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**AMSTERDAM INSTITUTE FOR
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**FEMALE PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN THE NETHERLANDS
AND SPAIN: AN ANALYSIS THROUGH REASONS FOR ITS
DEMAND AND BRANCHES OF ACTIVITY**

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ABSTRACT

Part-time workers have achieved legal equality throughout the European Union-15 (EU-15), although the situation concerning real equality is rather different: it exists in some Member States but not in others. In the Netherlands, part-time employment is strongly developed and there is very little discrimination against part-time workers. The rate of part-time employment is higher in the Netherlands than anywhere else in the EU-15, while in Spain the share of part-time employment is well below the EU-15 average and part-time workers are strongly discriminated against. The situation of part-time employment in these two countries is radically different. In this paper we analyse and compare the part-time employment in the Netherlands and in Spain. The focus is on female employees, as most part-timers are women. Using data from the European Labour Force Survey, we explore for 1995 and 2002 the nature of the relationship between the branches of activity and the reasons for choosing a part-time job, and find that there is a relationship between these two variables, which we characterise by means of correspondence analysis and cluster analysis.

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I. INTRODUCTION

I.1 INTRODUCTION

Part-time employment is becoming increasingly important in all European Union¹ Member States. For over two decades now, the reduction of working hours has been an important issue of debate during collective bargaining and in the context of the employment policies in many European countries. The reduction of the working week has also been a central issue in the public policies of the EU-15. Since the publication of the Growth, Competitiveness and Employment White Paper (EU, 1993), part-time employment has been seen as a way of combating the high unemployment rates in Europe. Nevertheless, some researchers disagree on its validity as a tool for reducing unemployment, stating that part-time employment, rather than reducing unemployment, increases the activity rates by mobilising the married women reserve of the labour market (Visser, 2002: 25). It now seems that the option of part-time employment, which appeared as a short-term instrument to tackle unemployment, is now a life option for a large share of European citizens.

The 1998 European Directive on Part-time Employment – which incorporates the European Framework Agreement on Part-time work, and was signed by the European social partners in 1997 – establishes the principle of non-discrimination between workers based on the number of hours they work. The various Member States have adapted their legal frameworks to this directive. However, although part-time workers have achieved legal equality throughout the EU-15, the situation is rather different when it comes to real equality: it exists in some countries but not in others. In the Netherlands, part-time employment is strongly developed and there is very little discrimination against part-time workers, while in Spain part-time workers are strongly discriminated against. In Spain, the rate of temporary employment is very high (56.2% in 2001 whereas in the case of full-time workers is 29.5%) and the average hourly wage of a part-time worker is only 70.61% of that of a full-time worker.

Many researchers point out that the great difference between Spain and the rest of the EU-15 in the rates of part-time employment seems to be a result of the fact that Spanish employers obtain from temporary contracts the flexibility that European entrepreneurs obtain from part-time contracts (Estrada et al., 2003:69). Yet the excessive extension of temporary contracts in Spain has negatively affected the productivity of the labour force and the competitiveness of enterprises, inducing a pattern of competitiveness of uncertain efficiency in the long term. This is for three reasons. Firstly, according to the theory of efficiency wages (Doeringer & Piore, 1985; Akerlof & Yellen, 1996), temporary workers are less motivated and less involved in the business management and in the long-term viability of the enterprise. Secondly, the short duration of temporary contracts makes it difficult to increase productivity through the ‘learning by doing’ process. Thirdly, in many enterprises temporary contracts have been the only tool used to increase productivity, and other types of measures such as investment in R&D, capital goods, etc. that are more effective in the long term have been ignored (Alvárez, 1996; Bentolila y Dolado, 1994; Consejo Económico y Social, 1996; Dirección General de Política Económica y Defensa de la Competencia, 1997; Ministerio de Industria y Energía, 1995; Revenga, 1994; Segura et al., 1991). Empirical studies support this view (Serrano et al., 1998; Banco de España, 1998).

The pattern of competitiveness of most Spanish enterprises is based on low wages and the intensive use of temporary contracts (Ferreiro, 2003:29). In the long term, this behaviour on the part of Spanish enterprises may have very negative consequences not only at a microeconomic but also at a macroeconomic level as a result of the induced changes in the patterns of consumption and savings (Ferreiro, 2003:31). In the mid 1990s, several official studies reported that economic expansion had not been followed by the expected growth in private consumption (because savings were increasing as a result of uncertainty), implying a break in the aggregated demand and in the creation of employment (Dirección General de Previsión y Coyuntura, 1995; Secretaría General Técnica, 1995; Consejo Económico y Social, 1996).

The law concerning part-time employment has been a constant source of dissatisfaction for both legislators and the social partners ever since the first version of the Estatuto de los Trabajadores (Workers' Statute) came into force in 1980. Evidence of this is that Article 12 of the Workers' Statute, which contains that regulation, has been modified every time there has been a labour reform of some importance (García and Baeza, 2002: 84).

The Netherlands has the highest rate of part-time employment of all EU Member States. As Visser (2000: 20; 2002) points out:

'The development of part-time employment in the Netherlands was not the result of deliberate policy planning by governments, unions or employers, but rather the outcome of 'bottom-up' pressures and accommodating policy changes. The choice for part-time work is closely linked to the late and rapid arrival of married women in the labour force and the dearth of childcare provisions in what was not so long ago a strong breadwinner welfare state'.

In the Netherlands, part-time employees are protected by several government acts against discrimination based on the number of hours they work. The most recent are the Equal Treatment Act (1996), the Revised Working Hours Act (1996) and the Working Hours Adjustment Act (2000) (SZW website; Visser, 2000: 28; Tijdens, 2000: 5-10). 'Part-time society' is rapidly developing in the Netherlands. Nowadays, not only women but also men are increasingly working part time. Furthermore, part-time employment is penetrating the higher levels of business (there are now part-time directors), something that was unthinkable just a few years ago (Chatani, 2003:22).

The main research question is if there is a relationship between branches of activity and the reasons for working part time. And if so, what is this relationship? To answer these questions, we carried out a statistical analysis using correspondence analysis and cluster analysis. Using data on employees by sex, branch of activity and type of working day collected by the European Labour Force Survey (LFS) and provided by Eurostat for the second quarter of 1995 and 2002, we performed a statistical analysis of the evolution of part-time employment in the Netherlands and Spain. Our focus was on why people choose part-time work and on the branches of activity in which part-time employment is more frequent. As most part-timers are women, we concentrated on female employees.

¹ In this paper we identify European Union with EU-15.

In order to understand the current situation of part-time employment in both countries, it is necessary to understand the socio-economic background and the evolution of the labour market in each country. The reasons for the expansion and success of part-time employment in the Netherlands have been explained in depth by many AIAS researchers as well as in many AIAS working papers, so we shall not explain them again². However, it is quite possible that the situation of the Spanish labour market and the reasons part-time employment is not successful in Spain are less known in the Netherlands. We shall therefore briefly explain the main relevant points.

1.2 THE SPANISH LABOUR MARKET

1.2.1 INTRODUCTION

The Spanish labour market has two peculiarities that set it apart from that of the other EU-15 Member States, namely the widespread use of temporary employment contracts and the relative absence of part-time contracts. Spain has the highest rate of temporary employment in the EU-15 (31.0% vs. the EU-15 average of 13.1%), and this rate is much higher among part-timers than among full-timers (55.6% vs. 28.8% in 2002). While the rate of temporary employment of full-time workers slightly decreased between 1997 and 2002 (from 31.7% to 28.8%), among part-time workers the rate hardly changed (it was 55.4% in 1997, and 55.6% in 2002) (see Table 1).

Table 1: Rate of temporary employment (%) in Spain

Sex and type of working day	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Total	33.61	32.89	32.83	32.14	31.56	31.16
Full-time	31.7	31.2	30.6	29.9	29.5	28.8
Part-time	55.4	54.3	57.7	55.5	56.1	55.6
Women	35.85	34.4	35.03	34.6	34.12	34.23
Full-time	32.3	31.4	31.0	30.5	30.5	30.3
Part-time	51.4	50.3	53.8	52.1	53.0	53.0
Men	32.32	32.02	31.52	30.61	29.96	29.17
Full-time	31.4	31.1	30.4	29.6	29.0	28.0
Part-time	69.5	68.6	72.9	69.9	69.0	67.0

Source: Spanish Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs website (www.mtas.es)

In 2003, the rate of part-time employment in Spain was 8.2%, a figure well below the EU-15 average of 18.2%. This rate has hardly changed in recent years (for example, it was 7.39% in 1995). This might be due to a number of causes. First, the changes in the regulations affecting the legal definition of part-time employment. Second, because even though the number of part-time employees has increased a lot in absolute terms (i.e. from 627,300 in 1990 to 1,360,500 in 2003, mainly because of the increase in the number of part-time employed women), full-time employment has also increased a lot. The consequence is that the part-time employed/total employed ratio has almost not changed. Another factor is the fact that Spanish employers do not seem to have come to terms with the concept of part-time work (Gómez et al., 2002:7).

1.2.2 THE ARRIVAL OF DEMOCRACY AND THE UTILISATION OF INCOME POLICIES

During the last three decades, the Spanish economy has been affected by two major problems, namely mass unemployment and an inflation differential with the rest of the EU-15. The latter problem has damaged the competitiveness of the Spanish economy and therefore limited the possibilities of creating the employment needed to reduce the high rates of unemployment (Ferreiro & Serrano, 2001a:1).

The arrival of democracy in 1997 involved changing the political, economic and social structure inherited from Franco's dictatorship. It was necessary to modify the instruments of public intervention. The arrival of democracy also coincided with an economic crisis in all Western economies. In Spain, income policies became the main tool with which to manage the crisis. The political consensus among all the social and political agents to consolidate the political transition moved to the economic area, leading to the implementation of voluntary income policies. The main objective was to control inflation and to increase profit margins through voluntary wage moderation. The result was the signing of five social pacts, namely the *Pactos de la Moncloa* (1977; applicable to 1978), the *Acuerdo Marco Interconfederal* (1980; applicable to 1980 and 1981), the *Acuerdo Nacional de Empleo* (1981; applicable to 1982), the *Acuerdo Interconfederal* (1983; applicable to 1983), and the *Acuerdo Económico y Social* (1984; applicable to 1985 and 1986).

Despite the success of the income policies in the fight against inflation (the rate fell from 24.5% in 1977 to 8.6% in 1986, thanks to a 9% fall in real wages), income policies were substituted for the labour market reforms in the fight against inflation and unemployment (Ferreiro & Serrano, 2001a: 8). There were several reasons behind this change, namely:

- Economic reasons: the poor outcomes in the fight against unemployment.
- Instrumental reasons: income policies could not directly affect the non-wage costs (severance pay, social security contributions, etc.), which were very negative for the competitiveness of enterprises.
- Political reasons: when the fiscal policy adopted a restrictive position braking the growth of the social expenditures (the main offsetting for the wage moderation), it became difficult to keep the consensus between social agents and the government to warrant voluntary wage moderation.

However, the main reasons for this change were theoretical assumptions according to which the macroeconomic disequilibria (unemployment and inflation) were due to a set of institutional features in the labour market that generated excessive rigidity in that market. According to these assumptions, inflation and unemployment rates would fall only if there were greater flexibility in the labour market; in other words, the social democratic labour market that allowed the implementation of incomes policies should be reformed (Ferreiro, 2003: 20).

1980 saw the enactment of the *Estatuto de los Trabajadores* (Worker's Statute), which established a social-democratic labour relations system. Among the foremost features of this system were the preference for permanent labour contracts, the legal recognition of trade unions and of collective bargaining, and the setting up of legal limits to working days.

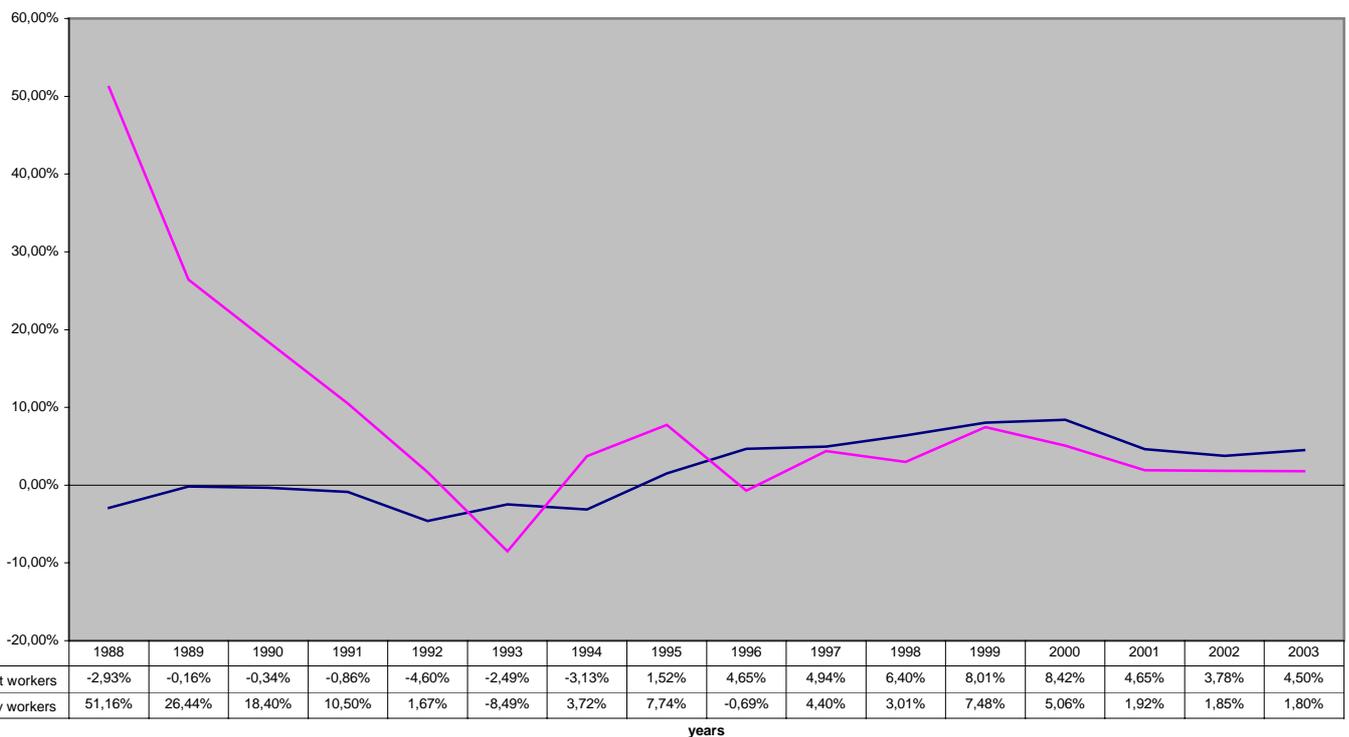
² See e.g. Chatani, K. (2003), Salverda, W. (2000, 2003), Tijdens, K. (2000, 2001), Visser, J (2000, 2002).

1.2.3 THE 1984 LABOUR MARKET REFORM

The first labour market reform was enacted in 1984. This reform broke the ‘causation principle’ in which it was based the *Estatuto de los Trabajadores*, according to which permanent employment contracts should always be used for permanent jobs, whilst temporary contracts could be used only for temporary jobs. The objective of this reform was to change the way workers joined firms: with the reform, workers could be initially hired on a temporary contract, which after a certain period would be transformed into a permanent one.

The 1984 reform was an attempt to increase the elasticity in the labour demand. This first labour market reform was implemented after the unemployment rate reached 21.3% (it had climbed from 5.7% in 1977). In 1984, it was clear that this increase was the outcome of the deep manufacturing crisis that had been affecting the Spanish economy since the beginning of the decade, and not the result of the model of the labour market designed in 1980. Nonetheless, it was assumed that the problem of mass unemployment could be alleviated by reforming the labour market (Ferreiro & Serrano, 2001b: 32). Although the reform contributed to accelerating the creation of employment, the extension of fixed-term (i.e. temporary) contracts soon started to generate problems. The reform made employment creation a highly cyclical phenomenon, making it more difficult to bring about a stable growth of employment.

Graph I: Growth rates (%) of permanent and temporary workers in Spain



Source: Spanish Statistical Institute (INE) website (www.ine.es)

The 1984 reform created a deep segmentation between permanent and temporary workers. The objective of the generalisation of fixed-term contracts was to accelerate the creation of employment. The mechanism of transmission was double. First, fixed-term contracts were useful in reducing the adjustment costs of staff

during recession periods due to the high severance pay of a permanent worker, while the end of a temporary contract did not cost the enterprise anything. It was thought that enterprises were not increasing their staff during expansion periods because they were afraid of an increase in the severance pay of permanent workers during the next recession. A fall in severance pay would allow enterprises to adapt staffing levels to the demand changes, increasing the level of employment in the long term.

Table 2: Rate of temporary employment (%) by sex in Spain

	Both sexes	Men	Women
1987	15.30%	14.20%	18.03%
1988	21.96%	20.08%	26.43%
1989	26.27%	24.06%	31.29%
1990	29.75%	27.66%	34.32%
1991	32.09%	29.20%	38.25%
1992	33.50%	30.73%	39.15%
1993	32.10%	29.43%	37.32%
1994	33.60%	31.31%	37.91%
1995	34.93%	33.18%	38.19%
1996	33.75%	32.01%	36.88%
1997	33.61%	32.32%	35.85%
1998	32.89%	32.02%	34.40%
1999	32.83%	31.52%	35.03%
2000	32.14%	30.61%	34.60%
2001	31.56%	29.96%	34.12%
2002	31.16%	29.17%	34.23%
2003	30.60%	28.65%	33.52%

Source: Spanish Statistical Institute website (www.ine.es)

The second mechanism of transmission was related to the wage gap between permanent and temporary workers (in 1988 the average wage of a temporary worker was 57.7% of that of a permanent worker; in 1992 the share was 59.4% and in 1995, 44.8%). But the moderating effect over the labour costs was cancelled out by the negotiation power that the increase in temporary workers concentrated in the permanent workers. During the 1991-1993 recession, the negotiation power of the permanent workers was unaltered. Between 1992 and 1995, while the purchasing power of temporary workers fell by 25% in real terms, the earnings of permanent workers rose by 4% in real terms.

In 1988, the inflation rate increased mainly as a result of permanent workers' wage behaviour. The Socialist government, which was aware of the increase in inflation and the fall in competitive rates, offered the trade unions two new income policy pacts. However, both pacts – which were based on an increase of the real wage below the increase of the productivity – were rejected.

1.2.4 THE 1994 LABOUR MARKET REFORM

In 1994, the unions' rejection of these income policy agreements led the government to pass the second labour market reform, which was fully opposed by the trade unions. Unlike the 1984 reform – which was intended to stimulate employment creation – the objective of this reform was to reduce inflation by

moderating wage growth. The 1984 reform assumed that unemployment was due to an excessive rigidity in the labour market, while the 1994 reform was based in the assumption that inflation was due to an excessive growth of wages as a consequence of an institutional framework that contributed to wage growth above the productivity rate. The government intended to tackle the situation in two ways, namely by moderating the evolution of wages, acting in the institutional framework of wages fixation and by introducing measures to increase productivity (e.g. allowing an irregular distribution of working days). The 1994 reform relaxed the existing limitations on the maximum length of daily and weekly working hours, with the objective of concentrating the working periods in the peaks of production, and, therefore, of concentrating and distributing over the year the resting times. The expected outcome was that firms, for the same annual working hours, would receive a higher profitability from the hired hours than before the reform. The 1994 reform provided a more flexible definition of the content of jobs, thus promoting the polyvalence of both jobs and workers. The reform also promoted the geographical mobility of workers as a consequence of productive, technological or economic changes in companies.

As for the measures adopted to moderate wage growth, the reform tried to give more importance to the variable part of wages, linking it to profits of the company or to the individual characteristics of the workers. Since the 1994 reform, the variable component of wages is agreed during the collective bargaining process, but without a consolidation of such wage complements for future years. This measure was aimed at removing the imitation effect in the wage determination processes, individualising the wage evolution by adapting it to the specific conditions of every agent involved (firms and workers). Furthermore, in order to eliminate the imitation effect, the 1994 reform promoted the decentralisation of collective bargaining to the level of the individual firm (Ferreiro & Serrano, 2001b: 33).

But the 1994 reform did not have the expected results. Although it did have a positive effect on the inflation rate (thanks to the moderation of wages and prices), the segmentation of the labour market generated a set of negative consequences, as a result of an excessive rate of temporary employment, which reached 40.95% in the private sector in 1995 (Graph 2). The segmentation between temporary and permanent workers was even greater if one takes two new elements into account: the spread of part-time employment contracts and the increase in labour rotation due to the reduction of the duration of fixed-term contracts. The 1994 reform promoted the use of part-time employment contracts as a tool to increase flexibility in the labour market, which was expected to lead to higher productivity through the better management of the workforce. This was done by introducing a corrected definition of part-time employment. By eliminating the limit under which one was considered a part-time worker (i.e. less than two thirds of the 'normal' working week) and by allowing the calculation of working hours on an annual basis, the distinction between full- and part-time employment became less strong. With respect to the increase in the rotation in jobs, the approval in the reform of the temporary employment agencies, has had a deep impact on the reduction of the length of temporary contracts.

The segmentation in the labour market has generated very negative effects in the economy as a whole. The spread of temporary contracts means that most Spanish companies have adopted a pattern of competitiveness

based on low costs and wages. This has negatively affected the productivity and the competitiveness of both the companies and the Spanish economy (Ferreiro, 2003: 29). The competitiveness pattern of most Spanish companies is based on low wages and the very intense use of temporary contracts. In the short term, this model might have positive effects, but its long-term consequences are not clear. The companies that adopt this strategy face stiff competition from other enterprises that adopt this same strategy, leading to a permanent process of wage cuts. Furthermore, these companies cannot compete in sectors where the pattern of competitiveness is the added value. This may be very negative for economic growth in the long term. Lastly, the wage moderation involves a brake on domestic consumption. Nonetheless, the most evident macroeconomic consequence of the 1994 labour market reform was the change generated in the pattern of private consumption and saving. The cause of the reduction in consumption was not only the wage moderation but also the increase in savings due to the increasing uncertainty that private agents faced in an excessively segmented labour market (Ferreiro & Serrano, 2001b: 48).

1.2.5 THE 1997 LABOUR MARKET REFORM

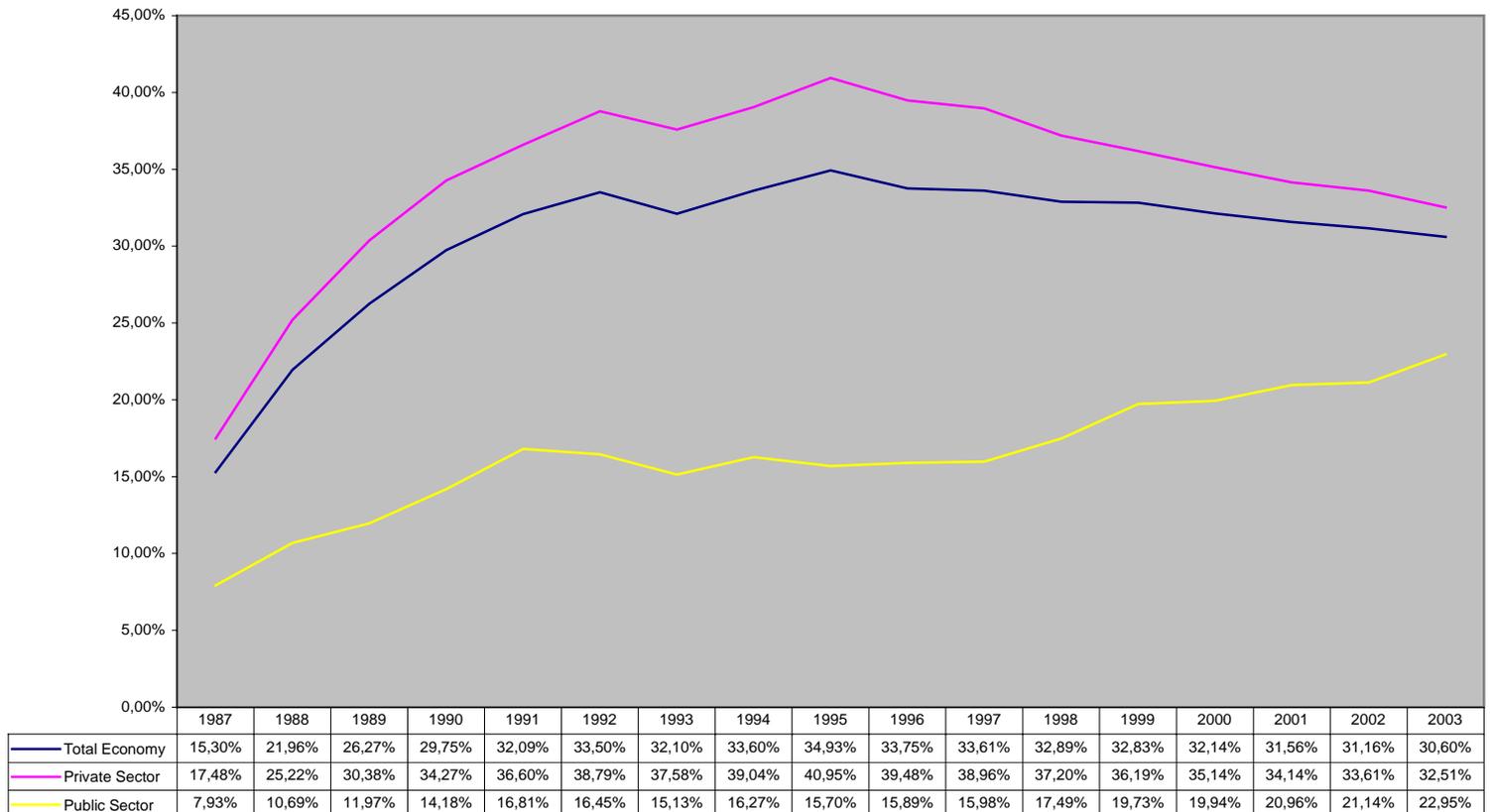
The 1997 reform was intended to correct the undesired effects of the previous labour market reforms. The government, the employers' associations and the two largest trade unions (Unión General de Trabajadores and Comisiones Obreras) agreed the third reform of the Spanish labour market. All the parties concurred that the high rates of temporary employment had generated both microeconomic and macroeconomic problems. The employers knew that in order to increase productivity it was necessary to increase the number of permanent contracts especially among qualified employees. The promotion of permanent employment was considered necessary in order to, first, reduce the uncertainty suffered by the wage-earners and, consequently, to accelerate private consumption and economic growth; and, second, promote the change to a different pattern of competitiveness among Spanish firms.

The 1997 reform created a new permanent employment contract with lower severance pay: 33 days of wages per year worked with a maximum of 24 monthly wages, instead of the previous 45 days of wages per year worked with a maximum of 42 monthly wages. This new contract had a period of validity of four years; once this period was over and after evaluating the effects of this new type of permanent contract, a decision about its maintenance would be taken.

The reduction in severance pay appeared to be a key measure to promote the creation of permanent employment and the wage moderation of these workers (Ferreiro, 2003: 32). Furthermore, the 1997 reform tried to clarify the reasons that define an 'individual' or a 'wholesale' dismissal (the latter involves lower severance pay) as fair dismissal, transferring the control and monitoring of the fair dismissals to collective bargaining. On the other hand, the 1997 reform furthered the process that began in 1994 of reducing public intervention in labour relations, substituting the law norms for rules that had arisen from collective bargaining. Even if the 1997 reform was presented as a tool for reducing the rates of temporary employment, its effects have been rather limited. The fall in the rate of temporary employment has been higher in the private sector than in the whole economy due to an increase of rates of temporary employment in the public sector (Graph

2). This is due to the fact that between 1995 and 2001 while in the private sector 76.1% of the employment created was permanent, in the public sector this figure was only 47.5%.

Graph 2: Rate of temporary employment (%) in Spain



Source: Spanish Statistical Institute website (www.ine.es)

The effects of the reform have been poor and concentrated in highly skilled workers. Skilled workers are the ones who benefited most from the 1997 reform (Ferreiro, 2003: 33) But neither the 1994 nor the 1997 reform has been able to change the pattern of competitiveness of Spanish firms. In 1998, the government and the most important trade unions, with the opposition of the employers' organisations, reached an agreement to promote part-time employment and to improve its stability (*Acuerdo sobre el trabajo a tiempo parcial y mejora de su estabilidad*). This agreement later became law (*Real Decreto-Ley 15/1998*).

1.2.6 THE 2001 LABOUR MARKET REFORM

In 2001, the government passed a new law reforming the labour market (*Ley 12/2001 de Medidas Urgentes de reforma del mercado de trabajo para el incremento del empleo y mejora de su calidad*). This reform was unilaterally decided by the government, without the support of the social partners. By means of this law, new reforms in the labour market were started with the intention of affecting some modalities of recruitment by creating new contract forms. It created a new reason for dismissal, and the permanent contract with a lower cost of dismissal introduced in the 1997 reform was maintained and consolidated. This new reform insists on some of the lines of intervention of the 1997 reform, particularly those related to some aspects of certain modalities of temporary contracts and with the promotion of permanent contracts. Many changes to the part-time employment regulation of 1998 were made (CES, 1998: 253)

Very briefly, the following are the main aspects of the 2001 reform:

- The new type of permanent contract (with a lower cost of dismissal) is kept.
- A new type of contract – the insertion contract – is created. It is a new form of temporary contract. By means of it, the public administration hires a person who is looking for a contract in order to perform work or to provide a service of social or public interest, as a way of achieving experience and to improve the participation rate of certain groups.
- The age limit for the formation contracts (i.e. 16 - 21 years) is removed for the unemployed with disabilities, those who have been unemployed for more than three years, people in a situation of social exclusion, and immigrants during the first two years of validity of their work permit.
- An indemnification at the end of temporary contracts due to the expiration of the arranged period or to the end of work or service of eight days per year worked or the one decided in the collective bargaining is established, with the exception of the formative and insertion contracts.
- The regulation concerning part-time employment contracts is modified in some aspects as the removal of the maximum limit for the working day of 77% of the respective full-time working day, the relaxation of the distribution of the daily timetable, the removal of the obligation of the ordinary working hours by day, week, month or year to be determined in the contract, the increase in the number of complementary hours that can be done according to the respective collective bargaining from 30% to 60%, the removal of forewarning period of seven days for the realisation of complementary hours, etc. (CES, 2001: 355-357).

One of the objectives of the 2001 reform is to reduce the rate of temporary employment, and thus remove the segmentation between temporary and permanent workers. Nonetheless, the reform may create new types of segmentation whose consequences will be difficult to forecast. On the one hand, it may deepen the segmentation between the permanent workers resulting from the 1997 reform and the other permanent workers. This segmentation might contribute to reducing the wage gap between permanent and temporary workers, because it will reduce the costs of labour turnover between permanent and temporary workers. On the other hand, even if there were a decrease in the rate of temporary employment, the segmentation between full-time and part-time workers could increase. Even if the wage gap between temporary and

permanent workers can be reduced, that between full-time and part-time workers might increase. Thus, the final effect on the evolution of wages and employment is undetermined.

I.2.7 CONCLUSIONS

Throughout this process of reform, the regulation concerning part-time employment (which was defined for the first time in the 1980 Workers' Statute) has been changing. In all of the later labour market reforms, the definition of part-time employment was changed in an attempt to make part-time employment a relevant modality of employment in the Spanish labour market. But these efforts have not succeeded: part-time employment is very rare in Spain and, despite all the regulations that have been made to promote the stability and quality of these contracts, part-time workers in Spain are still highly discriminated against because 1) they have very high rates of temporary employment in comparison with full-time workers, and 2) their hourly wages are much lower.

The new Spanish government (which was elected in March 2004) has declared its intention of reforming the labour market yet again. It plans to change the legislation concerning the minimum wage in order to narrow the wage gap between full- and part-time workers. They have announced their intention to reinstate the 'causation principle' for temporary recruitment, as well to reduce the unemployment contributions for permanent contracts, and to pursue the fraud consisting of chaining multiple temporary contracts as a substitute for permanent employment (a very common practice in the Spanish labour market). They also intend to promote permanent part-time contracts. It is also necessary to bring about a change in the Spanish business culture, as nowadays a 'good' worker is the one who does more overtime hours, the one who does not go home until his/her boss does, and not the one who does his/her work in the established hours. This negatively affects the productivity of companies, the quality of life. It is therefore understandable that part-time workers do not have any kind of recognition.

2. PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN THE NETHERLANDS AND SPAIN: AN ANALYSIS THROUGH REASONS FOR ITS DEMAND AND BRANCHES OF ACTIVITY

2.1 STATISTICAL METHODOLOGY³

Correspondence analysis is, like principal component analysis, a factor analysis method. Factor analysis methods hold a prominent position among the methods of multivariate analysis. The most important characteristic of these methods is their ability to describe and analyse large data matrices. The main objective of factor analysis is to provide through a small number of factors, the maximum of information contained in large data matrices with many variables correlated among them, eliminating the marginal effects that disturb the global perception of the information. They are based on a single underlying concept. They convert a data set into graphical displays. By one or more graphical displays most of the information contained in a matrix of frequencies or positive data is represented.

Correspondence analysis is primarily a technique for analysing a two-way contingency table; that is, a data table crossing the categories of two categorical variables defined on the same population of n individuals. A contingency table expresses the relation between two qualitative variables. There is a relation between the two variables when the condition of independence does not apply; there is independence when there is no special relation between one modality of the first variable and another modality of the second variable.⁴

One of the objectives of correspondence analysis (and of all other factorial analysis methods) is to reduce the dimension of the data matrix while trying to keep as much information as possible. This makes the transmission of the information easier. Furthermore, it provides the necessary requirements to apply, after correspondence analysis, other statistical treatments such as cluster analysis that complement the results obtained with the correspondence analysis. Another objective is to study the similarity between the rows and the columns, and to establish a typology of relations between them. Correspondence analysis allows one to decompose the relationship between two variables in a sum of simple and interpretable tendencies.

A correspondence analysis usually goes together with a complementary analysis, which allows one to enrich the information obtained from the factors. This analysis is known as a cluster analysis. By means of cluster analysis, one obtains categories or groups of individuals with homogeneous characteristics. These groups are obtained by formalised algorithms, not by subjective or visual methods. There are different methods for doing this type of analysis, but we chose Ward's because it is the most adequate when correspondence analysis has previously been used. Ward's method uses the factors obtained through the correspondence analysis to obtain the classifications of the branches of activity.

³ Escofier & Pagès (1992, cap 2 y 9).

⁴ Escofier & Pagès (1991): for a formal explanation of the concept of independence.

This paper concerns part-time employment in two periods, namely the second quarter of 1995 and of 2002. The legal framework concerning part-time employment is the same for all the branches of activity in both the Netherlands and Spain. Thus, we could expect similar rates of part-time employment in all the branches of activity. The rates of part-time employment in the Netherlands and Spain are very different, but do they have a common tendency? Do those branches of activity with a part-time employment rate above the average in the Netherlands also have a part-time employment rate above the average in Spain? Are the reasons why employees work part time similar in both countries? These and other questions will be explored in the analysis.

In the case of Spain, we have carried out two analyses for each year. The first includes the variable 'Full-time working day' and the different types of part-time working day (reasons why employees work part time). In both cases, in this first analysis the weight of the 'Full-time working day' variable is very high, so the information it provides about part-time employment is rather meagre. This is why we have done a second analysis which excludes the variable 'Full-time working day'. Thus, we can characterise part-time employment. Concerning the different reasons for working part time, for 1995 they were six: 1) 'Part-time job taken because the person is undergoing school education or training'; 2) 'Part-time job taken because of own illness or disability'; 3) 'Part-time job taken because the person could not find a full-time job'; 4) 'Part-time job taken because the person did not want a full-time job'; and 6) 'Part-time job taken because of other reasons' and 'Person with a part-time job but giving no reason'. In 2002, the Eurostat classification included another reason, namely 'Part-time job taken because of looking after children or incapacitated adults'.

In the case of the Netherlands, the weight of the 'Full-time working day' variable is not high and the analysis that includes this variable and the ones related to part-time employment describes the Dutch situation. Thus, it was not necessary to do an analysis excluding the variable 'Full-time working day'. Concerning the reasons for people working part time, they are the same as in Spain with one exception: excluded for 1995 are the two variables 'Part-time job taken because of other reasons' and 'Person with a part-time job but giving no reason'.

We must make an aside before starting to explain the analyses and their results. For this study, we used data from the European Labour Force Survey (LFS) provided by Eurostat for 1995 and 2002. In previous studies (Ferreiro & Sirvent, 2004, 2005), we did the same analysis as the one here but only for Spain and using data from the Spanish labour force survey (EPA) carried out by the Spanish National Institute of Statistics (INE). They are the same data as those sent to Eurostat for the LFS but are more disaggregated. In the case of 1995, the variable of the LFS 'Part-time job taken because of other reasons' includes the following variables of the EPA: 'Part-time job taken because of other reasons', 'Part-time job taken because of looking after children or incapacitated adults' and 'Part-time job taken because of the type of activity undertaken'. For 2002, the variable of the LFS 'Part-time job taken because of other reasons' includes the following variables of the EPA: 'Part-time job taken because of other reasons' and 'Part-time job taken because of the type of activity undertaken'. Using the aggregation done by Eurostat we lose certain explanatory richness. Because of this we

opted to give, together with the analysis carried out with the Eurostat data, the main conclusions of the analysis carried out with the EPA data. The individuals studied correspond with the classification NACE ID.

2.2 PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN SPAIN

2.2.1 PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN SPAIN IN 1995

In 1995 the share of part-time employment in Spain was small, lower than the EU-15 averages:

- 7.39% of all employees (922,263 workers) worked part time (16% in the EU-15).
- 2.65% of all male employees (218,043) worked part time (5.21% in the EU-15)
- 16.52% of all female employees (704,220) worked part time (31.23% in the EU-15).

Figure I: Part-time employment in Spain in 1995

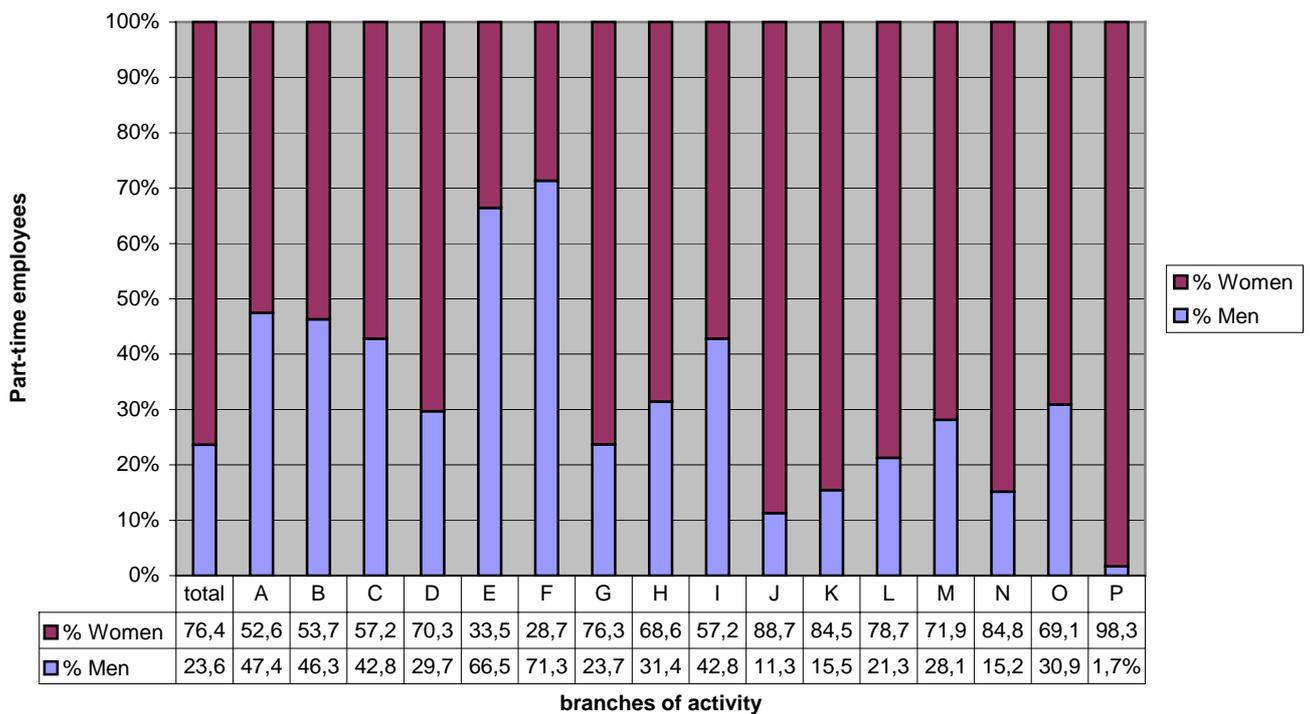


Figure I shows the percentages of women and men in each of the branches of activity.⁵ The women's percentage is higher than 50% in all branches except for 'Electricity, gas and water supply' (hereafter referred to as 'Electricity Supply') and Construction, in which the percentage of men is higher than 50%. In 'Agriculture, hunting and forestry' (hereafter referred to as 'Agriculture'), Fishing, Mining & Quarrying, and 'Transport, storage and communications' (hereafter referred to as 'Transport') the percentage of men is over 40%. The branches of activity in which part-time male workers are more than 40% are branches of activity in the primary and secondary sectors.

In this work the analysis is focused on employed women. A concept closely linked to the correspondence analysis is that of row profile and column profile, which are conditional frequencies. The row profiles are obtained by dividing the total frequency by the marginal frequency of the row, and the column profiles are

obtained by dividing the total frequency by the marginal frequency of the column. If all the branches of activity were to present the same profile, this one would be identical to the marginal profile. In this case, we say that there is independence between the variable branches of activity and the variable types of working day. The independence between both variables means that there is no relation between them. The main objective of the correspondence analysis is to study the relationship between these two variables, that is, the deviation of the profiles matrix from the independence hypothesis.

Charts 1, 2, and 3 show the main information that we get from a direct analysis of the data. Charts 1 and 2 show the row profiles while Chart 3 shows the column profiles. Charts 2 and 3 – along with most of the rest of the tables and charts used in this paper – can be found in Appendix 2.

Chart 1: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995. Row profiles

	1 FT	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7 PT	NA
Total	83.44%	0.64%	0.20%	3.61%	0.59%	11.25%	0.22%	0.04%
A	86.84%	0.18%	1.39%	0.16%	0.10%	11.25%	0.00%	0.08%
B	54.29%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	45.71%	0.00%	0.00%
C	95.63%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.37%	0.00%	0.00%
D	90.29%	0.56%	0.17%	2.00%	0.64%	6.27%	0.07%	0.00%
E	96.93%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	3.07%	0.00%	0.00%
F	87.31%	0.00%	0.00%	4.51%	2.05%	4.94%	0.00%	1.20%
G	86.31%	0.46%	0.11%	2.95%	0.66%	9.17%	0.35%	0.00%
H	82.10%	1.17%	0.00%	3.72%	0.71%	12.13%	0.16%	0.00%
I	90.27%	0.19%	0.00%	1.69%	0.52%	6.15%	1.17%	0.00%
J	87.39%	0.11%	0.00%	1.83%	0.79%	9.73%	0.14%	0.00%
K	75.46%	1.39%	0.14%	7.63%	0.70%	14.21%	0.47%	0.00%
L	94.16%	0.05%	0.00%	0.66%	0.17%	4.58%	0.38%	0.00%
M	85.53%	1.41%	0.14%	2.94%	0.11%	9.79%	0.08%	0.00%
N	90.51%	0.44%	0.04%	1.96%	0.25%	6.58%	0.12%	0.11%
O	79.03%	0.90%	0.22%	3.26%	0.94%	15.66%	0.00%	0.00%
P	45.47%	0.43%	0.24%	15.05%	1.69%	36.71%	0.20%	0.22%

The 'Total' row shows the row profiles for the total number of employed women. The statement that, for example, 'Part-time working day due to other reasons' = 11.25%, means that of the total number of employed women, 11.25% work on a part-time basis due to other reasons. If there were independence, within the collective of women employed in the Fishing branch, the variable 'Part-time work due to other reasons' would be 11.25%; however, the percentage is 45.71, involving the existence of a relationship between the Fishing branch and the reason 'Part-time work due to other reasons'. In this case, there is a positive relation between 'Part-time work due to other reasons' and Fishing, because 45.71% is greater than 11.25%. On the other hand, as 3.07% is less than 11.25%, it is said that the reason 'Part-time work due to other reasons' and the Electricity Supply branch repel one another.

⁵ See the correspondences of the letters A, B, C..., with the branches of activity, and of 1FT, 2PT, 3PT, ..., with the types of working day in the Appendix 1.

Households and Fishing, with 54.43% and 45.71% of women employed part-time, respectively, are the two branches in which the share of women employed part-time is higher, with a big gap in relation to the other branches.

In the second analysis (Chart 2) the analysis focuses on part-time employed women. The main features obtained are:

- 67.96% of part-time employed women work 'Part time due to other reasons'. This percentage is 85.48% in Agriculture, and 100% in Fishing, Mining & Quarrying, and Electricity Supply.
- 21.82% of the part-time employed women work 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'. This percentage is 35.51% in Construction, 31.11% in Real Estate and 27.59% in Households.
- 1.19% of part-time employed women work 'Part time due to own illness or disability'. This percentage is 10.57% in the Agriculture branch.
- 3.58% of women employed part-time work 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'. This percentage is 16.13% in the Construction branch.

Furthermore, the analysis carried out with the data from the EPA shows that:

- 12.01% of part-time employed women work 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults'. This percentage is 25.51% in Agriculture and 25.9% in Manufacturing.
- 42.05% of all part-time employed women work 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken'. This percentage is 90.9% in Fishing and 100% in Electricity Supply.

Some of these results should be taken with care as they might not be significant. It is the case with Electricity Supply and Mining & Quarrying, the results of which change completely in each year studied (i.e. 1995 and 2002, as well as in 2000 and 2003, which have been studied but do not appear in this paper). The samples of these two branches of activity are very small and they do not properly represent the part-timers who work in them.

Chart 3 shows the column profiles. They reveal that:

- 7.02% of all employed women work in Agriculture, and 49.54% of women employed 'Part time due to own illness or disability' work in Agriculture.
- 10.11% of all employed women work in Education. This percentage is 8.83% among the part-time employed women. 22.18% of women employed 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' work in the Education branch.
- 7.16% of all employed women work in the Households branch. This percentage is 3.90% among the 'Full-time employed women' and 23.59% among the 'Part-time employed women'. 29.84% of women employed 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' work in the Households branch, and 35.05% of women who do not give an answer about their labour situation, work in this branch.

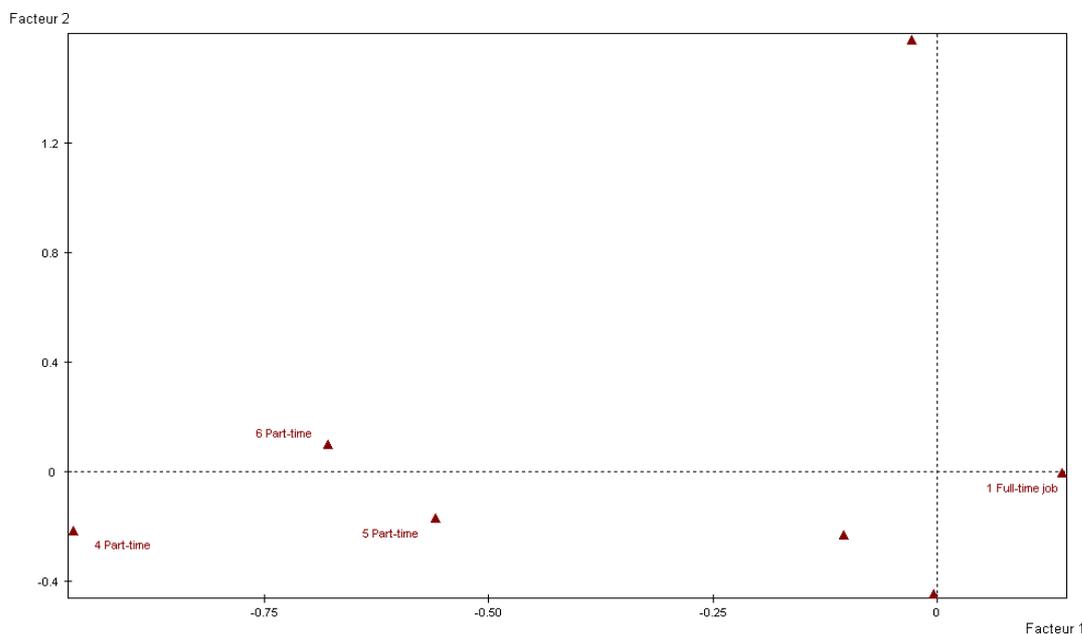
Table 3 shows the eigen values for the analysis, which includes the 'Full-time working day' variable. Each eigen value represents the inertia of the factor to which it is associated. In the correspondence analysis, the inertia

represents the structure of the table variability. If the variables were independent (if there were no relationship between their modalities) the inertia would be zero. Thus, for example, the first eigen value corresponds with the inertia associated to the first factorial axis. The first factorial axis explains 86.54% of the inertia information, this is, why the table we are analysing keeps away from the independence hypothesis.

Table 4 shows the coordinates, contributions and squared cosines, from the categories as well as from the individuals, for the analysis that includes the variable 'Full-time working day'. The absolute contribution indicates which variables contribute more to the formation of the first axis (we can observe that their sum is 100). In the data analysis, the squared cosines are often called 'relative contributions', which express how an axis explains the dispersion of a variable.

As stated, the first factorial axis explains 86.54% of the inertia information. The variable 'Full-time working day' contributes 15.4% (absolute contribution) to the construction of the first axis. Moreover, it is very well represented in this axis (squared cosine=1.00= relative contribution). This first axis opposes the variable 'Full-time working day', which is placed in the positive part of the first axis (coordinate 0.14), to all the variables related to part-time employment which are well represented in this axis which are placed in the negative part of the first axis as it can be observed in Graph 3.⁶

Graph 3: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995. First factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

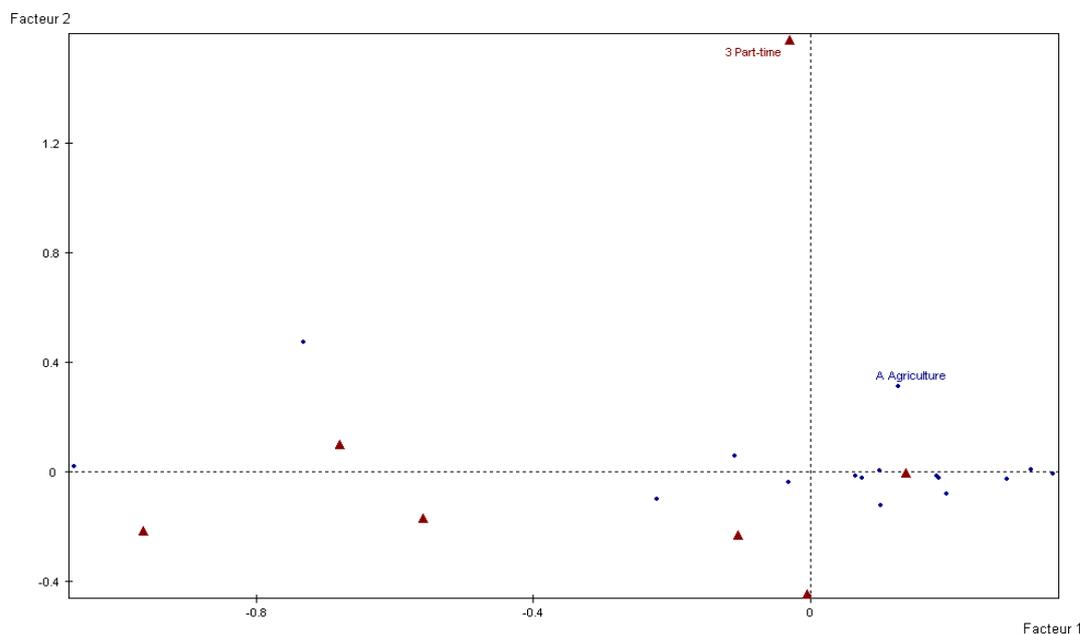
Fishing, 'Real estate, renting, business activities, consulting' (hereafter referred to as 'Real Estate'), 'Other community, social and personal service activities' (hereafter referred to as 'Other Social Activities') and Households join to the variables related with part-time employment, in opposition to Mining & Quarrying,

Manufacturing, 'Electricity, gas and water supply' (hereafter referred to as 'Electricity Supply'), 'Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods' (hereafter referred to as 'Trade'), Transport, 'Financial Intermediation', 'Public administration and defence, compulsory social security' (hereafter referred to as 'Public Administration'), and 'Health and social work' (hereafter referred to as 'Health'), which join to 'Full-time working day'. Thus, the variables which, relatively, present more part-time employment are all of them from the services sector with the exception of the Fishing branch.

This first axis shows the opposition between the 'Full-time working day' variable (positive part of the axis) and the part-time variables (negative part of the axis). The two branches of activity that are situated more to the left in this first axis (the branches that in relative terms provide more part-time employment) are Households and Fishing.

The second factorial axis (Graph 4), with a percentage of inertia explication of 7.31%, shows us the positive relationship that exists between Agriculture (0.31, 77.9, 0.83) and the reason 'Part time due to own illness or disability' (1.58, 56.4, 0.86). The analysis carried out using the data provided by the INE also shows the relation between Agriculture and 'Part time because of looking after children or incapacitated adults'.

Graph 4: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995. Second factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

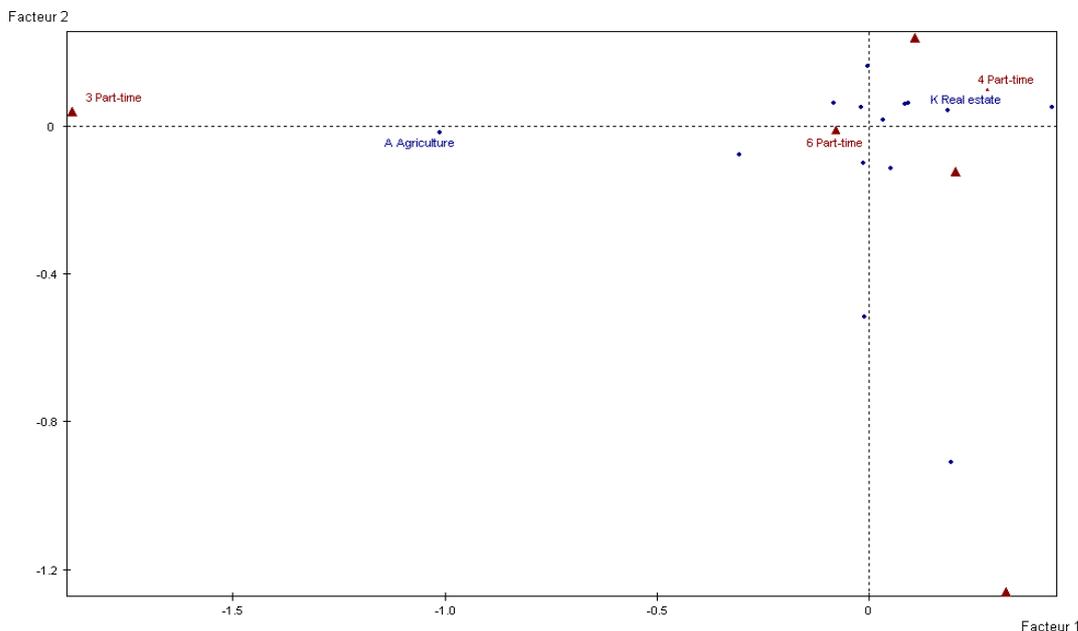
Table 5 shows the eigen values, coordinates, contributions and squared cosines, from the branches of activity and types of working day, for the analysis that does not include the variable 'Full-time working day'. The first axis explains 51.03% of the inertia information. It shows very clearly the relationship that exists between Agriculture and the reason 'Part time due to own illness or disability'. However, it is necessary to clarify one

⁶ See Escofier and Pagès (1991) for interpretation rules

aspect. If we look at the data, we see that from the total number of part-time employed women in Agriculture, 10.57% work 'Part time due to own illness or disability' and 85.48% work 'Part time due to other reasons'. This could lead us to think that the relationship to emphasise would be the one between Agriculture and 'Part time due to other reasons' rather than the one between Agriculture and 'Part time due to own illness or disability'. But in this analysis all the conclusions about a variable are in relation to other variables. Of the total number of part-time employed women, 1.19% work 'Part time due to own illness or disability' while 10.57% do so in Agriculture. And 67.96% work 'Part time due to other reasons' while 85.48% do so in Agriculture. While the percentage of women employed 'Part time due to own illness or disability' in Agriculture (10.71%) is nine times the average of 1.19%, the percentage of women employed 'Part time due to other reasons' in Agriculture (85.48%) is only 1.26 times the average of 67.96%.

Agriculture in addition to 'Part time due to own illness or disability' join, though to a lower extent, to 'Part time due to other reasons' in opposition to Real Estate which join to 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' as can be seen in Graph 5. In the analysis carried out with the data from the EPA, it also appears the relationship between Agriculture and 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults'.

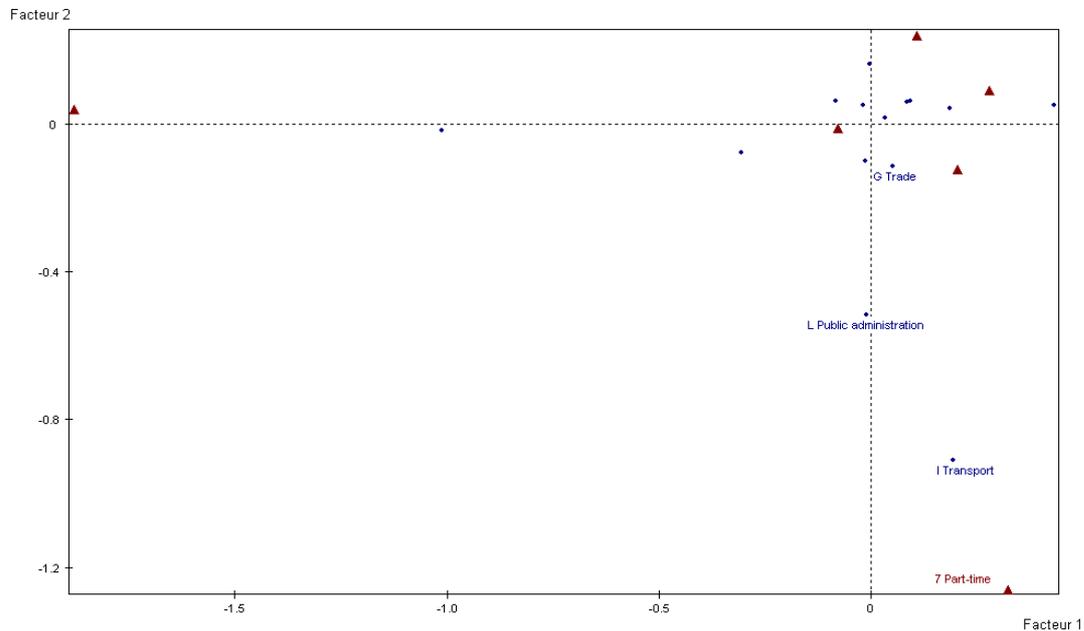
Graph 5: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995 excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. First factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

The second factorial axis explains 19.58% of the inertia information. Trade, Transport, and Public Administration join to 'Person with a part-time job but giving no reason' (Graph 6).

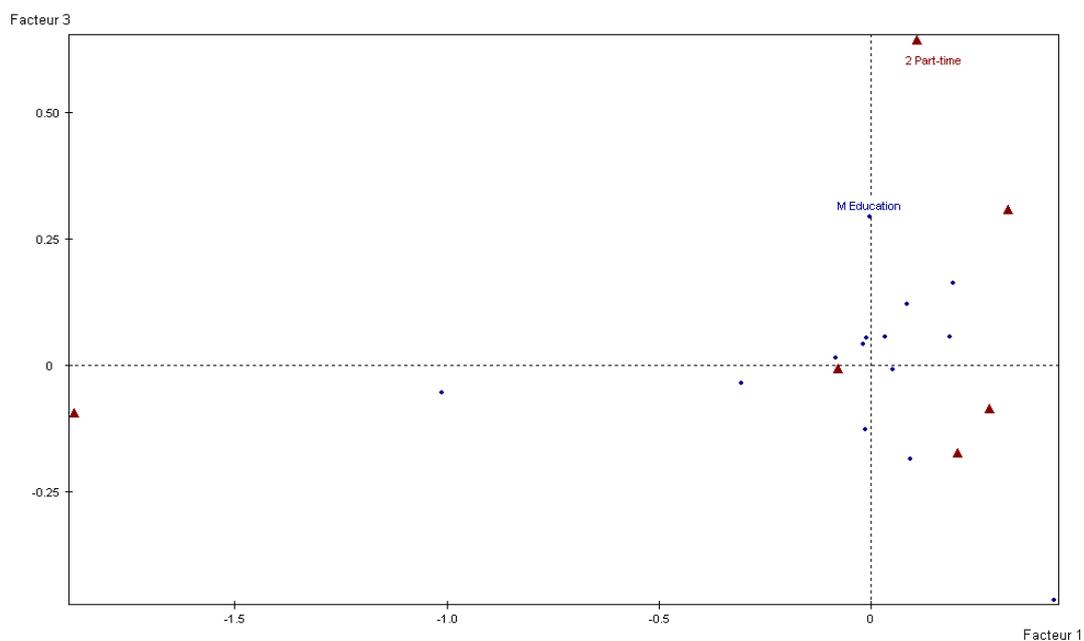
Graph 6: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995 excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. Second factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

The third factorial axis explains 15.37% of the inertia information. 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' join to Education (Graph 7).

Graph 7: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995 excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. Third factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

In order to obtain a classification of the branches of activity through the type of working day, we applied Ward's method (or method of aggregation based on the variance). This is an ascendant hierarchical automatic classification method. This method starts from the breakdown of the total inertia into 'inertia inter' and 'inertia intra', as reflected in the following equation:

$$\text{Total inertia} = \text{inertia inter} + \text{inertia intra}$$

It consists in maximising the inertia inter or, equivalently, minimising the inertia intra (inside the classes). Thus, the advantage of Ward's method is that it allows one to find the division in which the obtained classes are very homogeneous within its class and very heterogeneous with the rest of the classes.

Looking at the ratio inter variance/total variance, at the dendrogram and at the explicative power of the classes, in the analysis which includes the variable 'Full-time working day' a classification into six classes has been established:

1. Agriculture: characterised by 'Part time due to own illness or disability' and 'Full-time working day'.
2. Construction, Trade, and Financial Intermediation: characterised by 'Full-time working day' and 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.
3. Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Transport, Public Administration, and Health: characterised by 'Full-time working day'.
4. Hotels & Restaurants, Education, and Other Social Activities: characterised by 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or education' and 'Part time due to other reasons'.
5. Real Estate: characterised by 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' and 'Part time due to other reasons'.
6. Fishing, and Households: characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons' and 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

In the analysis that does not include the variable 'Full-time working day', a classification into five categories has been established:

1. Agriculture: characterised by 'Part time due to own illness or disability' and 'Part time due to other reasons'.
2. Transport, and Public Administration: characterised by 'Person with a part-time job but giving no reason' and 'Part time due to other reasons'.
3. Fishing, Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Trade, Hotels & Restaurants, Financial Intermediation, Real Estate, Health, and Other Social Activities: characterised by 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or education' and 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.
4. Education: characterised by 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or education'.
5. Construction, and Households: characterised by 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

In short, the main conclusions that we obtain from the analysis of part-time employment in 1995 are:

1. The share of part-time employment in Spain is very low for the total of employed women and also for the total of employed men. In both cases this share is well below the EU-15 average.
2. In the analysis for the female employment, Households is the branch in which the percentage of part-time employed women is higher (54.43%). This percentage is also very high in the Fishing branch (45.71%). The percentages of part-time employed women in the other branches are much lower.
3. There is a strong relationship between the Fishing branch and the reason 'Part time due to other reasons', especially in the analysis that does not include the variable 'Full-time working day' (100% of the part-time employed women in this branch work 'Part time due to other reasons'). In the analysis carried out using the data from the EPA there is a strong relationship between the Fishing branch and the reason 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken' (90.9% of the part-time employed women in this branch of activity work 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken').
4. There is a strong relationship between Agriculture and the reason 'Part time due to own illness or disability' and, in the analysis carried out using the data from the EPA, it also appears the relationship between Agriculture and 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults'.

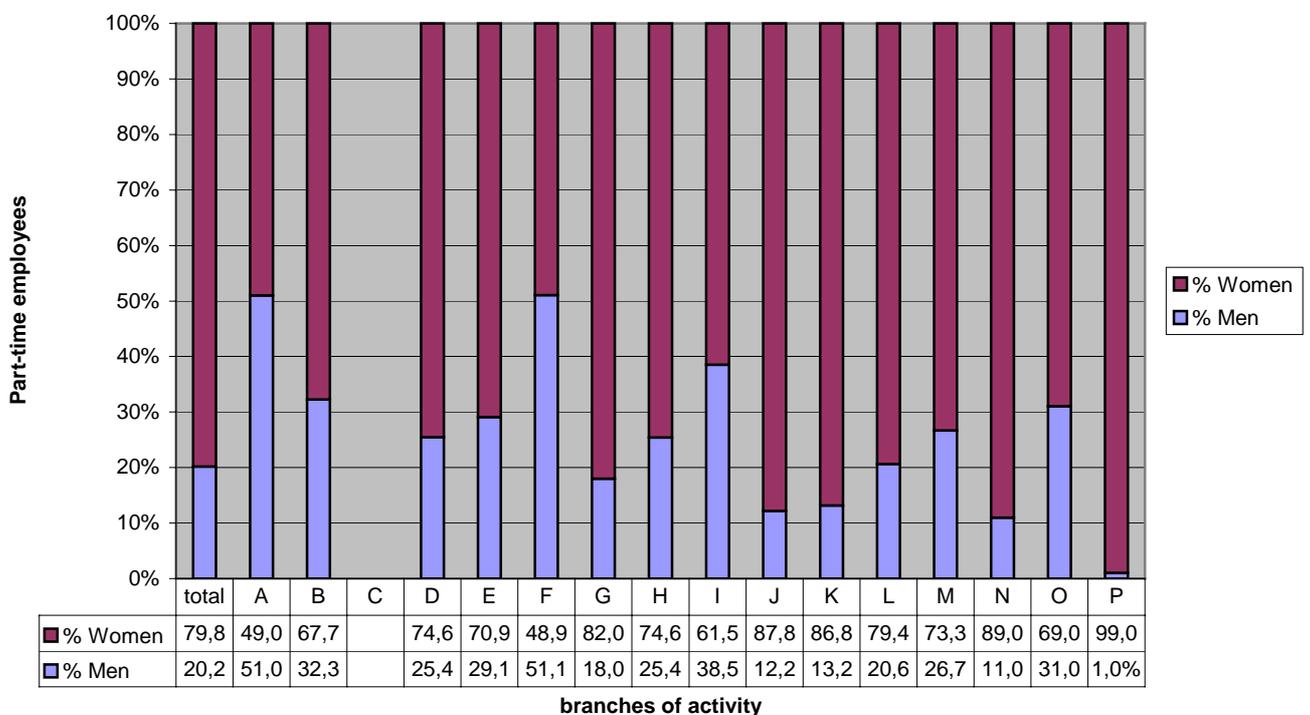
2.2.2 PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN SPAIN IN 2002

In 2002 the share of part-time employment in Spain was small, lower than the EU-15 average:

- 7.97% of all employees (1,294,029 persons) worked part time (17.91% in the EU-15).
- 2.57% of all male employees (261,207) worked part time (6.59% in the EU-15).
- 16.96 % of all female employees (1,032,822) worked part time (33.41% in the EU-15).

In Figure 2 for the total part-time employed population, the percentages of women and men for each of the branches of activity are shown.⁷ The percentage of women is higher than 50% in all the branches of activity, with the exception of Agriculture and Construction, in which the percentage of men is higher than 50%.

Figure 2: Part-time employment in Spain in 2002



Charts 4 and 5 show the row profiles of the analysis. Some of the features that we obtain from the analysis of these two charts are:

- There are two branches in which the percentage of part-time employed women is above the average of 16.96%: Households and Fishing. 55.54% of women who work in the Households branch and 43.22% of women who work in the Fishing branch do so on a part-time basis.
- In Fishing, 43.22% of the employed women work part time. Of these, 78.01% work 'Part time due to other reasons' in contrast to an average of 52.89% (this is, the 52.89% of part-time employed women work 'Part time due to other reasons'). In the case of the analysis carried out with the data

⁷ See the correspondences of the letters A, B, C..., with the branches of activity, and of IFT, 2PT, 3PT,..., with the types of working day in the Appendix I.

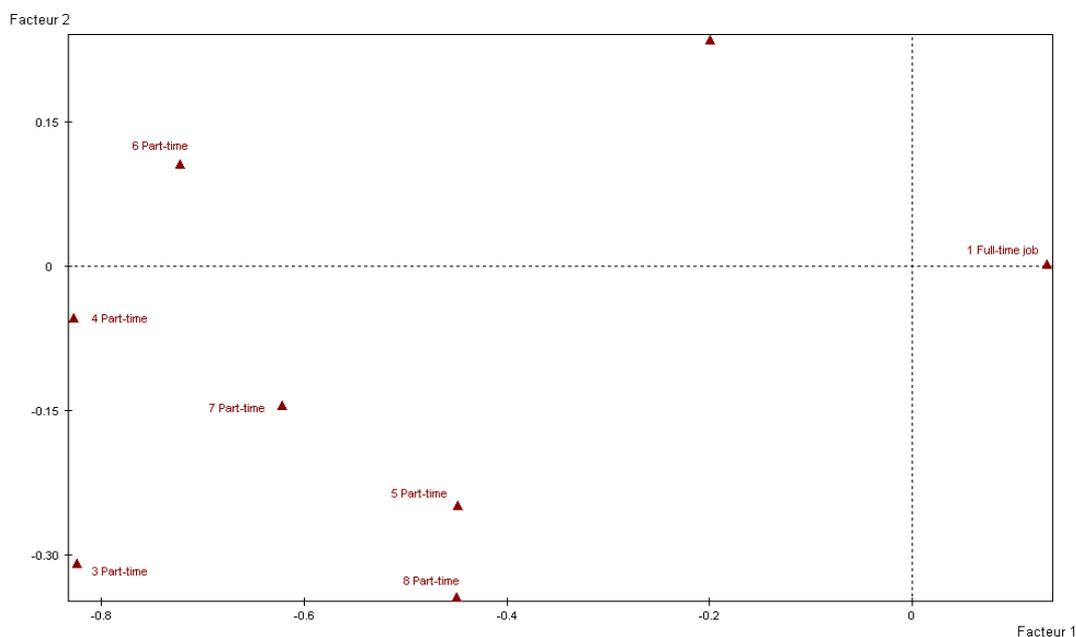
from the EPA, 77.42% of part-time employed women in Fishing work 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken' in contrast with an average of 37%.

- Of the total part-time employed women, 12.85% work 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults'. This percentage is 22.47% in Manufacturing, 21.33% in Agriculture and 21.31% in Construction.

Chart 6 shows, among other things, that there is an attraction between Households and 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

In the analysis that includes the 'Full-time working day variable' (Table 6), the first factorial axis (Graph 8) explains 89.79% of the inertia information. It opposes 'Full-time working day', which is situated in the positive part of the first axis, to the rest of categories (the different kinds of part-time working day) that are situated in the negative part of the axis. All the variables are well represented on the first axis except for 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or education'. This characteristic (the opposition between the 'Full-time working day' variable and the variables related to part-time employment) was also obtained in the analysis for 1995.

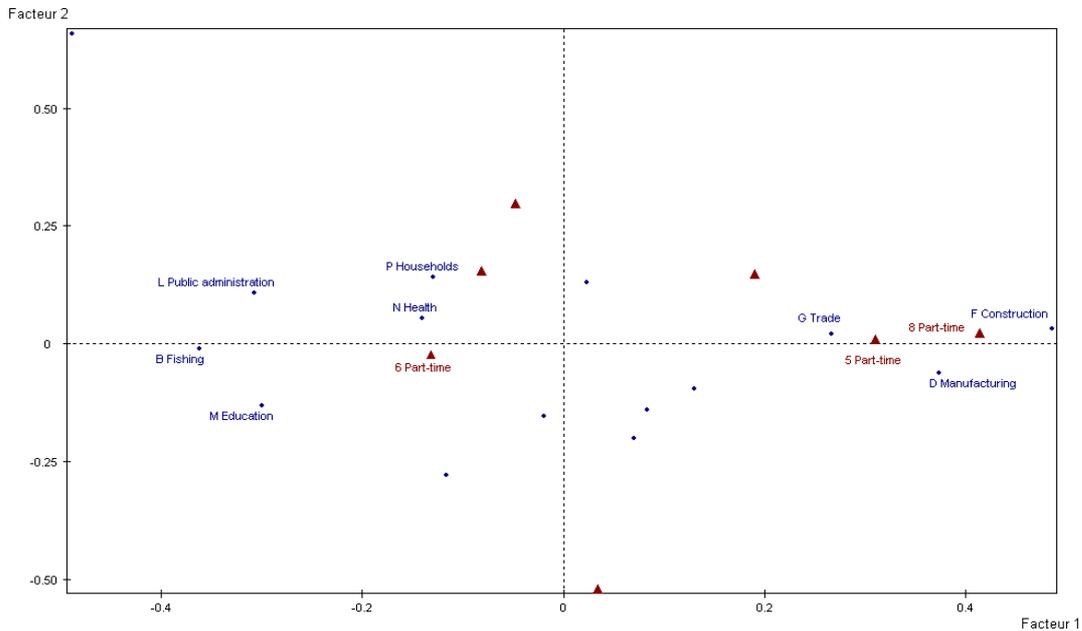
Graph 8: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002. First factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions are displayed with their name.

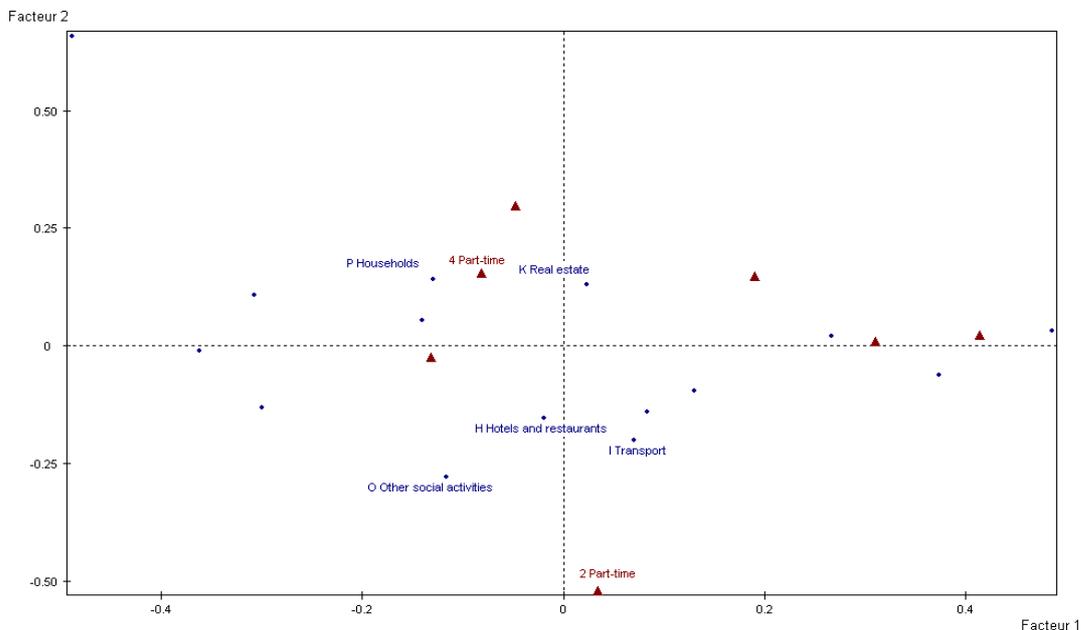
In the analysis that does not include the 'Full-time working day' variable (Table 7), the first factorial axis (Graph 9) explains 51.68% of the initial information. Public Administration, Education, Health, Households, and Fishing are branches which are located close to 'Part time due to other reasons', whereas Manufacturing, Construction, and Trade join to 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults' and 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.

Graph 9: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002 excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. First factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

Graph 10: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002 excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. Second factorial axis



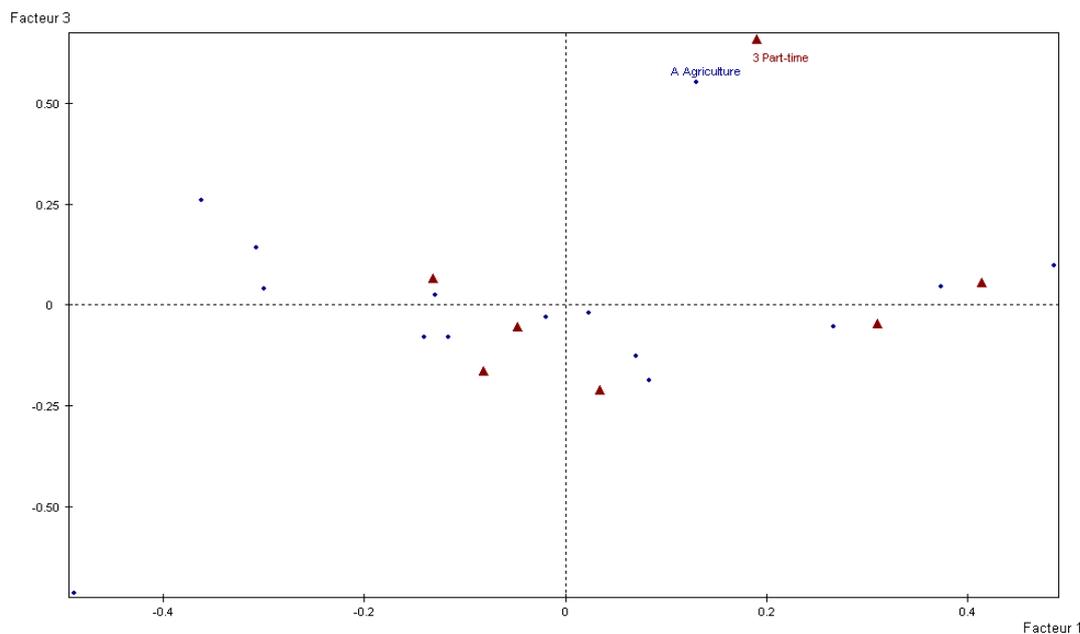
Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

The second factorial axis (Graph 10) explains 22.44% of the inertia information. Hotels & Restaurants, Transport, and Other Social Activities join to 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or

education', in opposition to Real Estate and Households that join to 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

The third factorial axis (Graph 11) explains 15.18% of the inertia information. Agriculture joins to 'Part time due to own illness or disability'.

Graph 11: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002 excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. Third factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

In the analysis that includes the variable 'Full-time working day' a classification into five classes has been established:

1. Agriculture, Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Financial Intermediation, Public Administration and Health: characterised by 'Full-time working day'.
2. Construction, Trade and Transport: characterised by 'Full-time working day', 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults' and 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.
3. Hotels & Restaurants, Education, and Other Social Activities: characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons' and 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or education'.
4. Real Estate: characterised by 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' and 'Part time due to other reasons'.
5. Fishing and Households: characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons' and 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

In the analysis that does not include the variable 'Full-time working day' a classification into five classes has been established:

1. Agriculture: characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons' and 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults'.
2. Manufacturing, Construction, and Trade: characterised by 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults' and 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.
3. Electricity Supply, Real Estate, Health, and Households: characterised by 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' and 'Part time due to other reasons'.
4. Hotels & Restaurants, Transport, Financial Intermediation, and Other Social Activities: characterised by 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or education'.
5. Fishing, Public Administration, and Education: characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons'.

The main conclusions we obtain from the analysis of part-time employment for 2002 are:

1. The share of part-time employment in Spain is very low for the total employed men as well as for the total employed women. In both cases the percentage is much lower than the EU-15 average.
2. In the analysis of female employment, Households is branch in which the percentage of part-time employed women is higher (55.54%). This percentage is also very high in Fishing (43.21%). The percentages of part-time employed women in the other branches are much more lower.
3. There is a strong relationship between Fishing and 'Part-time work due to other reasons' especially in the analysis that does not include the variable 'Full-time working day' (78.01% of part-time employed women in this branch work 'Part time due to other reasons'). In the analysis carried out using the data from the EPA, there is a strong relationship between 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken' and Fishing (77.42% of part-time employed women in Fishing, work 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken').

2.2.3 COMPARISON BETWEEN 1995 AND 2002

In 1995, 16.52% of employed women worked part-time whereas in 2002 this percentage was 16.96%. In both years, Households is the branch that presents a higher percentage of part-time employed women. In 1995, 54.43% of women employed in Households worked part-time whereas this percentage was 55.54% in 2002. Fishing is the branch with a higher percentage of women employed part-time behind Households. In 1995, 45.71% of women employed in Fishing worked part-time. This percentage was 43.21% in 2002. The shares of part-time employment in the other branches are much lower.

Furthermore, the main reasons for working part time in these two branches do not change in the two analysed years. In the case of women employed part-time in the Households branch, the main reason for working part time is 'Part time due to other reasons' (67.31% in 1995 and 56.75% in 2002) followed by 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' (27.59% in 1995 and 22.65% in 2002). In the case of women employed in the Fishing branch, the main reason for working part time is 'Part time due to other reasons' (100% in 1995 and 78.01% in 2002).

In the analysis carried out using the data from the EPA, in the case of the women employed part-time in the Households branch, the main reason for working part time is 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken' (48.22% in 1995 and 45.60% in 2002) followed by 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' (27.73% in 1995 and 22.66% in 2002) and 'Part time due to other reasons' (11.39% in 1995 and 11.93% in 2002). In the case of women employed part-time in Fishing (both years), the main reason for working part time is 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken' (90.91% in 1995 and 77.42% in 2002).

In the case of Agriculture, the main reason for working part time (both years) is 'Part time due to other reasons' (85.48% in 1995 and 64.06% in 2002) followed by 'Part time due to own illness or disability' (10.57% in 1995, and 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults' (21.33%) in 2002. It should be noted that the LFS classification in 1995 does not include 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults'. I have already explained that what characterises Agriculture with regard to the other branches of activity, especially in 1995, is its relationship with the reason 'Part time due to own illness or disability' (In 1995, 10.57% of all part-time employed women in Agriculture worked 'Part time due to own illness or disability' whereas just 1.19% of all part-time employed women did so. In 2002, 3.15% of all part-time employed women in Agriculture worked 'Part time due to own illness or disability' whereas just 0.55% of all part-time employed women did so).

In the analysis carried out using the data from the EPA, in Agriculture the main reason for working part time was 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken' (40.05% in 1995 and 43.87% in 2002), followed by 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults' (25.51% in 1995 and 21.19% in 2002) and 'Part time due to other reasons' (20.41% in 1995 and 20.07% in 2002).

The relation between Agriculture and 'Part time due to illness' appears in the first factorial axis of the analysis that does not include the 'Full-time working day' variable for 1995, and in the third factorial axis of this same analysis in 2002. The existing data from 1987 until the present moment show that:

- The number of part-time employed women in Agriculture decreases constantly, whereas the number of part-time employed women grows continuously.
- The number of women employed 'Part time due to own illness or disability' also decreases with time. There is a big gap between 1995 and 1996 in the number of women employed 'Part-time do to own illness or disability'. In 2003 and 2004 this relationship is almost non-existent.⁸

Both years, in the analysis that includes the 'Full-time working day' variable, the first factorial axis opposes the 'Full-time working day' variable to all the variables related to part-time employment. Furthermore, the branches of activity that join to Part-time employment variables are all in the services sector (with the exception of Fishing).

Concerning the obtained clusters for the analysis which includes the 'Full-time working day' variable:

⁸ Data taken from the Spanish Labour Force Survey: www.ine.es

- For 1995 we opted for a classification into six classes, while for 2002 we opted for a classification into five classes.
- For both years, Fishing and Households are a separate class, and for both years, this class is characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons' and 'Part-time do to not finding a full-time job'.
- For both years, Real Estate is a separate class, and is characterised by 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' and 'Part time due to other reasons'. It is a class separate from the one of Fishing and Households because the share of part-time workers is much higher in these two branches than in Real Estate.
- Class 4 for 1995 is the same as class 3 for 2002: Hotels & Restaurants, Education, and Other Social Activities. Both years are characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons' and 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training'.
- Agriculture, which was a separate class for 1995, joins to class 3 to create (roughly) class 1 for 2002. Both years are characterised by the variable 'Full-time working day'. But for 1995, Agriculture is also characterised by 'Part time due to own illness or disability', which is why it is in a separate class for 1995.
- Class 2 for 1995 is very similar to Class 2 for 2002. Both are characterised by the variables 'Full-time working day' and 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.

Concerning the obtained clusters for the analysis that does not include the 'Full-time working day' variable:

- For both years we opted for a classification into five classes.
- For both years, class 1 is Agriculture and is characterised by 'Part time due to other reasons' and 'Part time due to own illness or disability'.

The data concerning why part-time employed women work part-time reveal some changes between the two analysed years. The percentage of women employed 'Part time due to own illness or disability' fell from 1.19% (8,407 women) in 1995 to 0.55% in 2002 (5,650 women). The same applies to those women working 'Part-time but giving no reason': they have gone from a percentage of 1.31% (9,251 women) in 1995 to a percentage of 0.85% (8,802 women) in 2002. The percentage of women employed 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' has also decreased from 21.82% in 1995 to 18.79% in 2002, although in absolute terms there has been an increase from 154,044 to 194,077 women. The same applies to the women employed 'Part time due to other reasons': the share fell from 67.96% in 1995 to a 52.89% in 2002, although in absolute terms there was an increase from 479,878 to 546,257 women. For the other reasons for which women work part time, there was an increase in both relative and absolute terms. It is remarkable that the group of women working 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' increases from 3.58% (25,267 women) in 1995 to 9.48% (97,914 women) in 2002. This last result is in accordance with the results of the Options of the Future Survey (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 1998). This survey reveals that an important share of European citizens would like to reduce their working hours in the present and in the near future (five years). The survey reflects that 54% of those presently working, both as self-employed and dependant employees, would prefer to work less if they were able to have a free choice, taking the need to earn a living into account. At the same time, 35% were content with their present schedule, while 11% wanted to work longer hours. The net outcome of these shifting preferences would be that the average working week would fall from 39 to 34.5 hours (Atkinson, 2000: 24).

2.3 PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN THE NETHERLANDS

2.3.1 PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN THE NETHERLANDS IN 1995

In 1995 the share of part-time employment in the Netherlands was the highest of the EU-15:

- 36.33% of all employees (2,388,072 workers) worked part-time (16% in the EU-15).
- 16.09% of all male employees (633,919) worked part-time (5.21% in the EU-15)
- 66.59% of all female employees (1,754,153) worked part-time (31.23% in the EU-15).

Figure 3: Part-time employment in the Netherlands in 1995

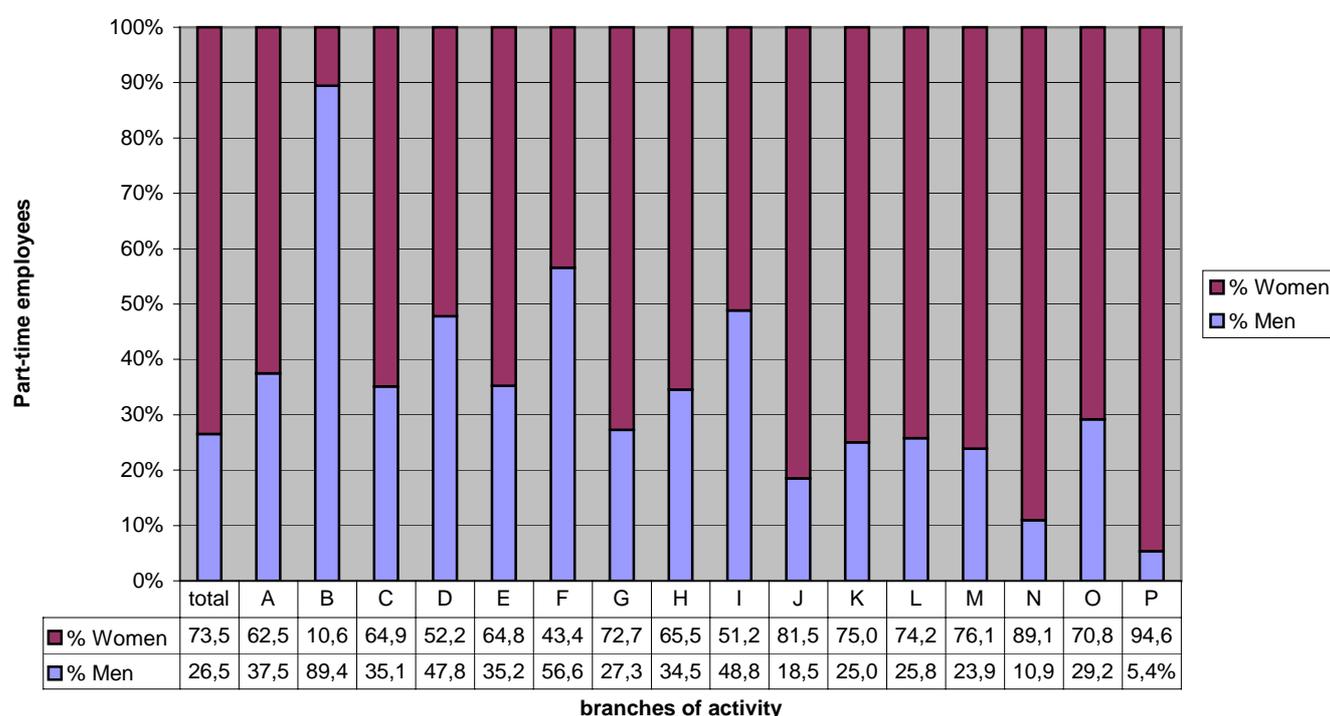


Figure 3 shows for the total part-time employed population, the percentages of women and men for each of the branches of activity.⁹ The women's percentage is higher than 50% in all branches except for Fishing and Construction, in which the percentage of men is higher than 50%. In Manufacturing and Transport, the percentage of men is over 40%.

In the analysis done for the Spanish case, the weight of the 'Full-time working day' variable was very high and did not allow us to characterise properly the part-time employment in Spain. In the case of the Netherlands, this does not happen so it is not necessary to do an analysis excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable.

Chart 7 shows the row profiles. The main features that we obtain from the analysis of the row profiles are:

- Mining & Quarrying and Financial Intermediation are the only branches of activity in which less than 50% of the employed women work part time (39.40% and 41.80%, respectively).

⁹ See the correspondences of the letters A, B, C, ..., with the branches of activity, and of IFT, 2PT, 3PT, ..., with the types of working day in the Appendix I.

- The percentage of part-time employed women is above 70% in Agriculture (78.06%), Fishing (100%), Hotels & Restaurants (75.75%), Health (75.96%), Other Social Activities (74.48%) and Households (87.42%).
- 53.46% of all employed women work 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' while only 3.96% work 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.
- 100% of employed women in Fishing work part time. Of these, 100% work 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training'. Anyway, it is rather possible that in this case we come across with sample errors. In 1995 there were only 60 women working in this branch of activity. In 2002 again 100% of women employed in Fishing were working part time. Of these 100% worked 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'. In this year, 293 women were working in the Fishing branch.
- 33.41% of employed women work on a full-time basis. This percentage is 60.60% in Mining & Quarrying, 47.03% in Manufacturing, 49.57% in Electricity Supply, 43.39% in Construction, 43.79% in Transport, 58.20% in Financial Intermediation, and 42.59% in Public Administration. Thus, there is an attraction between the variable 'Full-time working day' and these branches of activity.
- 7.16% of employed women work 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training'. This percentage is 24.85% in Hotels & Restaurants and 16.23% in Trade.
- 'Part time due to own illness or disability' does not attract or repel significantly with any branch of activity.
- The share of women employed 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' is very low in all the branches of activity. 'Hotels & Restaurants' is the branch that presents a higher percentage (6.46% of women employed in this branch work 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job').
- The percentage of women employed 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' is very high in all the branches except Fishing (as mentioned, the sample for this branch is very small and it is very possible that there is a sample error).

Chart 8 shows the column profiles. Analysis reveal that:

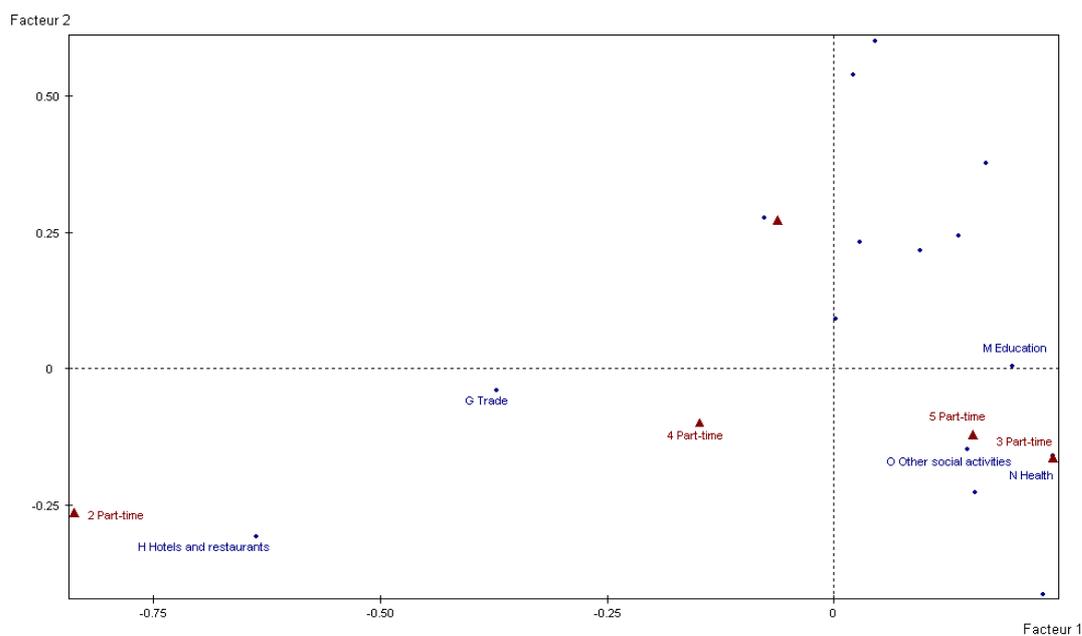
- 18.07% of all employed women work in the Trade branch, as do 17.76% of all part-time employed women. And 40.94% of women employed 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' work in this branch.
- 26.84% of all employed women work in the Health branch, 18.07% in the Trade branch and 10.42% in the Real Estate branch. 30.61% of all part-time employed women work in Health, 17.76% in Trade and 9.76% in Real Estate. 33.13% of all women employed 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' work in Health, 14.59% in Trade and 9.75% in Real Estate.

Table 8 shows the eigen values and the coordinates, contributions and squared cosines, from the branches of activity as well as from the types of working day. As mentioned, the Fishing branch is not significant. Due to this fact, we opted to do the analysis introducing Fishing as an illustrative variable. The results of this analysis with respect to the one done introducing the variable Fishing as active, are almost the same. We present in

this table the results in which Fishing is taken as an illustrative variable as we consider them more correct from a theoretical point of view. In this analysis the relative weight of the variable 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' is high (53.46%). It is followed by the variable 'Full-time working day' with a relative weight of 33.41%.

The first factorial axis (Graph 12) explains 61.76% of the inertia information. 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and, to a lesser extent, 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job', are situated in the negative part of this first axis. To these two variables join the branches Hotels & Restaurants and Trade. In the positive part of this first axis are situated the variables 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job and, to a lesser extent, 'Part time due to own illness or disability'. To these two variables join the branches 'Education', 'Health' and 'Other Social Activities'.

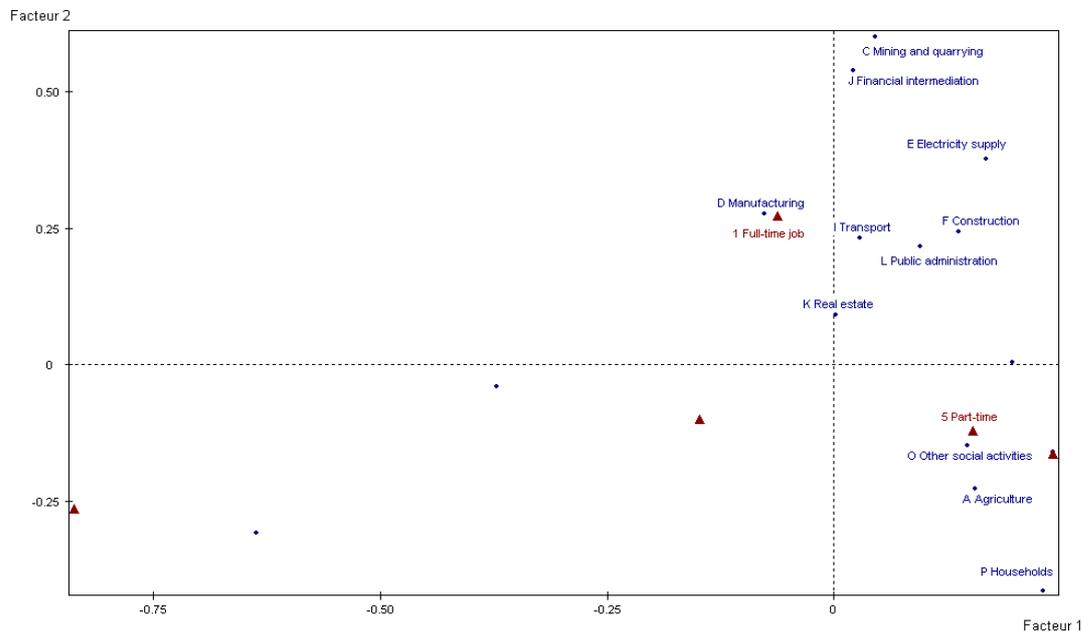
Graph 12: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 1995. First factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

The second factorial axis (Graph 13) explains 35.85% of the inertia information. Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Construction, Transport, Financial Intermediation, Real Estate, and Public Administration join to the variable 'Full-time working day', in opposition to Agriculture, Other Social Activities and Households that join to 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.

Graph 13: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 1995.
Second factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

A classification into three classes has been established:

1. Agriculture, Education, Health, Other Social Activities, and Households: characterised by 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' and 'Part time due to own illness or disability'.
2. Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Construction, Transport, Financial Intermediation, Real Estate, and Public Administration: characterised by 'Full-time working day'.
3. Hotels & Restaurants and Trade: characterised by 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

In short, the main conclusions that we obtain from the analysis of part-time employment in the Netherlands for 1995 are:

1. The weight of part-time employment in the Netherlands is high for the employed women and also for the employed men. In both cases, this share is well above the EU-15 average.
2. The weight of part-time employed women is above 70% in many branches of activity, all of which are in the services sector (with the exception of Agriculture and Fishing).
3. 53.46% of all employed women work 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' while only 3.96% work 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.
4. Mining & Quarrying and Financial Intermediation are the only two branches of activity with a percentage of women employed part-time below 50%, namely 39.40% and 41.80%, respectively.
5. There is a positive relationship between 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and Hotels & Restaurants and Trade.
6. The share of women working 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' is very high in all the branches.

2.3.2 PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN THE NETHERLANDS IN 2002

In 2002 the Netherlands had the highest share of part-time employees of the whole EU-15:

- 43.05% of all employees (3,188,799 persons) work part time (17.91% in the EU-15).
- 20.76% of all male employees (872,014) work part time (6.59% in the EU-15).
- 72.73 % of all female employees (2,316,785) work part time (33.41% in the EU-15).

Figure 4 shows for the total part-time employed population, the percentages of women and men for each of the branches of activity.¹⁰ The percentage of women is higher than 50% in all the branches of activity with the exception of Fishing and Construction, in which the percentage of men is higher than 50%. In the Agriculture, Manufacturing, and Transport branches, the percentage of men is above 40%

Figure 4: Part-time employment in the Netherlands in 2002

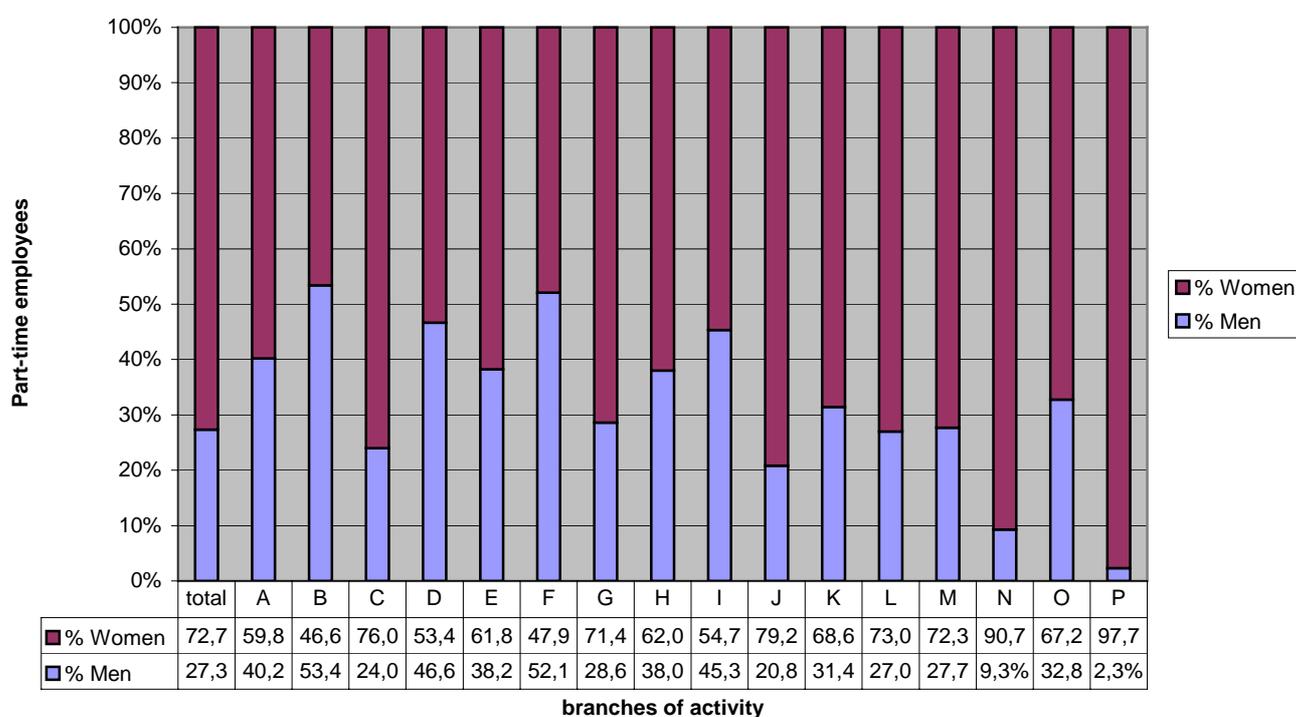


Chart 9 shows the row profiles. We can see that:

- Mining & Quarrying is the only branch in which less than 50% of the employed women work on a part-time basis (38.83%).
- The percentage of part-time employed women is above 70% in Agriculture (78.01%), Fishing (100%), Construction (73.91%), Trade (74.93%), Hotels & Restaurants (77.73%), Education (71.73%), Health (83.36%), Other Social Activities (75.98%) and Households (95.74%).

¹⁰ See the correspondences of the letters A, B, C..., with the branches of activity, and of 1FT, 2PT, 3PT..., with the types of working day in the Appendix I.

- 54.55% of employed women work 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' while only 1.25% work 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.
- 27.77% of employed women work full time. This percentage is 61.17% in Mining & Quarrying, 41.78% in Manufacturing, 42.56% in Electricity Supply, 48.44% in Financial Intermediation and 44.40% in Public Administration. There is an attraction between these branches of activity and the 'Full-time working day' variable.
- 6.18% of employed women work 'Part time because the person is undergoing school training or education'. This percentage is 22.80% in Hotels & Restaurants and 14.58% in Trade.
- 0.47% of employed women work 'Part time due to own illness or disability'. This percentage is 2.15% in Construction.
- The percentage of women employed 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' is very high in all the branches of activity. Mining & Quarrying is the branch with the smaller share of women employed part-time for this reason (31.43% of women employed in this branch of activity work 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job').
- 4.50% of employed women work 'Part time because of looking after children or incapacitated adults'. This percentage is 29.07% in Households, 11.39% in Construction and 9.39% in Agriculture.

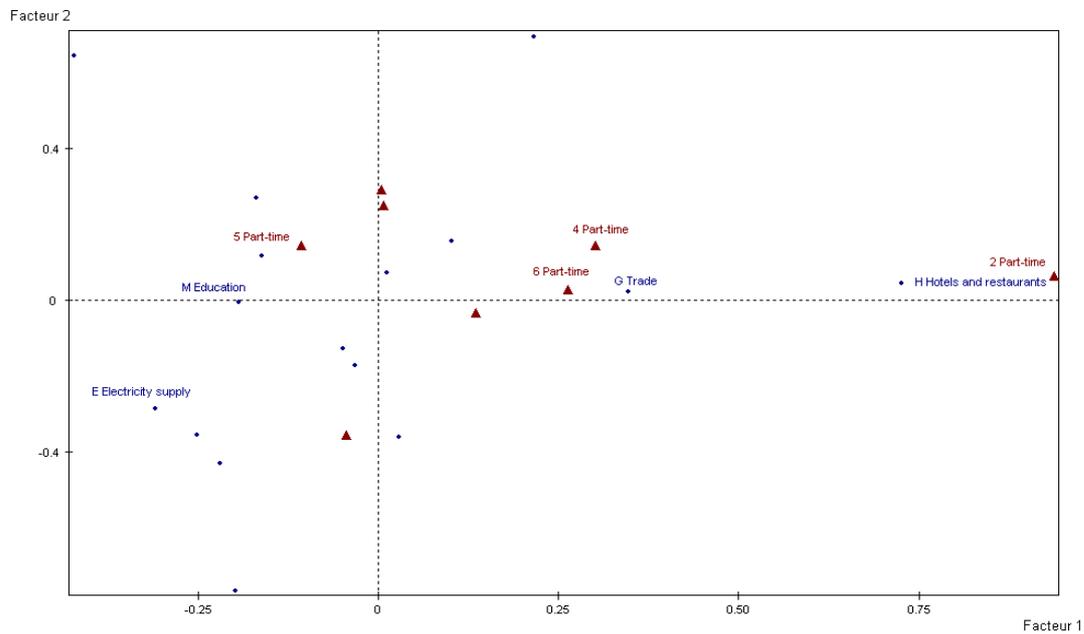
Chart 10 shows the column profiles. We can see that:

- 16.47% of employed women work in Trade. 17.09% of part-time employed women work in this branch, as do 38.86% of women employed 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training'.
- 8.72% of employed women work in Education. 8.66% of part-time employed women work in Education, as do 14.03% of women employed 'Part time due to own illness or disability'.
- 28.12% of employed women work in Health, 16.47% in Trade and 11.53% in Real Estate. 32.45% of part-time employed women work in Health, 17.09% in Trade and 10.17% in Real Estate. 35.19% of women employed 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' work in Health, 14.71% in Trade and 9.94% in Real Estate.

In the analysis (Table 9) we again introduced Fishing as an illustrative variable in the analysis. The relative weight of the variable 'Part-time working day due to not wanting a full-time job' is high (54.54%). The relative weight of the 'Full-time working day' variable is 27.77%.

The first factorial axis (Graph 14) explains 49.16% of the inertia information. Hotels & Restaurants and Trade join to 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and, to a lesser extent, to 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' and 'Part time due to other reasons', in opposition to Electricity Supply and Education that join to 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job'.

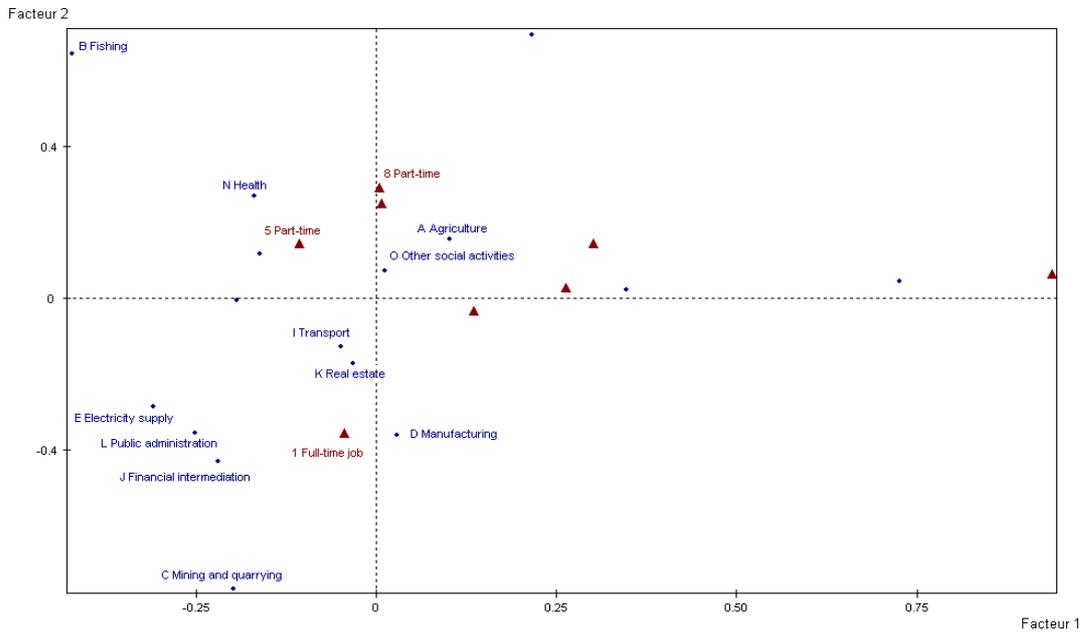
Graph 14: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 2002. First factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

The second factorial axis (Graph 15) explains 39.60% of the inertia information. Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Transport, Financial Intermediation, Real Estate, and Public Administration join to the variable 'Full-time working day', in opposition to Agriculture, Fishing, Health, and Other Social Activities that join to 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' and 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults'.

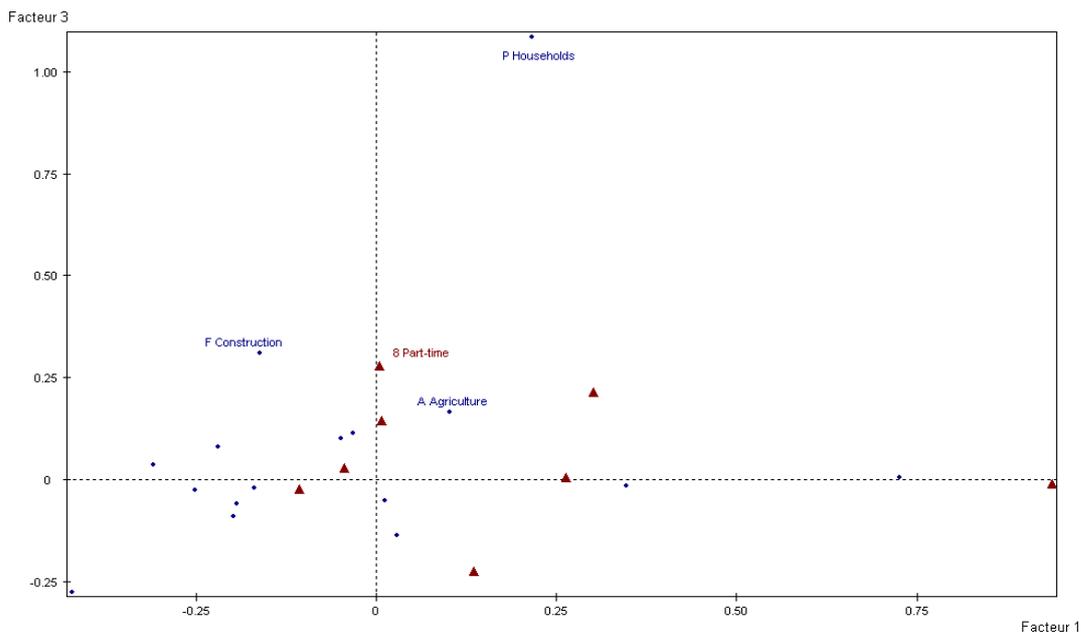
Graph 15: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 2002. Second factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

The third factorial axis (Graph 16) explains 5.40% of the inertia information. Agriculture, Construction, and Households join to ‘Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults’.

Graph 16: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 2002. Third factorial axis



Note: In the graph only the branches of activity and the reasons for working part time that are well represented in the analysed axis, according to the relative and absolute contributions, are displayed with their name.

A classification into three classes has been established:

1. Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Transport, Financial Intermediation, Real Estate, Public Administration, and Education: characterised by the variable 'Full-time working day'.
2. Agriculture, Construction, Health, Other Social Activities, and Households: characterised by 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job', 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults' and 'Part time due to own illness or disability'.
3. Trade, and Hotels & Restaurants: characterised by 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

In short, the main conclusions that we obtain from the analysis of part-time employment in the Netherlands for 2002 are:

1. The weight of the part-time employment in the Netherlands is high for the employed women and also for the employed men. In both cases this share is well above the EU-15 average.
2. The weight of part-time employed women is above 70% in many branches of activity, all of which are in the services sector (with the exception of Agriculture and Fishing).
3. 54.55% of all employed women work 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' while only 1.25% work 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.
4. Mining & Quarrying is the only branch with a percentage of women employed part-time below 50%, namely 38.83%.
5. There is a positive relationship between 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and Hotels & Restaurants and Trade.
6. The share of women working 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' is very high in all the branches.
7. There is a positive relationship between 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults and Households, Construction and Agriculture.
8. There is a positive relationship between 'Part time due to own illness or disability' and Construction and Education.

2.3.3 COMPARISON BETWEEN 1995 AND 2002

In 1995, 66.57% of employed women were working on a part-time basis. This figure was 72.73% in 2002.

The total part-time employed population shows that in most branches women represent more than 50% of the part-time employed population.

In most branches of activity, the percentage of women working part time is above 50%. In 1995, only in Mining & Quarrying and Financial Intermediation were there less than 50% of the employed women working part

time (39.41% and 41.80%). In 2002 only Mining & Quarrying presented a percentage of women employed part-time below 50% (38.83%).

The percentage of part-time employed women is over 70% in many branches for both years. For 1995, this applies to Agriculture, Fishing, Hotels & Restaurants, Health, Other Social Activities, and Households; for 2002, in addition to the above branches also in Construction, Trade, and Education more than 70% of women worked part time.

In 1995, 53.46% of employed women worked 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' while only 3.96% worked 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'. In 2002 54.55% of employed women worked 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' while 1.25% worked 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.

For both years there is a strong relationship between 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and Hotels & Restaurants and Trade.

The branches that provide relatively more full-time jobs are Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Financial Intermediation, and Public Administration.

The first and the second factorial axis are very similar for both years.

Concerning the obtained clusters:

- For both years, we opted for a classification into three classes.
- Class 3 (Trade, and Hotels & Restaurants) does not change between 1995 and 2002, and both years are characterised by 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job'.
- Class 1 of 1995 is very similar to Class 2 of 2002 except for one branch: instead of Education being part of Class 1 (as it was in 1995), Construction is. Both years are characterised by 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' and 'Part time due to own illness or disability'. In 2002 it is also characterised by 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults', a variable that did not appear in the LFS 1995.
- Class 2 of 1995 is very similar to Class 1 of 2002 except for one branch: instead of Construction being part of Class 2 (as it was in 1995), Education is. Both years are characterised by the variable 'Full-time working day'.

The data on part-time employed women by the reason they work part time reveals some changes between the two analysed years. The percentage of women employed 'Part time due to own illness or disability' has decreased from 3.01% (52,787 women) in 1995 to 0.64% (14,916 women) in 2002. The percentage of women employed 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' has also decreased from 5.95% (104,372 women) to 1.73% (40,147 women) in 2002. The percentage of women employed 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' also decreased between 1995 and 2002 (from 10.76% to 8.55%),

while in absolute terms there was an increase from 188,743 to 198,185 women. The same applies to those women employed 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job': there was a decrease in relative terms from 80.28% in 1995 to 75.52% in 2002, while in absolute terms there was an increase from 1,408,251 women in 1995 to 1,749,251 women in 2002. It is important to point out that in 2002 the LFS for the Netherlands includes three new reasons for working part time: 'Part time due to other reasons' (1.08% of all part-time employed women; 24,916 women), 'Person with a part-time job but not giving a reason' (6.25% of all part-time employed women; 144,813 women) and 'Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults' (6.23% of all part-time employed women; 144,241 women).

3. COMPARISON BETWEEN THE NETHERLANDS AND SPAIN

The situation of part-time employment is so different in the two countries that drawing a comparison is not easy. We have already explained in detail the characteristics of part-time employment in both countries. We have also shown the main conclusions of the analysis for each year and each country and the changes that have occurred in the situation of part-time employment, so we shall not go back through them but simply point out the main conclusions:

1. In both years, the weight of part-time employment in Spain was one of the lowest in the EU-15 for both employed women and employed men. On the contrary, the weight of part-time employment in the Netherlands was very high, especially in the case of employed women. In both years, the Netherlands is the EU-15 country with the highest rate of part-time employment.
2. Between 1995 and 2002 the weight of part-time employment in Spain hardly changed. In the Netherlands, the weight of part-time employment increased by some percentage points. This increase is especially important in the case of employed women.
3. In both years, in the Netherlands the main reason for working part time was 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' (more than 50% of employed women worked part time due to this reason) while the percentage of 'part-time employed women due to not finding a full-time job' was very low (i.e. less than 4%). Furthermore, there was an important decrease, in both relative and absolute terms, of women employed part time due to this reason.

In Spain, the percentage of women employed 'Part time due to not wanting a full-time job' was low even though there was a big increase, in both relative and absolute terms, from 1995 to 2002. The percentage of women employed 'Part time due to not finding a full-time job' was high. But the main reason for Spanish employed women to work part time was 'Part time due to other reasons'. In the analysis done with the data from the EPA the main reason for Spanish employed women to work part time was 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken'.

4. In Spain, Households and Fishing were, in both years, the branches of activity with a higher proportion of women employed part-time (although in no case was this percentage over 60%). In the Netherlands, the percentage of women employed part time was over 70% in many branches of activity, mainly in the services sector and in Agriculture and Fishing.
5. In the Netherlands, an important percentage of women are employed in the Health branch. This applies especially to part-timers: almost one third of part-time employed women work in Health. On the contrary, the importance of this branch among Spanish female workers is rather small: less than 7% of part-time employed women in Spain work in this branch of activity.
6. In the Netherlands it is important to highlight the relationship that existed, in both years, between 'Part time because the person is undergoing school education or training' and the Hotels & Restaurants and Trade branches.

In Spain it is important to highlight the strong relationship that existed, in both years, between 'Part time due to other reasons' and Fishing. And in the analysis done with data from the EPA, there is a strong relationship between 'Part time due to the type of activity undertaken' and Fishing.

7. In Spain, the weight of the 'Full-time working day' variable is very high. For both years the first factorial axis opposes the 'Full-time working day' variable to all the variables related to part-time employment. In order to characterise part-time employment, an analysis excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable was carried out.
In the Netherlands this was not necessary because the weight of the 'Full-time working day' variable is not high.
8. Concerning the obtained clusters, there are two important remarks to make:
 - The stability of the classes is higher in the Netherlands than in Spain. This is because part-time employment is much more important in the Netherlands than in Spain.
 - In Spain, the share of part-time employment in some of the branches of activity is rather small. This implies that, in certain branches of activity, there are big changes in the reasons for which employed women work part time from one year to another. Thus, the classification changed between the two analysed years much more than in the Netherlands, a country where part-time employment rates are much higher. We have already discussed the obtained clusters and the changes found between the two years in sections 2.2.3 (comparison for Spain) and 2.3.3 (comparison for the Netherlands), so we shall not go over them again.
9. Both in Spain and the Netherlands, the rate of full-time job is above the average in such branches as Mining & Quarrying, Manufacturing, Electricity Supply, Transport, Financial Intermediation, and Public Administration. In general terms, the rate of part-time employment is above the average in the services sector.
10. Although there are big differences in the rates of part-time employment in the Netherlands and Spain, there are also many common tendencies.

4. CONCLUSIONS

At the beginning of this working paper we wondered about the existing relationship between the branches of activity and the reasons for working part-time; this relation was studied in depth in Section 2 and the main conclusions were presented in 2.4.

As for whether the legal framework concerning part-time employment is the same for all branches of activity, we hypothesised that the share of part-time employment in the different branches would be the same. But the analyses show that this is not the case: the percentage of women employed part time varies enormously depending on the branch of activity, both in Spain and in the Netherlands. Although the reasons for which women work part time are different in Spain and the Netherlands, there are also similar features in certain branches of activity.

The Netherlands is the EU-15 country with the highest rate of part-time employment. The development of part-time employment in the Netherlands is closely linked to the late and rapid arrival of married women in the labour force and the dearth of childcare provision, and the legal framework has been adapted to these changes. In Spain on the other hand, legislation concerning part-time employment has been modified each and every time there has been a labour market reform, right since the concept of part-time employment appeared for the first time in the Worker's Statute in 1980, in an attempt to make part-time work a relevant modality of employment in the Spanish labour market. But these efforts have not succeeded, and the Spanish rate of part-time employment is still well below the EU-15 average. This might be because Spanish employers do not seem to have come to terms with the concept of part-time work, and because of the bad quality of the part-time employment contracts: despite the legal framework, the rate of temporary employment of these contracts is very high and the hourly wage is 70% of that of a full-time worker.

Spanish employers obtain through temporary contracts the flexibility that Dutch employers obtain through part-time contracts. But temporary contracts cannot be a substitute of part-time contracts because of the negative consequences that this has for the economy in the medium and long term.

As part-time employment affects mainly women, this paper presents analyses only of female part-time employment. Part-time employment very often seems to be a way of 'allowing' women to enter the labour market while making sure that they still are the main care-providers in the household. In Denmark (and in some other Scandinavian countries), the female labour participation rate is among the highest in Europe and the majority of women work full-time. In this country the rate of female part-time employment is close to the EU-15 average. It seems that where there are good and affordable childcare facilities, many women choose to work full time instead of working part time or remaining at home. Part-time employment is then an option rather than an obligation, and is chosen only by those who want to have more free time for other activities.

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APPENDIX I: RELATION BETWEEN THE BRANCHES OF ACTIVITY AND THE REASONS FOR WORKING PART TIME

BRANCHES OF ACTIVITY		
NACE ID CLASSIFICATION	Term used in this paper	SPAD
A Agriculture, hunting and forestry	Agriculture	Agriculture
B Fishing	Fishing	Fishing
C Mining & Quarrying	Mining & Quarrying	Mining & Quarrying
D Manufacturing	Manufacturing	Manufacturing
E Electricity, gas and water supply	Electricity Supply	Electricity Supply
F Construction	Construction	Construction
G Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods	Trade	Trade
H Hotels & Restaurants	Hotels & Restaurants	Hotels & Restaurants
I Transport, storage and communication	Transport	Transport
J Financial Intermediation	Financial Intermediation	Financial Intermediation
K Real estate, renting, business activities	Real estate	Real estate
L Public Administration and defence; compulsory social security	Public Administration	Public Administration
M Education	Education	Education
N Health and social work	Health	Health
O Other community, social and personal service activities	Other Social Activities	Other Social Activities
P Activities of households	Households	Households
<i>REASONS FOR WORKING PART TIME</i>		
EUROPEAN LFS CLASSIFICATION	Term used in this paper	SPAD
1 Full-time working day	Full-time working day	1 FT
2 Part-time job taken because the person is undergoing school education or training	Part time job taken because the person is undergoing school education or training	2 PT
3 Part-time job taken because of own illness or disability	Part time due to own illness or disability	3 PT
4 Part-time job taken because the person could not find a full-time job	Part time due to not finding a full-time job	4 PT
5 Part-time job taken because the person did not want a full-time job	Part time due to not wanting a full-time job	5 PT
6 Part-time job taken because of other reasons	Part time due to other reasons	6 PT
7 Person with a part-time job but giving no reason	Person with a part-time job but giving no reason	7 PT
8 Part-time job taken because of looking after children or incapacitated adults	Part time due to looking after children or incapacitated adults	8 PT

APPENDIX 2: STATISTICAL RESULTS

Chart 2: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995, excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. Row profiles

	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7 PT	NA
Total	3.88%	1.19%	21.82%	3.58%	67.96%	1.31%	0.2 7%
A	1.39%	10.57%	1.23%	0.76%	85.48%	0.00%	0.57%
B	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
C	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
D	5.78%	1.74%	20.62%	6.58%	64.57%	0.71%	0.00%
E	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%
F	0.00%	0.00%	35.51%	16.13%	38.94%	0.00%	9.43%
G	3.33%	0.82%	21.56%	4.81%	66.94%	2.53%	0.00%
H	6.55%	0.00%	20.81%	3.96%	67.77%	0.91%	0.00%
I	2.00%	0.00%	17.40%	5.35%	63.24%	12.01%	0.00%
J	0.88%	0.00%	14.55%	6.28%	77.18%	1.10%	0.00%
K	5.67%	0.55%	31.11%	2.83%	57.92%	1.91%	0.00%
L	0.92%	0.00%	11.35%	2.85%	78.38%	6.49%	0.00%
M	9.74%	0.95%	20.34%	0.79%	67.64%	0.54%	0.00%
N	4.64%	0.42%	20.67%	2.58%	69.30%	1.22%	1.17%
O	4.29%	1.03%	15.53%	4.48%	74.67%	0.00%	0.00%
P	0.79%	0.44%	27.59%	3.11%	67.31%	0.37%	0.40%

Chart 3: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995. Column profiles

	All employed women	1 FT	All PT employed women	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7 PT	NA
A	7.02%	7.31%	5.58%	2.00%	49.54%	0.31%	1.19%	7.02%	0.00%	11.94%
B	0.11%	0.07%	0.31%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.46%	0.00%	0.00%
C	0.07%	0.08%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%
D	12.68%	13.72%	7.44%	11.10%	10.88%	7.03%	13.67%	7.07%	4.04%	0.00%
E	0.24%	0.28%	0.04%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.07%	0.00%	0.00%
F	1.00%	1.05%	0.77%	0.00%	0.00%	1.25%	3.45%	0.44%	0.00%	27.07%
G	19.73%	20.41%	16.32%	14.02%	11.30%	16.12%	21.93%	16.07%	31.52%	0.00%
H	7.81%	7.69%	8.45%	14.27%	0.00%	8.05%	9.35%	8.42%	5.86%	0.00%
I	2.62%	2.84%	1.54%	0.79%	0.00%	1.23%	2.30%	1.43%	14.13%	0.00%
J	2.38%	2.49%	1.81%	0.41%	0.00%	1.21%	3.18%	2.06%	1.52%	0.00%
K	7.33%	6.63%	10.86%	15.89%	5.06%	15.49%	8.60%	9.26%	15.88%	0.00%
L	6.49%	7.32%	2.29%	0.54%	0.00%	1.19%	1.82%	2.64%	11.33%	0.00%
M	10.11%	10.36%	8.83%	22.18%	7.06%	8.23%	1.94%	8.79%	3.65%	0.00%
N	10.31%	11.18%	5.91%	7.07%	2.11%	5.60%	4.27%	6.03%	5.49%	25.95%
O	4.93%	4.67%	6.25%	6.92%	5.38%	4.45%	7.82%	6.86%	0.00%	0.00%
P	7.16%	3.90%	23.59%	4.80%	8.67%	29.84%	20.47%	23.36%	6.59%	35.05%

Chart 4: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002. Row profile

	1 FT	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7PT	8 PT
Total	83.04%	0.78%	0.09%	3.19%	1.61%	8.97%	0.14%	2.18%
A	88.72%	0.29%	0.35%	0.35%	0.66%	7.23%	0.00%	2.41%
B	56.78%	0.00%	0.00%	4.38%	5.12%	33.71%	0.00%	0.00%
C	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
D	91.04%	0.45%	0.05%	1.17%	1.39%	3.87%	0.01%	2.01%
E	89.13%	0.00%	0.00%	6.86%	0.00%	4.01%	0.00%	0.00%
F	86.19%	0.29%	0.00%	1.06%	3.30%	5.94%	0.28%	2.94%
G	85.84%	0.71%	0.06%	2.63%	1.75%	5.94%	0.18%	2.89%
H	80.62%	1.49%	0.14%	3.34%	1.91%	10.33%	0.04%	2.14%
I	86.49%	1.34%	0.09%	2.66%	1.17%	6.30%	0.00%	1.95%
J	91.61%	0.74%	0.00%	1.82%	0.81%	3.79%	0.00%	1.24%
K	75.89%	0.62%	0.21%	5.27%	2.73%	12.02%	0.29%	2.97%
L	94.87%	0.05%	0.00%	0.85%	0.24%	3.53%	0.13%	0.34%
M	82.19%	1.09%	0.03%	2.85%	1.06%	11.81%	0.18%	0.80%
N	89.04%	0.46%	0.01%	2.51%	0.82%	6.02%	0.13%	1.00%
O	80.35%	2.00%	0.00%	3.11%	1.46%	11.20%	0.10%	1.78%
P	44.46%	0.96%	0.36%	12.58%	3.81%	31.52%	0.44%	5.87%

Chart 5: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002 excluding the 'Full-time working day' variable. Row profiles

	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7PT	8 PT
Total	4.59%	0.55%	18.79%	9.48%	52.89%	0.85%	12.85%
A	2.53%	3.15%	3.11%	5.82%	64.06%	0.00%	21.33%
B	0.00%	0.00%	10.14%	11.85%	78.01%	0.00%	0.00%
D	5.07%	0.53%	13.01%	15.51%	43.26%	0.15%	22.47%
E	0.00%	0.00%	63.15%	0.00%	36.85%	0.00%	0.00%
F	2.11%	0.00%	7.65%	23.89%	43.01%	2.03%	21.31%
G	5.04%	0.41%	18.54%	12.37%	41.97%	1.26%	20.42%
H	7.67%	0.71%	17.23%	9.85%	53.29%	0.20%	11.05%
I	9.91%	0.65%	19.66%	8.70%	46.61%	0.00%	14.47%
J	8.86%	0.00%	21.66%	9.63%	45.11%	0.00%	14.74%
K	2.58%	0.86%	21.87%	11.32%	49.85%	1.19%	12.33%
L	0.88%	0.00%	16.60%	4.67%	68.69%	2.55%	6.60%
M	6.10%	0.15%	16.01%	5.95%	66.30%	1.01%	4.47%
N	4.20%	0.12%	22.91%	7.52%	54.96%	1.19%	9.11%
O	10.19%	0.00%	15.82%	7.44%	56.98%	0.51%	9.06%
P	1.73%	0.65%	22.65%	6.87%	56.75%	0.80%	10.56%

Chart 6: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002. Column profiles

	All employed women	1 FT	All PT employed women	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7 PT	8 PT
A	3.92%	4.19%	2.61%	1.44%	14.98%	0.43%	1.60%	3.16%	0.00%	4.33%
B	0.12%	0.08%	0.30%	0.00%	0.00%	0.16%	0.38%	0.44%	0.00%	0.00%
C	0.07%	0.08%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
D	12.67%	13.89%	6.69%	7.40%	6.50%	4.63%	10.95%	5.47%	1.17%	11.70%
E	0.29%	0.31%	0.18%	0.00%	0.00%	0.61%	0.00%	0.13%	0.00%	0.00%
F	1.66%	1.73%	1.35%	0.62%	0.00%	0.55%	3.41%	1.10%	3.23%	2.24%
G	18.78%	19.41%	15.68%	17.21%	11.81%	15.47%	20.45%	12.44%	23.10%	24.91%
H	8.14%	7.90%	9.31%	15.57%	12.07%	8.53%	9.67%	9.38%	2.17%	8.00%
I	3.32%	3.46%	2.64%	5.71%	3.16%	2.77%	2.42%	2.33%	0.00%	2.98%
J	2.73%	3.01%	1.35%	2.61%	0.00%	1.56%	1.37%	1.15%	0.00%	1.55%
K	10.42%	9.52%	14.81%	8.34%	23.35%	17.23%	17.68%	13.95%	20.63%	14.20%
L	6.05%	6.91%	1.83%	0.35%	0.00%	1.62%	0.90%	2.38%	5.48%	0.94%
M	9.88%	9.78%	10.37%	13.80%	2.88%	8.84%	6.51%	13.00%	12.28%	3.61%
N	10.78%	11.56%	6.97%	6.38%	1.55%	8.50%	5.53%	7.24%	9.71%	4.94%
O	5.06%	4.89%	5.86%	13.02%	0.00%	4.93%	4.60%	6.31%	3.51%	4.13%
P	6.12%	3.28%	20.05%	7.55%	23.69%	24.16%	14.52%	21.51%	18.73%	16.48%

Chart 7: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 1995. Row profiles

	1 FT	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT
Total	33.41%	7.16%	2.00%	3.96%	53.46%
A	21.94%	6.34%	2.03%	1.59%	68.11%
B	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
C	60.60%	0.00%	0.00%	3.68%	35.73%
D	47.02%	6.48%	2.57%	3.21%	40.71%
E	49.57%	0.00%	0.00%	1.05%	49.38%
F	43.39%	1.49%	0.00%	3.17%	51.95%
G	34.59%	16.23%	1.24%	4.80%	43.14%
H	24.25%	24.85%	1.36%	6.46%	43.08%
I	43.79%	4.27%	0.59%	3.24%	48.10%
J	58.20%	1.56%	1.03%	2.53%	36.68%
K	37.60%	6.11%	1.98%	4.30%	50.02%
L	42.59%	2.76%	1.07%	3.50%	50.08%
M	32.02%	2.39%	2.54%	4.00%	59.05%
N	24.04%	3.01%	2.94%	4.02%	65.98%
O	25.52%	5.51%	2.01%	2.51%	64.45%
P	12.58%	6.33%	2.18%	1.98%	76.93%

Chart 8: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 1995. Column profiles

	All employed women	1 FT	All PT employed women	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT
A	2.25%	1.48%	2.63%	1.99%	2.27%	0.90%	2.86%
B	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
C	0.08%	0.15%	0.05%	0.00%	0.00%	0.08%	0.06%
D	8.55%	12.03%	6.80%	7.74%	10.98%	6.93%	6.51%
E	0.28%	0.41%	0.21%	0.00%	0.00%	0.07%	0.26%
F	1.08%	1.41%	0.92%	0.23%	0.00%	0.87%	1.05%
G	18.07%	18.71%	17.76%	40.94%	11.16%	21.92%	14.59%
H	4.69%	3.40%	5.34%	16.27%	3.18%	7.65%	3.78%
I	3.53%	4.63%	2.98%	2.11%	1.04%	2.89%	3.18%
J	3.45%	6.01%	2.17%	0.75%	1.77%	2.21%	2.37%
K	10.42%	11.72%	9.76%	8.88%	10.27%	11.31%	9.75%
L	6.70%	8.54%	5.77%	2.58%	3.56%	5.92%	6.27%
M	8.40%	8.05%	8.57%	2.80%	10.66%	8.48%	9.28%
N	26.84%	19.31%	30.61%	11.28%	39.38%	27.24%	33.13%
O	5.22%	3.99%	5.84%	4.01%	5.24%	3.31%	6.29%
P	0.44%	0.16%	0.57%	0.39%	0.48%	0.22%	0.63%

Chart 9: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 2002. Row profiles

	1 FT	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7 PT	8 PT
Total	27.77%	6.18%	0.47%	1.25%	54.55%	0.78%	4.51%	4.50%
A	21.99%	8.59%	0.51%	1.41%	53.52%	0.61%	3.98%	9.39%
B	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
C	61.17%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	31.43%	0.00%	7.40%	0.00%
D	41.78%	5.42%	0.20%	0.66%	39.42%	0.67%	9.49%	2.35%
E	42.56%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	55.81%	0.00%	0.00%	1.63%
F	26.09%	1.69%	2.15%	1.84%	53.23%	0.29%	3.33%	11.38%
G	25.07%	14.58%	0.65%	1.60%	48.70%	0.89%	4.68%	3.83%
H	22.27%	22.80%	0.16%	2.49%	39.33%	1.83%	6.13%	4.99%
I	34.34%	4.61%	0.53%	1.33%	49.47%	1.35%	3.18%	5.18%
J	48.44%	1.09%	0.13%	0.49%	46.02%	0.55%	1.19%	2.08%
K	36.27%	4.91%	0.38%	1.67%	47.03%	0.57%	3.70%	5.46%
L	44.40%	0.36%	0.05%	0.35%	50.61%	0.65%	2.59%	0.98%
M	28.27%	1.62%	0.75%	0.94%	59.54%	0.88%	4.79%	3.21%
N	16.64%	2.78%	0.47%	1.10%	68.27%	0.67%	4.22%	5.85%
O	24.02%	6.65%	0.51%	1.56%	58.12%	0.54%	4.93%	3.69%
P	4.26%	7.42%	0.00%	9.24%	47.18%	2.83%	0.00%	29.07%

Chart 10: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in the Netherlands in 2002. Column profiles

	All employed women	1 FT	All PT employed women	2 PT	3 PT	4 PT	5 PT	6 PT	7 PT	8PT
A	2.02%	1.60%	2.19%	2.81%	2.20%	2.28%	1.99%	1.60%	1.79%	4.23%
B	0.01%	0.00%	0.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.02%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
C	0.05%	0.11%	0.03%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.03%	0.00%	0.08%	0.00%
D	7.34%	11.05%	5.92%	6.45%	3.23%	3.88%	5.31%	6.35%	15.44%	3.84%
E	0.23%	0.35%	0.18%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.23%	0.00%	0.00%	0.08%
F	1.27%	1.20%	1.30%	0.35%	5.89%	1.87%	1.24%	0.48%	0.94%	3.23%
G	16.47%	14.87%	17.09%	38.86%	23.05%	21.09%	14.71%	18.97%	17.08%	14.03%
H	4.78%	3.84%	5.15%	17.65%	1.62%	9.52%	3.45%	11.25%	6.50%	5.30%
I	3.82%	4.72%	3.47%	2.85%	4.38%	4.06%	3.46%	6.61%	2.68%	4.40%
J	3.80%	6.64%	2.72%	0.67%	1.08%	1.50%	3.21%	2.67%	1.00%	1.76%
K	11.53%	15.06%	10.17%	9.16%	9.53%	15.39%	9.94%	8.50%	9.45%	14.00%
L	6.38%	10.20%	4.91%	0.37%	0.74%	1.77%	5.92%	5.37%	3.66%	1.39%
M	8.72%	8.88%	8.66%	2.29%	14.03%	6.56%	9.52%	9.93%	9.26%	6.22%
N	28.12%	16.85%	32.45%	12.67%	28.40%	24.76%	35.19%	24.26%	26.28%	36.56%
O	5.36%	4.64%	5.64%	5.77%	5.84%	6.68%	5.71%	3.70%	5.85%	4.39%
P	0.09%	0.01%	0.12%	0.10%	0.00%	0.64%	0.08%	0.32%	0.00%	0.56%

Table 3: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995. Eigen values

HISTOGRAMME OF THE FIRST 6 EIGEN VALUES

NUMBER	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT.	ACUMULATED PERCENT	
1	0.1034	86.54	86.54	*****
2	0.0087	7.31	93.86	*****
3	0.0032	2.69	96.54	***
4	0.0020	1.64	98.18	**
5	0.0015	1.26	99.45	**
6	0.0007	0.55	100.00	*

Table 4: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995. Factorial axes

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE FREQUENCIES ON THE AXES 1 TO 5
ACTIVE FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES		COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W. REL DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1 PT	83.48 0.02	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	15.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.2	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
2 PT	0.64 0.48	-0.10	-0.23	-0.62	0.05	-0.06	0.1	3.9	78.0	0.8	1.4	0.02	0.11	0.82	0.01	0.01
3 PT	0.20 2.91	-0.03	1.58	-0.10	0.58	0.23	0.0	56.4	0.7	34.1	6.9	0.00	0.86	0.00	0.12	0.02
4 PT	3.61 0.99	-0.96	-0.22	0.00	0.10	0.08	32.4	19.4	0.0	19.8	14.7	0.93	0.05	0.00	0.01	0.01
5 PT	0.59 0.53	-0.56	-0.17	0.23	-0.09	0.23	1.8	2.0	9.8	2.7	20.8	0.59	0.05	0.10	0.02	0.10
6 PT	11.26 0.48	-0.68	0.10	0.00	-0.05	-0.04	50.3	13.1	0.0	11.8	13.3	0.97	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00
7 PT	0.22 0.98	0.00	-0.45	0.41	0.53	-0.55	0.0	5.0	11.4	30.8	42.7	0.00	0.21	0.17	0.28	0.30

ILLUSTRATIVE FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES		COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W. REL DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
NA - No answer	0.04 11.61	-1.05	-0.41	1.01	-0.24	1.77	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.09	0.01	0.09	0.01	0.27

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE INDIVIDUALS
AXES 1 TO 5

INDIVIDUALS		COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W. REL DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
A Agriculture	7.02 0.12	0.13	0.31	0.00	0.06	0.01	1.1	77.9	0.0	11.0	0.5	0.14	0.83	0.00	0.03	0.00
B Fishing	0.11 1.21	-0.73	0.47	0.03	-0.48	-0.47	0.6	2.9	0.0	13.3	16.6	0.44	0.18	0.00	0.19	0.18
C Mining and quarrying	0.07 0.11	0.32	0.01	0.04	-0.06	0.00	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.90	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.00
D Manufacturing	12.69 0.04	0.18	-0.02	0.00	-0.01	0.05	4.1	0.4	0.1	0.8	19.5	0.92	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.06
E Electricity supply	0.24 0.13	0.35	-0.01	0.04	-0.05	0.02	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.0	0.92	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.00
F Construction	0.99 0.09	0.10	-0.13	0.12	-0.01	0.21	0.1	1.8	4.4	0.0	27.6	0.12	0.18	0.16	0.00	0.48
G Trade	19.74 0.01	0.08	-0.03	0.04	0.01	-0.01	1.1	1.5	7.7	0.4	0.4	0.74	0.08	0.16	0.00	0.00
H Hotels and restaurants	7.82 0.01	-0.03	-0.04	-0.05	-0.03	-0.01	0.1	1.3	7.2	4.9	0.9	0.13	0.19	0.39	0.16	0.02
I Transport	2.62 0.09	0.20	-0.08	0.12	0.09	-0.12	1.0	1.9	12.2	10.8	26.1	0.45	0.07	0.17	0.09	0.18
J Financial intermediation	2.38 0.02	0.10	0.00	0.07	-0.07	0.00	0.2	0.0	3.3	6.4	0.0	0.51	0.00	0.23	0.26	0.00
K Real estate	7.33 0.07	-0.22	-0.10	-0.06	0.09	0.00	3.5	8.5	9.5	33.0	0.0	0.68	0.14	0.06	0.12	0.00
L Public administration	6.49 0.09	0.29	-0.03	0.07	-0.01	-0.03	5.1	0.5	9.4	0.2	4.5	0.91	0.01	0.05	0.00	0.01
M Education	10.11 0.02	0.07	-0.01	-0.11	-0.01	-0.02	0.4	0.3	39.4	0.2	2.7	0.24	0.01	0.70	0.00	0.02
N Health	10.30 0.04	0.19	-0.03	0.01	-0.02	0.01	3.4	0.8	0.2	2.1	0.5	0.92	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.00
O Other social activities	4.93 0.03	-0.11	0.06	-0.03	-0.08	-0.01	0.6	1.9	1.5	16.3	0.3	0.47	0.14	0.04	0.26	0.00
P Households	7.15 1.14	-1.06	0.02	0.05	-0.01	0.01	78.4	0.3	4.8	0.2	0.3	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Table 5: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 1995 excluding the Full-time working day variable. Eigen values and factorial axes

HISTOGRAMME OF THE FIRST 5 EIGEN VALUES

NUMBER	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT.	ACUMULATED PERCENT	
1	0.0666	51.03	51.03	*****
2	0.0256	19.58	70.62	*****
3	0.0201	15.37	85.99	*****
4	0.0093	7.13	93.11	*****
5	0.0090	6.89	100.00	*****

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE FREQUENCIES ON THE AXES 1 TO 5
ACTIVE FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES		COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W. REL DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2 PT	3.89 0.50	0.11	0.24	0.64	-0.11	0.06	0.7	8.8	80.1	4.9	1.7	0.02	0.12	0.83	0.02	0.01
3 PT	1.19 3.82	-1.88	0.04	-0.09	-0.50	-0.16	63.3	0.1	0.5	31.5	3.4	0.93	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.01
4 PT	21.87 0.11	0.28	0.09	-0.08	-0.09	-0.09	25.3	6.8	7.7	18.3	20.0	0.71	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.08
5 PT	3.59 0.30	0.20	-0.12	-0.17	-0.22	0.42	2.2	2.1	5.4	17.8	68.9	0.14	0.05	0.10	0.15	0.57
6 PT	68.14 0.01	-0.08	-0.01	0.00	0.06	0.01	6.4	0.4	0.1	24.2	0.8	0.64	0.02	0.00	0.33	0.01
7 PT	1.31 1.85	0.32	-1.26	0.31	-0.15	-0.19	2.0	81.9	6.2	3.2	5.3	0.06	0.86	0.05	0.01	0.02

ILLUSTRATIVE FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES		COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W. REL DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
NA - No answer	0.24 14.73	0.69	0.28	-1.41	-1.19	1.15	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.03	0.01	0.14	0.10	0.09

Female Part-Time Employment In the Netherlands and Spain

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE INDIVIDUALS
AXES 1 TO 5

INDIVIDUALS			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
A Agriculture	5.56	1.04	-1.01	-0.02	-0.05	-0.08	-0.06	85.7	0.1	0.8	3.7	1.9	0.99	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00
B Fishing	0.32	0.47	-0.31	-0.08	-0.03	0.60	0.11	0.4	0.1	0.0	12.0	0.4	0.20	0.01	0.00	0.76	0.02
C Mining and quarrying	0.02	0.47	-0.31	-0.08	-0.03	0.60	0.11	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.20	0.01	0.00	0.76	0.02
D Manufacturing	7.46	0.04	-0.02	0.05	0.04	-0.12	0.15	0.0	0.7	0.6	10.9	19.8	0.01	0.06	0.04	0.32	0.57
E Electricity supply	0.04	0.47	-0.31	-0.08	-0.03	0.60	0.11	0.1	0.0	0.0	1.7	0.1	0.20	0.01	0.00	0.76	0.02
F Construction	0.70	0.86	0.43	0.05	-0.47	-0.50	0.45	1.9	0.1	7.5	18.7	15.8	0.22	0.00	0.25	0.29	0.24
G Trade	16.36	0.02	0.05	-0.12	-0.01	-0.03	0.03	0.6	8.5	0.1	1.1	2.0	0.14	0.76	0.00	0.04	0.06
H Hotels and restaurants	8.47	0.03	0.09	0.06	0.12	0.04	0.07	0.9	1.2	6.3	1.2	4.8	0.23	0.11	0.46	0.04	0.16
I Transport	1.54	0.91	0.19	-0.91	0.16	-0.11	-0.09	0.9	50.1	2.0	2.1	1.5	0.04	0.91	0.03	0.01	0.01
J Financial intermediati	1.82	0.09	-0.01	-0.10	-0.13	0.16	0.20	0.0	0.7	1.4	5.0	8.3	0.00	0.11	0.17	0.27	0.44
K Real estate	10.89	0.07	0.19	0.04	0.06	-0.13	-0.12	5.7	0.8	1.7	18.4	18.0	0.49	0.03	0.04	0.22	0.21
L Public administration	2.29	0.31	-0.01	-0.52	0.05	0.19	-0.02	0.0	24.0	0.3	8.7	0.2	0.00	0.87	0.01	0.11	0.00
M Education	8.85	0.12	0.00	0.16	0.29	0.03	-0.05	0.0	9.0	38.1	1.0	2.5	0.00	0.22	0.74	0.01	0.02
N Health	5.86	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.06	0.07	-0.01	0.1	0.1	0.9	3.4	0.1	0.11	0.03	0.31	0.53	0.01
O Other social activitie	6.26	0.04	-0.08	0.06	0.02	0.10	0.14	0.7	0.9	0.1	7.0	13.4	0.17	0.10	0.01	0.25	0.47
P Households	23.56	0.05	0.09	0.06	-0.18	0.04	-0.07	2.9	3.7	40.1	4.5	11.2	0.16	0.08	0.65	0.03	0.08

Table 6: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002. Eigen values and factorial axes

HISTOGRAMME OF THE FIRST 7 EIGEN VALUES

NUMBER	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT.	ACUMULATED PERCENT.
1	0.0927	89.79	89.79
2	0.0053	5.09	94.88
3	0.0025	2.40	97.28
4	0.0015	1.43	98.71
5	0.0008	0.81	99.53
6	0.0003	0.30	99.83
7	0.0002	0.17	100.00

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE FREQUENCIES ON THE AXES 1 TO 5
ACTIVE FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1 PT	83.04	0.02	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	16.1	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.0	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
2 PT	0.78	0.36	-0.20	0.24	-0.49	0.11	0.05	0.3	8.2	76.7	6.5	2.3	0.11	0.16	0.69	0.03	0.01
3 PT	0.09	1.34	-0.82	-0.31	0.10	-0.49	0.35	0.7	1.7	0.4	15.0	13.3	0.51	0.07	0.01	0.18	0.09
4 PT	3.19	0.72	-0.83	-0.05	0.07	0.16	0.04	23.6	1.7	6.8	54.4	6.1	0.95	0.00	0.01	0.03	0.00
5 PT	1.61	0.30	-0.45	-0.25	-0.10	0.00	-0.17	3.5	19.0	7.0	0.0	53.1	0.66	0.20	0.04	0.00	0.09
6 PT	8.97	0.54	-0.72	0.11	0.01	-0.05	-0.01	50.5	19.3	0.3	17.2	1.1	0.97	0.02	0.00	0.01	0.00
7 PT	0.14	0.65	-0.62	-0.15	0.22	0.13	-0.24	0.6	0.6	2.9	1.6	10.3	0.59	0.03	0.08	0.02	0.09
8 PT	2.18	0.34	-0.45	-0.34	-0.08	-0.06	0.07	4.7	49.4	5.4	5.4	13.8	0.60	0.35	0.02	0.01	0.02

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE INDIVIDUALS
AXES 1 TO 5

INDIVIDUALS			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
A Agriculture	3.92	0.05	0.15	0.00	0.02	-0.15	0.06	1.0	0.0	0.9	58.1	18.4	0.47	0.00	0.01	0.43	0.08
B Fishing	0.12	0.88	-0.74	0.31	0.07	-0.28	-0.34	0.7	2.1	0.2	6.2	16.4	0.63	0.11	0.01	0.09	0.13
C Mining and quarrying	0.07	0.20	0.44	0.04	0.09	0.01	0.01	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.95	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.00
D Manufacturing	12.67	0.05	0.22	-0.05	0.00	-0.02	0.00	6.8	5.4	0.0	2.5	0.0	0.94	0.04	0.00	0.01	0.00
E Electricity supply	0.29	0.12	0.11	0.04	0.19	0.24	0.09	0.0	0.1	4.0	11.2	3.0	0.10	0.02	0.29	0.47	0.07
F Construction	1.66	0.05	0.11	-0.14	-0.03	-0.06	-0.13	0.2	5.9	0.5	3.5	32.2	0.24	0.36	0.02	0.06	0.32
G Trade	18.78	0.01	0.09	-0.08	-0.02	0.01	0.00	1.6	22.5	2.5	1.7	0.5	0.52	0.42	0.02	0.01	0.00
H Hotels and restaurants	8.14	0.01	-0.05	0.03	-0.08	0.00	0.01	0.3	1.7	19.7	0.0	0.3	0.27	0.10	0.55	0.00	0.00
I Transport	3.32	0.02	0.10	0.01	-0.06	0.03	0.04	0.4	0.1	4.7	2.2	7.3	0.61	0.01	0.20	0.06	0.11
J Financial intermediati	2.73	0.06	0.23	0.02	0.00	0.04	0.02	1.5	0.1	0.0	2.6	1.7	0.95	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.01
K Real estate	10.42	0.04	-0.19	-0.06	0.02	0.02	-0.03	4.2	7.7	1.3	1.8	9.8	0.85	0.09	0.01	0.01	0.02
L Public administration	6.05	0.10	0.30	0.06	0.09	0.00	0.00	5.9	3.7	21.8	0.0	0.0	0.88	0.03	0.09	0.00	0.00
M Education	9.88	0.02	-0.03	0.14	0.00	-0.01	-0.02	0.1	37.2	0.0	1.1	6.4	0.05	0.90	0.00	0.01	0.03
N Health	10.78	0.03	0.15	0.04	0.05	0.03	0.00	2.6	3.4	12.9	7.9	0.1	0.79	0.06	0.11	0.04	0.00
O Other social activitie	5.06	0.03	-0.06	0.10	-0.12	0.02	0.00	0.2	9.8	27.2	1.1	0.1	0.13	0.37	0.48	0.01	0.00
P Households	6.12	1.13	-1.06	-0.02	0.04	-0.01	0.02	74.4	0.3	3.9	0.2	3.6	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Table 7: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in Spain in 2002 excluding the Full-time working day variable. Eigen values and factorial axes

HISTOGRAMME OF THE FIRST 6 EIGEN VALUES

NUMBER	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT.	ACUMULATED PERCENT.
1	0.0419	51.68	51.68
2	0.0182	22.44	74.12
3	0.0123	15.18	89.30
4	0.0055	6.78	96.08
5	0.0022	2.71	98.79
6	0.0010	1.21	100.00

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE FREQUENCIES ON THE AXES 1 TO 5
ACTIVE FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2 PT	4.59	0.37	0.03	-0.52	-0.21	-0.06	0.01	0.1	68.7	16.4	3.0	0.4	0.00	0.84	0.14	0.01	0.00
3 PT	0.55	0.82	0.19	0.15	0.66	-0.49	-0.24	0.5	0.7	19.4	24.3	13.9	0.04	0.03	0.50	0.28	0.06
4 PT	18.79	0.06	-0.08	0.15	-0.16	-0.06	-0.01	3.0	24.5	41.0	12.1	0.6	0.11	0.39	0.44	0.06	0.00
5 PT	9.48	0.12	0.31	0.01	-0.05	0.13	-0.09	21.8	0.1	1.6	30.9	35.5	0.77	0.00	0.02	0.14	0.07
6 PT	52.89	0.02	-0.13	-0.02	0.07	0.02	0.00	21.8	1.6	18.2	2.3	0.1	0.77	0.02	0.19	0.01	0.00
7 PT	0.85	0.35	-0.05	0.30	-0.06	0.36	0.28	0.0	4.2	0.2	19.9	30.6	0.01	0.25	0.01	0.36	0.22
8 PT	12.85	0.18	0.41	0.02	0.06	-0.06	0.06	52.7	0.4	3.3	7.5	18.8	0.94	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.02

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE INDIVIDUALS
AXES 1 TO 5

INDIVIDUALS			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
A Agriculture	2.61	0.37	0.13	-0.10	0.55	-0.18	0.02	1.0	1.3	64.6	15.3	0.4	0.05	0.03	0.84	0.09	0.00
B Fishing	0.30	0.35	-0.36	-0.01	0.26	0.30	-0.21	0.9	0.0	1.6	4.8	6.2	0.37	0.00	0.19	0.25	0.13
D Manufacturing	6.69	0.15	0.37	-0.06	0.05	0.02	-0.03	22.3	1.4	1.1	0.8	3.6	0.92	0.03	0.01	0.00	0.01
E Electricity supply	0.18	1.38	-0.49	0.66	-0.72	-0.43	-0.09	1.0	4.3	7.6	6.1	0.7	0.17	0.31	0.37	0.13	0.01
F Construction	1.35	0.39	0.49	0.03	0.10	0.38	-0.07	7.6	0.1	1.1	35.1	3.1	0.60	0.00	0.02	0.36	0.01
G Trade	15.68	0.08	0.27	0.02	-0.05	0.00	0.06	26.6	0.4	3.5	0.0	28.9	0.91	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.05
H Hotels and restaurants	9.31	0.03	-0.02	-0.15	-0.03	-0.03	-0.06	0.1	12.0	0.7	1.9	17.3	0.01	0.78	0.03	0.04	0.13
I Transport	2.64	0.08	0.07	-0.20	-0.13	-0.14	-0.01	0.3	5.8	3.5	9.2	0.1	0.06	0.50	0.20	0.24	0.00
J Financial intermediati	1.35	0.07	0.08	-0.14	-0.19	-0.09	0.00	0.2	1.5	3.9	2.0	0.0	0.10	0.27	0.49	0.11	0.00
K Real estate	14.81	0.02	0.02	0.13	-0.02	0.02	-0.05	0.2	13.6	0.4	0.8	17.4	0.02	0.74	0.02	0.01	0.11
L Public administration	1.83	0.17	-0.31	0.11	0.14	0.16	0.15	4.1	1.2	3.0	8.6	17.8	0.54	0.07	0.12	0.15	0.12
M Education	10.37	0.11	-0.30	-0.13	0.04	0.07	0.01	22.2	9.9	1.3	9.8	0.6	0.79	0.15	0.01	0.05	0.00
N Health	6.97	0.03	-0.14	0.05	-0.08	0.01	0.03	3.3	1.1	3.5	0.2	2.2	0.67	0.09	0.21	0.01	0.02
O Other social activitie	5.86	0.10	-0.12	-0.28	-0.08	0.00	0.03	1.9	25.1	3.0	0.0	1.7	0.14	0.79	0.06	0.00	0.01
P Households	20.05	0.04	-0.13	0.14	0.03	-0.04	0.00	8.1	22.2	1.0	5.4	0.0	0.42	0.50	0.02	0.04	0.00

Table 8: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in The Netherlands in 1995. Eigen values and factorial axes

HISTOGRAMME OF THE FIRST 4 EIGEN VALUES

NUMBER	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT.	ACUMULATED PERCENT
1	0.0661	61.76	61.76
2	0.0384	35.85	97.61
3	0.0017	1.61	99.22
4	0.0008	0.78	100.00

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE FREQUENCIES ON THE AXES 1 TO 4
ACTIVE FREQUENCIES

FREQUENCIES			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0
1 PT	33.41	0.08	-0.06	0.27	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.0	64.3	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.05	0.95	0.00	0.00	0.00
2 PT	7.16	0.77	-0.84	-0.26	-0.01	0.02	0.00	76.1	12.9	0.3	3.6	0.0	0.91	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.00
3 PT	2.00	0.16	0.24	-0.16	0.25	0.09	0.00	1.8	1.4	74.4	20.4	0.0	0.37	0.17	0.41	0.05	0.00
4 PT	3.96	0.06	-0.15	-0.10	0.09	-0.13	0.00	1.3	1.0	18.2	75.6	0.0	0.39	0.18	0.14	0.29	0.00
5 PT	53.46	0.04	0.15	-0.12	-0.02	0.00	0.00	18.9	20.5	7.1	0.1	0.0	0.61	0.38	0.01	0.00	0.00

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE INDIVIDUALS
ACTIVE INDIVIDUALS (AXES 1 TO 4)

INDIVIDUALS			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0
A Agriculture	2.25	0.09	0.16	-0.23	-0.10	0.09	0.00	0.8	3.0	13.5	23.1	0.0	0.26	0.54	0.11	0.09	0.00
C Mining and quarrying	0.08	0.37	0.05	0.60	-0.05	-0.08	0.00	0.0	0.8	0.1	0.7	0.0	0.01	0.97	0.01	0.02	0.00
D Manufacturing	8.55	0.09	-0.08	0.28	0.07	0.05	0.00	0.8	16.9	22.6	30.7	0.0	0.07	0.85	0.05	0.03	0.00
E Electricity supply	0.28	0.19	0.17	0.38	-0.15	0.03	0.00	0.1	1.0	3.8	0.3	0.0	0.15	0.73	0.12	0.00	0.00
F Construction	1.08	0.10	0.14	0.24	-0.12	-0.06	0.00	0.3	1.7	9.2	4.6	0.0	0.20	0.62	0.15	0.04	0.00
G Trade	18.07	0.14	-0.37	-0.04	-0.01	0.00	0.00	37.7	0.7	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.99	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00
H Hotels and restaurants	4.69	0.50	-0.64	-0.31	0.01	-0.02	0.00	28.7	11.5	0.5	2.0	0.0	0.81	0.19	0.00	0.00	0.00
I Transport	3.53	0.06	0.03	0.23	-0.08	-0.03	0.00	0.0	4.9	11.5	2.7	0.0	0.01	0.88	0.09	0.01	0.00
J Financial intermediati	3.45	0.29	0.02	0.54	-0.01	0.01	0.00	0.0	26.0	0.4	0.5	0.0	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
K Real estate	10.42	0.01	0.00	0.09	0.02	-0.02	0.00	0.0	2.3	2.6	5.1	0.0	0.00	0.91	0.05	0.04	0.00
L Public administration	6.70	0.06	0.09	0.22	-0.04	-0.03	0.00	0.9	8.2	7.7	8.6	0.0	0.15	0.80	0.03	0.02	0.00
M Education	8.40	0.04	0.20	0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.00	4.9	0.0	2.7	3.0	0.0	0.98	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00
N Health	26.84	0.08	0.24	-0.16	0.02	-0.01	0.00	23.5	17.9	6.8	1.3	0.0	0.69	0.30	0.01	0.00	0.00
O Other social activitie	5.22	0.05	0.15	-0.15	-0.07	0.05	0.00	1.7	3.0	13.9	14.6	0.0	0.43	0.44	0.09	0.05	0.00
P Households	0.44	0.24	0.23	-0.41	-0.12	0.07	0.00	0.4	2.0	3.5	2.9	0.0	0.22	0.70	0.06	0.02	0.00

ILLUSTRATIVE INDIVIDUALS (AXES 1 TO 4)

INDIVIDUALS			COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W.REL	DISTO	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4	0
B Fishing	0.00	12.96	-3.26	-1.34	-0.21	0.71	0.00	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.82	0.14	0.00	0.04	0.00

Table 9: Employed women by branch of activity and type of working day in The Netherlands in 2002. Eigen values and factorial axes

HISTOGRAMME OF THE FIRST 7 EIGEN VALUES			
NUMBER	EIGEN VALUE	PERCENT.	ACUMULATED PERCENT.
1	0.0635	49.16	49.16
2	0.0511	39.60	88.75
3	0.0070	5.40	94.15
4	0.0053	4.08	98.23
5	0.0013	0.99	99.23
6	0.0006	0.49	99.72
7	0.0004	0.28	100.00

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE FREQUENCIES ON THE AXES 1 TO 5																		
FREQUENCIES				COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDEN - SHORT NAME	W.REL	DISTO		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1 FT	27.77	0.13		-0.04	-0.35	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.9	68.1	2.9	0.1	0.0	0.02	0.98	0.01	0.00	0.00
2 PT	6.18	0.89		0.94	0.06	-0.01	0.06	0.01	85.5	0.5	0.1	4.5	0.2	0.99	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
3 PT	0.47	0.35		0.01	0.25	0.14	-0.10	0.49	0.0	0.6	1.4	0.9	88.3	0.00	0.18	0.06	0.03	0.70
4 PT	1.25	0.19		0.30	0.15	0.21	-0.07	-0.03	1.8	0.5	8.1	1.0	1.2	0.48	0.11	0.24	0.02	0.01
5 PT	54.54	0.03		-0.11	0.15	-0.02	0.03	0.00	9.7	22.8	4.2	8.5	0.0	0.33	0.63	0.02	0.02	0.00
6 PT	0.78	0.15		0.26	0.03	0.00	0.03	-0.12	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.1	8.4	0.45	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.09
7 PT	4.52	0.14		0.13	-0.03	-0.23	-0.27	0.00	1.3	0.1	33.5	60.3	0.0	0.13	0.01	0.37	0.50	0.00
8 PT	4.50	0.19		0.01	0.29	0.28	-0.17	-0.02	0.0	7.5	49.9	24.6	1.9	0.00	0.44	0.40	0.15	0.00

COORDINATES, CONTRIBUTIONS AND SQUARED COSINES OF THE INDIVIDUALS																		
INDIVIDUALS				COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W.REL	DISTO		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
A Agriculture	2.02	0.08		0.10	0.16	0.16	-0.08	-0.02	0.3	1.0	7.8	2.8	0.6	0.14	0.32	0.35	0.09	0.00
C Mining and quarrying	0.05	0.65		-0.20	-0.77	-0.09	-0.11	0.01	0.0	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.06	0.90	0.01	0.02	0.00
D Manufacturing	7.35	0.18		0.03	-0.36	-0.14	-0.18	-0.01	0.1	18.7	20.3	45.3	0.6	0.00	0.71	0.11	0.18	0.00
E Electricity supply	0.23	0.23		-0.31	-0.29	0.04	0.21	-0.01	0.3	0.4	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.42	0.35	0.01	0.19	0.00
F Construction	1.27	0.21		-0.16	0.12	0.31	-0.19	0.19	0.5	0.3	17.4	9.0	36.4	0.12	0.07	0.45	0.18	0.18
G Trade	16.48	0.13		0.35	0.02	-0.02	0.05	0.04	31.4	0.2	0.6	8.1	17.4	0.96	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.01
H Hotels and restaurants	4.78	0.54		0.73	0.04	0.01	0.00	-0.06	39.8	0.2	0.0	0.0	15.4	0.99	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01
I Transport	3.82	0.03		-0.05	-0.13	0.10	0.00	-0.01	0.1	1.2	5.4	0.0	0.4	0.07	0.48	0.30	0.00	0.00
J Financial intermediati	3.80	0.25		-0.22	-0.43	0.08	0.12	-0.01	2.9	13.6	3.5	11.3	0.3	0.19	0.72	0.03	0.06	0.00
K Real estate	11.53	0.04		-0.03	-0.17	0.11	-0.03	-0.01	0.2	6.5	21.2	2.1	1.0	0.02	0.65	0.29	0.02	0.00
L Public administration	6.38	0.20		-0.25	-0.35	-0.02	0.11	-0.02	6.4	15.7	0.5	15.1	2.3	0.31	0.62	0.00	0.06	0.00
M Education	8.72	0.04		-0.19	0.00	-0.06	0.00	0.04	5.1	0.0	4.6	0.0	9.7	0.83	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.03
N Health	28.12	0.10		-0.17	0.27	-0.02	0.00	-0.02	12.6	40.2	1.8	0.0	5.8	0.28	0.71	0.00	0.00	0.00
O Other social activitie	5.36	0.01		0.01	0.07	-0.05	0.02	0.01	0.0	0.6	2.1	0.2	0.8	0.01	0.49	0.25	0.02	0.02
P Households	0.09	2.17		0.22	0.70	1.08	-0.50	-0.37	0.1	0.8	14.6	4.2	9.2	0.02	0.22	0.54	0.12	0.06

ILLUSTRATIVE INDIVIDUALS (AXES 1 TO 5)																		
INDIVIDUALS				COORDINATES					CONTRIBUTIONS					SQUARED COSINES				
IDENTIFICATOR	W.REL	DISTO		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
B Fishing	0.01	0.83		-0.42	0.65	-0.28	0.39	-0.03	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.21	0.50	0.09	0.19	0.00

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