisation and working time regulations in general. In this context, there is a strong and obviously connection between shift and night work: As Muñoz de Bustillo/ Fernández (2006) have proved for six EU countries based on the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), about 45% of all employees with “changing working times” (i.e. shift work and shifted work) also work at night.

In 2008 evening work was done on a regular basis by 18% of employees

⁵⁵ For the history of the ban on night work for women and the debate on its abolition see AyaB 2000.

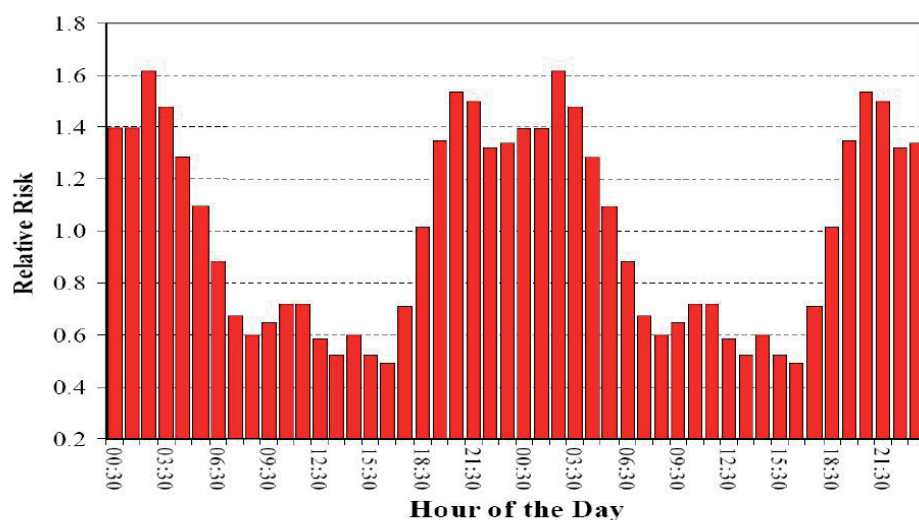


Figure 5.8: Scheduling of working time and accident risk

Source: Nachreiner 2009

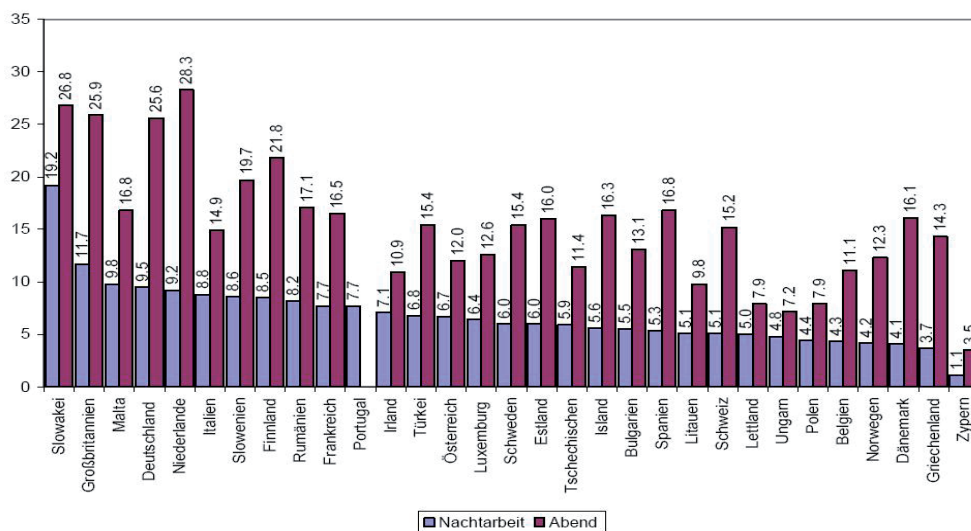


Figure 5.9: Share of employees with night and evening work in percent, 2008

Source: Eichhorst among others 2010a: 33



Development of working time in the EU

throughout the EU, and by another 17% occasionally (see Table 5.9). Since 2002 the share of regular evening work has increased on average in the EU; the same applies to the share of those who never work in the evening. The Netherlands, Slovakia, the United Kingdom, Germany, and Finland show the widest spread of evening work. In Cyprus and Hungary it is relatively rare that employees work after 6 p.m. Since 2002 evening work has increased substantially in Slovakia, and therefore has now reached the European average. A slightly weaker growth of evening work can be found in several countries, such as Spain, Slovenia, Germany and Ireland. In contrast, the spread of evening work has decreased during the past years in Latvia, Sweden, Hungary and other countries.

With 7.5%, regular night work is the least widely spread form of atypical working time in the EU (see Table 5.10). However, the shares of night workers differ widely in the individual countries: In Slovakia, the United Kingdom and Poland, night work is most widely spread, whereas it is below average in Luxembourg and Cyprus. While in Slovakia night work has increased immensely since 2002, it has decreased in the other two countries showing a wide spread (United Kingdom, Poland). On the whole, at country level we cannot find an EU-wide uniform tendency, either; we rather observe counteracting tendencies regarding the spread of night work. However, the spread of night work has decreased on average in the EU during the past years. This can mainly be traced back to the decrease in the share of those who do not regularly work at night.

Country	2008			Changes compared with 2002 ¹ (2008-2002 in percentage points)		
	never	sometimes	usually	never	sometimes	usually
European Union (27 countries)	65,6	16,8	17,6	1,6	-3,3	1,7
European Union (25 countries)	65,5	16,8	17,7	2,0	-3,7	1,7
European Union (15 countries)	65,6	15,1	19,3	2,3	-4,2	1,9
Belgium	71,2	17,8	11,1	2,5	-3,3	0,9
Bulgaria	66,1	20,8	13,1	2,9	1,6	-4,6
Czech Republic	67,2	21,3	11,5	8,0	-11,4	3,4
Denmark	56,4	27,5	16,2	-3,1	8,1	-4,9
Germany	56,2	18,0	25,8	-3,3	1,0	2,2
Estonia	64,3	19,8	15,9	-0,8	6,1	-5,2
Ireland	70,8	18,2	10,9	-4,3	2,4	1,8
Greece	53,6	32,1	14,3	-0,3	0,7	-0,4
Spain	72,3	10,9	16,8	-7,0	0,2	6,8
France	66,6	16,9	16,4	-2,3	-3,8	6,0
Italy	80,4	4,7	15,0	4,5	-8,0	3,6
Cyprus	84,9	11,6	3,5	2,4	-1,6	-0,8
Latvia	68,1	24,0	7,9	10,2	-2,4	-7,7
Lithuania	67,6	22,6	9,8	0,6	-3,0	2,4
Luxembourg	83,4	3,9	12,6	12,8	-17,9	5,0
Hungary	79,8	12,9	7,2	5,9	-1,3	-4,7
Malta	74,3	8,9	16,8	-1,3	-1,6	2,9
Netherlands	57,6	14,0	28,4	-1,8	2,0	-0,2
Austria	69,2	18,8	12,0	-4,0	5,6	-1,6
Poland	59,5	32,5	7,9	-0,3	2,2	-2,1
Romania	68,6	14,3	17,1	-3,2	1,6	1,6
Slovenia	57,8	22,5	19,7	-6,0	0,9	5,1
Slovakia	64,1	9,1	26,8	-13,2	2,5	10,7
Finland	56,2	22,0	21,9	2,3	-1,6	-0,6
Sweden	69,9	14,7	15,4	10,0	-3,7	-6,3
United Kingdom (2007)	52,2	21,8	26,1	2,9	0,2	-3,0

¹ Bulgaria, Spain 2004; Germany 2005 Netherlands 2006

Table 5.8: Evening work of employees

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, own calculations

No uniform tendency regarding atypical working hours

Country	2008			Changes compared with 2002 ¹ (2008-2002 in percentage points)		
	never	sometimes	usually	never	sometimes	usually
European Union (27 countries)	84,9	7,6	7,5	2,1	-1,9	-0,1
European Union (25 countries)	85,0	7,5	7,5	2,1	-2,1	-0,1
European Union (15 countries)	85,8	6,4	7,8	2,3	-2,3	-0,1
Belgium	88,1	7,6	4,3	3,6	-4,0	0,4
Bulgaria	83,7	10,8	5,5	1,3	2,0	-3,4
Czech Republic	80,4	13,7	5,9	-0,2	-1,3	1,4
Denmark	89,6	6,2	4,1	2,4	0,4	-2,9
Germany	84,8	5,7	9,5	-0,6	0,0	0,6
Estonia	88,2	5,8	6,0	3,5	-1,6	-1,9
Ireland	83,4	9,5	7,1	-0,7	-0,4	1,1
Greece	84,0	12,3	3,7	0,7	0,1	-0,7
Spain	89,3	5,4	5,3	0,1	-1,7	1,6
France	83,9	8,4	7,7	-1,7	-0,8	2,5
Italy	88,2	3,0	8,8	0,6	-3,7	3,1
Cyprus	90,9	8,0	1,1	0,6	-0,6	0,0
Latvia	87,2	7,8	5,0	6,2	-2,2	-4,0
Lithuania	85,9	9,0	5,1	0,7	-2,8	2,1
Luxembourg	91,4	2,2	6,4	4,2	-7,3	3,0
Hungary	86,2	9,0	4,8	2,2	0,4	-2,6
Malta	82,5	7,7	9,8	1,0	-0,7	-0,2
Netherlands	85,8	5,0	9,2	0,1	0,5	-0,6
Austria	81,8	11,6	6,7	-1,8	4,5	-2,6
Poland	78,7	16,8	4,4	0,7	0,7	-1,4
Portugal	82,6	9,7	7,7	2,1	-1,3	-0,7
Romania	83,0	8,8	8,2	0,5	0,0	-0,5
Slovenia	80,7	10,7	8,6	-0,7	-0,6	1,3
Slovakia	76,1	4,7	19,2	-6,8	0,2	6,6
Finland	85,5	5,9	8,6	1,4	-0,6	-0,8
Sweden	86,7	7,2	6,1	-0,3	2,2	-1,9
United Kingdom (2007)	79,7	8,4	11,8	1,9	-1,2	-0,7

¹ Ireland 2003, Bulgaria, Spain 2004; Germany 2005; Netherlands 2006

Table 5.9: Night work of employees, 2008

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, own calculations

5.2.4 Shiftwork

In terms of quantity, shift work is the most significant instrument for expanding the period of capital utilisation in industry⁵⁶, and it is used in the service sector to expand functional and opening hours (e.g. health care and retail trade). Shifted working times can be a functioning equivalent; however, the EU-LFS does not provide data for these.

⁵⁶ For instance in Germany 40% of variations in operating hours can be explained by shift work and the duration of working times (Fernández-Macías/ Muñoz de Bustillo 2009: 176).

⁵⁷ This might have an impact on the following data analyses. As there was no particular question about shifted working times, but in several countries shift work was explained in a way that includes shifted work, we can assume that the data on shift work rather mark an upper limit and at least partially include forms of working time similar to shift work.

The health effects of shift work have been studied well by scientists (see among others Beermann 2001). The strains characteristic of night and shift work result from the (biological and social) desynchronisation of time structures. As already stated above, shift work is often combined with night work; usually, it does not leave much space for working time autonomy. Therefore, it makes a significant difference whether shift work includes the night, or shift work is only done during the day (e.g. in the form of early or late shift). Some forms of working time called "shift work" in daily life, strictly speaking are shifted working times as they are often used in the service sector: By the use of different times for the beginning and the end of work, a lower staffing level in the early morning and in the late evening can be achieved.⁵⁷

Development of working time in the EU

About 17% of all employees in the EU – 16% of women and 18% of men – work in shift systems (see Table 5.12). Since 2002, the spread of shift work shrunk by almost two percentage points. The highest share of shift workers can be found in the Central and Eastern European countries (except for Lithuania and Estonia) as well as Sweden and Finland. Shift work is least common in Denmark, France, the Netherlands, Belgium, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Portugal. The strongest growth since 2002 has taken place in Lithuania and Germany, the strongest decrease could be observed in Poland, Portugal and Estonia. The below-average spread of shift work in France, Portugal and the Netherlands might be traced back to the fact that in these countries shift working times are comparatively common

(Fernández-Macías/ Muñoz de Bustillo 2009: 176). In the Netherlands, operating hours are comparably low (Bauer/ Groß 2009: 109); this fact corresponds to the small spread of shift work.

The gender-related differences regarding shift work probably hint at the fact that shift work (and possibly partly included shifted working times) is practiced in very different sectors. For instance, the higher share of shift work among men in Germany, Belgium, the United Kingdom and other countries can mainly be traced back to the high spread of shift work in production (industrial sector), whereas the predominance of female shift work in Sweden and Finland probably reflects the work(ing) time

Country	2008			Changes compared with 2002 ¹ (2008–2002 in percentage points)		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
European Union (27 countries)	16,0	18,2	17,1	-0,5	-2,6	-1,7
European Union (25 countries)	15,5	17,8	16,7	-0,6	-2,7	-1,8
European Union (15 countries)	13,3	15,8	14,6	-0,5	-2,4	-1,5
Belgium	6,0	10,3	8,3	-1,2	-1,2	-1,3
Bulgaria	20,4	22,4	21,4	-0,8	-1,0	-0,9
Czech Republic	28,0	29,9	29,0	0,1	1,2	0,7
Denmark	3,9	4,5	4,2	-0,8	-1,0	-0,9
Germany	14,6	19,0	16,9	2,5	1,9	2,1
Estonia	18,8	14,6	16,7	-2,3	-9,2	-5,8
Ireland	16,2	19,0	17,6	0,7	-0,2	0,1
Greece	16,9	20,8	19,2	1,5	-0,6	0,2
Spain	16,4	16,2	16,3	-1,4	-1,7	-1,5
France	5,9	9,4	7,7	-1,2	-2,5	-1,9
Italy	18,2	19,9	19,2	-0,5	-4,2	-2,7
Cyprus	7,6	9,3	8,5	-1,2	-1,6	-1,3
Latvia	22,9	19,7	21,4	-2,0	-4,9	-3,3
Lithuania	18,8	15,7	17,3	5,9	3,8	4,9
Luxembourg	8,8	10,5	9,8	2,0	-3,3	-1,1
Hungary	17,6	19,7	18,7	-2,3	-4,7	-3,5
Malta	13,8	20,7	18,2	-3,1	-3,0	-3,2
Netherlands	7,0	9,4	8,2	0,3	0,0	0,1
Austria	17,4	20,2	18,9	1,4	-0,2	0,5
Poland	28,2	30,5	29,4	-3,9	-10,6	-7,4
Portugal	10,9	11,4	11,2	-6,1	-7,4	-6,8
Romania	25,9	24,7	25,3	-1,0	-2,8	-1,9
Slovenia	32,5	30,9	31,6	-0,2	-0,4	-0,4
Slovakia	28,4	32,4	30,5	-1,0	-0,4	-0,7
Finland	26,6	20,7	23,7	-0,2	-1,4	-0,8
Sweden	26,5	20,9	23,7	-2,2	0,8	-0,8
United Kingdom (2007)	16,7	21,8	19,3	0,5	-0,4	0,0

¹ Bulgaria, Spain 2004; Netherlands 2006

Table 5.10: Shift work of women and men

Source: EU Labour Force Survey, own calculations

No uniform tendency regarding atypical working hours

organisation in the area of social and personal services.⁵⁸ A European survey (see Delsen among others 2009) revealed that in the majority of countries under investigation, in the field of social services operating hours are longer than in industry.

In countries, in which shift work is widely spread, it is also often done by men and women with children. At the average employment age (25 to 49), female employees are more likely to do shift work than men. In this context, in Slovakia, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and - to a lesser extent - in Finland, women with children are even more likely to do shift work than women without children (see Figure 5.10). In contrast, men with children in the age group of 15 to 49 in most countries are less likely to do shift work than men without children. Exceptions are Hungary, Latvia, Slovenia, Poland and the Czech Republic.

As a percentage of total employees with and without children in the age group 25-49, by gender

Notes: DK and SE are taken from the standard LFS data. The latter does not allow differentiating shift workers with and without children.

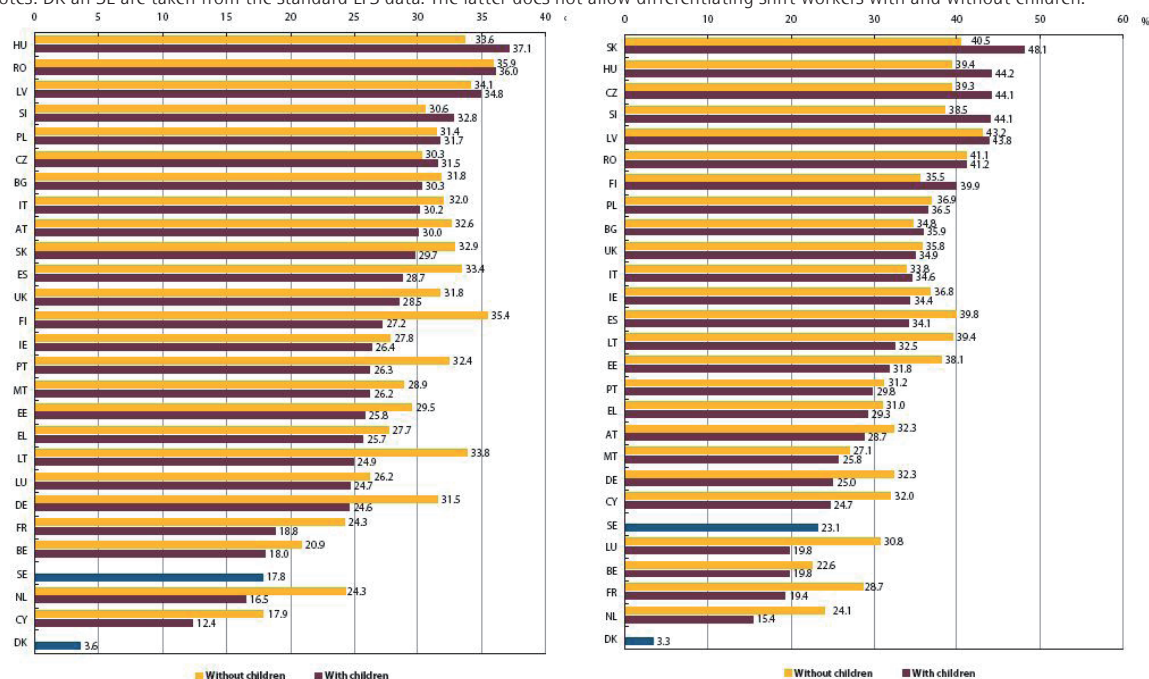


Figure 5.10: Shift workers with and without children, 2006, persons aged 25 to 49

Source: European Commission 2009d: 116, Statistical basis:LFS

⁵⁸ It can be assumed that in other countries, for the necessary long operation hours in the field of social and personal services part-time and short part-time employment are used to a larger extent.

6 Prospect

During the latest crisis the possible contribution of shorter working hours to securing or even creating employment has returned to the focus of public attention. In some countries, the different sources of reduction in working hours contributed substantially to curbing the effects of the immense economic breakdown in the labour market. As demonstrated by the introduction of the statutory 35-hour week in France about ten years ago, the reduction of working hours bears advantages for employment, not only in case of a crisis but also in periods of economic upswing.

Despite these experiences, there have hardly been any political or trade union initiatives towards a reduction of statutory or collectively agreed working time norms. Working-hours policy rather often takes place on company level only. At the same time, the landscape of working hours in Europe is marked by variety and differentiation – between countries as well as within countries. Even in the huge trends of the development of working hours, we can find considerable differences between countries. In the case of full-time employees, who still form the majority of employees, the reduction in effective working hours in some countries were contrasted by the extension of working hours in other countries during the past decade. However, in most countries the extent of such changes was rather small. On the whole, we can at best say that the 40-hour week is currently something like an informal standard for average working times of full-time employees in large parts of the EU.

This informal standard lies substantially below the statutory limitations of working time at an EU level, but also below those in some member states. That even these agreed maximum limits that lie far above the factual average working hours are politically controversial, can be seen in the attempts to introduce an increasing number of deviations in order to riddle the limitation of working hours per week to 48 hours at the EU level. On the other hand, we can find many examples in the past, which prove that the reduction of statutory working time norms – though maybe only hesitatingly – indeed can influence the working time normalities practiced in society. This should be considered in the continuous debates on the revision of the EU Working Time Directive.

When we find ourselves in a situation in which it is difficult to translate past experiences regarding working time policy into current action, it might make sense to look for differentiated approaches to working hours policy. Working hours policy which is targeted at the limitation and reduction of working time, does not only relate to the aspect of job security, but also to the core interests of employees. For this kind of approach, this stock taking of the European working time trends might provide some ideas.

The potential influence of working hours policy on employment policy can also be developed when employees' interests are taken up, such as healthy working conditions or a greater control over their own working times during the week, the year or during life. Firstly, the interest in healthy working conditions: This requires the limitation of risky forms of working time to the technically or socially necessary minimum. If atypical forms of working time and particularly the risky night and shift work cannot be avoided completely, it is important to reduce negative effects by an ergonomic organisation of shift schedules and to create preventative measures for the improvement of the employees' working conditions. Additionally, incentives for unfavourable scheduling or distribution of working hours (e.g. by financial surcharges as is common for shift, night and weekend work) should be greatly avoided and the compensation for the strain from the unfavourable scheduling of working time is to be realised by shorter working times or longer periods of time off. Therefore, we want to emphasise the collectively agreed regulations in some EU countries, which provide for generally shorter working times for employees in night and alternate shift (Flecker et al. 2010).

It is of crucial importance that atypical working times are practiced, if possible, only temporary and not over a longer period of time, which means not concentrating the necessary night and weekend work on just a few employees, but rather distribute it among more employees. In this way, more people are probably affected by atypical working times, but only to a small extent. The understanding that the granting of freedom of choice regarding the duration and scheduling of working time has a positive effect on the health of employees is of central importance to the political debate. Moreover, it should be considered that health also includes employees' possibilities to take part in a social life. This is also true – and not least – for the institution of the work free Sunday.⁵⁹

Secondly, it should be taken into consideration that working hours policy should not be realised only for the interests of full-time employees. In the case of the example of Germany, the political sensitivity of this consideration is striking. In this country, the average working time of all employees amounts to less than 35 hours per week, which mathematically corresponds to the aim of a number of trade union demands for working time reduction. However, this average does not represent the success of trade union working-hours policy, but mostly the extent of the unequal distribution of working

⁵⁹ On the occasion of the first European Conference for the protection of a work-free Sunday in the European Parliament in Brussels on 24. March 2010 a conclusion was reached which states: „The protection of a work-free Sunday is of immense importance for the health of employees, the compatibility of profession and family as well as the life in civil society in general. This common weekly day off strengthens the social cohesion in our societies ... we therefore appeal to the heads of state and government of the 27 EU member states, ... to resist the growing economic pressure towards a liberalisation of the legislation on the protection of the work-free Sunday." See <http://www.allianz-fuer-den-freien-sonntag.de/bruesseler-aufruf-24-03-10.pdf>

Development of working time in the EU

hours and the inequality on the labour market, which primarily is an inequality between genders. Therefore, the redistribution of labour should not only be seen as the redistribution within the group of full-time employees, but also as redistribution among genders.

In total, future working-hours policies should concentrate on the possibilities of employees influencing working times – in relation to the weekly duration and the distribution of working time, as well as in relation to the distribution during their working life. This "course of life perspective" becomes a promising orientation, particularly when the effects of "indirect" regulations of working times on the working time realities are considered. These kinds of "indirect" regulations range from the extent and quality of childcare facilities to tax and social security systems up to the wage systems, and can further or hinder the equality regarding working times between men and women.

Labour market policy is social policy – no matter whether it is carried out in the company, in the municipality, in the sector or at a national or EU level.

7 Annex

7.1 Literature

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Development of working time in the EU

7.2 Abbreviations

ECS - European Company Survey

EU-LFS - European Labour Force Survey

EA-15 Euro Area (15 Members countries, membership as from 1.1.2008)

ECHP - European Community Household Panel

ESENER - European Survey of Enterprises on New and Emerging Risks

EU-OSHA - European Agency for Safety and Health at Work

ESWT - European survey on working time and work-life balance

ICTWSS: Database on Institutional Characteristics of Trade Unions, Wage Setting, State Intervention and Social Pacts in 34 countries between 1960 and 2007. Amsterdam Institute for Advanced Labour Studies (AIAS)

University of Amsterdam. <http://www.uva-aias.net/208>

List of abbreviations of EU countries:

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

7.3 International Standard Classification of Occupations ISCO

MAJOR GROUP 1: LEGISLATORS, SENIOR OFFICIALS AND MANAGERS

Directors and chief executives
Finance and administration managers
Sales and marketing managers
Personnel and industrial relations managers
Research and development managers

MAJOR GROUP 3: TECHNICIANS AND ASSOCIATE PROFESSIONALS

Civil engineering technicians
Electrical engineering technicians
Chemical and physical science technicians
Draughtspersons
Optical and electronic equipment operators
Medical assistants
Nursing associate professionals
Finance and sales associate professionals
Administrative associate professionals
Bookkeepers
Social work associate professionals

MAJOR GROUP 4: CLERKS

Secretaries and keyboard-operating clerks
Numerical clerks
Material-recording and transport clerks
Library, mail and related clerks
Mail carriers and sorting clerks
Cashiers, tellers and related clerks
Telephone switchboard operators

MAJOR GROUP 8: PLANT AND MACHINE OPERATORS AND ASSEMBLERS

Stationary and related operators
Metal-processing plant operators
Chemical-processing plant operators
Industrial robot operators
Machine-tool operators
Electrical-equipment assemblers
Drivers and mobile plant operators
Bus and tram drivers
Heavy truck and lorry drivers

Development of working time in the EU

7.4 Annex

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								40,4	40,3	40,3	40,4	40,5	40,5	40,5	
EU15		40,3	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,4	40,3	40,1	40,0	40,0	40,2	40,3	40,3	40,3	
AT	Austria	39,6	40,0	40,0	40,1	40,2	40,1	40,1	40,0	40,0	42,8	42,4	42,4	42,4	42,2
BE	Belgium	38,3	38,2	38,3	38,6	38,4	38,5	39,2	39,3	39,2	39,0	39,0	39,0	39,2	39,1
BG	Bulgaria							40,9	41,1	40,8	41,4	41,1	41,3	41,5	41,5
CY	Cyprus					40,7	40,5	40,1	40,0	40,0	40,4	40,2	39,9	40,1	40,6
CZ	Czech Republic			43,5	43,5	43,3	43,3	41,1	41,2	41,5	41,3	41,4	41,3	41,4	41,3
DE	Germany	39,7	40,0	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,1	39,9	39,9	39,6	39,8	40,0	40,3	40,3	40,4
DK	Denmark	38,9	38,7	38,6	38,7	38,9	39,3	39,2	39,1	39,2	39,3	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,3
EE	Estonia			42,0	41,9	41,3	41,2	41,4	41,1	41,0	41,2	41,0	41,0	40,9	40,7
ES	Spain	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,6	40,5	40,4	40,4	41,0	40,9	40,8	40,6
FI	Finland	38,6	38,7	39,1	39,2	39,3	39,3	39,3	39,2	39,1	39,1	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,2
FR	France	39,9	39,8	39,7	39,7	39,6	38,9	38,3	37,7	38,8	38,8	39,1	39,1	39,2	39,3
GR	Greece	40,3	40,4	40,5	40,9	41,0	41,0	41,2	41,1	41,0	40,9	41,0	40,7	40,6	40,8
HU	Hungary		41,4	41,3	41,2	41,3	41,3	41,0	40,9	41,0	40,8	40,7	40,7	40,7	40,6
IE	Ireland	40,2	40,4	40,1	40,3	40,0	39,9	39,7	39,5	39,3	39,2	39,2		38,9	38,8
IT	Italy	38,5	38,5	38,5	38,5	38,5	38,6	38,5	38,5	38,6	39,2	39,2	39,3	39,2	39,2
LT	Lithuania				41,5		39,8	39,4	39,5	39,3	39,3	39,4	39,7	39,8	40,0
LU	Luxembourg	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,3	39,7	39,8	39,3	39,5	39,8	40,1	40,2	40,0	39,9	39,9
LV	Latvia				43,0	43,0	43,0	43,6	43,6	43,5	42,8	42,4	42,2	41,7	41,1
MT	Malta						41,3	39,7	40,4	40,8	40,6	40,7	40,4	40,4	40,4
NL	Netherlands	39,5	39,4	39,2	39,0	39,0	39,0	39,0	38,9	38,8	38,8	38,8	38,9	38,9	38,9
PL	Poland							41,4	41,6	41,5	41,3	41,4	41,2	41,3	41,2
PT	Portugal	41,2	41,2	40,9	41,0	40,5	40,3	40,2	40,2	40,0	40,1	40,2	40,1	40,2	40,2
RO	Romania			41,2	41,1	41,1	41,4	41,3	41,8	41,8	41,5	41,7	41,3	41,3	41,3
SE	Sweden	40,0	40,0	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,0	39,9	39,9	39,8	39,9	39,9	39,9	39,9	39,9
SI	Slovenia		41,5	41,6	41,7	41,5	41,4	41,5	41,6	41,4	41,7	41,7	41,4	41,4	41,5
SK	Slovakia				42,6	42,2	42,2	42,0	41,8	40,5	40,5	40,8	40,9	40,9	40,8
UK	United Kingdom	43,9	43,9	44,0	44,0	43,5	43,5	43,4	43,2	43,1	42,8	42,6	42,4	42,5	42,4

Table 7.1: Average usual working hours per week of employees, full-time (h.)
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								20,0	19,9	19,9	19,8	20,0	20,1	20,2	
EU15		19,9	19,7	19,7	19,7	19,6	19,7	19,8	19,7	19,8	19,6	19,9	20,0	20,1	
AT	Austria	23,3	22,1	22,4	22,1	22,1	22,0	22,0	21,8	22,0	20,7	20,8	20,7	20,8	20,8
BE	Belgium	21,5	21,5	21,6	21,8	21,7	22,5	22,1	22,7	22,9	23,0	23,3	23,5	23,8	23,7
BG	Bulgaria							21,1	20,5	19,6	21,1	20,2	20,8	20,7	21,3
CY	Cyprus					22,6	22,7	21,5	22,0	21,8	22,0	21,8	21,1	21,1	21,5
CZ	Czech Republic			26,1	26,3	26,2	25,8	25,2	23,9	23,9	24,0	23,8	23,5	22,7	22,6
DE	Germany	19,5	18,8	18,5	18,3	17,9	18,0	18,0	17,7	17,8	17,7	17,7	18,1	18,0	18,1
DK	Denmark	19,2	19,1	19,0	19,2	19,6	19,9	20,1	18,5	19,2	18,9	18,6	19,0	20,0	19,8
EE	Estonia			23,0	21,3	22,0	21,0	22,2	21,6	21,0	21,6	20,1	20,8	20,9	20,6
ES	Spain	17,9	18,0	18,0	17,7	18,1	18,1	18,2	18,2	18,2	18,4	19,6	19,3	19,4	19,3
FI	Finland	22,0	20,7	20,7	20,0	21,2	20,8	20,6	20,6	20,5	20,7	20,3	20,5	20,2	20,2
FR	France	22,6	22,7	22,6	22,9	22,9	23,1	23,3	23,0	23,2	23,0	23,2	23,3	23,5	23,4
GR	Greece	23,5	25,2	21,4	21,4	21,2	21,5	21,5	20,8	20,5	20,7	20,9	20,7	20,3	20,4
HU	Hungary		23,4	23,4	23,2	23,4	23,5	24,2	24,1	23,9	24,1	23,4	24,0	23,9	24,3
IE	Ireland	18,8	19,0	18,4	18,9	18,4	18,6	18,8	18,8	18,4	18,5	18,5		18,9	18,9
IT	Italy	24,5	24,5	23,7	23,8	23,2	24,0	23,6	23,8	23,4	21,3	21,7	22,0	22,0	22,0
LT	Lithuania				22,0		23,6	21,2	20,4	19,8	19,9	20,4	22,3	21,9	21,4
LU	Luxembourg	20,0	20,8	19,8	20,3	21,1	21,3	20,8	20,9	20,6	21,1	21,3	22,2	22,2	22,3
LV	Latvia				23,0	23,5	22,7	22,0	24,2	24,8	23,4	22,1	21,8	21,2	20,8
MT	Malta						21,9	21,9	22,1	22,9	20,9	19,6	21,5	21,5	22,1
NL	Netherlands	18,4	18,7	18,9	18,7	19,0	18,8	19,0	19,2	19,3	19,3	19,3	19,5	19,5	19,8
PL	Poland							23,6	23,4	23,4	22,6	23,3	22,8	22,7	22,1
PT	Portugal	22,4	23,0	21,6	19,4	20,1	19,9	19,9	20,7	20,5	19,7	20,1	20,1	19,8	19,8
RO	Romania			31,2	30,4	34,0	32,4	33,7	33,1	28,6	24,5	26,2	25,8	26,7	25,3
SE	Sweden	23,5	23,9	23,9	24,3	23,9	22,8	22,3	22,5	22,7	22,7	25,3	25,4	25,4	24,3
SI	Slovenia		20,5	18,4	17,6	17,8	19,3	19,5	18,8	18,6	17,8	18,6	19,1	19,1	19,9
SK	Slovakia				24,7	24,8	24,1	24,4	23,6	21,9	21,9	20,9	21,6	21,8	21,3
UK	United Kingdom	17,8	17,8	18,0	18,1	18,3	18,5	18,8	18,8	18,8	18,9	19,1	19,0	19,2	19,2

Table 7.2: Average usual working hours per week of employees, part-time (h.)
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								39,2	39,1	39,1	39,1	39,2	39,3	39,3	
EU15		38,9	39,0	39,0	39,0	39,0	38,9	38,8	38,6	38,7	38,8	38,9	39,0	39,0	
AT	Austria	39,0	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,9	39,8	39,9	39,9	39,8	41,4	41,1	41,0	41,1	41,0
BE	Belgium	37,3	37,1	37,2	37,5	36,9	37,1	37,9	38,3	37,9	37,8	37,8	37,7	37,9	38,0
BG	Bulgaria							40,6	40,8	40,7	41,1	40,9	41,0	41,1	41,2
CY	Cyprus					40,0	39,8	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,9	39,6	39,4	39,6	39,8
CZ	Czech Republic			42,3	42,5	42,4	42,4	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,4	40,6	40,5	40,5	40,5
DE	Germany	39,1	39,3	39,4	39,3	39,4	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,0	39,1	39,2	39,5	39,6	39,7
DK	Denmark	37,9	37,6	37,6	37,7	37,9	37,9	37,9	37,7	37,8	37,7	37,9	38,0	38,2	38,1
EE	Estonia			40,9	40,5	40,4	40,5	40,7	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,3	40,2
ES	Spain	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,7	39,5	39,6	39,4	39,5	39,8	39,7	39,6	39,5
FI	Finland	37,9	38,0	38,2	38,2	38,3	38,4	38,3	38,2	38,2	38,2	38,3	38,2	38,2	38,1
FR	France	38,7	38,8	38,6	38,7	38,6	38,0	37,4	36,9	37,6	37,6	37,9	38,0	38,1	38,3
GR	Greece	38,8	38,9	39,0	39,3	39,5	39,6	39,9	39,7	39,6	39,6	39,8	39,5	39,3	39,4
HU	Hungary		40,4	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,4	40,4	40,3	40,2	40,2	40,1	40,2	40,1	40,1
IE	Ireland	37,8	38,0	37,9	38,2	38,0	38,1	37,9	37,7	37,6	37,3	37,4		37,0	36,9
IT	Italy	36,2	36,3	36,1	36,3	36,3	36,5	36,4	36,4	36,5	36,9	37,0	37,1	36,9	37,0
LT	Lithuania				41,2		39,2	38,5	38,5	38,5	38,6	38,7	39,3	39,4	39,6
LU	Luxembourg	37,2	37,7	37,8	37,4	38,0	38,0	37,4	37,9	38,7	39,9	39,9	39,8	39,8	39,8
LV	Latvia				42,5	41,8	42,3	42,9	42,5	42,2	41,7	41,1	41,1	40,9	40,5
MT	Malta						39,5	38,2	38,7	38,5	38,3	38,8	39,0	38,8	38,9
NL	Netherlands	39,1	39,0	38,8	38,5	38,3	38,2	38,1	38,1	38,0	38,0	38,1	38,1	38,1	38,1
PL	Poland							39,8	39,9	39,6	39,4	39,5	39,4	39,5	39,6
PT	Portugal	39,2	39,3	39,1	39,6	39,3	39,2	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,1	39,2	39,3	39,4
RO	Romania			40,9	40,9	40,9	41,1	41,0	41,4	41,4	41,2	41,3	41,0	41,0	41,0
SE	Sweden	39,8	39,9	40,0	40,0	39,9	39,7	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,7
SI	Slovenia		41,0	41,0	41,1	40,9	41,0	41,1	41,0	40,9	41,0	41,1	40,9	40,9	40,9
SK	Slovakia				41,8	41,7	41,7	41,6	41,4	40,0	39,9	40,2	40,3	40,2	40,1
UK	United Kingdom	40,6	40,6	40,8	40,7	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,6	40,4	40,2	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,1

Table 7.3: Average usual working hours per week of employees, full-time, women (h.)
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								41,1	41,0	41,1	41,2	41,3	41,3	41,3	
EU15		41,1	41,3	41,3	41,3	41,1	41,0	40,9	40,7	40,8	41,0	41,1	41,2	41,2	
AT	Austria	40,0	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,3	40,2	40,2	40,1	40,1	43,5	43,2	43,1	43,0	42,9
BE	Belgium	38,8	38,8	38,9	39,1	39,1	39,2	39,9	39,7	39,9	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,8	39,6
BG	Bulgaria							41,3	41,4	41,0	41,6	41,3	41,6	41,8	41,9
CY	Cyprus					41,3	41,1	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,8	40,6	40,3	40,4	41,2
CZ	Czech Republic			44,4	44,3	44,1	44,0	41,7	41,9	42,3	42,1	42,1	42,0	42,1	42,0
DE	Germany	39,9	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,5	40,3	40,3	40,0	40,2	40,5	40,7	40,7	40,8
DK	Denmark	39,6	39,4	39,3	39,3	39,6	40,2	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,3	40,2
EE	Estonia			43,0	43,3	42,2	41,9	42,0	41,8	41,6	42,0	41,6	41,6	41,6	41,3
ES	Spain	41,2	41,1	41,1	41,3	41,2	41,2	41,2	41,0	40,9	41,0	41,7	41,7	41,5	41,4
FI	Finland	39,2	39,4	39,8	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,0	40,0	40,0	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,1
FR	France	40,6	40,5	40,5	40,3	40,2	39,5	38,8	38,2	39,5	39,7	39,9	39,9	40,0	40,1
GR	Greece	41,3	41,4	41,5	41,7	41,9	41,8	42,0	41,9	41,9	41,7	41,8	41,6	41,5	41,7
HU	Hungary		42,3	42,1	41,9	42,1	42,2	41,6	41,5	41,7	41,5	41,2	41,1	41,1	41,0
IE	Ireland	41,7	42,0	41,6	41,8	41,3	41,1	41,0	40,7	40,5	40,5	40,4		40,2	40,2
IT	Italy	39,7	39,8	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,9	40,6	40,5	40,6	40,5	40,5
LT	Lithuania				41,9		40,4	40,5	40,5	40,3	40,1	40,1	40,2	40,3	40,3
LU	Luxembourg	40,6	40,4	40,3	40,3	40,5	40,7	40,3	40,3	40,3	40,2	40,3	40,1	39,9	39,9
LV	Latvia				43,4	44,1	43,7	44,2	44,8	44,7	43,9	43,5	43,3	42,4	41,7
MT	Malta						42,1	40,3	41,1	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,0	41,1	41,1
NL	Netherlands	39,6	39,5	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,3	39,1	39,0	39,0	39,0	39,1	39,1	39,1
PL	Poland							42,9	43,1	43,1	42,9	43,0	42,8	42,7	42,5
PT	Portugal	42,8	42,7	42,3	42,1	41,5	41,1	40,9	41,1	40,8	40,9	41,0	40,9	40,9	41,0
RO	Romania			41,4	41,3	41,3	41,6	41,5	42,1	42,2	41,8	42,0	41,6	41,6	41,6
SE	Sweden	40,1	40,1	40,1	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,1	40,1	40,0	40,0	39,9	39,9	39,9	39,9
SI	Slovenia		42,0	42,2	42,2	42,0	41,8	41,8	42,0	41,8	42,3	42,1	41,9	41,9	42,0
SK	Slovakia				43,2	42,7	42,7	42,4	42,1	40,9	41,0	41,3	41,4	41,4	41,4
UK	United Kingdom	45,7	45,7	45,8	45,7	45,2	45,1	45,0	44,8	44,6	44,3	44,1	43,9	44,0	43,9

Table 7.4: Average usual working hours per week of employees, full-time, men (h.)
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								20,0	20,0	20,1	19,9	20,2	20,3	20,4	
EU15		20,0	19,8	19,8	19,8	19,8	19,8	19,9	19,9	19,9	19,8	20,1	20,2	20,3	
AT	Austria	23,5	22,0	22,4	22,0	22,0	21,9	21,9	21,7	22,0	20,9	21,1	21,0	21,1	21,2
BE	Belgium	21,4	21,5	21,6	21,8	21,7	22,5	22,1	22,7	22,7	22,8	23,2	23,3	23,6	23,5
BG	Bulgaria							20,8	20,0	19,4	21,1	20,0	20,3	20,3	20,7
CY	Cyprus					22,3	23,1	21,6	22,4	22,3	22,3	21,7	21,1	21,3	21,6
CZ	Czech Republic			26,5	26,8	26,7	26,2	25,6	24,2	24,2	24,1	24,0	23,7	23,0	22,9
DE	Germany	19,7	19,1	18,9	18,7	18,3	18,3	18,3	18,1	18,1	18,1	18,0	18,3	18,3	18,5
DK	Denmark	21,2	21,2	21,3	21,0	21,6	21,9	21,8	20,4	21,3	20,6	20,5	20,7	21,8	21,7
EE	Estonia			22,3	20,8	21,2	21,5	22,1	20,8	21,1	21,0	19,9	20,6	21,0	20,6
ES	Spain	17,6	17,6	17,6	17,4	17,8	17,8	18,0	18,1	18,1	18,4	19,5	19,3	19,4	19,3
FI	Finland	22,1	21,3	21,8	20,9	21,5	21,0	20,9	21,0	21,0	21,0	20,7	20,9	20,5	20,6
FR	France	22,6	22,7	22,7	22,9	22,9	23,1	23,4	23,1	23,2	23,0	23,4	23,4	23,7	23,6
GR	Greece	21,9	22,5	20,5	20,6	20,5	20,7	20,9	20,2	19,6	20,1	20,3	20,3	19,9	19,8
HU	Hungary		23,4	23,0	23,1	23,4	23,7	24,2	24,0	23,7	24,3	23,3	23,8	23,8	24,2
IE	Ireland	18,3	18,5	18,1	18,7	18,4	18,6	18,9	18,8	18,5	18,6	18,6		18,7	18,8
IT	Italy	22,5	22,6	22,2	22,3	22,2	22,8	22,5	22,6	22,5	21,3	21,7	21,9	21,9	22,0
LT	Lithuania				21,9		23,4	21,0	20,5	19,7	19,6	20,4	22,5	22,1	21,5
LU	Luxembourg	19,2	19,6	19,4	19,8	20,5	20,8	20,3	20,6	20,4	21,0	21,1	22,0	21,9	22,0
LV	Latvia				21,8	21,9	21,3	21,5	23,3	24,0	23,1	21,4	21,3	21,0	20,1
MT	Malta						22,0	20,5	21,6	22,3	20,8	20,1	21,8	21,6	22,1
NL	Netherlands	18,3	18,5	18,8	18,6	18,9	18,8	19,0	19,2	19,2	19,3	19,4	19,6	19,7	19,9
PL	Poland							22,6	22,6	22,8	22,1	22,8	22,6	22,5	21,9
PT	Portugal	20,7	20,9	20,3	19,0	19,7	19,7	19,5	20,2	20,1	19,7	19,8	19,7	19,7	19,7
RO	Romania			28,9	28,5	29,6	31,7	31,4	31,7	28,7	24,5	25,6	25,1	26,0	24,4
SE	Sweden	24,3	24,9	24,9	25,4	25,0	23,6	23,2	23,6	23,7	23,8	26,4	26,5	26,4	25,3
SI	Slovenia		21,2	18,4	18,3	18,4	19,9	19,3	18,9	18,4	17,6	18,8	19,5	19,2	20,0
SK	Slovakia				25,0	24,4	24,0	24,6	23,8	22,1	21,8	21,2	22,0	21,6	21,7
UK	United Kingdom	18,1	18,0	18,3	18,3	18,5	18,7	19,0	19,2	19,0	19,1	19,3	19,2	19,4	19,5

Table 7.5: Average usual working hours per week of employees, part-time, women (h).
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								19,8	19,5	19,5	19,1	19,1	19,3	19,2	
EU15		19,4	19,3	19,0	19,0	18,9	19,2	19,2	19,0	19,0	18,7	18,8	19,0	19,0	
AT	Austria	21,5	22,3	22,2	23,0	22,9	23,2	22,6	21,9	21,9	19,3	18,8	18,7	18,8	18,5
BE	Belgium	21,7	21,5	22,1	21,5	21,6	22,5	22,4	22,8	23,7	24,4	23,8	24,3	24,3	24,6
BG	Bulgaria							21,6	22,0	20,3	21,2	20,6	21,7	21,5	22,7
CY	Cyprus					23,4	21,4	21,2	21,1	20,6	21,2	21,9	21,1	20,4	21,2
CZ	Czech Republic			25,1	25,1	24,5	24,4	24,0	22,9	23,2	23,4	23,2	22,7	21,8	21,8
DE	Germany	18,1	16,5	16,0	15,4	15,3	15,7	15,6	15,5	15,6	15,6	15,7	16,9	16,6	16,3
DK	Denmark	13,3	13,5	13,5	13,8	13,3	13,2	15,0	13,6	13,8	14,4	14,1	14,6	15,4	15,1
EE	Estonia			24,2	22,6	23,4	19,8	22,4	23,7	20,8	22,8	20,7	21,5	20,9	20,5
ES	Spain	19,1	19,4	19,1	18,8	19,2	19,2	19,1	18,8	18,9	18,0	19,7	19,1	19,3	19,2
FI	Finland	21,6	19,0	17,3	16,8	20,4	20,4	19,8	19,7	19,3	19,9	19,4	19,5	19,5	19,1
FR	France	22,6	22,5	22,4	23,1	23,2	23,1	23,0	22,7	23,3	23,3	22,5	22,7	22,4	22,5
GR	Greece	25,9	28,6	23,3	22,8	22,3	23,0	22,6	22,3	22,9	22,1	22,2	21,8	21,4	21,9
HU	Hungary		23,3	24,5	23,5	23,3	23,2	24,4	24,3	24,3	23,5	23,5	24,6	24,1	24,4
IE	Ireland	20,4	20,4	19,2	19,3	18,5	18,3	18,5	18,7	18,1	17,7	18,0		19,7	19,4
IT	Italy	30,6	30,0	28,2	28,1	26,6	27,8	27,6	28,0	26,8	21,0	21,5	22,1	22,4	22,1
LT	Lithuania				22,1		23,8	21,8	20,2	20,1	20,6	20,5	21,8	21,5	21,1
LU	Luxembourg	28,6	30,8	25,6	24,2	28,7	25,8	25,7	24,8	22,7	23,0	23,6	24,7	25,6	24,7
LV	Latvia				24,4	25,9	25,0	23,0	26,1	27,4	24,0	23,6	23,1	21,5	22,2
MT	Malta						21,7	25,2	23,3	24,4	21,2	18,6	20,7	21,3	22,1
NL	Netherlands	18,7	19,3	19,4	18,9	19,3	18,9	19,0	19,2	19,4	19,2	19,2	19,3	19,0	19,3
PL	Poland							25,0	24,6	24,4	23,4	24,2	23,2	23,0	22,5
PT	Portugal	29,1	32,3	27,2	21,0	21,0	20,9	21,7	22,3	22,2	19,8	21,0	21,5	20,4	20,3
RO	Romania			33,9	33,2	37,9	33,5	36,0	35,2	28,4	24,5	27,7	27,4	27,9	26,6
SE	Sweden	19,7	18,7	18,9	18,9	19,1	19,1	18,9	19,0	19,1	19,1	21,3	21,5	21,9	20,7
SI	Slovenia		19,2	18,3	16,5	17,0	18,4	19,9	18,5	18,8	18,3	18,3	18,5	19,0	19,7
SK	Slovakia				23,7	25,8	24,2	23,6	23,1	21,5	22,1	20,2	20,7	22,3	20,3
UK	United Kingdom	16,1	16,3	16,9	17,2	16,9	17,2	17,8	17,3	17,5	18,0	18,1	18,1	18,3	18,2

Table 7.6: Average usual working hours per week of employees, part-time, men (h).
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								37,1	37,0	36,9	36,8	36,8	36,8	36,8	
EU15		36,9	36,9	36,8	36,7	36,5	36,4	36,3	36,1	36,1	36,1	36,0	36,0	36,0	
AT	Austria	37,5	37,5	37,4	37,3	37,2	37,0	37,0	36,5	36,6	38,1	37,7	37,5	37,5	37,3
BE	Belgium	35,7	35,5	35,5	35,5	35,1	35,2	35,7	35,7	35,5	35,2	35,2	35,2	35,4	35,2
BG	Bulgaria						40,4	40,6	40,8	40,6	41,0	40,8	41,0	41,2	41,3
CY	Cyprus					39,9	39,6	39,2	39,3	39,1	39,3	39,2	38,9	39,2	39,6
CZ	Czech Republic			42,4	42,5	42,3	42,4	40,3	40,4	40,6	40,5	40,5	40,5	40,5	40,4
DE	Germany	36,4	36,5	36,3	36,0	35,8	35,7	35,4	35,2	34,8	34,8	34,5	34,5	34,4	34,5
DK	Denmark	34,5	34,3	34,0	34,2	34,7	35,0	35,2	34,8	34,8	34,6	34,7	34,5	34,6	34,4
EE	Estonia			40,2	40,5	40,0	39,9	40,0	39,8	39,5	39,8	39,5	39,5	39,4	39,4
ES	Spain	39,1	38,9	38,8	38,9	38,7	38,8	38,7	38,6	38,5	38,4	38,4	38,3	38,2	38,0
FI	Finland	36,9	36,9	37,3	37,2	37,2	37,1	37,1	36,9	36,9	36,8	36,8	36,7	36,7	36,8
FR	France	37,0	36,9	36,7	36,6	36,6	36,1	35,7	35,2	36,1	36,2	36,3	36,3	36,4	36,6
GR	Greece	39,8	39,9	39,9	40,0	40,0	40,2	40,5	40,3	40,3	40,0	40,1	39,8	39,7	39,8
HU	Hungary		40,9	40,6	40,6	40,7	40,7	40,5	40,3	40,3	40,1	40,0	40,1	40,0	39,9
IE	Ireland	37,4	37,7	37,2	36,5	36,2	36,1	36,0	35,8	35,5	35,4	35,5	35,3	35,1	35,0
IT	Italy	37,6	37,6	37,4	37,4	37,2	37,2	37,1	37,2	37,2	37,0	37,0	37,0	36,8	36,7
LT	Lithuania				40,2	39,3	38,7	38,2	38,0	38,0	38,3	38,5	38,7	38,8	39,1
LU	Luxembourg	38,0	38,1	37,8	37,5	37,7	37,5	37,2	37,3	37,1	37,0	36,8	36,9	36,7	36,7
LV	Latvia				41,7	41,7	41,8	42,2	42,4	42,3	41,5	41,2	41,3	40,7	40,1
MT	Malta						40,1	38,4	38,7	39,1	39,0	38,6	38,5	38,3	38,3
NL	Netherlands	31,7	31,6	31,5	31,1	31,0	30,5	30,4	30,1	29,9	29,7	29,7	29,7	29,6	29,6
PL	Poland							40,1	40,2	40,2	39,9	40,1	40,0	40,1	40,0
PT	Portugal	40,4	40,4	39,9	39,8	39,4	39,2	39,2	39,3	39,0	39,1	39,1	39,1	39,0	39,0
RO	Romania			41,1	41,0	41,1	41,3	41,2	41,8	41,7	41,4	41,6	41,2	41,3	41,2
SE	Sweden	35,2	35,5	35,7	35,9	35,8	35,9	36,0	36,0	35,8	35,7	35,7	35,7	35,7	35,7
SI	Slovenia		40,4	40,3	40,5	40,4	40,5	40,5	40,4	40,2	40,1	40,2	39,9	39,9	40,0
SK	Slovakia				42,1	41,9	41,9	41,6	41,4	40,0	40,0	40,2	40,4	40,3	40,3
UK	United Kingdom	37,5	37,4	37,5	37,5	37,1	37,1	37,2	37,0	36,8	36,5	36,6	36,5	36,7	36,6

Table 7.7: Average usual working hours per week of employees (h.)
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								33,7	33,6	33,5	33,4	33,3	33,4	33,4	
EU15		32,8	32,8	32,6	32,5	32,4	32,4	32,3	32,3	32,2	32,0	32,0	32,0	32,1	
AT	Austria	34,8	34,7	34,7	34,3	34,0	33,7	33,7	33,2	33,3	33,2	33,0	32,7	32,7	32,7
BE	Belgium	31,9	31,7	31,7	31,7	30,9	31,3	31,5	31,9	31,4	31,2	31,5	31,3	31,7	31,7
BG	Bulgaria						40,0	40,1	40,3	40,3	40,6	40,5	40,6	40,8	40,8
CY	Cyprus					38,7	38,4	38,4	38,6	38,2	38,4	38,0	38,0	38,3	38,5
CZ	Czech Republic			40,6	40,9	40,9	40,9	39,1	39,1	39,1	39,1	39,2	39,1	39,1	39,1
DE	Germany	32,6	32,5	32,2	31,8	31,5	31,3	30,9	30,8	30,4	30,3	29,8	29,8	29,8	30,0
DK	Denmark	31,9	31,9	31,8	31,6	32,3	32,3	32,8	32,2	32,5	31,8	32,2	31,8	32,2	32,1
EE	Estonia			38,6	38,7	38,7	38,8	38,8	38,6	38,5	38,7	38,4	38,2	38,1	38,2
ES	Spain	36,1	36,0	35,9	35,8	35,7	35,9	35,8	35,8	35,7	35,6	34,9	34,9	34,9	34,8
FI	Finland	35,7	35,7	35,9	35,5	35,5	35,5	35,5	35,3	35,2	35,2	35,2	35,0	35,0	35,1
FR	France	34,1	34,0	33,7	33,7	33,6	33,3	33,1	32,8	33,3	33,2	33,5	33,6	33,7	33,9
GR	Greece	37,8	37,9	37,9	37,9	37,9	38,3	38,8	38,4	38,3	38,1	38,2	37,9	37,7	37,8
HU	Hungary		39,8	39,4	39,5	39,6	39,5	39,6	39,5	39,3	39,2	39,1	39,3	39,3	39,2
IE	Ireland	33,5	33,8	33,5	32,6	32,2	32,3	32,1	32,0	31,7	31,4	31,5	31,6	31,3	31,2
IT	Italy	34,5	34,6	34,2	34,2	34,0	34,1	33,9	34,0	34,0	33,1	33,1	33,1	32,9	32,8
LT	Lithuania				39,6	38,2	37,9	36,9	36,9	36,8	37,1	37,4	37,9	38,1	38,4
LU	Luxembourg	33,6	34,5	34,0	33,5	33,7	33,4	33,1	33,4	32,9	32,9	32,6	33,3	33,1	32,9
LV	Latvia				41,0	40,3	40,7	41,1	40,9	40,4	39,9	39,5	39,9	39,7	39,1
MT	Malta						37,4	35,3	35,6	35,2	35,3	35,0	35,4	34,6	34,7
NL	Netherlands	25,2	25,0	25,2	25,0	24,9	24,4	24,3	24,2	24,0	24,0	24,0	24,1	24,2	24,3
PL	Poland							38,2	38,3	38,0	37,7	37,8	37,8	38,0	38,0
PT	Portugal	37,8	37,8	37,3	37,6	37,6	37,5	37,7	37,6	37,4	37,5	37,4	37,6	37,5	37,4
RO	Romania			40,7	40,7	40,8	41,0	40,9	41,3	41,3	41,0	41,1	40,9	40,9	40,9
SE	Sweden	32,6	33,1	33,4	33,6	33,5	33,6	33,9	34,0	33,9	33,8	33,8	33,8	33,8	33,7
SI	Slovenia		39,6	39,4	39,7	39,7	39,8	39,9	39,6	39,3	38,8	39,2	39,0	39,0	39,0
SK	Slovakia				41,1	41,2	41,1	40,9	40,9	39,3	39,1	39,4	39,5	39,4	39,4
UK	United Kingdom	30,8	30,6	30,9	30,9	31,1	31,0	31,2	31,4	31,2	31,1	31,5	31,4	31,6	31,7

Table 7.8: Average usual working hours per week of employees, women (h.)
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Development of working time in the EU

	gesamt	Männer	Frauen	gesamt	Männer	Frauen	M/F	M/F
	1995	1995	1995	2008	2008	2008	Diff 1995	Diff 2008
EU15	40,3	41,1	38,9	40,3	41,2	39,0	2,2	2,2
Belgium	38,3	38,8	37,3	39,1	39,6	38,0	1,5	1,6
Denmark	38,9	39,6	37,9	39,3	40,2	38,1	1,7	2,1
Germany	39,7	39,9	39,1	40,4	40,8	39,7	0,8	1,1
Ireland	40,2	41,7	37,8	38,8	40,2	36,9	3,9	3,3
Greece	40,3	41,3	38,8	40,8	41,7	39,4	2,5	2,3
Spain	40,7	41,2	39,6	40,6	41,4	39,5	1,6	1,9
France	39,9	40,6	38,7	39,3	40,1	38,3	1,9	1,8
Italy	38,5	39,7	36,2	39,2	40,5	37,0	3,5	3,5
Luxembourg	39,5	40,6	37,2	39,9	39,9	39,8	3,4	0,1
Netherlands	39,5	39,6	39,1	38,9	39,1	38,1	0,5	1,0
Austria	39,6	40,0	39,0	42,2	42,9	41,0	1,0	1,9
Portugal	41,2	42,8	39,2	40,2	41,0	39,4	3,6	1,6
Finland	38,6	39,2	37,9	39,2	40,1	38,1	1,3	2,0
Sweden	40,0	40,1	39,8	39,9	39,9	39,7	0,3	0,2
United Kingdom	43,9	45,7	40,6	42,4	43,9	40,1	5,1	3,8
CEEC	2000	2000	2000	2008	2008	2008	Diff 2000	Diff. 2008
Bulgaria	40,9	41,3	40,6	41,5	41,9	41,2	0,7	0,7
Czech Republic	43,3	44,0	42,4	41,3	42,0	40,5	1,6	1,5
Estonia	41,2	41,9	40,5	40,7	41,3	40,2	1,4	1,1
Latvia	43,0	43,7	42,3	41,1	41,7	40,5	1,4	1,2
Lithuania	39,8	40,4	39,2	40,0	40,3	39,6	1,2	0,7
Hungary	41,3	42,2	40,4	40,6	41,0	40,1	1,8	0,9
Poland	41,4	42,9	39,8	41,2	42,5	39,6	3,1	2,9
Romania	41,4	41,6	41,1	41,3	41,6	41,0	0,5	0,6
Slovenia	41,4	41,8	41,0	41,5	42,0	40,9	0,8	1,1
Slovakia	42,2	42,7	41,7	40,8	41,4	40,1	1,0	1,3

Table 7.9: Average usual working hours of full-time employees according to gender, 1995/2008 (EU-15) resp. 2000/2008 (CEEC) (in hours)

*EU27/EU15 most recent data 2007

*BG/PL first data 2001

	Frauen	Männer	Alle abhängig Beschäftigten	M / F	M / F 1995 bzw. 2000
EU-27 (2007)*	33,4	39,8	36,8	6,4	6,2
EU-15 (2007)	32,1	39,4	36,0	7,3	7,3
Netherlands	24,3	34,3	29,6	10,0	11,0
Großbritannien	31,7	41,2	36,6	9,5	12,8
Germany	30,0	38,6	34,5	8,6	6,7
Ireland	31,2	38,7	35,0	7,5	7,0
Italy	32,8	39,7	36,7	6,9	5,0
Belgium	31,7	38,4	35,2	6,7	6,4
Luxembourg	32,9	39,5	36,7	6,6	6,9
Spain	34,8	40,5	38,0	5,7	4,6
Malta	34,7	40,3	38,3	5,6	4,0
France	33,9	39,2	36,6	5,3	5,6
Denmark	32,1	36,6	34,4	4,5	4,9
Sweden	33,7	37,6	35,7	3,9	5,3
Poland*	38,0	41,8	40,0	3,8	3,6
Greece	37,8	41,3	39,8	3,5	3,1
Finland	35,1	38,5	36,8	3,4	2,5
Portugal	37,4	40,5	39,0	3,1	4,8
Czech Republic	39,1	41,6	40,4	2,5	2,7
Estonia	38,2	40,6	39,4	2,4	2,2
Cyprus	38,5	40,7	39,6	2,2	2,3
Latvia	39,1	41,1	40,1	2,0	2,1
Slovenia	39,0	40,9	40,0	1,9	1,2
Slovakia	39,4	41,1	40,3	1,7	1,4
Lithuania	38,4	39,8	39,1	1,4	1,7
Hungary	39,2	40,5	39,9	1,3	2,3
Bulgaria	40,8	41,7	41,3	0,9	0,8
Romania	40,9	41,6	41,2	0,7	0,6

Table 7.10: Average usual working hours of all employees according to gender, EU-27, 2008 (ordered by amount of the difference M/F) as well as the difference M/F in 1995 (EU-15) resp. 2000 (new member states) (in h.)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

* Reference year 2001

Source: European Labour Force Survey; evaluation by IAQ

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								39,9	39,8	39,8	39,9	39,9	39,8	39,8	
EU15		40,1	40,1	40,1	40,0	39,8	39,7	39,6	39,4	39,4	39,5	39,5	39,4	39,4	
AT	Austria	39,5	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,7	39,6	39,6	39,4	39,4	42,4	41,8	41,7	41,6	41,3
BE	Belgium	38,3	38,2	38,3	38,4	38,3	38,2	39,0	38,7	38,8	38,6	38,4	38,5	38,5	38,4
BG	Bulgaria						40,8	41,1	41,3	40,9	41,4	41,1	41,4	41,6	41,7
CY	Cyprus					40,9	40,7	39,9	40,0	40,0	40,2	40,2	39,8	40,0	40,7
CZ	Czech Republic			43,8	43,8	43,6	43,6	41,3	41,5	41,8	41,7	41,7	41,6	41,6	41,6
DE	Germany	39,3	39,6	39,5	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,1	39,0	38,6	38,7	38,7	38,6	38,6	38,6
DK	Denmark	36,8	36,5	35,9	36,4	36,9	37,5	37,5	37,2	37,0	37,1	37,1	36,9	36,9	36,6
EE	Estonia			41,7	42,4	41,3	41,0	41,2	41,1	40,6	41,0	40,7	40,8	40,8	40,6
ES	Spain	40,7	40,5	40,5	40,7	40,5	40,6	40,6	40,4	40,4	40,3	40,9	40,8	40,7	40,5
FI	Finland	38,2	38,2	38,7	39,0	38,8	38,7	38,8	38,6	38,6	38,5	38,5	38,5	38,5	38,5
FR	France	39,7	39,6	39,5	39,4	39,3	38,6	38,0	37,4	38,7	38,9	39,0	39,0	39,1	39,2
GR	Greece	40,9	41,0	41,1	41,2	41,3	41,4	41,6	41,5	41,6	41,2	41,3	41,1	41,0	41,3
HU	Hungary		41,9	41,8	41,6	41,7	41,8	41,3	41,1	41,2	41,0	40,8	40,8	40,7	40,5
IE	Ireland	40,5	40,9	40,3	40,0	39,6	39,5	39,5	39,3	39,1	39,1	39,1	38,8	38,8	38,7
IT	Italy	39,5	39,5	39,4	39,4	39,3	39,3	39,3	39,4	39,5	39,9	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,7
LT	Lithuania				40,8	40,3	39,6	39,7	39,2	39,4	39,6	39,7	39,6	39,7	39,8
LU	Luxembourg	40,5	40,3	40,2	40,1	40,4	40,4	40,1	40,1	40,0	39,8	39,9	39,7	39,6	39,5
LV	Latvia				42,4	43,2	42,8	43,4	44,0	44,2	42,9	42,8	42,8	41,8	41,1
MT	Malta						41,4	39,9	40,4	40,9	40,7	40,5	40,0	40,3	40,3
NL	Netherlands	36,2	36,3	36,1	35,5	35,7	35,2	35,2	34,9	34,8	34,6	34,5	34,5	34,3	34,3
PL	Poland							41,8	42,0	42,1	41,9	42,1	41,9	41,9	41,8
PT	Portugal	42,6	42,6	42,0	41,6	41,0	40,7	40,6	40,7	40,4	40,5	40,6	40,5	40,4	40,5
RO	Romania			41,3	41,2	41,3	41,6	41,4	42,1	42,1	41,8	42,0	41,6	41,6	41,6
SE	Sweden	37,9	38,1	38,1	38,1	38,1	38,2	38,1	38,1	37,8	37,6	37,5	37,5	37,6	37,6
SI	Slovenia		41,2	41,2	41,2	41,1	41,0	41,1	41,2	40,9	41,2	41,0	40,8	40,7	40,9
SK	Slovakia				43,0	42,5	42,5	42,2	41,9	40,6	40,7	41,0	41,1	41,2	41,1
UK	United Kingdom	43,6	43,5	43,4	43,4	42,8	42,8	42,7	42,4	42,0	41,8	41,6	41,4	41,5	41,2

Table 7.11: Average usual working hours per week of employees, men (h.)
Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Development of working time in the EU

	Working-time intervals (h.)	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	
Austria	1-19	6,0	6,9	7,3	8,5	7,9	11,0	11,0	11,7	11,7	11,6	
	20	9,6	12,1	11,6	11,2	11,0	10,3	10,5	10,6	10,6	10,3	
	21-29	5,8	6,3	6,7	7,6	8,2	8,6	8,8	9,3	8,9	9,1	
	30-35	6,0	8,5	8,6	9,6	9,5	11,9	11,2	11,0	11,7	12,2	
	36-39	23,7	21,9	22,1	21,8	21,6	14,9	15,1	15,0	14,7	15,3	
	40	45,2	41,2	40,2	38,2	38,7	28,1	30,0	30,3	30,1	29,0	
	41-48	2,2	1,9	1,9	1,7	1,8	8,4	7,9	7,4	7,6	7,5	
	49+	1,6	1,2	1,4	1,5	1,2	5,3	4,5	4,1	4,4	4,5	
	Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	98,5	99,1	99,4	99,6	99,7
	not stated							1,5	0,9	0,6	0,4	0,3
							100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Belgium	1-19	13,6	14,0	14,7	14,4	15,2	15,4	14,3	14,5	13,8	14,1	
	20	8,3	7,7	7,7	6,7	7,1	6,5	6,4	6,2	6,3	6,3	
	21-29	11,3	13,4	11,1	11,7	10,9	11,8	11,7	12,3	11,3	11,3	
	30-35	8,1	10,7	10,5	11,8	12,5	13,8	14,5	14,4	15,1	15,2	
	36-39	44,3	37,4	37,6	37,2	37,5	32,0	34,1	33,7	34,3	34,2	
	40	11,1	9,4	9,6	8,9	8,1	9,8	9,3	8,9	8,8	9,0	
	41-48	1,1	2,4	2,8	2,8	2,3	3,0	2,6	2,6	2,8	2,3	
	49+	1,4	1,7	2,0	2,4	1,9	1,9	2,0	1,8	2,0	2,2	
	Total	99,1	96,6	96,0	95,9	95,4	94,2	94,9	94,9	94,3	94,5	94,7
	not stated	0,9	3,4	4,0	4,1	4,6	5,8	5,1	5,7	5,5	5,3	
	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Cyprus	1-19		1,8	2,0	1,3	1,9	1,7	1,7	1,9	1,7	1,8	
	20		1,5	1,7	1,1	1,2	1,1	1,9	1,6	1,6	1,4	
	21-29		3,8	3,2	3,3	4,3	4,5	3,8	3,5	3,1	3,3	
	30-35		11,2	14,8	14,3	13,4	13,0	12,4	13,4	13,0	13,7	
	36-39		36,5	33,7	33,7	33,1	32,6	34,5	36,5	36,5	33,7	
	40		31,3	29,5	29,7	27,3	26,5	27,7	25,4	25,4	24,9	
	41-48		8,6	11,0	13,3	16,1	17,5	15,6	15,3	15,6	17,7	
	49+		5,4	4,2	3,3	2,6	3,2	2,3	2,4	2,8	3,3	
	Total		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	99,8	100,0	99,8	99,9	
	not stated							0,2		0,2	0,1	
							100,0		100,0	100,0		
Czech Republic	1-19		1,1	1,0	1,0	1,1	1,2	1,0	1,1	1,3	1,3	
	20		1,6	1,8	2,1	2,2	1,8	2,3	2,2	2,3	2,5	
	21-29		1,8	1,5	1,0	1,4	1,4	1,3	1,3	1,2	1,1	
	30-35		4,9	4,3	4,5	4,5	4,4	4,4	4,3	3,9	4,0	
	36-39		1,9	14,8	15,5	14,2	13,3	11,9	12,5	12,7	12,0	
	40		29,2	63,5	67,1	67,2	69,3	70,0	69,7	69,1	69,6	
	41-48		52,0	7,3	5,0	5,2	4,8	4,9	4,9	4,9	5,1	
	49+		4,8	3,2	3,5	4,0	3,7	4,1	4,0	4,4	4,3	
	Total		97,4	97,4	99,8	99,7	99,9	99,9	99,9	99,9	99,9	
	not stated		2,6	2,6	0,2	0,3	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		
Germany	1-19	13,1	17,2	18,0	18,7	19,2	19,7	20,4	20,5	20,3	20,8	
	20	8,0	8,8	9,0	8,8	9,0	8,9	8,9	9,1	9,6	9,2	
	21-29	7,8	8,0	8,0	7,8	8,0	8,3	8,6	8,4	8,3	8,2	
	30-35	8,1	10,6	10,8	10,8	11,5	11,4	11,9	12,4	12,3	12,4	
	36-39	36,9	28,1	28,1	28,0	27,9	25,3	20,8	20,1	18,9	17,5	
	40	22,4	22,7	22,3	21,9	20,8	21,9	22,4	23,9	24,7	25,8	
	41-48	1,9	2,2	1,9	2,0	2,0	2,8	3,3	3,7	3,9	4,1	
	49+	1,9	2,3	1,9	2,0	1,7	1,7	1,7	1,9	2,1	2,0	
	Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	98,1	100,0	100,0	100,0	
	not stated							1,9				
							100,0					
Denmark	1-19	12,8	11,8	10,2	12,1	11,4	13,0	12,3	13,6	12,8	13,5	
	20	3,7	2,3	2,5	2,7	2,6	2,7	3,0	2,9	2,7	2,5	
	21-29	9,2	8,8	7,5	7,6	7,5	8,2	8,0	7,9	7,5	6,8	
	30-35	15,4	19,4	20,3	20,0	21,0	20,4	19,9	20,6	21,7	21,3	
	36-39	50,4	44,7	45,9	44,2	43,5	42,7	42,6	41,0	39,4	41,3	
	40	2,3	3,6	4,1	4,3	4,2	4,4	4,6	4,6	5,6	4,9	
	41-48	4,2	6,4	7,1	7,0	7,3	6,3	6,9	7,1	7,9	7,7	
	49+	1,6	1,7	1,6	1,6	1,9	1,5	1,9	1,8	2,0	1,7	
	Total	99,6	98,7	99,2	99,4	99,4	99,3	99,1	99,4	99,5	99,8	
	not stated	0,4	1,3	0,8	0,6	0,6	0,7	0,9	0,6	0,5	0,2	
	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		

Table 7.12

	Working-time intervals (h.)	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	
Spain	1-19	6,8	6,9	6,8	6,5	6,6	6,5	7,5	7,5	7,0	7,6	
	20	5,2	5,8	6,0	6,4	7,1	7,5	7,1	7,1	7,2	7,1	
	21-29	3,5	3,8	3,9	3,9	3,5	4,0	5,9	6,0	6,5	6,2	
	30-35	10,2	10,7	11,8	12,1	12,8	13,4	17,2	18,2	18,7	19,0	
	36-39	13,0	12,6	11,7	11,0	10,6	10,7	9,6	9,2	8,9	9,7	
	40	51,9	51,5	51,2	51,6	52,0	50,0	38,4	36,9	38,6	37,9	
	41-48	6,4	5,4	5,8	5,5	4,7	4,8	6,8	7,0	6,6	6,6	
	49+	2,9	3,3	2,7	2,9	2,8	3,1	4,4	4,8	4,2	3,5	
	Total	99,9	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	96,8	96,9	97,7	97,6
	not stated	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	3,2	3,1	2,3	2,4	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Finland	1-19	3,7	6,3	6,3	6,6	6,6	6,6	6,6	6,3	7,5	7,0	
	20	2,0	2,4	2,9	2,7	2,8	2,6	2,3	2,6	2,4	2,6	
	21-29	4,3	4,1	4,3	4,4	4,6	4,8	5,0	4,3	4,2	4,3	
	30-35	10,9	11,6	11,5	11,5	11,4	11,7	11,7	12,4	12,4	11,7	
	36-39	51,8	51,9	51,1	51,5	52,7	53,5	52,0	53,3	53,8	54,3	
	40	13,9	17,3	17,0	17,0	16,7	14,9	15,9	15,2	14,8	14,3	
	41-48	2,4	3,2	3,5	3,5	3,0	3,3	3,5	3,1	2,5	3,5	
	49+	1,2	2,5	2,5	2,2	2,0	2,1	2,4	2,3	2,0	2,1	
	Total	90,3	99,3	99,1	99,4	99,7	99,5	99,4	99,4	99,4	99,8	99,7
	not stated	9,7	0,7	0,9	0,6	0,3	0,5	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,2	0,3
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
France	1-19	8,0	8,6	8,6	8,8	9,3	9,8	9,2	8,6	8,5	8,5	
	20	7,4	6,1	5,1	4,6	4,6	4,2	3,9	3,9	3,6	3,5	
	21-29	7,9	8,5	8,9	9,1	9,0	9,5	9,5	10,1	9,9	10,0	
	30-35	10,9	25,1	32,4	42,1	38,5	38,0	37,2	35,9	34,6	35,2	
	36-39	46,0	33,2	27,1	17,6	20,7	19,9	20,7	20,1	21,1	20,7	
	40	5,8	4,9	5,0	4,8	6,4	7,0	7,4	8,2	8,2	8,1	
	41-48	5,2	4,4	4,1	3,8	5,4	5,4	5,5	5,8	6,5	6,3	
	49+	3,1	3,1	2,9	3,1	4,2	4,4	4,5	4,2	4,7	5,4	
	Total	94,4	93,9	94,1	93,9	97,9	98,3	97,9	96,9	97,3	97,6	
	not stated	5,6	6,1	5,9	6,1	2,1	1,7	2,1	3,1	2,7	2,4	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Greece	1-19	3,4	3,2	2,7	3,5	3,6	3,5	3,3	3,6	3,8	3,8	
	20	2,8	2,8	2,6	2,8	3,0	2,9	3,3	3,6	3,9	3,9	
	21-29	7,0	4,4	3,9	4,9	5,4	5,2	5,3	5,9	6,0	6,3	
	30-35	7,8	10,9	11,1	10,8	9,5	10,4	9,8	9,4	9,2	8,1	
	36-39	17,0	12,1	9,7	8,9	10,1	9,8	9,8	10,0	10,1	10,4	
	40	46,1	48,5	49,6	49,6	49,2	50,0	50,0	51,0	50,8	50,2	
	41-48	12,6	13,8	16,0	14,6	15,1	13,5	14,0	12,4	12,7	14,0	
	49+	3,2	4,2	4,5	4,9	4,1	4,6	4,4	3,9	3,4	3,3	
	Total	99,9	99,9	99,9	100,0	99,9	99,9	100,0	99,9	100,0	99,9	
	not stated	0,1	0,1	0,1		0,1	0,1	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,1	
		100,0	100,0	100,0		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Hungary	1-19							0,5	0,5			
	20							3,1	2,8			
	21-29							1,1	0,7			
	30-35							3,6	3,4			
	36-39							0,9	0,7			
	40							82,6	83,6			
	41-48							3,5	3,3			
	49+							2,0	2,2			
	Total							97,2	97,2			
	not stated							2,8	2,8			
							100,0	100,0				
Ireland	1-19	9,9	12,4	12,1	12,0	12,8	13,1	13,2	11,2	13,6	13,4	
	20	6,7	9,3	10,1	9,7	9,7	9,6	9,4	9,5	9,3	8,6	
	21-29	8,6	9,3	9,6	9,7	9,9	10,6	10,6	10,8	11,2	12,0	
	30-35	14,3	9,4	10,2	10,5	10,5	11,9	11,9	12,4	14,3	13,6	
	36-39	28,8	33,8	34,6	36,8	37,1	35,3	34,7	36,0	32,8	33,1	
	40	19,9	15,8	15,0	13,3	12,5	11,9	12,1	12,5	11,7	12,2	
	41-48	4,2	3,2	2,8	2,2	2,1	2,2	2,4	1,9	2,2	2,0	
	49+	2,8	2,2	1,9	1,9	1,6	1,6	1,5	1,3	1,3	1,3	
	Total	95,2	95,5	96,3	96,1	96,2	96,2	95,8	95,7	96,4	96,2	
	not stated	4,8	4,5	3,7	3,9	3,8	3,8	4,2	4,3	3,6	3,8	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	

Table 7.12

Development of working time in the EU

	Working-time intervals (h.)	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	
Italy	1-19	8,3	8,2	8,2	8,2	8,2	9,3	8,4	8,5	8,8	9,2	
	20	5,1	6,5	6,5	6,4	6,3	7,6	8,1	7,9	8,1	8,1	
	21-29	9,5	10,5	10,8	10,6	10,7	12,0	12,7	13,5	13,9	14,1	
	30-35	6,3	6,7	7,1	8,3	7,7	9,4	9,0	9,6	9,5	9,8	
	36-39	26,9	26,3	26,5	25,2	25,3	20,6	21,2	20,8	20,8	20,8	
	40	35,9	33,5	33,3	33,1	33,8	32,2	31,9	31,0	31,3	30,7	
	41-48	6,5	6,4	6,1	6,5	6,3	5,1	4,7	4,8	4,4	4,5	
	49+	1,5	1,9	1,5	1,6	1,6	1,9	2,0	2,5	2,1	2,3	
	Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	98,2	98,2	98,1	98,6	99,0	99,6
	not stated						1,8	1,9	1,4	1,0	0,4	
						100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Niederlande	1-19	31,7	33,5	34,0	33,3	33,8	33,8	33,8	32,4	31,3	31,2	
	20	11,0	8,8	8,7	8,9	8,7	8,8	8,3	8,4	8,2	8,3	
	21-29	11,0	14,9	15,6	16,5	17,2	17,8	18,4	18,7	20,1	20,3	
	30-35	13,2	14,4	14,4	14,9	15,5	15,5	15,5	16,0	16,1	16,5	
	36-39	12,6	16,7	16,6	16,3	15,0	15,0	14,4	14,5	14,4	13,6	
	40	19,2	11,0	10,2	9,6	9,4	8,8	9,3	9,6	9,5	9,7	
	41-48	0,4	0,3									
	49+	0,1	0,3									
	Total	99,1	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
	not stated	0,9										
	100,0											
Poland	1-19				3,8	4,3	5,1	4,8	4,8	4,5	4,0	
	20				4,2	4,5	4,6	4,9	4,7	4,3	4,2	
	21-29				5,8	5,4	5,2	5,3	4,9	4,4	4,1	
	30-35				4,7	4,9	4,9	4,5	4,6	4,5	4,4	
	36-39				1,3	1,1	1,0	1,3	1,3	1,2	1,3	
	40				51,9	59,9	64,1	64,4	66,5	68,3	70,8	
	41-48				24,2	15,7	10,7	10,0	9,2	8,9	7,8	
	49+				4,2	4,1	4,3	4,7	4,1	3,9	3,4	
	not stated				100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
	keine Angabe											
Portugal	1-19	5,2	3,4	3,1	2,8	3,3	3,0	3,0	2,8	3,2	3,3	
	20	1,9	2,8	2,6	2,4	2,8	2,6	2,7	2,4	2,9	2,7	
	21-29	5,9	3,3	2,9	3,1	2,9	2,6	2,5	2,2	2,3	2,6	
	30-35	20,7	21,5	23,2	23,8	23,6	24,5	26,0	25,2	23,0	22,4	
	36-39	6,0	5,5	4,7	4,6	4,6	4,3	3,8	3,9	3,8	3,7	
	40	25,7	52,5	52,7	53,1	53,8	53,1	53,0	54,7	56,4	56,9	
	41-48	30,5	7,3	7,5	6,5	6,1	6,6	5,9	5,8	4,8	4,6	
	49+	4,0	3,6	3,3	3,4	2,7	3,0	2,8	2,7	3,0	3,2	
	Total	100,0	99,9	99,9	99,8	99,7	99,6	99,6	99,7	99,6	99,5	99,4
	not stated		0,1	0,1	0,2	0,3	0,4	0,4	0,3	0,4	0,6	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		
Sweden	1-19	8,1	7,3	7,2	6,8	7,4	7,3	6,8	6,6	6,8	7,2	
	20	7,5	5,3	5,5	5,0	5,0	5,2	6,2	6,5	6,4	6,0	
	21-29	11,7	10,0	8,4	8,8	8,3	8,6	5,8	5,6	5,5	5,4	
	30-35	18,7	18,5	18,1	18,6	18,5	19,1	21,1	21,1	21,1	20,7	
	36-39	10,5	13,8	15,2	14,9	15,0	14,5	17,6	17,6	17,5	17,9	
	40	40,7	39,9	40,7	40,7	40,4	39,8	37,1	37,5	37,8	38,1	
	41-48	1,8	4,4	4,1	4,3	4,6	4,7	4,7	4,5	4,2	4,1	
	49+	1,1	0,9	0,7	0,7	0,5	0,7	0,4	0,5	0,5	0,4	
	Total	100,0	100,0	99,8	99,7	99,8	99,9	99,8	99,8	99,8	99,9	99,8
	not stated			0,2	0,3	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,2	
			100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		
Slovakia	1-19					0,5	0,7	0,8	0,8	0,7	0,7	
	20					1,8	2,0	1,9	2,0	2,1	2,2	
	21-29					0,7	1,1	0,8	0,9	1,0	0,9	
	30-35					1,9	2,3	2,5	3,1	2,9	2,3	
	36-39					19,3	23,3	18,6	16,4	17,0	19,0	
	40					67,5	62,1	65,0	65,7	66,0	64,7	
	41-48					4,1	3,9	6,0	6,4	5,6	5,8	
	49+					2,7	3,1	3,3	3,7	3,5	3,3	
	Total					98,5	98,4	99,0	99,1	98,9	98,9	
	not stated					1,5	1,6	1,0	0,9	1,1	1,1	
					100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		

Table 7.12

	Working-time intervals (h.)	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	
United Kingdom	1-19	22,5	21,2	20,5	19,7	20,5	20,3	19,3	19,0	18,8	17,5	
	20	4,9	4,9	4,8	5,1	4,7	4,7	4,7	4,5	4,4	4,6	
	21-29	11,8	12,8	13,0	13,1	12,8	13,5	13,1	13,1	13,1	12,8	
	30-35	12,4	12,5	12,7	13,1	13,5	13,3	14,0	13,8	14,1	14,1	
	36-39	20,9	20,2	20,3	20,4	20,6	20,9	20,8	21,1	20,8	21,7	
	40	7,8	7,8	8,0	8,1	7,9	8,0	8,3	8,6	8,6	9,4	
	41-48	13,6	13,2	13,0	12,9	12,5	12,1	12,4	12,1	12,5	12,3	
	49+	5,6	6,1	6,4	6,4	6,3	6,0	6,1	6,2	6,0	6,3	
	Total	99,6	98,8	98,7	98,8	98,8	98,6	98,6	98,6	98,5	98,3	98,7
	not stated	0,4	1,2	1,3	1,2	1,2	1,4	1,4	1,5	1,7	1,3	
			100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 7.12: Average usual working hours per week of employees, working time intervals, women (h.)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Reliability Limits: BG. EE. HU (before 2005. after 2006). LT. LU. LV. MT. PL (2001). RO. SI. SK (2000-2002)

Development of working time in the EU

	Working-time intervals (h.)	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Austria	1-19	0,8	0,7	0,8	1,2	1,0	1,6	2,1	2,2	2,1	2,5
	20	0,8	0,8	0,9	0,8	1,0	1,0	1,2	1,3	1,3	1,4
	21-29	0,4	0,4	0,4	0,5	0,6	0,7	0,9	0,9	0,9	1,0
	30-35	0,9	1,4	1,3	1,7	1,2	1,8	1,7	1,8	1,9	1,9
	36-39	34,6	34,2	34,9	36,2	35,7	21,7	22,2	22,1	22,5	23,2
	40	55,3	55,4	54,3	52,6	53,9	38,4	37,9	38,3	38,1	37,4
	41-48	3,3	3,2	3,3	3,0	2,8	15,2	16,2	16,3	16,4	16,5
	49+	3,8	4,0	4,3	4,1	3,9	17,7	16,6	16,4	16,4	15,8
	Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	98,2	98,7	99,4	99,6	99,6
	not stated						1,8	1,3	0,6	0,4	0,4
						100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Belgium	1-19	1,2	2,2	1,8	2,3	2,5	2,0	2,3	2,2	2,3	2,3
	20	1,2	1,6	1,1	1,2	1,0	1,2	1,3	1,2	1,3	1,1
	21-29	2,4	3,1	2,2	2,4	2,0	2,6	2,4	2,3	2,2	2,2
	30-35	2,4	3,5	3,7	3,2	3,6	4,1	4,9	5,0	4,7	5,1
	36-39	61,1	49,7	50,5	51,8	52,8	47,7	48,3	48,4	48,7	48,7
	40	22,9	24,1	22,3	22,0	20,6	23,5	22,4	22,1	21,9	22,3
	41-48	2,0	4,5	5,3	4,1	3,8	4,9	5,3	4,8	5,2	5,0
	49+	4,2	5,3	7,1	6,0	6,9	6,3	6,0	6,0	6,2	5,6
	Total	97,4	93,9	94,0	93,1	93,2	92,4	92,8	91,9	92,5	92,4
	not stated	2,6	6,1	6,0	6,9	6,8	7,6	7,2	8,1	7,5	7,6
	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Czech Republic	1-19		0,2	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,3
	20		0,4	0,4	0,4	0,5	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,7	0,6
	21-29		0,4	0,4	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,2
	30-35		1,0	1,2	1,1	1,1	1,1	0,9	0,9	0,9	0,9
	36-39		1,5	16,4	16,3	14,8	14,9	13,9	14,4	14,9	14,7
	40		32,9	60,0	61,5	60,6	62,0	63,7	63,5	62,2	62,1
	41-48		46,4	9,6	7,6	7,3	6,9	7,0	6,8	7,0	6,9
	49+		16,1	10,7	12,3	14,7	13,9	13,3	13,1	13,8	14,1
	Total		98,9	99,0	99,8	99,7	99,7	99,7	99,7	99,8	99,8
	not stated		1,1	1,0	0,2	0,3	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,2	0,1
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Germany	1-19	1,4	2,6	2,7	3,1	3,2	3,4	3,9	4,4	4,5	4,6
	20	0,5	0,8	0,9	0,9	1,0	0,9	1,2	1,2	1,2	1,4
	21-29	0,9	0,8	0,9	0,9	1,0	1,1	1,2	1,1	1,0	1,0
	30-35	2,8	8,0	8,2	8,7	9,4	8,8	8,5	7,8	8,0	7,7
	36-39	52,9	36,6	37,2	36,9	37,0	32,9	27,1	24,3	23,2	21,4
	40	30,8	38,0	37,9	37,3	37,0	39,5	42,7	44,3	45,3	46,1
	41-48	4,7	5,3	5,1	5,2	5,1	7,0	8,3	9,5	9,3	10,6
	49+	6,0	7,9	7,1	7,1	6,1	6,3	7,0	7,5	7,4	7,2
	Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0
	not stated										
Denmark	1-19	7,8	7,0	6,6	7,2	7,9	8,1	8,2	8,5	8,2	9,0
	20	1,0	0,7	1,0	1,1	0,9	1,4	1,1	1,3	1,2	1,3
	21-29	1,0	0,9	1,3	1,5	1,5	1,6	1,7	1,7	2,1	2,0
	30-35	2,4	4,1	4,3	3,5	3,6	4,5	3,8	4,3	4,7	4,2
	36-39	66,0	53,6	54,3	55,5	56,5	52,4	51,8	50,1	49,0	50,4
	40	5,5	8,0	8,9	6,9	7,7	7,6	8,3	9,4	9,6	9,0
	41-48	8,2	15,7	13,8	14,6	12,0	14,8	15,0	15,0	15,9	16,1
	49+	7,7	8,5	8,5	9,2	9,2	9,1	9,3	9,1	8,7	7,8
	Total	99,6	98,5	98,8	99,4	99,3	99,4	99,3	99,5	99,5	99,9
	not stated	0,4	1,5	1,2	0,6	0,7	0,6	0,7	0,5	0,5	0,1
	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	

Table 7.13

	Working-time intervals (h.)	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	
Spain	1-19	0,7	0,8	0,8	0,9	0,8	1,0	1,2	1,3	1,1	1,3	
	20	0,7	1,1	1,0	0,9	1,1	1,0	1,0	1,2	1,2	1,4	
	21-29	0,5	0,6	0,7	0,6	0,5	0,5	1,0	0,9	0,9	1,0	
	30-35	3,8	4,3	4,8	5,3	5,2	5,2	7,6	7,9	8,3	8,2	
	36-39	8,3	8,2	7,6	7,3	7,1	7,0	6,5	6,3	6,3	6,6	
	40	70,7	69,6	69,4	70,4	71,4	70,6	56,3	54,5	55,7	57,2	
	41-48	8,2	7,2	7,3	6,9	6,4	6,7	10,8	11,2	11,2	10,6	
	49+	7,0	8,2	8,5	7,7	7,4	7,8	11,3	12,3	11,4	10,4	
	Gesamt	99,9	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	95,8	95,6	96,2	96,7	
	keine Angabe	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	4,2	4,4	3,8	3,3	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Finland	1-19	1,9	2,7	2,7	3,0	3,1	3,0	3,0	3,3	3,4	3,6	
	20	0,5	1,4	1,6	1,6	1,5	1,4	1,4	1,4	1,6	1,2	
	21-29	1,5	1,6	1,5	1,8	2,0	2,0	1,9	2,1	2,1	1,9	
	30-35	5,0	6,3	6,4	5,9	5,6	6,4	6,3	5,3	4,8	5,4	
	36-39	34,6	31,8	30,5	30,6	31,0	31,4	32,4	33,2	33,8	32,5	
	40	31,5	43,0	43,8	44,1	44,2	42,9	42,1	41,3	42,0	42,2	
	41-48	2,1	6,0	6,1	6,2	6,1	6,5	6,4	6,7	6,2	7,1	
	49+	2,8	6,6	6,6	6,3	6,1	6,0	5,8	6,5	5,9	6,0	
	Gesamt	79,9	99,4	99,2	99,5	99,6	99,6	99,6	99,4	99,6	99,8	99,9
	keine Angabe	20,1	0,6	0,8	0,5	0,4	0,4	0,6	0,4	0,2	0,1	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
France	1-19	1,6	1,6	1,8	1,9	2,0	2,0	2,2	2,3	2,0	1,8	
	20	2,0	1,7	1,3	1,2	1,1	1,1	1,2	0,9	1,0	1,1	
	21-29	1,6	1,6	1,5	1,6	1,7	1,6	1,8	1,9	1,8	2,0	
	30-35	2,8	21,1	31,7	43,5	36,9	36,1	33,4	32,0	30,7	30,6	
	36-39	55,0	41,2	32,5	21,6	25,1	24,5	25,5	25,6	27,1	25,9	
	40	8,1	6,0	6,8	6,6	10,1	10,6	11,3	11,6	11,5	12,6	
	41-48	9,9	8,4	7,8	6,8	10,8	11,6	11,3	11,7	12,1	11,9	
	49+	8,3	7,1	6,5	6,5	10,7	11,2	11,5	11,6	11,3	12,1	
	Gesamt	89,2	88,9	89,8	89,7	98,5	98,7	98,1	97,5	97,5	98,1	
	keine Angabe	10,8	11,1	10,2	10,3	1,5	1,3	1,9	2,5	2,5	1,9	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Greece	1-19	1,0	0,8	0,9	0,9	0,8	1,1	1,0	1,2	1,4	1,3	
	20	0,8	0,9	0,8	0,8	0,7	0,8	0,9	1,1	1,1	1,0	
	21-29	3,2	2,0	1,5	1,8	1,9	1,9	2,0	2,3	2,4	2,5	
	30-35	4,6	5,6	6,5	5,6	5,5	6,3	5,5	4,9	4,4	4,3	
	36-39	15,4	10,7	8,7	8,1	8,7	8,6	9,0	9,0	8,4	8,4	
	40	51,7	53,4	53,7	54,5	54,4	56,0	55,5	56,2	56,6	55,1	
	41-48	15,1	18,2	18,5	18,9	18,9	16,6	17,5	17,5	18,3	19,9	
	49+	8,0	8,3	9,2	9,3	8,8	8,5	8,4	7,7	7,3	7,3	
	Gesamt	99,8	99,8	99,8	100,0	99,8	99,9	99,9	99,9	99,8	99,8	
	keine Angabe	0,2	0,2	0,2		0,2	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,2	
		100,0	100,0	100,0		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Ireland	1-19	1,9	3,2	2,9	2,8	3,0	2,8	2,8	2,1	2,8	2,9	
	20	2,4	2,1	2,1	2,0	2,0	1,7	2,0	2,0	2,3	2,3	
	21-29	2,3	2,1	1,7	1,8	2,0	1,9	1,9	2,1	2,2	2,4	
	30-35	7,1	4,4	4,2	4,2	4,2	4,9	4,5	4,7	5,2	4,9	
	36-39	27,5	35,7	38,0	41,3	42,7	42,5	42,7	44,7	42,4	41,8	
	40	28,5	27,0	26,7	24,5	24,0	25,2	24,8	24,2	25,2	26,2	
	41-48	9,0	7,2	7,2	7,1	6,6	6,8	7,1	6,8	7,3	6,8	
	49+	12,4	9,1	8,9	8,2	7,8	7,4	7,3	6,3	6,3	6,1	
	Gesamt	91,1	90,8	91,8	92,0	92,2	93,1	93,0	93,0	93,8	93,4	
	keine Angabe	8,9	9,2	8,2	8,0	7,8	6,9	7,0	7,0	6,2	6,6	
		100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	

Table 7.13

Development of working time in the EU

	Working-time intervals (h.)	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	
Italy	1-19	2,6	3,1	2,8	2,4	2,6	2,0	1,8	1,8	1,8	1,9	
	20	0,6	1,3	1,3	0,9	0,9	1,3	1,3	1,4	1,4	1,5	
	21-29	1,2	1,4	1,4	1,5	1,5	1,6	1,6	1,9	1,9	2,0	
	30-35	2,2	2,7	2,7	3,3	2,8	2,9	2,7	3,0	2,8	2,9	
	36-39	24,0	23,5	24,5	23,5	22,5	19,2	18,7	18,7	18,9	19,0	
	40	51,2	49,3	49,4	50,3	51,5	50,2	52,6	52,1	53,2	53,8	
	41-48	13,1	12,7	12,1	12,5	12,5	11,3	10,3	10,6	10,3	10,4	
	49+	4,9	6,1	5,9	5,5	5,8	8,4	7,9	8,2	7,8	7,7	
	Gesamt	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	96,9	97,0	97,7	98,2	99,3
	keine Angabe							3,1	3,0	2,3	1,8	0,7
							100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
Netherlands	1-19	7,7	9,3	9,5	9,7	9,8	10,4	10,4	9,9	10,4	10,2	
	20	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,6	1,5	1,5	1,4	1,5	1,5	1,4	
	21-29	1,5	2,4	2,5	2,4	2,7	2,5	2,7	2,7	2,8	2,8	
	30-35	5,6	6,8	6,9	7,6	7,8	7,9	8,2	8,4	8,2	8,6	
	36-39	27,9	35,8	36,0	35,4	34,8	33,9	32,9	32,4	30,4	29,8	
	40	52,9	40,7	39,9	40,4	41,0	41,6	42,4	43,2	44,7	45,1	
	41-48	1,2	1,1	1,4	1,2	1,1	1,1	1,0	0,9	1,1	1,1	
	49+	1,3	2,3	2,4	1,7	1,3	1,1	1,1	1,0	0,9	1,0	
	Gesamt	99,6	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	
	keine Angabe	0,4										
	100,0											
Portugal	1-19						0,5	0,6	0,4	0,7	0,7	
	20						0,6	0,5	0,5	0,6	0,6	
	21-29						0,6	0,6	0,6	0,6	0,6	
	30-35						12,1	12,4	12,4	11,5	11,8	
	36-39						3,3	2,3	2,4	2,5	2,2	
	40						65,5	66,4	67,2	67,7	66,6	
	41-48						9,6	9,0	8,7	8,0	8,3	
	49+						7,1	7,6	7,0	7,3	7,6	
	Gesamt						99,2	99,3	99,2	98,8	98,6	
	keine Angabe						0,8	0,7	0,8	1,2	1,4	
						100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		
Sweden	1-19	3,1	3,3	3,3	3,4	3,6	4,1	3,7	3,7	3,7	3,8	
	20	2,7	2,1	2,3	2,3	2,5	2,6	3,2	3,2	3,0	2,9	
	21-29	1,5	1,4	1,4	1,4	1,5	1,7	1,5	1,4	1,3	1,4	
	30-35	4,2	4,7	4,9	4,8	5,2	5,6	5,2	5,4	5,8	5,6	
	36-39	9,9	11,2	12,0	12,1	12,5	12,7	16,5	16,3	16,4	16,8	
	40	71,1	69,5	69,0	68,8	68,0	66,6	63,6	64,1	64,1	64,0	
	41-48	5,3	4,9	4,4	4,4	4,4	4,4	4,1	3,9	3,9	3,8	
	49+	2,2	2,9	2,4	2,4	2,1	2,2	2,0	1,9	1,7	1,7	
	Gesamt	100,0	100,0	99,8	99,8	99,8	99,9	99,9	99,9	99,9	99,9	
	keine Angabe			0,2	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	
			100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		
United Kingdom	1-19	3,8	4,3	4,2	4,6	4,9	4,7	5,0	4,9	4,7	4,3	
	20	0,5	0,8	0,8	0,9	1,0	1,0	1,0	1,1	1,1	1,2	
	21-29	1,5	1,7	2,0	1,9	2,0	2,4	2,4	2,2	2,2	2,2	
	30-35	4,6	5,3	5,2	5,5	5,6	6,0	5,8	6,3	6,4	5,7	
	36-39	18,3	18,5	18,7	19,0	19,8	20,3	20,3	20,6	20,5	21,1	
	40	11,9	12,7	13,1	13,7	14,0	14,8	15,0	15,8	15,2	18,1	
	41-48	31,4	29,9	29,6	29,1	28,1	27,2	27,3	27,1	27,6	24,9	
	49+	27,3	24,7	24,3	23,3	22,6	21,5	20,7	19,7	19,9	20,5	
	Gesamt	99,2	97,9	97,9	97,9	98,1	97,8	97,5	97,5	97,6	98,0	
	keine Angabe	0,8	2,1	2,1	2,1	1,9	2,2	2,5	2,5	2,4	2,0	
	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0		

Table 7.13: Average usual working time intervals of employees, men (h.)
 Basis: 15-64 year old employees
 Reliability Limits: BG. CY. EE. HU. LT. LU. LV. MT. PL. RO. PT (until 2003). SI. SK

	High qualification	Medium qualification	Low qualification	total
EU27	40,47	40,56	40,44	40,5
EU15	40,63	40,14	40,31	40,3
Belgium	39,33	38,9	38,83	39,1
Bulgaria	40,48	41,75	42,53	41,5
Denmark	39,85	39,06	38,99	39,3
Germany	41,64	40,04	39,71	40,4
Estonia	40,44	40,9	40,9	40,7
Finland	38,99	39,14	39,59	39,2
France	40,52	38,9	38,5	39,3
Greece	37,29	41,85	43,08	40,8
Ireland	38,29	39,04	39,18	38,8
Italy	36,74	39,2	40,44	39,2
Latvia	40,22	41,43	41,95	41,1
Lithuania	39,48	40,28	40,21	40
Luxembourg	39,79	39,96	39,97	39,9
Malta	38,78	40,73	40,85	40,4
Netherlands	38,78	38,86	39,18	38,9
Austria	44,39	42,04	40,7	42,2
Poland	38,48	42,12	42,89	41,2
Portugal	38,92	39,97	40,66	40,2
Romania	40,47	41,5	41,92	41,3
Sweden	40,28	39,57	39,66	39,9
Slovakia	40,39	40,91	41,04	40,8
Slovenia	41,62	41,47	41,57	41,5
Spain	39,9	40,76	41,24	40,6
Czech Republic	42,71	41,16	40,45	41,3
Hungary	40,26	40,7	40,61	40,6
UK	43,11	42,32	41,42	42,4
Cyprus	39,61	41,07	41,34	40,6

Table 7.14: Average usual working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification, 2008

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

ISCED 1D: Third level education. Upper secondary education. Lower secondary education

Source: European Labour Force Survey; evaluation by IAQ

	2000	2008	Δ
EU27	0,1	0,1	±0
EU15	0,4	0,5	+0,1
Belgium*	0,7	0,5	-0,2
Bulgaria*	1,1	2,0	+0,9
Denmark	1,9	0,9	-1,0
Germany	1,3	1,9	+0,6
Estonia	0,9	0,5	-0,4
Finland	0,5	0,6	+0,1
France	0,2	2,0	+1,8
Greece	5,8	5,8	±0
Ireland	1,3	0,9	-0,4
Italy	5,4	4,7	-0,7
Latvia	2,2	1,8	-0,4
Lithuania	2,1	0,8	-1,3
Luxembourg	0,6	0,2	-0,4
Malta	2,0	2,1	+0,1
Netherlands	0,4	0,4	±0
Austria	1,0	3,7	+2,7
Poland*	6,2	4,4	-1,8
Portugal	4,4	1,8	-2,6
Romania	1,2	1,4	+0,2
Sweden	0,9	0,7	-0,2
Slovakia	0,6	0,6	±0
Slovenia	0,3	0,1	-0,2
Spain	1,7	1,3	-0,4
Czech Republic	2,6	2,2	-0,4
Hungary	1,3	0,4	-0,9
UK	2,3	1,7	-0,6
Cyprus	1,3	1,7	+0,4

Table 7.15: Difference between the longest and the shortest working hours per week of full-time employees according to qualification groups, 2000* and 2008 (in hours)

Basis: 15-64 year old employees

ISCED 1D: Third level education. Upper secondary education. Lower secondary education | * 2001

Source: European Labour Force Survey; evaluation by IAQ

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27*			40,6	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,7	40,9	40,9	40,8	40,7
EU15**		40,7	40,5	40,2	40,2	40,3	40,4	40,5	40,7	40,6	40,6
AT	Austria	39,2	39,6	39,5	39,5	39,4	41,8	41,7	41,8	41,8	41,4
BE	Belgium	38,8	39,5	39,1	39,6	39,6	39,3	39,7	39,4	39,6	39,5
BG	Bulgaria			41,1	41,0	41,0	41,5	41,2	41,5	41,5	
CY	Cyprus		40,9	40,8	40,3	40,2	40,7	41,0	40,4	40,3	41,5
CZ	Czech Republic		42,4	40,7	40,6	40,7	40,5	40,5	40,6	40,6	40,7
DE	Germany	39,5	39,9	39,7	39,8	39,6	39,8	39,9	40,1	40,2	40,3
DK	Denmark	38,5	38,7	38,5	38,7	39,0	39,1	38,9	39,2	39,4	39,3
EE	Estonia		40,5	40,9	40,7	40,7	40,9	40,8	40,7	40,7	40,6
ES	Spain	41,0	41,1	41,1	41,0	40,9	40,9	41,6	42,0	41,7	41,3
FI	Finland	39,0	39,4	39,5	39,3	39,5	39,3	39,4	39,5	39,4	39,4
FR	France	40,3	38,7	37,9	37,4	38,4	38,5	38,8	38,9	38,8	39,3
GR	Greece	41,3	42,1	42,2	42,1	42,2	42,1	42,1	42,0	42,0	42,4
HU	Hungary		41,2	40,8	40,7	40,8	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,6	40,4
IE	Ireland	40,9	40,4	40,3	40,3	40,0	40,0			39,8	39,9
IT	Italy	40,4	40,4	40,3	40,3	40,5	40,8	40,8	40,9	40,8	40,8
LT	Lithuania		40,3	40,3	40,3	39,9	39,9	40,0	40,2	40,2	40,2
LU	Luxembourg	40,5	40,2	40,3	40,4	40,3	40,2	40,3	40,1	40,0	40,0
LV	Latvia		42,5	42,9	44,0	43,4	43,2	42,3	42,0	41,8	41,0
MT	Malta		41,6	40,6	41,0	41,2	40,8	40,8	40,6	40,6	40,6
NL	Netherlands	39,0	38,7	38,5	38,6	38,5	38,7	38,7	38,7	38,8	38,7
PL	Poland						42,6	42,8	42,4	42,3	
PT	Portugal	42,7	40,7	40,7	40,6	40,4	40,5	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,6
RO	Romania		41,3	41,3	41,8	42,0	41,4	41,6	41,4	41,3	41,3
SE	Sweden	39,7	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,3	39,3	39,1	39,1	39,1	
SI	Slovenia		41,0	41,2	41,2	41,1	41,2	41,3	41,1	41,2	
SK	Slovakia		41,5	41,6	41,3	40,0	40,1	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,4
UK	United Kingdom	44,0	43,5	43,4	43,2	43,1	42,8	42,9	42,8	42,7	42,5

Table 7.16: Average usual working hours per week (h.)

Manufacturing industry without metal industry—full-time | Basis: 15-64 year old employees

Classification: NACE Rev.1.1 (15-26. 36-37)* EU27: 2001. 2002. 2003 without PL; 2000 without PL. BG; 2005. 2006 without IE; 2008 without SE. SI. BG. PL

**EU15: 2005. 2006 without IE

		1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27*			40,4	40,2	40,1	40,2	40,4	40,6	40,7	40,6	40,5
EU15**		40,4	40,2	40,0	39,9	40,0	40,1	40,3	40,5	40,4	40,5
AT	Austria	39,2	39,4	39,4	39,3	39,3	41,8	41,5	41,6	41,5	41,3
BE	Belgium	38,7	39,3	39,2	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,5
BG	Bulgaria			40,9	40,9	40,9	41,2	41,0	41,3	41,3	
CY	Cyprus		40,7	40,6	40,2	40,0	40,6	40,9	40,4	40,2	41,2
CZ	Czech Republic		42,2	40,5	40,5	40,6	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,4
DE	Germany	38,8	39,1	39,0	39,0	38,8	39,0	39,2	39,6	39,6	39,7
DK	Denmark	38,5	38,7	38,6	38,8	39,0	38,9	39,0	39,2	39,4	39,2
EE	Estonia		40,4	40,9	40,6	41,0	41,1	40,8	40,9	40,8	40,6
ES	Spain	40,8	40,9	40,9	40,8	40,7	40,8	41,5	41,9	41,4	41,3
FI	Finland	39,0	39,6	39,6	39,5	39,6	39,5	39,6	39,6	39,5	39,7
FR	France	40,1	38,6	37,8	37,4	38,4	38,5	38,8	39,0	39,0	39,4
GR	Greece	41,2	42,0	42,0	42,1	42,1	41,9	41,9	41,9	42,0	42,3
HU	Hungary		41,1	40,8	40,6	40,8	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,5	40,4
IE	Ireland	40,8	40,3	40,3	40,1	40,0	40,0			39,8	39,8
IT	Italy	40,4	40,3	40,3	40,3	40,5	40,9	40,8	40,9	40,9	40,9
LT	Lithuania		40,1	40,3	40,3	39,9	40,0	40,0	40,2	40,2	40,3
LU	Luxembourg	40,5	40,1	40,3	40,3	40,3	40,2	40,4	40,1	40,0	40,0
LV	Latvia		42,4	42,5	43,9	43,0	43,3	42,1	42,0	41,5	40,9
MT	Malta		41,3	40,8	40,9	40,8	40,7	40,9	40,5	40,6	40,7
NL	Netherlands	39,1	38,9	38,8	38,9	38,8	38,9	38,9	38,9	39,0	38,9
PL	Poland						42,2	42,5	42,1	42,0	
PT	Portugal	42,6	40,7	40,7	40,6	40,4	40,5	40,6	40,6	40,6	40,6
RO	Romania		41,0	41,0	41,3	41,5	41,2	41,4	41,2	41,2	41,1
SE	Sweden	39,8	39,6	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,4	39,3	39,2	39,2	
SI	Slovenia		40,9	41,1	41,1	41,0	41,2	41,2	40,9	41,1	
SK	Slovakia		41,4	41,4	41,1	40,0	40,1	40,3	40,3	40,4	40,4
UK	United Kingdom	44,2	43,6	43,6	43,3	43,2	43,1	43,1	43,1	43,0	42,9

Table 7.17: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Manufacturing industry – full-time

Basis: 15-64 year old employees | Classification: NACE Rev.1.1 (15-37)

* EU27: 2001. 2002. 2003 without PL; 2000 without PL. BG; 2005. 2006 without IE; 2008 without SE. SI. BG. PL

**EU15: 2005. 2006 without IE

		1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27*			40,1	39,9	39,8	39,8	40,1	40,3	40,5	40,4	40,4
EU15**		40,1	39,9	39,8	39,6	39,7	39,9	40,1	40,4	40,3	40,4
AT	Austria	39,1	39,2	39,2	39,1	39,2	41,9	41,4	41,5	41,4	41,3
BE	Belgium	38,7	39,0	39,2	39,6	39,5	40,0	39,3	39,6	39,4	39,5
BG	Bulgaria			40,4	40,5	40,5	40,3	40,5	40,5	40,6	
CY	Cyprus		39,0	39,1	39,7	39,3	40,0	40,6	40,2	39,7	39,6
CZ	Czech Republic		42,1	40,3	40,3	40,4	40,3	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,2
DE	Germany	38,3	38,6	38,6	38,5	38,2	38,5	38,8	39,2	39,2	39,3
DK	Denmark	38,5	38,8	38,7	38,9	39,0	38,6	39,2	39,2	39,5	39,1
EE	Estonia		40,3	40,8	40,5	41,8	41,4	41,0	41,4	40,9	40,7
ES	Spain	40,4	40,6	40,5	40,4	40,4	40,5	41,2	41,7	41,1	41,3
FI	Finland	39,1	39,9	39,7	39,7	39,6	39,7	39,8	39,7	39,6	39,9
FR	France	40,0	38,5	37,8	37,4	38,4	38,4	38,9	39,1	39,1	39,5
GR	Greece	40,8	41,6	41,2	41,9	41,8	41,4	41,5	41,5	41,7	42,0
HU	Hungary		40,9	40,7	40,6	40,8	40,7	40,5	40,5	40,5	40,5
IE	Ireland	40,7	40,2	40,3	39,9	39,9	39,9	39,9	39,2	39,7	39,8
IT	Italy	40,3	40,3	40,4	40,4	40,4	40,9	40,9	41,0	41,0	41,0
LT	Lithuania		39,4	39,9	40,1	40,0	40,3	40,2	40,1	40,2	40,4
LU	Luxembourg	40,6	40,1	40,3	40,1	40,3	40,2	40,4	40,1	40,0	40,0
LV	Latvia		40,7	40,5	43,1	41,2	43,4	41,3	41,6	40,6	40,5
MT	Malta		40,8	41,2	40,7	40,3	40,4	41,1	40,4	40,7	40,9
NL	Netherlands	39,4	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,3	39,3
PL	Poland						41,6	41,8	41,6	41,7	
PT	Portugal	42,2	40,7	40,5	40,6	40,4	40,4	40,5	40,7	40,6	40,6
RO	Romania		40,5	40,4	40,4	40,6	40,8	41,0	40,8	40,9	40,8
SE	Sweden	39,9	39,7	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,5	39,4	39,3	39,3	
SI	Slovenia		40,7	41,0	41,0	40,9	41,1	41,1	40,8	41,0	
SK	Slovakia		41,2	41,2	40,9	39,9	40,1	40,1	40,2	40,3	40,4
UK	United Kingdom	44,5	43,8	43,9	43,3	43,3	43,3	43,4	43,4	43,3	43,4

Table 7.18: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Metal industry – full-time

Basis: 15-64 year old employees | Classification: NACE Rev.1.1 (27-35)

* EU27: 2001. 2002. 2003 without PL; 2000 without PL. BG; 2005. 2006 without IE; 2008 without SE. SI. BG. PL

**EU15: 2005. 2006 without IE

		1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27*			41,3	41,1	41,1	41,1	41,4	41,6	41,7	41,8	41,4
EU15**		40,8	41,0	40,9	40,8	40,8	41,0	41,2	41,3	41,4	41,2
AT	Austria	39,5	39,8	39,7	39,7	39,6	42,1	41,5	41,8	41,9	41,9
BE	Belgium	39,3	40,1	39,7	40,5	39,8	40,0	39,8	39,9	40,0	39,9
BG	Bulgaria			41,6	41,8	41,7	43,1	42,6	42,9	43,3	
CY	Cyprus		39,7	38,9	39,2	39,4	39,5	39,7	39,6	39,7	40,3
CZ	Czech Republic		44,9	42,3	42,4	43,1	43,3	43,2	43,0	43,1	43,4
DE	Germany	39,8	40,3	40,1	40,2	40,0	40,1	40,3	40,5	40,6	40,5
DK	Denmark	38,2	38,8	38,7	38,6	38,7	38,7	38,8	39,1	39,0	38,7
EE	Estonia		43,3	42,0	41,9	43,0	42,2	41,7	41,7	41,4	41,2
ES	Spain	40,7	40,9	41,0	40,9	40,8	41,1	42,2	42,2	42,4	42,0
FI	Finland	39,9	40,6	40,8	40,2	40,6	40,5	40,6	40,7	40,5	40,4
FR	France	40,2	39,4	38,9	38,1	39,0	39,0	39,0	39,0	39,1	39,0
GR	Greece	41,5	42,8	43,2	42,7	42,5	42,7	42,8	43,0	43,0	43,0
HU	Hungary		42,7	42,4	42,3	42,3	42,1	41,6	41,6	41,7	41,5
IE	Ireland	40,9	41,8	41,5	41,0	40,8	40,6			40,5	40,5
IT	Italy	40,9	40,7	40,7	40,9	40,9	41,3	41,0	41,1	41,1	40,9
LT	Lithuania		41,0	41,3	41,0	40,9	40,4	40,5	40,3	40,3	40,4
LU	Luxembourg	40,1	40,4	40,1	40,2	40,1	40,1	40,2	40,1	40,0	40,0
LV	Latvia		43,6	44,6	44,6	46,1	44,6	44,2	43,8	42,7	42,1
MT	Malta		41,3	38,1	40,3	42,0	40,6	40,9	40,3	40,3	40,4
NL	Netherlands	39,6	39,5	39,7	39,5	39,4	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,6	39,5
PL	Poland						44,9	45,4	45,4	45,1	
PT	Portugal	43,9	41,6	41,6	41,7	41,1	41,1	41,3	41,2	41,3	41,3
RO	Romania		42,7	42,8	44,5	43,6	43,1	43,3	42,8	42,8	42,8
SE	Sweden	40,0	40,1	40,1	40,2	40,1	40,0	40,0	40,0	40,0	
SI	Slovenia		43,2	42,7	43,1	42,9	44,1	44,0	43,7	43,4	
SK	Slovakia		43,7	43,6	43,1	41,6	41,8	42,3	42,6	42,6	42,7
UK	United Kingdom	45,3	45,2	45,2	44,9	44,8	44,4	44,1	43,8	44,4	44,4

Table 7.19: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Building industry – full-time

Basis: 15-64 year old employees | Classification: NACE Rev.1.1 (45)

* EU27: 2001. 2002. 2003 without PL; 2000 without PL. BG; 2005. 2006 without IE; 2008 without SE. SI. BG. PL

**EU15: 2005. 2006 without IE

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27*			41,4	41,1	41,0	41,0	41,3	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,2
EU15**		41,3	41,2	41,0	40,8	40,8	41,1	41,2	41,2	41,2	41,1
AT	Austria	39,8	40,3	40,3	40,2	40,2	43,1	43,0	42,8	42,7	42,6
BE	Belgium	39,4	39,6	40,3	40,0	40,0	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,9	39,7
BG	Bulgaria			41,8	41,9	41,4	42,2	41,6	41,9	42,0	
CY	Cyprus		41,6	41,0	41,1	41,1	41,5	41,1	40,8	41,2	41,6
CZ	Czech Republic		44,1	41,7	42,0	42,3	42,1	42,2	42,2	42,3	42,2
DE	Germany	40,4	41,0	40,8	40,7	40,3	40,6	40,7	41,0	41,0	40,9
DK	Denmark	39,9	40,0	40,3	40,0	39,9	40,4	40,3	40,2	40,0	39,8
EE	Estonia		41,9	42,2	41,9	41,5	41,7	41,5	41,2	41,3	41,1
ES	Spain	41,5	41,6	41,5	41,4	41,2	41,3	42,1	42,1	41,8	41,5
FI	Finland	38,7	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,2	39,2
FR	France	41,1	39,8	39,0	38,5	39,4	39,6	39,7	39,7	40,0	40,1
GR	Greece	42,8	43,2	43,4	43,2	43,2	43,1	43,2	42,9	42,8	42,9
HU	Hungary		42,0	41,6	41,5	41,5	41,3	41,1	41,0	40,9	40,9
IE	Ireland	41,0	40,6	40,3	40,1	40,0	39,7			39,6	39,5
IT	Italy	40,3	40,4	40,3	40,4	40,4	41,1	41,0	41,0	41,0	40,9
LT	Lithuania		41,4	40,3	40,8	40,3	40,3	40,3	40,4	40,5	40,3
LU	Luxembourg	40,0	40,4	39,8	39,9	40,1	40,3	40,3	40,1	40,0	40,0
LV	Latvia		45,1	45,7	44,7	44,7	43,6	43,0	42,8	41,9	41,5
MT	Malta		41,9	41,1	41,0	41,9	41,5	41,4	41,2	41,1	41,1
NL	Netherlands	39,7	39,5	39,5	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,1	39,2	39,2	39,2
PL	Poland						43,0	43,0	42,7	42,6	
PT	Portugal	42,4	41,5	41,5	41,5	41,3	41,5	41,3	41,2	41,3	41,3
RO	Romania		42,6	42,2	43,1	42,9	42,4	42,7	42,0	41,9	41,8
SE	Sweden	40,1	40,2	40,0	40,0	39,9	40,0	39,8	39,9	39,8	
SI	Slovenia		41,8	41,9	42,0	41,9	42,2	42,0	41,7	41,7	
SK	Slovakia		42,8	42,5	42,3	41,1	41,2	41,5	41,8	41,6	41,5
UK	United Kingdom	44,2	43,7	43,6	43,3	43,2	43,1	42,9	42,7	42,8	42,8

Table 7.20: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Private services – full-time

Basis: 15-64 year old employees | Classification: NACE Rev.1.1 (50-52.55.60-67.70-74.90-93.95)

* EU27: 2001. 2002. 2003 without PL; 2000 without PL. BG; 2005. 2006 without IE; 2008 without SE. SI. BG. PL

**EU15: 2005. 2006 without IE

		1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27*			41,2	40,9	40,8	40,7	41,0	41,0	40,8	40,8	40,4
EU15**		41,0	40,8	40,5	40,4	40,3	40,4	40,5	40,4	40,4	40,3
AT	Austria	39,0	39,8	39,7	39,7	39,6	41,7	41,1	41,1	40,8	41,0
BE	Belgium	38,9	38,8	38,9	39,0	38,7	38,8	38,5	38,8	38,5	38,5
BG	Bulgaria			42,3	42,4	42,3	43,6	42,8	43,1	43,3	
CY	Cyprus		42,8	41,0	41,5	41,8	42,0	41,8	41,5	42,3	42,2
CZ	Czech Republic		43,3	41,1	41,0	41,2	41,1	41,0	40,9	41,0	40,8
DE	Germany	39,8	40,2	39,8	39,9	39,5	39,8	39,9	40,1	40,1	40,0
DK	Denmark	38,8	39,0	38,3	38,6	38,5	39,1	38,8	38,7	38,6	38,6
EE	Estonia		41,7	41,4	41,6	40,9	41,1	41,4	40,6	40,4	40,5
ES	Spain	41,9	41,7	41,7	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,8	41,6	41,4	40,8
FI	Finland	38,2	38,1	37,8	38,1	37,9	37,6	38,1	37,7	37,8	37,5
FR	France	40,7	38,9	38,2	37,4	38,1	38,5	38,3	38,1	38,9	38,5
GR	Greece	43,2	43,8	43,6	43,6	43,5	43,2	43,2	43,0	42,8	43,0
HU	Hungary		41,8	41,3	41,3	41,1	41,1	40,8	40,6	40,7	40,8
IE	Ireland	40,3	39,9	39,8	39,6	39,2	39,1			38,9	38,7
IT	Italy	41,3	41,5	41,4	41,5	41,1	41,4	41,4	41,4	41,2	41,2
LT	Lithuania		43,4	40,9	41,1	40,2	40,7	40,3	40,6	40,6	40,3
LU	Luxembourg	39,6	39,8	39,4	39,2	39,9	40,1	40,0	39,9	40,0	40,0
LV	Latvia		47,7	48,6	46,4	45,5	45,3	43,7	43,3	41,9	41,6
MT	Malta		41,9	41,5	40,9	42,5	41,5	41,1	41,3	40,9	41,3
NL	Netherlands	39,3	38,6	38,8	38,7	38,7	38,7	38,8	38,8	38,7	38,6
PL	Poland						43,2	43,1	42,6	42,4	
PT	Portugal	43,9	41,8	42,1	41,6	41,5	41,9	41,8	41,6	41,5	41,4
RO	Romania		43,5	43,2	44,4	43,9	43,3	43,3	42,4	42,3	42,0
SE	Sweden	40,1	39,9	39,3	39,4	39,3	39,4	39,3	39,4	39,5	
SI	Slovenia		41,1	41,4	41,7	41,6	41,7	41,8	41,3	41,4	
SK	Slovakia		42,6	42,6	42,2	40,7	40,7	40,9	40,9	40,7	40,7
UK	United Kingdom	43,3	42,3	42,2	41,9	41,9	41,4	41,4	41,2	41,2	41,1

Table 7.21: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Retail trade – full-time

Basis: 15-64 year old employees | Classification: NACE Rev.1.1 (52)

* EU27: 2001. 2002. 2003 without PL; 2000 without PL. BG; 2005. 2006 without IE; 2008 without SE. SI. BG. PL

**EU15: 2005. 2006 without IE

		1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27*			39,5	39,3	39,2	39,3	39,7	39,7	39,6	39,6	39,6
EU15**		39,3	39,2	39,1	38,9	39,1	39,3	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,5
AT	Austria	40,4	40,3	40,5	40,5	40,4	43,6	43,1	43,0	43,1	43,0
BE	Belgium	38,3	38,8	39,0	39,0	39,0	39,0	38,6	38,6	38,8	38,7
BG	Bulgaria			40,5	40,6	40,1	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,2	
CY	Cyprus		39,8	39,1	39,2	39,4	39,1	38,8	38,7	38,8	39,5
CZ	Czech Republic		43,7	41,1	41,0	41,4	41,4	41,2	41,2	41,2	41,0
DE	Germany	39,3	39,7	39,6	39,7	39,6	39,8	40,0	40,2	40,3	40,4
DK	Denmark	38,2	39,0	38,5	38,9	39,0	39,1	39,3	39,4	39,5	39,3
EE	Estonia		41,3	41,1	40,9	41,1	41,5	40,7	40,8	40,8	40,8
ES	Spain	39,2	38,5	38,5	38,4	38,3	38,1	37,7	37,5	37,5	37,3
FI	Finland	37,5	38,4	38,3	38,3	38,2	38,1	38,2	38,3	38,3	38,4
FR	France	39,7	39,6	39,4	37,8	39,3	39,5	39,7	39,6	39,6	39,9
GR	Greece	39,3	39,8	39,9	39,9	39,8	39,7	39,8	39,7	39,7	39,7
HU	Hungary		41,2	40,8	40,7	40,8	40,7	40,5	40,3	40,5	40,5
IE	Ireland	39,1	39,3	38,8	38,8	38,5	38,6			37,8	38,0
IT	Italy	37,0	36,8	36,8	36,6	36,7	37,8	37,6	37,8	37,6	37,7
LT	Lithuania		40,5	40,5	40,0	40,3	40,3	40,2	40,2	40,3	40,2
LU	Luxembourg	39,1	39,4	39,2	39,5	39,7	40,0	40,0	39,9	40,0	39,9
LV	Latvia		42,1	42,7	42,0	42,3	41,2	41,5	41,4	41,0	40,6
MT	Malta		43,1	39,4	42,2	41,1	41,9	41,8	41,6	41,5	41,6
NL	Netherlands	39,0	37,5	37,5	37,6	37,5	37,4	37,6	37,5	37,5	37,5
PL	Poland						41,4	41,3	40,8	40,8	
PT	Portugal	39,7	37,8	37,4	37,6	37,3	37,5	37,8	37,6	37,6	37,6
RO	Romania		40,9	41,0	41,5	41,4	41,1	41,0	40,8	40,8	40,8
SE	Sweden	39,7	39,9	39,9	39,9	40,0	39,8	40,0	40,0	40,0	
SI	Slovenia		41,4	41,4	41,0	41,0	41,3	40,9	41,0	41,1	
SK	Slovakia		42,3	42,2	41,9	40,1	39,5	39,7	39,9	39,9	39,6
UK	United Kingdom	41,8	41,5	41,4	41,6	41,6	41,1	40,9	40,8	40,8	41,3

Table 7.22: Average usual working hours per week (h.) Public services—full-time

Basis: 15-64 year old employees | Classification: NACE Rev.1.1 (75)

* EU27: 2001. 2002. 2003 without PL; 2000 without PL. BG; 2005. 2006 without IE; 2008 without SE. SI. BG. PL

**EU15: 2005. 2006 without IE

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								44,1	43,9	44,0	44,2	44,2	44,1	44,1	44,0
EU15		44,9	45,0	45,2	44,9	44,6	44,3	44,4	44,2	44,2	44,4	44,5	44,5	44,4	44,4
AT	Austria	41,2	41,8	41,5	41,7	42,0	41,4	41,8	41,5	41,2	48,1	47,6	47,9	47,7	47,2
BE	Belgium	41,4	41,4	41,5	42,2	42,5	42,4	44,0	43,4	43,4	44,0	43,2	43,2	43,0	43,3
BG	Bulgaria							41,2	41,3	40,6	40,7	40,7	41,1	41,2	41,4
CY	Cyprus					40,9	43,3	41,7	44,1	44,3	42,6	43,6	43,7	42,7	45,5
CZ	Czech Republic			47,1	47,6	46,7	46,9	44,4	44,9	45,6	44,3	44,4	44,6	44,7	44,3
DE	Germany	42,9	44,1	44,2	44,3	44,3	44,2	43,7	43,8	42,8	43,1	43,6	43,9	43,7	43,8
DK	Denmark	45,1	44,4	44,1	43,8	44,8	45,2	45,6	44,8	44,6	45,3	45,5	45,2	44,4	44,9
EE	Estonia	:	:	43,4	42,5	41,6	42,1	42,4	41,9	41,7	42,1	41,5	41,6	41,3	41,1
ES	Spain	42,6	42,7	43,4	43,7	43,5	43,4	43,6	43,0	43,4	43,6	43,8	44,3	43,9	44,1
FI	Finland			42,5	42,6	42,5	42,4	42,2	42,0	42,0	42,3	41,8	41,7	41,6	41,6
FR	France	45,5	45,3	45,4	45,4	45,2	44,4	43,7	43,6	45,1	45,4	45,7	45,5	45,7	45,7
GR	Greece	41,8	41,3	41,3	42,3	42,2	42,4	43,5	42,5	42,3	42,3	42,3	42,8	42,1	42,6
HU	Hungary		41,7	42,4	42,5	42,8	42,5	41,9	41,8	41,8	41,4	41,4	41,2	40,9	40,7
IE	Ireland	43,4	44,1	43,2	44,1	43,2	42,8	42,2	42,0	41,5	41,4	41,1		41,0	40,8
IT	Italy	42,0	41,8	42,3	42,0	42,2	40,7	41,9	41,9	42,0	43,9	44,0	44,5	44,2	44,6
LT	Lithuania				41,1		40,3	40,3	40,1	40,0	40,3	40,3	40,1	40,2	40,2
LU	Luxembourg	44,5	44,7	43,2	43,6	43,8	46,2	43,2	42,6	42,5	41,2	41,5	40,5	40,0	40,1
LV	Latvia				44,0	43,5	43,3	42,3	43,4	43,4	42,6	42,0	42,2	41,7	41,0
MT	Malta						46,6	42,8	42,0	44,2	41,5	43,6	44,2	42,1	42,4
NL	Netherlands	39,9	39,8	39,5	39,4	39,3	39,7	39,8	39,5	39,3	39,2	39,3	39,4	39,4	39,4
PL	Poland							42,9	43,0	43,3	43,2	43,1	42,9	42,5	42,2
PT	Portugal	44,9	44,3	44,9	46,6	42,9	43,9	42,8	43,1	43,0	43,1	43,8	43,5	44,1	44,4
RO	Romania			43,4	43,1	43,1	43,1	42,4	43,0	43,5	43,4	42,9	42,2	42,1	41,4
SE	Sweden			42,1	41,7	42,5	42,2	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,7	41,1	41,1	41,0	41,0
SI	Slovenia		43,1	44,5	44,1	43,2	43,8	44,4	43,4	44,9	45,3	44,0	43,9	43,9	43,6
SK	Slovakia				45,4	43,4	44,1	43,3	43,0	42,0	41,3	41,6	42,0	41,8	41,7
UK	United Kingdom	47,1	46,9	47,3	46,8	46,3	46,1	46,6	46,1	46,1	45,7	45,3	45,2	45,3	45,2

Table 7.23: Average usual working hours (h.) legislators, senior officials and managers in the private sector— full-time

Basis: employees

Classification: ISCO88 (1)

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								39,7	39,6	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,8
EU15		39,6	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,7	39,5	39,3	39,2	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,5	39,5	39,5
AT	Austria	39,7	40,0	40,0	40,2	40,3	40,1	40,1	40,0	40,0	42,6	42,4	42,5	42,5	42,4
BE	Belgium	38,8	39,0	39,1	39,0	39,7	39,4	39,4	39,6	39,9	39,8	39,4	39,5	39,6	39,6
BG	Bulgaria							40,3	40,4	40,1	40,4	40,2	40,3	40,4	40,4
CY	Cyprus					40,7	40,4	39,9	39,9	39,5	39,8	39,7	39,2	39,3	39,4
CZ	Czech Republic			43,3	43,4	43,3	43,2	41,0	41,1	41,2	41,1	41,2	41,1	41,2	41,3
DE	Germany	39,2	39,4	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,4	39,4	39,2	39,3	39,5	39,7	39,7	39,8
DK	Denmark	39,0	39,1	38,7	38,7	38,8	39,2	39,3	39,0	38,7	39,2	38,9	39,1	39,2	39,0
EE	Estonia			40,9	41,3	40,5	41,1	41,2	40,6	40,6	41,4	40,4	40,6	40,6	40,6
ES	Spain	40,6	40,6	40,7	40,7	40,6	40,5	40,5	40,5	40,4	40,2	40,4	40,4	40,3	40,2
FI	Finland			38,8	39,2	39,1	39,0	38,8	38,9	38,9	38,9	38,9	38,8	38,7	38,8
FR	France	39,3	39,4	39,2	39,2	39,0	38,3	37,5	37,0	38,4	38,6	38,5	38,6	38,8	38,9
GR	Greece	41,3	41,3	41,6	41,0	40,7	41,1	41,6	41,0	40,9	40,9	41,0	40,8	40,7	41,0
HU	Hungary		41,2	41,3	40,9	41,1	41,1	40,8	40,7	40,7	40,5	40,5	40,4	40,4	40,5
IE	Ireland	41,4	41,5	41,2	41,1	40,2	40,1	39,6	39,8	39,6	39,5	39,5		38,9	39,0
IT	Italy	38,5	38,5	38,6	38,7	38,6	38,4	38,4	38,4	38,4	38,1	38,1	38,1	38,1	38,0
LT	Lithuania				40,8		38,7	39,0	39,4	39,1	38,7	39,1	39,6	39,6	39,9
LU	Luxembourg	39,6	39,4	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,4	39,4	39,3	39,4	39,9	40,0	39,9	39,9	39,9
LV	Latvia				42,0	41,9	41,3	41,2	42,4	41,6	41,4	41,5	41,8	41,1	40,7
MT	Malta						40,6	38,5	38,9	39,9	40,1	39,7	39,6	39,8	39,7
NL	Netherlands	39,4	39,3	39,1	38,8	38,7	38,8	38,6	38,4	38,6	38,6	38,6	38,6	38,6	38,7
PL	Poland							41,4	41,5	41,4	41,3	41,3	41,0	41,1	40,9
PT	Portugal	37,9	38,0	38,0	38,6	38,5	38,1	38,3	38,4	38,6	38,7	38,5	38,5	39,1	39,0
RO	Romania			40,3	40,3	40,3	40,4	40,7	40,7	41,0	40,8	40,8	40,6	40,7	40,7
SE	Sweden			39,9	39,8	40,0	40,0	39,7	39,8	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,6	39,6
SI	Slovenia		41,3	41,3	41,7	41,5	41,1	41,0	41,3	41,3	41,4	41,6	41,3	41,1	41,1
SK	Slovakia				42,1	41,9	41,8	41,7	41,3	40,1	39,9	40,1	40,4	40,3	40,3
UK	United Kingdom	42,8	42,8	43,1	42,8	42,6	42,4	42,3	42,0	41,7	41,5	41,3	41,1	41,2	41,2

Table 7.24: Average usual working hours per week (h.) – technicians and associated professionals – full-time

Basis: employees

Classification: ISCO88 (3)

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								39,1	38,9	38,9	39,1	39,1	39,2	39,2	39,2
EU15		39,1	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,0	38,8	38,6	38,6	38,8	38,8	38,9	38,9	38,9
AT	Austria	39,1	39,5	39,6	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,4	41,5	41,1	40,9	41,1	40,9
BE	Belgium	38,2	38,2	38,2	38,3	38,7	38,6	38,6	38,9	38,7	38,5	38,6	38,5	38,7	38,7
BG	Bulgaria							40,7	40,7	40,6	40,7	40,7	40,7	40,7	40,7
CY	Cyprus					39,3	39,4	38,9	39,0	39,0	39,1	39,2	38,8	39,0	39,2
CZ	Czech Republic			42,3	42,6	42,5	42,8	40,4	40,1	40,3	40,4	40,3	40,4	40,4	40,3
DE	Germany	39,1	39,4	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,4	39,3	39,2	39,3	39,4	39,7	39,7	39,7
DK	Denmark	37,3	37,3	37,5	37,4	37,4	38,0	37,5	37,2	37,3	37,5	37,4	37,5	37,8	37,9
EE	Estonia			40,9	41,1	40,7	41,0	40,8	40,9	40,7	40,6	40,8	40,5	40,6	40,4
ES	Spain	39,8	39,8	39,7	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,6	39,7	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,6	39,5	39,3
FI	Finland			37,9	37,7	37,7	37,8	37,7	37,8	37,8	37,7	37,9	37,8	37,8	37,8
FR	France	38,9	39,0	39,0	38,8	38,7	37,8	37,2	36,4	36,7	36,9	36,9	37,0	37,0	37,1
GR	Greece	39,9	40,1	40,1	40,4	40,5	40,3	40,4	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,5	40,4	40,3	40,4
HU	Hungary		40,6	40,6	40,5	40,6	40,7	40,6	40,5	40,4	40,3	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,1
IE	Ireland	38,3	38,6	38,5	38,7	38,7	38,7	38,5	38,3	38,3	38,0	38,2		37,8	37,8
IT	Italy	38,4	38,5	38,3	38,4	38,4	38,4	38,5	38,3	38,5	39,1	39,1	39,2	39,2	39,1
LT	Lithuania				40,0		40,4	39,8	40,7	40,0	40,0	39,9	40,2	40,2	40,0
LU	Luxembourg	39,5	39,5	39,5	39,1	39,6	39,6	39,4	39,4	39,5	40,0	39,9	39,9	39,9	40,0
LV	Latvia				42,3	42,0	41,9	43,1	42,2	42,2	42,2	41,4	41,1	41,1	40,5
MT	Malta						40,6	38,7	40,3	40,1	40,3	40,5	40,1	40,1	40,4
NL	Netherlands	39,1	39,1	38,7	38,6	38,5	38,3	38,4	38,4	38,4	38,4	38,4	38,5	38,5	38,5
PL	Poland							41,1	41,2	41,2	41,1	41,1	40,9	40,9	40,8
PT	Portugal	39,0	39,1	38,8	39,1	39,0	38,9	39,1	38,9	38,7	39,1	39,2	39,2	39,3	39,6
RO	Romania			40,7	40,6	41,1	41,3	40,9	41,3	41,3	41,1	41,2	41,1	41,0	41,1
SE	Sweden			39,7	39,8	39,8	39,6	39,4	39,5	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,4	39,5	39,5
SI	Slovenia		40,5	40,7	40,6	40,6	40,6	40,5	40,6	40,4	40,7	40,7	40,5	40,6	40,5
SK	Slovakia				41,8	41,6	41,6	41,6	41,3	40,0	40,0	40,2	40,2	40,4	40,3
UK	United Kingdom	39,9	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,9	39,7	39,2	38,9	38,8	38,7	38,7	38,6	38,7	38,7

Table 7.25: Average usual working hours per week (h.) of clerks - full-time

Basis: employees

Classification: ISCO88 (4)

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27								41,1	41,1	41,1	41,2	41,4	41,4	41,4	41,3
EU15		41,3	41,4	41,3	41,4	41,2	41,0	40,8	40,7	40,7	40,9	41,0	41,1	41,1	41,1
AT	Austria	39,6	39,8	40,0	40,1	40,1	40,2	40,2	40,2	40,1	43,5	43,3	43,2	43,0	43,2
BE	Belgium	39,5	39,2	39,3	39,6	39,5	40,1	40,1	40,2	39,7	39,5	39,7	39,7	40,1	39,6
BG	Bulgaria							41,5	41,4	41,2	41,7	41,5	41,6	41,7	41,7
CY	Cyprus					41,8	41,6	41,6	41,1	41,2	41,0	41,2	40,7	40,9	41,8
CZ	Czech Republic			44,1	43,8	43,4	43,3	41,1	41,4	41,6	41,3	41,4	41,4	41,3	41,2
DE	Germany	40,1	40,5	40,5	40,6	40,7	40,9	40,6	40,4	40,1	40,4	40,6	40,9	40,9	40,9
DK	Denmark	39,8	38,6	38,7	39,3	38,6	39,6	39,7	39,8	40,9	40,1	40,5	40,4	40,6	40,5
EE	Estonia			42,8	44,3	42,4	42,3	41,8	41,6	41,8	41,9	41,5	41,5	41,7	41,3
ES	Spain	41,4	41,5	41,5	41,5	41,7	41,7	41,6	41,5	41,4	41,4	42,3	42,3	42,0	41,9
FI	Finland			39,7	40,1	40,5	40,3	40,7	40,6	40,7	40,4	40,8	40,9	40,9	41,1
FR	France	40,0	39,9	39,8	39,7	39,5	38,4	37,7	37,2	38,2	38,1	38,3	38,6	38,5	38,7
GR	Greece	42,9	43,0	43,1	43,4	43,8	43,5	43,8	43,6	43,8	43,4	43,3	43,2	43,1	43,3
HU	Hungary		41,5	42,1	42,0	42,1	42,0	41,3	41,2	41,5	41,3	41,0	41,0	40,9	40,8
IE	Ireland	41,8	42,0	41,8	41,3	41,2	40,9	40,9	40,8	40,6	40,7	40,5		40,7	40,6
IT	Italy	40,2	40,4	40,2	40,3	40,4	40,3	40,3	40,4	40,4	41,0	41,0	41,1	41,1	41,1
LT	Lithuania				43,0		40,7	40,5	41,0	40,7	40,5	40,5	40,6	40,5	40,6
LU	Luxembourg	40,4	40,4	40,3	40,3	40,5	40,6	40,6	40,5	40,4	40,2	40,3	40,3	40,0	40,0
LV	Latvia				43,6	44,2	44,3	44,7	46,4	44,8	44,3	43,8	43,9	43,5	42,5
MT	Malta						41,3	40,7	40,7	40,7	40,4	40,9	40,8	40,7	40,6
NL	Netherlands	39,8	39,8	39,8	39,5	39,6	39,9	40,2	40,1	39,6	39,6	39,5	39,7	39,7	39,6
PL	Poland							43,5	43,9	43,9	43,5	43,8	43,6	43,4	43,0
PT	Portugal	43,6	43,5	43,1	42,5	41,6	41,4	41,4	41,5	41,3	41,3	41,3	41,0	41,1	41,2
RO	Romania			41,3	41,3	41,3	41,9	41,5	42,4	42,5	41,9	42,1	41,8	41,7	41,7
SE	Sweden			39,3	39,4	39,2	39,2	39,4	39,4	39,3	39,2	39,2	39,2	39,1	39,1
SI	Slovenia		41,6	41,6	41,5	41,3	41,5	41,5	41,6	41,5	41,7	41,5	41,6	41,7	41,8
SK	Slovakia				42,6	42,2	42,3	42,0	41,6	40,5	40,7	41,1	41,3	41,2	41,2
UK	United Kingdom	45,8	45,9	45,9	46,0	45,2	45,4	45,2	45,2	45,2	44,9	44,6	44,5	44,7	44,5

Table 7.26: Average usual working hours per week (h.) plant and machine operators and assemblers – full-time

Basis: employees

Classification: ISCO88 (8)

		jünger als 6 Jahre				6 bis 11 Jahre				12 Jahre und älter			
		2005	2006	2007	2008	2005	2006	2007	2008	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27		55,6	56,9	57,7	59,0	66,9	68,1	69,4	70,7	69,1	70,2	71,8	71,9
EU15		57,7	58,6	59,4	60,8	67,2	68,4	69,4	70,6	68,4	69,4	71,0	70,8
AT	Austria	60,9	61,3	62,0	63,5	75,0	76,3	76,0	76,9	78,0	81,1	81,0	82,9
BE	Belgium	66,3	67,3	67,0	68,2	71,4	70,8	72,8	75,0	69,4	69,7	72,2	73,5
BG	Bulgaria	44,8	48,0	51,7	51,4	65,2	68,1	72,9	74,7	73,6	75,9	79,2	80,6
CY	Cyprus	68,4	69,1	71,9	71,4	69,4	73,9	76,9	74,4	69,4	72,0	71,9	74,3
CZ	Czech Republic	35,7	34,7	33,8	33,8	77,7	79,7	80,8	82,6	85,4	86,5	86,4	87,9
DE	Germany	54,6	56,6	58,6	61,7	68,3	70,5	71,1	73,7	75,2	76,3	79,1	76,3
EE	Estonia	46,8	55,1	53,5	53,1	77,5	84,1	86,3	85,3	87,0	88,0	88,2	87,6
ES	Spain	55,2	56,9	58,3	58,1	58,0	60,6	62,5	63,2	56,5	59,8	62,9	62,3
FI	Finland	61,0	61,4	62,4	64,4	84,6	85,1	86,3	88,0	86,8	86,7	87,9	88,5
FR	France	62,3	62,0	63,6	66,2	74,5	74,8	77,5	79,6	75,7	76,0	77,9	76,7
GR	Greece	52,4	53,8	52,9	53,6	58,2	59,3	59,8	60,7	56,2	58,4	59,3	59,8
HU	Hungary	33,2	35,1	32,7	33,6	65,8	67,0	67,7	67,1	76,7	76,0	76,9	76,3
IE	Ireland	:	:	:	57,1	:	:	:	63,3	:	:	:	68,0
IT	Italy	50,9	51,9	52,3	52,8	54,3	56,4	56,5	56,8	53,5	55,1	55,6	56,4
LT	Lithuania	68,6	69,3	69,8	67,1	75,0	78,1	78,2	79,1	79,8	80,1	83,6	83,0
LU	Luxembourg	61,1	61,8	65,9	63,6	65,1	65,7	65,5	68,8	61,8	61,2	61,6	62,6
LV	Latvia	51,5	58,8	61,3	66,2	75,0	75,9	76,0	82,2	80,4	82,4	85,2	83,9
MT	Malta	29,5	34,5	37,9	38,6	32,2	31,3	34,7	39,2	39,2	37,1	39,9	43,7
NL	Netherlands	69,7	71,4	73,2	76,4	72,9	73,8	75,0	78,3	74,2	74,2	77,7	78,8
PL	Poland	49,8	52,4	55,5	57,0	62,0	63,3	67,0	69,3	65,0	66,2	68,8	71,4
PT	Portugal	73,1	73,6	71,7	71,8	74,8	75,4	75,4	76,2	72,3	73,6	74,2	74,5
RO	Romania	56,7	60,1	59,1	58,6	63,7	64,0	65,0	64,7	67,3	68,9	68,2	67,4
SI	Slovenia	35,3	36,2	37,4	39,3	71,0	72,5	73,2	75,1	77,8	78,4	80,8	82,9
SK	Slovakia	76,8	79,3	79,3	78,8	84,6	85,2	84,9	86,5	80,5	80,2	83,3	86,0
UK	United Kingdom	56,3	56,7	56,0	57,6	72,5	71,7	72,8	72,7	77,7	76,8	76,9	79,1

Table 7.27: Employment rate of women according to the age of the youngest child (%)

Basis: total employment

Development of working time in the EU

	Age of the youngest childt	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU	0 - 2	29,59	29,40	30,53	31,59	31,87	31,61	31,68	32,06	32,11
	3 - 5	28,06	27,67	29,38	31,01	31,03	31,21	31,29	31,47	31,49
	6 - 11	28,74	28,48	30,29	31,31	31,21	31,25	31,28	31,40	31,45
	12 - 14	30,43	30,31	31,80	32,48	32,22	31,85	32,01	32,23	32,20
Austria	0 - 2					30,52	29,87	29,99	28,97	29,51
	3 - 5					27,13	26,28	25,21	26,36	26,31
	6 - 11					29,68	29,18	28,44	28,46	28,63
	12 - 14					32,17	31,87	31,97	31,43	30,41
Belgium	0 - 2	30,18	30,89	31,37	31,05	31,22	31,90	31,95	32,05	32,19
	3 - 5	30,78	29,28	29,53	30,71	30,55	30,19	30,17	30,70	30,85
	6 - 11	29,35	29,14	29,96	28,71	29,82	30,14	29,66	30,48	30,09
	12 - 14	29,71	29,78	30,18	29,15	30,34	30,03	29,92	30,66	30,64
Cyprus	0 - 2	37,59	38,62	38,54	38,18	37,93	37,50	38,00	38,59	38,36
	3 - 5	38,18	36,91	37,81	37,38	36,93	37,59	38,19	38,40	38,01
	6 - 11	38,83	38,30	38,13	37,42	37,83	37,42	37,40	37,90	37,85
	12 - 14	38,65	37,98	38,00	38,11	38,82	37,93	37,09	37,79	37,90
Czech Republic	0 - 2			38,56	38,47	38,14	37,26	36,60	36,11	37,03
	3 - 5			38,28	37,82	38,11	37,97	37,70	37,23	37,47
	6 - 11			38,82	38,81	39,02	39,04	38,79	39,03	39,00
	12 - 14			39,36	39,48	39,45	39,57	39,30	39,28	39,43
Germany	0 - 2	29,41	28,90	28,47	28,75	28,78	25,79	27,87	28,42	27,53
	3 - 5	24,05	23,51	23,35	22,78	23,06	22,74	23,35	23,68	23,65
	6 - 11	26,25	25,25	24,47	23,99	23,47	23,26	22,84	23,26	23,43
	12 - 14	29,45	29,01	28,46	27,98	27,20	25,69	25,82	25,32	25,69
Spain	0 - 2	35,75	35,70	35,22	35,02	34,69	33,52	33,66	33,58	33,37
	3 - 5	35,20	34,51	34,78	34,24	34,08	33,31	33,91	32,99	33,29
	6 - 11	34,83	34,56	34,84	34,95	34,81	33,98	33,84	33,77	33,55
	12 - 14	35,39	35,00	34,96	34,59	34,52	33,57	33,34	34,12	33,18
Finland	0 - 2				34,58	34,02	34,30	35,09	34,82	34,79
	3 - 5				35,22	36,62	35,30	34,48	34,76	35,68
	6 - 11				35,70	35,44	35,86	35,90	35,63	36,13
	12 - 14				35,98	35,76	35,25	35,96	35,82	36,03
France	0 - 2				32,98	32,94	33,38	32,50	33,48	33,32
	3 - 5				32,79	32,21	32,73	32,35	33,69	33,03
	6 - 11				32,26	32,03	32,70	33,15	33,23	33,07
	12 - 14				32,70	32,84	32,81	33,86	33,73	33,47
Greece	0 - 2	36,72	36,88	36,65	36,63	37,24	36,87	36,80	36,75	36,90
	3 - 5	37,61	37,17	36,71	37,58	36,85	37,23	36,53	36,79	36,87
	6 - 11	37,94	38,30	37,68	37,51	37,44	37,18	36,94	36,75	36,45
	12 - 14	38,01	38,24	38,82	37,87	37,86	38,27	37,58	37,11	36,70
Hungary	0 - 2	39,22		38,27	37,64	38,34	37,86	38,42	37,75	37,67
	3 - 5	39,09	38,83	38,94	38,31	38,67	38,47	38,97	38,75	38,84
	6 - 11	39,23	39,39	39,21	38,93	38,86	38,63	38,71	38,94	39,13
	12 - 14	39,72	39,90	39,78	39,90	39,52	39,34	39,18	39,19	39,47

Table 7.28:

	Age of the youngest child	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Ireland	0 - 2					31,48	31,52	31,93	31,17	30,59
	3 - 5									28,18
	6 - 11									26,91
	12 - 14									28,55
Italy	0 - 2					32,03	31,72	31,52	31,71	31,78
	3 - 5					30,66	30,59	30,05	30,70	30,80
	6 - 11					31,31	30,83	31,00	30,70	30,38
	12 - 14					32,04	32,05	31,75	31,83	31,38
Lithuania	0 - 2			36,77	36,22					38,62
	3 - 5			36,40	36,79					38,51
	6 - 11			37,05	36,87	36,77	37,12			38,54
	12 - 14			37,71	36,94					38,77
Luxembourg	0 - 2	31,63	32,28	31,62	31,37	31,70	32,42	32,69	33,37	32,20
	3 - 5	30,58	28,26	30,19	27,22	29,50	29,24	29,11	28,58	29,33
	6 - 11	31,01	29,24	30,24	29,79	28,01	28,17	28,82	28,83	27,94
	12 - 14	30,55	29,46	32,21	30,07	30,74	28,61	29,08	29,89	29,83
Latvia	0 - 2				37,62	36,29				38,47
	3 - 5			41,35	40,26	42,14				39,16
	6 - 11			41,02	40,78	38,60	39,35			39,26
	12 - 14			41,22	41,22	40,64				40,27
Netherlands	0 - 2	21,26	21,23	20,99	21,54	21,95	22,52	23,12	23,41	24,15
	3 - 5	19,10	19,30	18,89	19,63	19,43	20,22	20,64	20,97	22,14
	6 - 11	18,84	19,33	19,49	19,62	19,72	19,81	20,21	20,39	20,80
	12 - 14	19,18	19,50	19,51	19,51	19,18	19,11	19,46	19,41	19,95
Poland	0 - 2				37,37	36,65	37,43	37,34	37,46	37,56
	3 - 5				38,04	37,62	38,14	38,41	38,05	38,01
	6 - 11				37,98	37,83	37,66	37,58	38,03	38,29
	12 - 14				37,83	37,65	37,99	38,13	38,24	38,56
Portugal	0 - 2	37,91	38,82	38,07	37,83	37,95	37,89	38,21	38,18	38,10
	3 - 5	37,76	38,46	38,57	38,17	38,24	37,85	38,22	38,09	38,24
	6 - 11	38,17	38,30	38,01	37,87	37,49	37,75	38,10	37,68	37,59
	12 - 14	38,08	37,91	37,53	37,43	37,16	37,64	37,34	37,19	37,40
Slovenia	0 - 2				39,98					38,59
	3 - 5				39,65					39,54
	6 - 11				40,31					39,75
	12 - 14				39,98					39,52
Slovakia	0 - 2				39,32	39,30	40,20	39,42	38,39	38,30
	3 - 5				39,54	39,29	39,32	39,53	39,12	39,17
	6 - 11				39,27	38,84	39,31	39,57	39,33	39,15
	12 - 14				39,08	39,27	39,58	39,86	39,66	39,20
United Kingdom	0 - 2	26,93	26,52	26,73	26,52	27,20	27,14	27,24	27,71	28,87
	3 - 5	25,44	25,32	25,16	26,32	25,25	26,18	26,41	26,08	26,51
	6 - 11	26,82	27,18	27,21	27,00	26,61	27,30	27,27	27,49	28,48
	12 - 14	28,67	29,09	28,65	28,82	28,04	28,24	28,57	29,00	29,43

Table 7.28: Average usual working hours of women according to the age of the youngest child in the household (h.)
Basis: employees

Development of working time in the EU

	Age of the youngest child	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU	0 - 2	41,62	41,46	41,20	40,91	40,88	41,15	40,99	41,04	40,98
	3 - 5	41,60	41,32	41,22	40,97	41,09	41,01	41,09	41,13	41,06
	6 - 11	40,93	40,89	40,82	40,62	40,67	40,72	40,89	40,63	40,65
	12 - 14	39,78	39,56	39,84	39,84	39,85	39,98	39,88	40,08	40,03
Austria	0 - 2					43,09	42,75	42,72	42,09	41,75
	3 - 5					43,34	42,90	42,92	42,86	42,02
	6 - 11					42,68	42,20	42,47	42,49	42,64
	12 - 14					43,22	42,35	42,23	42,04	41,90
Belgium	0 - 2	39,04	39,28	39,60	38,70	39,31	39,00	38,66	38,88	38,83
	3 - 5	38,98	39,21	39,02	39,62	38,70	39,16	38,99	39,14	39,04
	6 - 11	38,42	38,99	39,29	39,37	39,78	38,80	39,07	39,39	39,32
	12 - 14	38,44	39,12	38,10	39,33	38,90	38,81	38,86	39,07	38,68
Cyprus	0 - 2	41,17	40,71	40,56	40,45	40,25	40,57	40,48	40,34	41,43
	3 - 5	41,58	40,11	40,67	41,38	40,98	40,47	40,22	41,18	41,36
	6 - 11	40,70	40,03	40,19	40,05	40,46	40,10	39,78	39,86	40,68
	12 - 14	39,96	39,97	39,91	38,99	40,15	39,81	40,22	40,43	40,64
Czech Republic	0 - 2			42,09	42,54	42,16	42,33	42,55	42,60	42,17
	3 - 5			41,95	42,38	42,90	42,26	42,23	42,57	42,60
	6 - 11			42,09	42,52	42,08	42,00	41,95	42,08	42,14
	12 - 14			41,65	42,10	41,94	42,04	41,84	42,05	41,63
Germany	0 - 2	40,14	39,85	39,58	39,29	39,22	39,44	39,49	39,68	39,73
	3 - 5	40,08	39,79	39,79	39,17	39,34	39,64	39,75	40,12	40,19
	6 - 11	39,95	39,64	39,38	38,98	39,29	39,47	39,86	39,27	39,47
	12 - 14	39,66	39,38	39,27	38,93	38,95	39,09	38,62	38,65	38,73
Spain	0 - 2	41,29	41,21	41,01	40,97	41,26	41,90	41,99	42,34	41,67
	3 - 5	41,02	41,22	40,71	41,10	41,09	41,64	42,16	41,82	41,39
	6 - 11	40,85	40,97	40,90	40,77	40,93	41,28	41,86	41,82	41,06
	12 - 14	40,56	40,71	40,44	40,19	40,36	40,80	40,35	41,13	40,20
Finland	0 - 2				39,40	39,37	39,57	39,39	39,38	39,59
	3 - 5				39,55	39,53	39,35	39,28	39,31	39,51
	6 - 11				39,31	39,00	39,60	39,28	39,17	39,11
	12 - 14				38,45	38,82	39,03	38,49	38,53	38,74
France	0 - 2				39,40	39,27	39,70	39,44	39,22	39,82
	3 - 5				39,20	39,50	39,73	39,81	40,30	39,91
	6 - 11				39,21	39,60	39,62	40,12	39,68	40,00
	12 - 14				38,48	39,27	39,50	39,50	39,70	39,93
Greece	0 - 2	42,25	42,21	42,33	41,74	42,14	41,73	41,74	41,54	42,06
	3 - 5	41,47	41,72	42,08	42,46	41,47	41,51	41,53	41,55	41,71
	6 - 11	41,61	41,64	41,41	41,22	41,35	41,35	41,25	40,72	40,91
	12 - 14	41,08	41,72	41,67	41,40	40,93	41,16	40,71	40,68	40,63
Hungary	0 - 2				41,55	41,42				
	3 - 5									
	6 - 11	42,19		41,18	41,52	41,42	40,94	40,95	40,81	
	12 - 14									
Ireland	0 - 2					39,16	39,10	39,04	38,78	39,82
	3 - 5									39,99
	6 - 11									39,21
	12 - 14									37,78
Italy	0 - 2					40,66	40,63	40,67	40,66	40,44
	3 - 5					40,77	40,41	40,37	40,32	40,35
	6 - 11					40,11	40,07	40,13	40,04	39,96
	12 - 14					39,93	39,76	40,26	39,97	39,80

Table 7.29:

	Age of the youngest child	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Netherlands	0 - 2	37,54	37,86	37,87	37,68	37,34	37,46	37,40	37,60	37,54
	3 - 5	37,55	37,55	37,18	37,43	37,20	37,04	37,26	37,28	37,12
	6 - 11	35,62	35,55	35,27	34,81	35,03	35,10	35,30	34,84	35,60
	12 - 14	32,08	31,37	31,40	31,44	31,32	31,05	31,41	31,49	31,16
Poland	0 - 2				43,19	43,16	43,42	43,21	43,11	42,72
	3 - 5				43,27	43,33	43,43	42,82	43,04	43,03
	6 - 11				43,16	42,45	42,85	42,72	42,75	42,43
	12 - 14				42,15	42,40	42,19	42,04	42,10	42,40
Portugal	0 - 2	41,25	41,45	41,48	40,96	41,15	41,53	41,20	41,22	41,38
	3 - 5	40,91	40,98	40,92	41,00	41,34	41,00	41,21	40,99	41,19
	6 - 11	41,74	40,98	41,01	40,79	41,17	41,16	40,81	41,01	40,89
	12 - 14	40,88	40,51	40,84	40,97	39,86	40,47	40,84	40,42	40,16
Slovakia	0 - 2				40,87	41,24	41,52	41,33	41,53	40,89
	3 - 5				40,84	40,87	41,12	41,53	41,84	41,65
	6 - 11				40,77	41,08	41,22	41,47	41,34	41,34
	12 - 14				40,41	40,31	41,01	41,28	41,34	40,45
United Kingdom	0 - 2	45,09	44,98	44,20	44,16	43,53	43,86	43,12	43,18	42,98
	3 - 5	45,50	44,75	44,41	43,84	44,27	43,26	43,48	43,00	43,32
	6 - 11	44,02	44,34	43,64	43,13	43,12	42,95	42,78	42,32	42,86
	12 - 14	41,44	41,05	40,79	41,56	40,29	40,65	40,57	41,17	41,83

Table 7.29: Average usual working hours of men according to the age of the youngest child in the household (h.)

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							72,5	74,4	73,3	73,5	74,8	74,3	75,2	75,3	76,3
EU15		76,0	75,5	75,2	73,3	72,8	72,4	74,4	73,0	73,6	75,1	74,6	75,6	75,6	76,6
AT	Austria	78,9	78,2	78,2	77,4	74,8	76,1	75,3	78,6	78,3	76,3	78,4	79,1	78,9	79,5
BE	Belgium	80,3	80,2	79,9	78,1	80,9	78,2	79,0	77,9	77,5	77,6	80,0	80,0	80,0	80,6
BG	Bulgaria										73,4	:	70,3	71,0	77,6
CY	Cyprus					76,1	78,0	80,5	81,1	80,7	80,2	80,9	80,7	82,1	82,1
CZ	Czech Republic								73,6	69,7	69,9	70,0	71,4	74,8	75,6
DE	Germany	81,7	80,8	80,7								76,1	75,1	74,6	74,3
DK	Denmark	67,2	67,1	65,8	67,3	67,6	66,7	69,7	69,7	66,4	68,5	67,5	66,9	71,3	70,6
EE	Estonia			68,8	68,6	68,8	70,6	72,3	72,9	72,1	73,2	74,7	74,4	76,5	76,9
ES	Spain	83,9	84,3	84,0	84,7			84,6			83,9	:	85,7	85,4	84,8
FI	Finland	70,9	71,8	76,4	75,9	76,0	76,8	77,2	77,3	78,2	77,8	78,0	77,3	77,8	77,0
FR	France	75,6	75,7	75,2	74,8	74,6	74,4	74,9	74,9	74,2	73,2	73,4	73,0	72,7	71,1
GR	Greece	76,8	76,4	76,6	75,7	75,6	75,7	75,6	76,1	76,3	75,5	76,4	77,6	77,4	77,4
HU	Hungary			73,0	72,7	77,1	75,2	75,8	76,1	77,8	77,0	77,0	78,1	78,4	78,5
IE	Ireland	72,3	72,2	72,2				71,1	71,1	72,1	74,3	71,9	72,1	:	70,6
IT	Italy	82,1	81,8	81,4	81,6	81,0	81,6	82,6	82,2	82,2	83,0	82,8	83,1	82,9	82,6
LT	Lithuania						70,0	73,2	73,2	73,2	75,6	73,5	73,8	73,8	72,9
LU	Luxembourg	80,4	80,9	80,9	80,8			77,9	76,6	78,2	81,3	82,7	83,4	84,5	83,7
LV	Latvia								66,6	65,4	69,8	71,1	75,8	76,2	75,9
MT	Malta						76,0	69,3	71,6	71,4	70,3	70,6	71,7	71,1	71,6
NL	Netherlands	79,6	79,6	78,2	77,0	76,7							73,8	73,1	72,7
PL	Poland							73,6	73,5	71,8	71,9	72,1	71,9	72,1	74,3
PT	Portugal	87,9	86,9	86,9	90,8	90,3	90,4	81,7	81,3	80,7	80,8	79,5	79,2	78,5	77,7
RO	Romania								76,6	77,1	79,3	77,2	79,5	78,4	78,6
SE	Sweden	68,3	67,7	67,2	66,9	65,6	66,2	66,4	66,9	81,2	81,5	76,3	74,3	74,1	73,1
SI	Slovenia		76,2	74,6	75,8	74,9	74,7	76,0	75,3	74,7	74,5	72,5	72,5	72,7	72,2
SK	Slovakia							74,5	71,8	69,1	68,1	65,7	65,1	65,9	66,9
UK	United Kingdom	59,0	57,9	57,4	57,3	60,7	60,3	61,6	62,4	62,7	63,0	65,1	65,3	65,6	:

Table 7.30: Employees, Sunday work: never
Basis: age group 15-64 years

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							17,6	16,2	17,1	16,4	13,9	14,4	13,3	13,2	12,0
EU15		14,5	14,8	15,0	16,7	17,0	17,7	15,6	17,2	16,0	13,1	13,6	12,4	12,3	11,0
AT	Austria	11,2	11,5	11,5	11,3	14,1	12,3	12,5	10,8	10,8	9,0	8,0	7,9	7,9	7,6
BE	Belgium	13,9	13,6	14,2	15,5	17,0	15,4	14,2	15,8	15,8	15,4	12,4	12,2	11,9	11,1
BG	Bulgaria										16,4	:	20,9	21,4	14,0
CY	Cyprus					15,2	16,3	14,6	14,2	14,2	14,8	15,3	14,5	12,6	12,2
CZ	Czech Republic								21,7	24,1	22,5	22,1	16,6	11,3	10,4
DE	Germany	9,1	9,7	9,8								11,9	12,5	12,4	13,0
DK	Denmark	14,8	15,9	16,1	14,7	15,3	15,8	13,9	15,4	17,4	13,8	15,8	15,9	15,2	15,4
EE	Estonia			11,0	13,2	13,2	11,2	13,1	12,2	10,0	11,7	12,2	12,7	12,5	12,4
ES	Spain	3,6	3,6	3,6	3,5			4,1			3,8		3,2	3,6	3,5
FI	Finland	13,0	12,7	9,5	10,2	10,2	9,6	8,8	8,9	8,3	7,9	8,5	8,8	8,3	9,2
FR	France	18,9	19,0	19,1	19,5	19,6	18,9	18,2	17,7	15,5	15,7	14,9	15,1	15,2	15,9
GR	Greece	16,3	16,8	16,6	16,9	16,4	17,0	16,8	16,3	16,8	17,6	16,8	16,7	16,8	16,9
HU	Hungary			18,4	18,4	15,5	16,5	15,8	16,1	15,2	16,2	15,7	15,1	15,1	15,4
IE	Ireland	17,5	17,1	17,4				19,1	18,6	18,5	17,5	18,0	17,5		18,1
IT	Italy	11,5	11,9	12,0	11,7	12,2	11,6	10,9	11,1	11,0	5,0	5,2	5,3	5,5	5,2
LT	Lithuania						26,0	23,5	21,7	21,7	19,1	20,6	20,6	20,4	19,1
LU	Luxembourg	14,1	13,5	13,9	13,7			16,6	17,0	15,1	10,9	6,6	5,7	3,8	5,3
LV	Latvia								16,1	15,8	17,2	16,1	12,2	11,2	13,3
MT	Malta							14,2	13,9	13,4	12,7	12,6	12,3	13,8	13,4
NL	Netherlands	7,5	7,5	8,2	9,2	9,7							9,6	10,5	11,2
PL	Poland							21,8	20,4	21,1	20,9	21,3	22,3	22,8	21,1
PT	Portugal	1,7	1,8	2,1				9,6	10,0	10,4	10,7	10,9	11,3	11,6	11,1
RO	Romania								10,1	10,8	7,5	10,1	9,3	10,3	10,9
SE	Sweden	16,4	16,2	17,4	17,1	17,3	16,7	16,2	16,3	7,8	7,6	14,0	15,1	15,0	15,2
SI	Slovenia		14,3	15,5	15,3	16,3	14,9	14,8	16,0	16,7	13,7	17,4	17,6	16,6	17,2
SK	Slovakia							11,8	12,3	13,8	14,2	13,8	12,9	12,6	11,6
UK	United Kingdom	29,3	29,8	30,0	30,2	24,4	26,2	25,5	24,7	23,9	23,8	22,5	22,1	21,8	

Table 7.31, Table 7.32: Employees, Sunday work: occasionally
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							9,8	9,4	9,5	10,1	11,3	11,3	11,5	11,6	11,6
EU15		9,5	9,7	9,9	10,0	10,2	9,9	10,0	9,8	10,4	11,8	11,8	12,0	12,2	12,4
AT	Austria	9,9	10,3	10,3	11,3	11,1	11,6	12,3	10,6	10,9	14,6	13,6	13,0	13,2	12,9
BE	Belgium	5,9	6,3	6,0	6,5	2,1	6,4	6,8	6,3	6,6	6,9	7,6	7,8	8,2	8,2
BG	Bulgaria										10,2	:	8,8	7,6	8,4
CY	Cyprus					8,7	5,7	4,9	4,7	5,1	5,0	3,8	4,8	5,2	5,7
CZ	Czech Republic								4,7	6,2	7,6	8,0	12,1	13,9	14,0
DE	Germany	9,2	9,5	9,5								12,0	12,4	13,0	12,8
DK	Denmark	17,9	17,0	18,1	18,1	17,1	17,5	16,5	14,9	16,2	17,7	16,7	17,2	13,5	14,1
EE	Estonia			20,1	18,2	18,0	18,2	14,6	14,9	17,9	15,1	13,2	12,9	11,0	10,7
ES	Spain	12,5	12,2	12,4	11,8			11,4			12,4		11,0	11,0	11,7
FI	Finland	16,2	15,5	14,1	13,9	13,8	13,6	13,9	13,8	13,5	14,3	13,5	13,9	14,0	13,9
FR	France	5,5	5,3	5,6	5,7	5,8	6,7	6,9	7,4	10,3	11,1	11,7	11,8	12,1	13,0
GR	Greece	6,9	6,8	6,8	7,3	8,0	7,4	7,7	7,6	6,8	6,9	6,8	5,7	5,7	5,8
HU	Hungary			8,6	8,9	7,4	8,3	8,3	7,8	7,0	6,8	7,2	6,8	6,5	6,1
IE	Ireland	10,2	10,6	10,4				9,7	10,3	9,4	8,2	10,1	10,4		11,3
IT	Italy	6,4	6,3	6,6	6,6	6,8	6,7	6,5	6,8	6,8	12,0	12,0	11,6	11,6	12,2
LT	Lithuania						4,0	3,4	5,0	5,1	5,3	5,9	5,5	5,8	8,0
LU	Luxembourg	5,5	5,6	5,3	5,6			5,5	6,4	6,7	7,8	10,7	10,9	11,7	10,9
LV	Latvia								17,3	18,8	13,0	12,8	12,1	12,5	10,7
MT	Malta						24,0	16,5	14,5	15,2	17,0	16,8	16,0	15,1	14,9
NL	Netherlands	12,8	13,0	13,5	13,8	13,6							16,6	16,4	16,1
PL	Poland							4,6	6,2	7,0	7,2	6,7	5,8	5,1	4,5
PT	Portugal	10,4	11,3	11,0	9,2	9,7	9,6	8,7	8,9	8,5	9,6	9,5	9,9	9,9	11,3
RO	Romania								13,4	12,1	13,2	12,7	11,2	11,3	10,5
SE	Sweden	15,3	16,1	15,4	16,0	17,1	17,2	17,5	16,8	11,0	10,9	9,8	10,6	10,9	11,7
SI	Slovenia		9,5	9,8	8,9	8,8	10,4	9,2	8,7	8,6	11,9	10,1	9,9	10,7	10,5
SK	Slovakia							13,6	15,9	17,1	17,7	20,6	22,0	21,5	21,5
UK	United Kingdom	11,7	12,3	12,6	12,5	14,9	13,6	12,9	13,0	13,4	13,1	12,5	12,6	12,6	

Table 7.33, Table 7.34: Employees, Sunday work: usually
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							52,3	52,9	52,4	52,6	55,7	55,0	56,5	56,3	57,7
EU15		55,1	55,1	55,0	52,5	52,2	51,9	54,1	52,7	53,0	56,4	55,7	57,4	57,3	58,5
AT	Austria	59,2	59,2	58,5	57,1	54,5	54,4	54,3	58,4	57,6	57,9	60,4	61,4	60,2	61,2
BE	Belgium	68,4	69,1	68,6	65,5	70,2	68,1	68,7	67,7	67,5	67,4	68,7	68,6	68,6	69,7
BG	Bulgaria										52,9	:	49,2	48,8	56,9
CY	Cyprus					57,2	59,1	62,0	59,4	60,2	57,9	58,9	60,0	62,1	60,5
CZ	Czech Republic								59,7	56,4	57,3	57,1	59,2	63,4	64,4
DE	Germany	64,5	64,0	63,6								57,3	55,4	54,5	55,2
DK	Denmark	56,6	56,9	56,9	57,9	59,0	57,7	60,6	62,1	58,2	60,8	60,7	60,5	63,9	63,6
EE	Estonia	:	:	55,4	55,6	57,3	58,8	59,0	60,3	57,8	60,4	63,3	62,1	64,1	65,7
ES	Spain	63,4	64,4	65,0	66,1			66,2			66,9		72,0	71,9	71,5
FI	Finland	60,9	61,1	66,0	66,2	67,2	67,6	68,0	68,6	69,7	69,6	69,5	68,4	70,1	68,9
FR	France	51,1	51,8	51,8	52,0	51,8	52,3	53,5	53,7	51,4	50,9	51,6	51,4	50,7	49,9
GR	Greece	57,8	55,6	56,0	53,0	52,0	51,6	51,2	52,3	52,1	53,1	52,2	53,7	53,8	52,7
HU	Hungary			51,0	51,2	61,2	61,2	62,8	63,0	66,8	66,1	66,3	67,3	67,3	69,1
IE	Ireland	48,1	49,0	48,3				46,4	50,2	50,7	55,2	52,7	52,0		52,8
IT	Italy	43,9	44,6	44,9	45,8	46,4	49,2	51,4	51,1	51,2	57,2	57,7	58,2	58,2	58,5
LT	Lithuania						50,7	54,1	56,3	56,1	60,0	57,8	58,6	58,9	57,7
LU	Luxembourg	63,1	61,3	61,3	61,5			57,1	57,6	66,7	71,4	73,5	75,4	77,4	74,3
LV	Latvia								49,1	47,2	50,3	52,8	56,4	61,6	63,1
MT	Malta						60,9	50,6	49,1	52,1	53,7	50,9	53,7	52,7	53,6
NL	Netherlands	64,2	64,0	62,5	60,5	61,7							59,8	59,3	58,7
PL	Poland							37,3	41,4	41,5	43,1	42,6	41,3	41,2	44,4
PT	Portugal	75,9	74,2	73,4	80,2	80,3	79,8	59,8	58,2	59,3	60,1	59,6	59,4	58,8	57,6
RO	Romania								54,1	54,3	60,8	56,1	60,6	58,1	58,5
SE	Sweden	63,6	63,9	63,2	62,7	62,5	63,0	63,5	64,2	79,4	79,7	74,8	72,4	72,0	70,9
SI	Slovenia		45,0	42,7	43,1	44,3	45,7	45,2	44,2	45,5	45,3	42,8	42,6	43,2	43,0
SK	Slovakia							60,3	59,1	56,1	55,1	51,6	49,9	49,9	51,3
UK	United Kingdom	38,4	37,8	37,8	38,3	41,9	41,7	43,1	44,2	45,1	45,9	47,8	48,4	48,8	

Table 7.35: Employees, Saturday work: never
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							25,2	25,6	26,6	25,6	21,0	22,3	20,7	20,6	19,1
EU15		22,2	22,2	22,4	23,8	24,3	24,9	22,7	24,8	23,5	18,4	20,2	18,4	18,3	16,4
AT	Austria	20,4	20,3	21,4	21,6	23,4	22,7	23,2	21,2	22,1	13,8	13,1	13,0	13,5	12,9
BE	Belgium	20,4	19,6	20,2	22,5	24,8	20,4	19,0	20,3	20,8	20,1	17,5	17,2	16,5	15,7
BG	Bulgaria										27,0	:	31,8	32,6	20,8
CY	Cyprus					19,2	20,9	18,6	17,1	18,8	20,4	18,8	18,2	15,6	14,8
CZ	Czech Republic								34,2	35,9	33,3	33,2	24,1	16,7	15,5
DE	Germany	16,9	17,1	17,5								20,0	20,9	21,3	20,6
DK	Denmark	19,1	19,8	19,5	18,0	18,9	19,3	17,5	18,0	20,9	15,8	18,1	17,9	17,9	17,6
EE	Estonia	:	:	15,1	17,4	17,5	15,4	20,0	17,7	17,5	17,8	18,2	19,5	19,1	18,4
ES	Spain	5,8	5,6	5,6	5,2			6,0			5,2		4,8	5,3	5,2
FI	Finland	16,2	16,4	14,2	13,2	13,3	12,7	12,6	12,0	11,5	10,9	11,5	12,3	10,3	12,1
FR	France	29,6	29,2	29,1	29,0	28,8	27,3	26,3	25,4	22,7	22,8	21,3	21,4	21,5	22,3
GR	Greece	21,1	22,5	21,7	22,6	22,6	23,7	23,3	21,8	23,5	23,7	23,2	23,2	22,7	22,7
HU	Hungary			33,5	33,0	26,8	26,4	25,2	25,0	22,9	23,9	23,1	22,6	22,7	21,7
IE	Ireland	30,9	30,2	30,5				34,4	30,9	32,2	29,8	29,6	30,5		29,3
IT	Italy	21,0	21,1	21,8	21,7	22,0	20,9	19,1	19,4	19,6	8,3	8,9	9,3	9,4	8,7
LT	Lithuania						41,9	39,5	35,3	34,3	31,6	33,3	32,9	32,5	30,3
LU	Luxembourg	21,5	22,4	22,6	23,1			28,1	27,7	21,1	13,7	8,4	7,2	5,0	8,0
LV	Latvia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	24,0	23,3	25,6	25,9	19,2	15,5	17,4
MT	Malta	:	:	:	:	:	:	20,2	26,1	22,3	18,0	19,7	19,1	21,0	20,8
NL	Netherlands	12,9	13,1	13,5	15,1	14,9							13,8	14,4	15,4
PL	Poland							51,4	45,3	43,4	41,2	41,7	44,5	45,6	43,8
PT	Portugal	3,7	4,1	5,2				22,3	23,6	22,3	22,0	22,2	22,5	22,9	22,0
RO	Romania								16,5	18,0	12,6	16,8	16,3	17,8	18,9
SE	Sweden	19,3	18,5	19,8	19,7	19,2	18,6	17,8	17,6	8,3	8,1	14,4	15,7	15,7	15,9
SI	Slovenia		36,0	37,8	36,9	38,3	34,1	35,9	38,1	37,4	33,1	37,8	38,4	37,1	37,8
SK	Slovakia							22,3	21,2	23,3	23,5	23,1	23,0	23,3	22,6
UK	United Kingdom	38,1	38,6	38,4	38,5	31,4	33,8	33,6	32,9	31,9	31,5	30,6	30,1	29,9	

Table 7.36: Employees, Saturday work: occasionally
Basis: age group 15-64 years

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27															
EU15		22,7	22,7	22,6	23,7	23,5	22,6	21,5	21,0	21,8	23,4	22,7	22,9	23,0	23,2
AT	Austria	20,4	20,5	20,0	21,3	22,1	22,9	22,5	20,3	20,3	28,3	26,6	25,5	26,3	25,8
BE	Belgium	11,1	11,2	11,1	12,0	5,0	11,6	12,3	12,0	11,6	12,5	13,8	14,2	14,9	14,6
BG	Bulgaria										20,1		19,0	18,6	22,3
CY	Cyprus					23,5	20,0	19,5	23,5	21,1	21,7	22,3	21,9	22,3	24,8
CZ	Czech Republic								6,1	7,7	9,4	9,7	16,7	19,9	20,1
DE	Germany	18,6	18,9	18,9								22,7	23,7	24,2	24,2
DK	Denmark	24,4	23,3	23,6	24,1	22,2	22,9	21,9	19,9	21,0	23,4	21,3	21,6	18,2	18,8
EE	Estonia			29,4	27,0	25,2	25,8	21,0	21,9	24,7	21,8	18,5	18,4	16,8	15,9
ES	Spain	30,9	30,0	29,4	28,7			27,8			28,0		23,2	22,8	23,3
FI	Finland	22,9	22,5	19,8	20,5	19,5	19,7	19,4	19,4	18,8	19,6	19,0	19,4	19,6	19,0
FR	France	19,3	19,0	19,1	19,0	19,4	20,4	20,2	20,9	25,9	26,3	27,1	27,2	27,7	27,8
GR	Greece	21,2	21,9	22,3	24,3	25,3	24,7	25,4	26,0	24,4	23,2	24,6	23,1	23,5	24,6
HU	Hungary			15,5	15,9	12,0	12,4	11,9	12,0	10,3	10,0	10,6	10,1	10,1	9,3
IE	Ireland	20,9	20,9	21,2				19,2	18,9	17,1	15,1	17,7	17,5		18,0
IT	Italy	35,0	34,2	33,4	32,5	31,6	29,9	29,5	29,4	29,3	34,5	33,4	32,5	32,4	32,8
LT	Lithuania						7,4	6,4	8,4	9,5	8,4	8,9	8,5	8,6	12,0
LU	Luxembourg	15,4	16,3	16,1	15,4			14,8	14,7	12,3	14,9	18,1	17,4	17,6	17,6
LV	Latvia								27,0	29,5	24,1	21,3	24,4	22,9	19,5
MT	Malta						39,1	29,2	24,8	25,7	28,3	29,4	27,1	26,3	25,6
NL	Netherlands	22,9	22,9	24,0	24,4	23,4							26,4	26,3	26,0
PL	Poland							11,3	13,3	15,1	15,8	15,7	14,2	13,2	11,7
PT	Portugal	20,3	21,7	21,4	19,8	19,7	20,2	17,9	18,2	18,5	17,9	18,2	18,0	18,2	20,4
RO	Romania								29,4	27,7	26,6	27,1	23,1	24,1	22,6
SE	Sweden	17,1	17,6	17,0	17,6	18,4	18,3	18,7	18,3	12,2	12,3	10,8	12,0	12,3	13,3
SI	Slovenia		19,0	19,5	20,0	17,5	20,2	18,9	17,7	17,1	21,7	19,3	19,0	19,7	19,2
SK	Slovakia							17,4	19,8	20,5	21,4	25,2	27,1	26,8	26,1
UK	United Kingdom	23,5	23,6	23,8	23,3	26,7	24,5	23,3	23,0	23,1	22,6	21,5	21,5	21,3	

Table 7.37: Employees, Saturday work: usually
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							63,6	64,7	64,0	63,8	66,1	63,7	64,0	63,7	65,6
EU15		67,3	66,9	66,3	64,3	64,5	63,2	64,8	63,3	63,4	66,3	63,5	64,0	63,5	65,6
AT	Austria	74,8	74,0	73,4	72,3	71,0	70,3	68,3	73,2	73,6	65,0	67,0	69,7	68,9	69,2
BE	Belgium	72,4	72,5	72,1	69,7	70,4	67,9	68,7	68,7	67,9	67,4	69,4	69,5	69,6	71,2
BG	Bulgaria										63,2		61,1	61,8	66,1
CY	Cyprus					78,3	79,5	81,1	82,5	82,5	82,7	84,3	84,3	85,7	84,9
CZ	Czech Republic								59,2	56,4	56,7	56,3	61,6	66,7	67,2
DE	Germany	73,2	72,1	71,2								59,5	57,5	55,9	56,2
DK	Denmark	62,7	63,4	63,9	65,7	62,9	56,1	59,9	59,5	56,9	60,3	58,9	58,3	58,5	56,4
EE	Estonia			62,4	63,2	64,0	60,3	64,2	65,1	64,4	62,8	66,0	60,9	64,0	64,3
ES	Spain							78,6			79,3		72,0	72,6	72,3
FI	Finland	49,8	53,6	53,3	51,2	54,0	53,2	53,4	53,9	55,1	54,1	54,3	53,7	55,2	56,2
FR	France	69,7	70,2	69,2	69,1	68,5	67,5	68,6	68,9	68,0	67,9	68,2	67,6	67,3	66,6
GR	Greece	56,5	53,5	54,4	52,9	52,1	52,6	52,0	53,9	52,5	54,8	54,0	53,6	53,9	53,6
HU	Hungary			63,8	63,5	71,9	72,4	73,4	73,9	77,4	76,8	77,5	78,8	79,0	79,8
IE	Ireland	70,0	70,3	71,6				73,1	75,1	72,6	71,6	70,8	70,6		70,8
IT	Italy	74,6	73,8	73,7	73,7	73,5	74,5	76,0	75,9	75,7	78,9	79,9	80,9	80,4	80,4
LT	Lithuania							67,8	67,0	66,7	67,2	67,7	68,1	68,3	67,6
LU	Luxembourg	77,4	76,6	77,3	78,0			75,1	70,6	81,7	81,8	80,0	82,5	85,6	83,4
LV	Latvia								57,9	56,7	59,9	62,2	62,5	67,3	68,1
MT	Malta						75,3	75,2	75,6	75,0	74,3	69,5	70,4	72,7	74,3
NL	Netherlands	75,3	77,0	76,2	75,1	75,4							59,4	58,2	57,6
PL	Poland							57,8	59,8	59,0	58,6	58,7	57,6	57,5	59,5
PT	Portugal	99,2	99,1	98,8	100,0	100,0	100,0								
RO	Romania								71,8	72,3	74,9	70,3	70,3	68,7	68,6
SE	Sweden	61,1	61,8	61,3	60,2	59,9	59,9	59,9	59,9	67,4	67,4	71,8	71,2	70,3	69,9
SI	Slovenia		68,6	67,5	65,3	65,7	66,6	64,7	63,8	62,7	65,8	59,7	58,5	57,9	57,8
SK	Slovakia							78,0	77,3	70,8	68,2	66,1	64,8	64,7	64,1
UK	United Kingdom	46,6	45,7	45,6	46,1	47,0	47,1	48,0	49,3	49,2	49,9	51,8	52,1	52,2	

Table 7.38: Employees, evening work: never
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27		:	:	:	:	:	19,7	20,0	20,1	19,7	17,4	17,8	17,2	17,5	16,8
EU15		19,9	19,5	19,8	22,6	19,0	20,0	18,9	19,3	18,6	16,0	16,6	15,9	16,2	15,1
AT	Austria	12,8	13,5	13,9	14,1	14,3	15,2	15,8	13,2	13,1	19,7	20,0	18,2	19,0	18,8
BE	Belgium	18,0	16,9	17,9	20,4	26,1	21,7	19,6	21,1	21,0	21,2	18,9	18,5	18,3	17,8
BG	Bulgaria	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	19,2	:	22,3	23,6	20,8
CY	Cyprus	:	:	:	:	14,6	16,3	14,9	13,2	13,3	13,6	12,8	12,3	11,3	11,6
CZ	Czech Republic	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	32,7	33,9	31,8	31,3	25,7	21,4	21,3
DE	Germany	13,3	12,2	12,3	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	17,0	17,7	18,7	18,0
DK	Denmark	18,2	18,1	17,2	15,6	17,6	23,4	19,0	19,4	21,4	16,6	19,6	19,3	25,3	27,5
EE	Estonia	:	:	14,8	15,5	14,4	15,3	16,2	13,7	14,9	14,7	15,7	21,2	19,0	19,8
ES	Spain	:	:	:	:	:	:	10,5	:	:	10,7	:	11,3	10,9	10,9
FI	Finland	26,0	23,6	23,2	24,3	24,6	25,7	23,0	23,6	22,6	22,8	22,4	22,8	20,4	22,0
FR	France	22,7	22,4	23,2	23,0	23,5	23,0	21,6	20,7	17,5	17,0	16,2	16,4	16,4	16,9
GR	Greece	29,3	32,2	31,4	31,9	32,9	34,0	33,3	31,4	32,9	31,9	31,5	32,7	32,2	32,1
HU	Hungary	:	:	19,5	19,4	15,6	15,1	14,5	14,2	13,4	14,0	13,2	13,3	13,6	12,9
IE	Ireland	19,9	18,5	17,8	:	:	:	17,6	15,8	18,6	19,7	18,6	18,8	:	18,2
IT	Italy	14,3	14,7	14,5	14,6	14,7	14,0	13,0	12,7	13,0	5,1	4,8	4,8	5,0	4,7
LT	Lithuania	:	:	:	:	:	:	26,9	25,6	25,1	25,1	24,3	24,5	24,2	22,6
LU	Luxembourg	14,7	15,8	15,2	14,8	:	:	18,0	21,8	10,9	8,4	6,7	5,1	1,5	3,9
LV	Latvia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	26,4	27,8	28,5	27,5	26,4	22,8	24,0
MT	Malta	:	:	:	:	:	:	11,0	10,5	10,3	9,0	9,7	9,2	9,8	8,9
NL	Netherlands	8,9	8,3	8,7	8,6	8,8	:	:	:	:	:	:	12,0	13,2	14,0
PL	Poland	:	:	:	:	:	:	33,9	30,3	30,0	29,7	29,8	32,4	33,6	32,5
PT	Portugal	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
RO	Romania	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	12,7	13,5	10,0	13,0	12,6	13,9	14,3
SE	Sweden	18,6	17,7	19,1	18,8	19,0	19,2	18,5	18,4	16,7	17,4	14,0	14,2	14,5	14,7
SI	Slovenia	:	15,1	16,5	16,9	18,5	13,8	17,4	21,6	21,6	13,7	22,0	22,3	21,6	22,5
SK	Slovakia	:	:	:	:	:	:	8,1	6,6	9,6	11,1	11,2	10,7	10,1	9,1
UK	United Kingdom	37,4	37,2	37,2	36,9	21,8	22,8	23,5	21,6	22,3	21,9	21,9	22,1	21,8	:

Table 7.39: Employees, evening work: occasionally
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27		:	:	:	:	:	16,7	15,3	15,9	16,4	16,6	18,5	18,7	18,7	17,6
EU15		12,8	13,6	13,9	13,1	16,5	16,8	16,3	17,4	18,0	17,7	19,9	20,1	20,3	19,3
AT	Austria	12,4	12,5	12,7	13,6	14,7	14,5	15,9	13,6	13,3	15,3	13,0	12,2	12,1	12,0
BE	Belgium	9,6	10,6	10,0	9,9	3,4	10,5	11,8	10,2	11,0	11,4	11,7	12,0	12,0	11,1
BG	Bulgaria	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	17,7	:	16,6	14,6	13,1
CY	Cyprus	:	:	:	:	7,2	4,2	4,0	4,3	4,2	3,7	2,9	3,3	2,9	3,5
CZ	Czech Republic	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	8,1	9,8	11,5	12,5	12,7	11,9	11,5
DE	Germany	13,5	15,7	16,5	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	23,6	24,8	25,4	25,8
DK	Denmark	19,1	18,5	18,9	18,7	19,5	20,5	21,2	21,1	21,7	23,0	21,5	22,4	16,2	16,2
EE	Estonia	:	:	22,8	21,4	21,7	24,4	19,5	21,1	20,8	22,5	18,3	17,9	17,0	15,9
ES	Spain	:	:	:	:	:	:	10,9	:	:	10,0	:	16,7	16,5	16,8
FI	Finland	24,2	22,8	23,5	24,5	21,4	21,0	23,6	22,5	22,3	23,1	23,3	23,5	24,4	21,9
FR	France	7,6	7,4	7,6	7,9	8,0	9,4	9,8	10,4	14,5	15,1	15,6	16,1	16,2	16,4
GR	Greece	14,3	14,3	14,2	15,2	15,0	13,4	14,7	14,7	14,6	13,3	14,4	13,7	14,0	14,3
HU	Hungary	:	:	16,7	17,1	12,6	12,5	12,1	11,9	9,2	9,2	9,3	7,8	7,3	7,2
IE	Ireland	10,1	11,3	10,5	:	:	:	9,3	9,1	8,8	8,7	10,6	10,6	:	10,9
IT	Italy	11,0	11,4	11,8	11,8	11,9	11,5	11,0	11,4	11,3	16,0	15,3	14,3	14,6	15,0
LT	Lithuania	:	:	:	:	:	:	5,3	7,4	8,1	7,7	8,0	7,4	7,5	9,8
LU	Luxembourg	8,0	7,6	7,4	7,1	:	:	6,9	7,6	7,5	9,8	13,3	12,4	12,9	12,6
LV	Latvia	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	15,6	15,5	11,6	10,4	11,1	9,9	7,9
MT	Malta	:	:	:	:	:	24,7	13,7	13,9	14,7	16,6	20,8	20,4	17,5	16,8
NL	Netherlands	15,8	14,7	15,1	16,3	15,8	:	:	:	:	:	:	28,6	28,6	28,4
PL	Poland	:	:	:	:	:	:	8,2	10,0	11,1	11,7	11,4	10,0	8,8	7,9
PT	Portugal	0,8	0,9	1,0	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
RO	Romania	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	15,5	14,2	15,1	16,8	17,1	17,4	17,1
SE	Sweden	20,3	20,6	19,6	21,0	21,1	21,0	21,6	21,7	15,9	15,3	14,3	14,6	15,2	15,4
SI	Slovenia	:	16,3	16,0	17,8	15,8	19,6	17,9	14,6	15,7	20,5	18,2	19,1	20,5	19,7
SK	Slovakia	:	:	:	:	:	:	13,9	16,1	19,6	20,7	22,8	24,5	25,2	26,8
UK	United Kingdom	16,1	17,2	17,2	17,0	31,2	30,1	28,6	29,1	28,5	28,1	26,3	25,8	26,1	:

Table 7.40: Employees, evening work: usually
Basis: age group 15-64 years

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27															
EU15		85,2	85,5	85,5	84,4	83,8	83,3	84,1	82,8	82,9	83,5	83,4	84,0	84,1	84,9
AT	Austria	84,7	83,5	83,4	83,0	82,0	81,6	80,8	83,6	83,6	79,2	80,9	82,0	81,4	81,8
BE	Belgium	87,0	87,2	87,3	85,8	85,9	83,6	84,8	84,5	84,2	85,4	87,8	87,8	87,8	88,1
BG	Bulgaria										82,4	:	82,0	82,5	83,7
CY	Cyprus					88,8	88,5	89,6	90,3	90,1	90,6	91,0	90,2	90,6	90,9
CZ	Czech Republic								80,6	78,3	78,1	77,8	78,2	79,8	80,4
DE	Germany	86,9	88,0	88,2								85,4	85,0	84,5	84,8
DK	Denmark	85,7	85,6	86,1	86,3	85,7	86,3	86,7	87,2	87,0	87,1	87,1	87,5	89,4	89,6
EE	Estonia			83,5	83,7	83,2	84,3	85,7	84,7	83,8	85,1	87,0	85,8	88,5	88,2
ES	Spain	89,6	89,7	89,4	89,5			89,0			89,2	:	89,4	89,5	89,3
FI	Finland	77,7	80,1	81,7	81,2	82,9	83,7	83,9	84,1	84,3	83,8	84,3	83,9	84,8	85,5
FR	France	86,0	85,9	85,7	85,6	85,2	85,2	85,5	85,6	85,0	84,6	84,6	84,5	84,3	83,9
GR	Greece	83,5	82,7	83,4	83,1	82,4	82,3	82,7	83,3	82,7	82,1	82,9	83,8	83,7	84,0
HU	Hungary			81,5	81,4	84,4	83,3	83,5	84,0	85,5	85,3	85,3	86,2	86,5	86,2
IE	Ireland	82,8	82,6	83,5				84,4		84,1	84,4	83,6	84,3		83,4
IT	Italy	86,5	86,3	86,2	86,5	86,1	86,6	87,6	87,6	87,4	87,5	88,0	87,9	88,2	88,2
LT	Lithuania						82,2	84,1	85,2	86,2	86,1	85,9	86,6	86,8	85,9
LU	Luxembourg	87,4	88,4	88,2	88,3			87,9	87,2	88,1	89,4	90,7	91,1	92,0	91,4
LV	Latvia								81,0	81,1	82,5	84,1	85,5	86,3	87,2
MT	Malta						85,3	80,8	81,5	81,3	80,4	79,1	79,4	80,4	82,5
NL	Netherlands	88,0	89,2	88,9	88,9	89,1							85,7	85,6	85,8
PL	Poland							78,0	78,0	77,6	76,8	76,6	76,3	77,1	78,7
PT	Portugal	99,0	99,1	99,0	91,2	91,1	91,9	80,5	80,5	80,9	81,0	81,0	81,5	82,6	82,6
RO	Romania								82,5	83,1	84,8	82,9	83,7	83,1	83,0
SE	Sweden	87,0	87,6	86,6	86,4	86,6	86,4	87,2	87,0	89,8	90,3	87,6	87,2	86,8	86,7
SI	Slovenia		81,4	81,0	81,4	81,7	82,7	82,5	81,4	81,5	82,7	80,6	80,4	80,8	80,7
SK	Slovakia							83,5	82,9	80,3	78,0	76,0	74,7	75,0	76,1
UK	United Kingdom	76,5	76,4	76,9	77,0	77,8	77,3	78,0	77,8	78,4	78,7	79,4	79,4	79,7	

Table 7.41: Employees, night work: never
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							8,9	9,4	9,5	9,4	8,6	8,1	7,8	7,8	7,6
EU15		9,0	8,8	8,7	10,1	8,9	8,9	8,6	8,7	8,5	7,6	7,0	6,7	6,7	6,4
AT	Austria	7,3	8,0	7,9	8,2	8,2	8,1	9,2	7,1	7,0	12,5	11,9	11,2	11,8	11,6
BE	Belgium	8,1	7,8	7,9	9,0	11,7	12,0	11,1	11,6	12,0	10,5	7,9	7,7	7,7	7,6
BG	Bulgaria										8,8		11,1	11,7	10,8
CY	Cyprus					8,7	10,2	9,3	8,6	8,9	8,7	8,1	8,4	8,3	8,0
CZ	Czech Republic								15,0	16,3	15,2	15,3	15,1	14,2	13,7
DE	Germany	5,6	5,1	4,8								5,7	5,5	5,9	5,7
DK	Denmark	6,6	7,3	6,0	5,7	6,2	6,6	5,3	5,8	6,0	5,0	5,4	5,1	6,2	6,2
EE	Estonia			7,7	7,4	7,5	6,3	6,9	7,4	6,8	4,9	5,7	7,5	5,7	5,8
ES	Spain	5,7	5,5	6,2	6,0			7,4			7,1		5,3	5,5	5,4
FI	Finland	12,0	10,1	9,0	8,7	8,3	7,7	6,3	6,5	6,3	6,2	6,2	6,4	5,4	5,9
FR	France	10,3	10,4	10,3	10,4	10,8	10,1	9,4	9,2	8,3	8,0	8,0	8,3	8,0	8,4
GR	Greece	12,4	13,2	12,9	12,5	12,6	13,2	12,5	12,2	13,1	13,3	12,8	12,6	12,5	12,3
HU	Hungary			9,4	9,6	8,5	8,9	8,6	8,6	8,2	8,8	8,6	8,6	8,7	9,0
IE	Ireland	10,9	10,2	9,9				9,5	:	9,9	10,2	9,7	9,1		9,5
IT	Italy	7,9	8,1	7,9	7,8	8,0	7,5	6,8	6,7	6,9	3,1	3,0	3,2	3,4	3,0
LT	Lithuania						14,5	13,4	11,8	10,5	10,2	10,4	10,2	9,8	9,0
LU	Luxembourg	9,2	8,5	8,8	8,7			9,5	9,5	7,8	6,3	3,1	2,4	1,1	2,2
LV	Latvia								10,0	9,7	11,0	9,8	9,0	7,7	7,8
MT	Malta							8,9	8,4	7,9	7,7	9,3	8,4	8,1	7,7
NL	Netherlands	9,5	8,8	9,0	9,0	8,8							4,5	4,9	5,0
PL	Poland							17,4	16,1	16,1	16,6	16,6	17,8	17,8	16,8
PT	Portugal							10,5	11,0	10,5	10,5	10,5	10,5	9,9	9,7
RO	Romania								8,8	8,8	6,8	8,4	8,1	8,7	8,8
SE	Sweden	5,7	4,9	5,8	5,5	5,3	5,4	5,1	5,0	5,6	5,3	6,8	6,9	7,1	7,2
SI	Slovenia		9,9	10,4	9,9	10,3	7,9	9,1	11,3	10,8	7,2	10,4	10,8	10,2	10,7
SK	Slovakia							5,6	4,5	5,7	6,8	6,5	6,0	5,9	4,7
UK	United Kingdom	17,0	16,6	16,3	16,6	9,5	10,1	9,6	9,6	9,5	9,2	8,9	8,8	8,4	

Table 7.42: Employees, night work: occasionally
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							7,8	7,1	7,6	7,7	7,9	8,5	8,2	8,1	7,5
EU15		5,8	5,7	5,7	5,5	7,3	7,9	7,3	7,9	7,9	8,0	8,7	8,4	8,4	7,8
AT	Austria	8,0	8,6	8,7	8,9	9,8	10,3	10,0	9,3	9,4	8,3	7,2	6,8	6,8	6,7
BE	Belgium	4,9	5,1	4,8	5,2	2,4	4,4	4,2	3,9	3,8	4,1	4,3	4,6	4,4	4,3
BG	Bulgaria										8,9	:	6,9	5,9	5,5
CY	Cyprus					2,4	1,3	1,1	1,1	1,0	0,7	0,9	1,4	1,1	1,1
CZ	Czech Republic								4,5	5,4	6,7	6,9	6,7	6,0	5,9
DE	Germany	7,5	6,9	7,0								8,9	9,5	9,6	9,5
DK	Denmark	7,7	7,1	7,9	8,0	8,1	7,2	8,0	7,0	7,0	7,9	7,4	7,3	4,4	4,1
EE	Estonia			8,8	8,9	9,3	9,4	7,3	7,9	9,4	10,0	7,3	6,8	5,8	6,0
ES	Spain	4,7	4,8	4,4	4,4			3,6			3,7		5,3	5,0	5,3
FI	Finland	10,3	9,8	9,4	10,2	8,9	8,6	9,7	9,4	9,4	10,0	9,5	9,8	9,8	8,6
FR	France	3,7	3,7	3,9	4,0	4,0	4,7	5,1	5,2	6,7	7,4	7,4	7,2	7,7	7,7
GR	Greece	4,2	4,1	3,8	4,3	4,9	4,5	4,8	4,4	4,2	4,6	4,3	3,6	3,9	3,7
HU	Hungary			9,1	9,1	7,1	7,8	7,9	7,4	6,2	6,0	6,1	5,2	4,8	4,8
IE	Ireland	6,2	7,2	6,6				6,0	:	6,0	5,4	6,7	6,6		7,1
IT	Italy	5,6	5,6	5,8	5,7	5,9	5,9	5,7	5,7	5,7	9,4	9,1	8,9	8,5	8,8
LT	Lithuania						3,3	2,5	3,0	3,3	3,6	3,6	3,2	3,4	5,1
LU	Luxembourg	3,4	3,1	3,0	2,9			2,7	3,4	4,1	4,3	6,2	6,4	6,8	6,4
LV	Latvia								9,0	9,2	6,5	6,1	5,4	6,0	5,0
MT	Malta						14,7	10,2	10,0	10,7	12,0	11,5	12,2	11,4	9,8
NL	Netherlands	2,5	2,0	2,0	2,2	2,2							9,8	9,5	9,2
PL	Poland							4,6	5,8	6,4	6,6	6,8	5,9	5,1	4,4
PT	Portugal	1,0	0,9	0,9	8,8	8,9	8,1	8,9	8,4	8,6	8,4	8,5	8,0	7,5	7,7
RO	Romania								8,7	8,1	8,4	8,7	8,2	8,2	8,2
SE	Sweden	7,3	7,5	7,6	8,1	8,1	8,2	7,7	8,0	4,6	4,4	5,6	5,9	6,1	6,1
SI	Slovenia		8,7	8,7	8,8	7,9	9,3	8,4	7,3	7,7	10,0	8,9	8,8	9,0	8,6
SK	Slovakia							10,9	12,6	14,0	15,2	17,6	19,4	19,2	19,2
UK	United Kingdom	6,4	6,9	6,8	6,4	12,7	12,7	12,5	12,5	12,2	12,1	11,7	11,7	11,8	

Table 7.43: Employees, night work: usually
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							13,2	18,3	16,5	16,4	16,0	16,0	15,6	16,3	16,0
EU15		10,2	10,8	11,0	11,7	12,4	12,7	15,4	13,8	13,8	13,8	13,4	13,6	14,3	13,3
AT	Austria	12,6	14,1	15,3	13,9	15,3	13,2	17,0	16,0	15,3	16,5	16,2	15,7	16,4	17,4
BE	Belgium	12,3	12,4	12,3	13,4	6,3	6,5	8,0	7,2	7,6	7,8	6,9	6,7	8,0	6,0
BG	Bulgaria										21,2		21,3	21,6	20,4
CY	Cyprus					7,3	7,1	9,2	8,8	7,8	8,5	8,8	8,4	7,4	7,6
CZ	Czech Republic							26,5	27,9	28,9	29,0	28,8	29,4	29,3	28,0
DE	Germany	7,6	9,0	9,4				12,5	12,1	12,9	12,8	13,2	13,2	14,8	14,6
DK	Denmark	6,9	7,8	6,7	7,9	7,2	6,4	5,4	4,7	3,8	6,1	4,9	3,4	5,3	3,9
EE	Estonia			19,1	17,6	21,1	22,2	20,3	21,1	22,4	20,3	17,2	16,5	18,6	18,8
ES	Spain	4,8	5,5	5,3	5,9			16,7			17,7		17,2	17,3	16,4
FI	Finland	24,3	23,8	24,6	25,5	25,2	25,9	25,6	26,8	26,4	26,1	26,5	27,6	27,2	26,6
FR	France	6,7	6,6	6,6	6,6	7,0	7,1	:	7,1	6,6	6,1	6,1	6,6	6,3	5,9
GR	Greece	9,7	10,6	9,6	10,8	11,0	10,9	15,5	15,4	15,7	15,0	15,7	17,3	17,3	16,9
HU	Hungary			17,4	17,6	17,7	17,1	20,3	19,9	17,4	18,6	17,9	17,8	17,5	17,6
IE	Ireland	10,3	11,0	10,5				16,1	15,5	15,1	14,3	15,6	15,4		16,2
IT	Italy	15,2	15,1	15,5	16,1	16,4	16,2	18,5	18,7	18,4	17,0	16,6	16,6	17,3	18,2
LT	Lithuania						21,5	17,5	12,9	14,1	12,9	13,9	13,9	15,2	18,8
LU	Luxembourg	6,4	5,1	7,2	7,4			7,1	6,8	5,0	7,6	6,1	6,7	9,0	8,8
LV	Latvia								24,9	23,1	22,3	23,1	21,0	22,2	22,9
MT	Malta						18,3	16,8	16,9	13,8	19,0	15,7	14,2	14,0	13,8
NL	Netherlands	6,1	6,8	7,2	7,3	7,4							6,7	7,0	7,0
PL	Poland							33,5	32,1	32,7	30,4	32,1	27,4	26,9	28,2
PT	Portugal	6,1	6,0	6,6	6,3	6,6	7,0	15,9	17,0	17,3	15,9	16,8	17,7	19,1	10,9
RO	Romania							28,4	26,9	25,3	21,8	24,3	22,8	25,5	25,9
SE	Sweden	29,6	32,3	29,4	30,1	30,0	28,4	25,4	28,7	25,6	23,3	27,4	25,8	28,0	26,5
SI	Slovenia		30,6	32,7	31,9	31,0	31,0	33,9	32,7	32,3	32,6	33,7	33,4	33,2	32,5
SK	Slovakia							31,9	29,4	24,6	26,1	25,9	27,3	27,9	28,4
UK	United Kingdom	12,7	13,1	13,7	13,7	14,2	14,4	16,2	16,2	16,8	16,3	15,9	16,1	16,7	

Table 7.44: Employees who practice shift work: Women (%)
Basis: age group 15-64 years

Development of working time in the EU

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							16,3	21,9	20,8	20,5	19,5	19,9	18,8	19,1	18,2
EU15		13,9	14,3	14,6	14,9	15,5	16,1	19,1	18,2	18,1	17,4	17,4	16,8	17,3	15,8
AT	Austria	18,0	18,0	18,3	16,4	17,4	18,6	21,1	20,4	19,2	20,8	19,3	19,6	19,9	20,2
BE	Belgium	18,1	18,4	19,0	18,9	10,7	10,9	12,1	11,5	11,2	11,8	10,4	10,4	12,0	10,3
BG	Bulgaria										23,4	:	24,4	24,4	22,4
CY	Cyprus					10,9	10,0	11,0	10,9	10,7	10,1	9,0	10,4	9,8	9,3
CZ	Czech Republic							27,1	28,7	30,1	29,0	29,7	30,5	30,0	29,9
DE	Germany	12,1	13,0	13,9				17,1	17,1	17,9	17,4	18,0	18,4	19,3	19,0
DK	Denmark	7,6	8,3	8,9	7,9	7,3	5,7	6,8	5,5	3,9	5,4	4,9	3,9	5,5	4,5
EE	Estonia			20,0	17,4	17,6	18,9	19,4	23,8	21,4	19,0	16,1	14,8	13,1	14,6
ES	Spain	7,8	8,2	8,6	8,3			18,0			17,9	:	16,9	16,9	16,2
FI	Finland	23,1	21,2	21,2	23,5	21,1	21,9	22,3	22,1	21,8	21,0	21,8	22,8	22,8	20,7
FR	France	10,2	10,7	10,9	11,1	11,4	12,0	:	11,9	11,0	10,8	10,4	10,2	10,1	9,4
GR	Greece	14,4	15,8	14,4	15,2	15,0	15,2	21,6	21,4	22,3	21,4	21,1	21,6	20,9	20,8
HU	Hungary			22,8	21,6	21,0	19,9	23,9	24,4	20,8	20,7	20,3	20,8	19,8	19,7
IE	Ireland	13,1	13,4	13,1				19,2	19,2	18,8	18,6	17,6	16,7	:	19,0
IT	Italy	19,6	19,9	20,1	20,3	20,7	19,7	22,8	24,1	23,8	19,8	19,7	18,8	19,9	19,9
LT	Lithuania						17,5	15,1	11,9	12,6	11,1	10,5	11,1	13,0	15,7
LU	Luxembourg	14,3	12,0	13,6	13,0			13,2	13,8	11,8	13,1	11,3	10,9	12,7	10,5
LV	Latvia								24,6	23,1	22,8	22,0	20,4	19,6	19,7
MT	Malta						25,5	24,7	23,7	24,1	34,3	24,0	24,8	22,1	20,7
NL	Netherlands	9,3	9,4	9,9	10,3	9,3							9,4	9,7	9,4
PL	Poland							43,6	41,1	41,0	38,0	39,3	33,9	31,1	30,5
PT	Portugal	9,5	9,8	10,1	9,5	9,1	9,2	18,1	18,8	17,9	17,7	18,6	19,0	18,6	11,4
RO	Romania							26,1	27,5	24,5	22,3	24,2	23,3	24,5	24,7
SE	Sweden	20,4	20,6	20,2	20,6	20,1	20,3	18,3	20,1	19,1	18,2	21,6	20,7	22,1	20,9
SI	Slovenia		29,1	29,7	31,5	30,0	28,4	32,6	31,3	31,3	29,3	30,8	30,8	32,3	30,9
SK	Slovakia							37,0	32,8	27,9	27,8	28,8	30,1	31,7	32,4
UK	United Kingdom	18,6	18,8	18,6	18,6	18,8	18,9	21,9	22,2	22,5	22,7	22,4	21,9	21,8	

Table 7.45: Employees who practice shift work: Men
Basis: age group 15-64 years

		1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
EU27							14,9	20,3	18,8	18,6	17,9	18,1	17,3	17,8	17,1
EU15		12,3	12,8	13,0	13,5	14,1	14,5	17,5	16,1	16,1	15,8	15,5	15,3	15,9	14,6
AT	Austria	15,7	16,3	17,0	15,3	16,5	16,2	19,3	18,4	17,5	18,8	17,9	17,8	18,3	18,9
BE	Belgium	15,7	15,9	16,2	16,6	8,8	9,0	10,3	9,6	9,6	10,0	8,8	8,7	10,2	8,3
BG	Bulgaria										22,3		22,9	23,0	21,4
CY	Cyprus					9,3	8,7	10,2	9,8	9,3	9,4	8,9	9,4	8,6	8,5
CZ	Czech Republic							26,8	28,3	29,5	29,0	29,3	30,0	29,7	29,0
DE	Germany	10,1	11,2	11,9				15,0	14,8	15,5	15,2	15,7	15,9	17,2	16,9
DK	Denmark	7,3	8,1	7,8	7,9	7,2	6,1	6,1	5,1	3,9	5,7	4,9	3,6	5,4	4,2
EE	Estonia	:	:	19,5	17,5	19,4	20,6	19,8	22,5	21,9	19,7	16,7	15,7	15,9	16,7
ES	Spain	6,7	7,2	7,4	7,4			17,5			17,8		17,0	17,1	16,3
FI	Finland	23,7	22,5	22,9	24,5	23,1	23,9	24,0	24,5	24,1	23,5	24,2	25,2	25,1	23,7
FR	France	8,6	8,8	8,9	9,0	9,4	9,7	:	9,6	8,9	8,6	8,3	8,4	8,2	7,7
GR	Greece	12,7	13,8	12,6	13,5	13,5	13,5	19,2	19,0	19,7	18,8	18,9	19,8	19,4	19,2
HU	Hungary			20,3	19,7	19,4	18,6	22,2	22,2	19,2	19,7	19,1	19,4	18,7	18,7
IE	Ireland	11,9	12,3	12,0				17,8	17,5	17,1	16,6	16,6	16,1		17,6
IT	Italy	18,0	18,1	18,3	18,6	19,0	18,3	21,1	21,9	21,6	18,6	18,4	17,9	18,8	19,2
LT	Lithuania						19,6	16,4	12,4	13,4	12,0	12,2	12,5	14,1	17,3
LU	Luxembourg	11,5	9,4	11,2	10,9			10,7	10,9	9,0	10,8	9,1	9,1	11,1	9,8
LV	Latvia								24,7	23,1	22,6	22,6	20,7	20,9	21,4
MT	Malta						23,1	22,2	21,4	20,7	29,4	21,2	21,2	19,3	18,2
NL	Netherlands	8,0	8,3	8,7	9,0	8,5							8,1	8,5	8,2
PL	Poland							38,9	36,8	37,0	34,5	36,0	30,9	29,2	29,4
PT	Portugal	8,0	8,1	8,5	8,1	8,0	8,2	17,1	18,0	17,6	16,9	17,8	18,4	18,8	11,2
RO	Romania							27,1	27,2	24,8	22,1	24,2	23,0	25,0	25,3
SE	Sweden	25,1	26,6	24,8	25,3	25,1	24,4	21,9	24,5	22,4	20,7	24,5	23,2	25,0	23,7
SI	Slovenia		29,9	31,1	31,7	30,5	29,6	33,2	32,0	31,8	30,9	32,2	32,0	32,7	31,6
SK	Slovakia							34,5	31,2	26,3	27,0	27,4	28,8	29,9	30,5
UK	United Kingdom	15,8	16,1	16,3	16,3	16,6	16,7	19,2	19,3	19,7	19,6	19,2	19,1	19,3	:

Table 7.46: Employees who practice shift work: Women and men
Basis: age group 15-64 years

Development of working time in the EU

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