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<td>68</td>
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Introduction

Employment plays a major role in most people’s lives not only to secure their livelihood. The place of employment is where they spend many hours a day – often more time than is available for their families, friends and leisure activities. Therefore, for many people a “good job” is a major requirement for satisfaction and quality of life.

Efficient and innovative companies need motivated and satisfied employees. Therefore, apart from the well-known labour market indicators, data on the quality of employment as seen by the workers are more and more often demanded – not least of all because the forms of employment are becoming more and more varied.

There are many aspects to the quality of employment: Does the job involve health risks? Does the work allow a fair balance between job and private life? Are the employees able to keep up with changing qualification requirements? Do colleagues co-operate well? Those questions show the wide range of what persons in employment expect from a “good job”.

Seven dimensions regarding the quality of employment

In this brochure, seven dimensions are distinguished to represent the qualitative aspects of employment:

- Safety at work and gender equality
- Income and indirect benefits from employment
- Working hours and work-life balance
- Security of employment and social protection
- Social dialogue
- Skills and training
- Workplace relationships and work motivation

Within those dimensions, the qualitative aspects of employment are represented by some 30 selected indicators.

Labour Force Survey as the main data source

The brochure is based on various statistics. A list in the annex shows the data sources used for the individual indicators.

The main source is the Labour Force Survey, which in Germany currently is integrated in the Microcensus and provides internationally comparable data as it is an EU-wide survey. The Microcensus is the largest household survey in Europe. In that survey, about 1% of the population of Germany provide information on their living and working conditions every year.

For background information on the definitions and data sources as well as for further figures on the labour market please refer to www.destatis.de.
1.1 Accidents at work

Rates of accidents at work show the number of accidents at work per 100,000 persons in employment. Figures represented are the number of fatal accidents at work and the total number of accidents at work to the extent that they entail the loss of more than three working days.

The less often accidents at work occur, the better safety at work is ensured. The risk of accidents differs between economic branches.

Fatal accidents at work occurring less and less often

In 2009, 1.1 in 100,000 persons in employment were victims of fatal accidents at work. That is a marked decrease from 1996 when the figure had been almost four fatal accidents.

96% of people killed in accidents are men

Fatal accidents were quite unevenly distributed between the sexes: 96% of fatal accidents affected men.

This is mainly because men work more often in economic branches with a higher risk of accidents. Fatal accidents at work occurred most often in the branches of agriculture, hunting and forestry, construction as well as transportation and storage.

Out of 100,000 persons in employment, about 1,860 people (2.4%) had a non-fatal accident at work in Germany in 2009. These figures, too, have decreased since the early 1990s.

In non-fatal accidents, too, men were more often affected than women. 1,000 accidents occurred per 100,000 women in employment, while for men the figure was 2,500 accidents.
Construction workers most often affected

The economic branch construction was most often affected by accidents in 2009 (4,700 accidents per 100,000 persons in employment). In the branch of water supply, too, accidents at work occurred relatively often (3,870 per 100,000 persons in employment).

Non-fatal accidents at work per 100,000 persons in employment in selected economic branches 2009

- Construction
- Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities
- Arts, entertainment and recreation
- Transportation and storage
- Accommodation and food service activities
- Manufacturing
- Agriculture, forestry and fishing
- Information and communication

Total 1 856
Dimension 1: Safety at work and gender equality

1.2 Health risks at work

What is the proportion of persons in employment who are exposed to physical or mental strain at work? The calculation covers all persons in employment who felt they had had health problems during the last twelve months prior to the survey.

The data are based on the respondents’ self-assessment rather than on medical diagnoses.

Health risks at work are not only a matter of accidents. The job itself may also be perceived as physical or mental strain.

11% are exposed to physical strain at work

Eleven out of 100 persons in employment felt under physical strain at work in 2007. Men were much more often exposed to physical strain than women. 13 in 100 men indicated to be under physical strain, while just 9 in 100 women were affected.

Strain was caused most often by “difficult body postures” and “handling heavy loads” (6%). About 2% of the respondents indicated to be affected by “noise or vibration” and “dust, smoke, chemicals, vapours and gases” each. For about one out of five persons in employment in industry (21%), crafts (20%) and agriculture (19%), physical strain at work had a negative effect on well-being. People with office jobs were better off: Only one in twenty (5%) felt under physical strain there.

Mental strain slightly more frequent

Persons in employment indicated slightly more often to be affected by mental strain than by physical strain. In 2007, 12 out of 100 persons in employment were affected. Reasons indicated are time and work pressure (11%), while mobbing or harassment played a minor role (1%).

Persons in employment with physical strain they were most exposed to 2007

in %, physical strain by exposition to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strain Type</th>
<th>Exposure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>difficult body postures or handling of heavy loads</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noise or vibration</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chemicals, dusts, vapours, smoke or gases</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>risk of accident</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Professionals and managers under stress and time pressure

Some occupational groups were particularly affected by mental strain. Persons in employment complaining most frequently of time and work pressure were professionals (18%), followed by legislators, senior officials and managers (17%). In the other occupational groups, about 11% of the respondents indicated to be under mental strain.

Persons in employment under stress and time pressure by selected occupations 2007 in %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and associate professionals</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant and machine operators, assemblers</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical support workers</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft and related trades workers</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service and sales workers</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary occupations</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>11.3</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3 Participation of women in working life

Women are not engaged in economic activity to the same extent as men. The share of women in all persons in employment shows how often women are engaged in gainful activity as compared with their proportion of the population.

The indicator does not contain any information on the type and extent of the activity performed.

There were 46 women in 100 persons in employment in 2011. Compared with their share in the total population (51%), women were still underrepresented in economic life in Germany.

Difference between women and men decreasing

The difference in participation in economic activity between women and men has markedly decreased since the 1990s. In 1991 the share of women was 42% and increased by four percentage points to 46% in 2011. In the last three years, however, the share increased only slightly (by 0.3 percentage points).

Women aged 55 or over catching up most quickly

When comparing 2011 with 1991, women aged 55 to 64 years caught up most quickly. The proportion of women in employment in that age group rose by thirteen percentage points from 32% to 45% and achieved almost the level of the total population. What is compared here is different birth cohorts, for example, the women aged 55 to 64 years
in 2011 with those aged 55 to 64 years in 1991.

For younger women, fewer changes and increases are observed over time because women of younger birth cohorts have for a long time been engaged in economic activity much more often than older cohorts. For women aged under 25 years, the female share of persons in employment even decreased slightly compared with 1991.
Dimension 1: Safety at work and gender equality

1.4 Participation of women in economic activity by occupations

What is the proportion of women in specific occupational groups?

Differences in the female share may indicate both the discrimination of women in specific occupational groups and different preferences when choosing an occupation.

Even though the share of women in all persons in employment has markedly increased, women still often choose their occupation within a limited range of activities. Altogether, the percentages of women in the various occupational groups have not changed much since the early 1990s. Choosing typical female or male occupations frequently involves differences in earnings and careers.

Only one in three managers is a woman

Only just under one in three legislators, senior officials and managers (30%) was female in 2011. This proportion is changing only slowly - since 2005 it has increased by 0.4 percentage points per year. Compared to previous years, there are no negative changes any more.

Managerial positions include managers of small enterprises, corporate managers and senior officials. The differences were much smaller among professionals such as physicians, legal professionals, teachers or social scientists. There the proportion of women was 44% in 2011.

Women are found most often in service and office jobs

In office and service jobs, women were clearly overrepresented. Two thirds of all persons in employment in service occupations were women (e.g. sales, restaurants, hotels). Among such clerks, women had a percentage of 67%.

Men dominating in crafts and industry

Women were strongly underrepresented in crafts, industry and agriculture. Only 9% of the persons in employment in craft occupations were female and just 15% of the jobs in industry (e.g. operating industrial equipment, assembling and driving) were done by women. In agriculture, the proportion of women was a fifth (22%). The female share in crafts and industry has even decreased in the last two decades. Their percentage in craft occupations was down from 11% in 1992 to 9% and in industry from 18% to 15%.

Women slightly catching up among managers and professionals

Even though men are still dominating among legislators, senior officials and managers as well as professionals, women have slightly caught up in the last two decades. Since 1992, the female share has been up from 26% to 30% among legislators, senior officials and managers and from 35% to 44% among professionals.
Share of women in selected occupational groups 2011

- Clerical support workers
- Service and sales workers
- Elementary occupations
- Technicians and associate professionals
- Professionals
- Managers
- Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers
- Plant and machine operators, and assemblers
- Craft and related trades workers

One square is equivalent to one percent
1.5 Gender Pay Gap

The gender pay gap describes the percentage difference between men and women in dependent employment regarding average gross hourly earnings. Persons employed in agriculture, in public service or in establishments with up to ten persons employed are not included.

The pay gap between men and women is a sign of a lack of equal treatment. It is however due to many causes. Women and men differ in working lives and in the choice of occupational sectors. In many cases, this leads to different careers and to earnings gaps.

Women earn 23% less

The average gross hourly earnings of women were by 23% lower than the earnings of men in 2011. The differences in western Germany (and Berlin), amounting to 25%, were markedly larger than those in the East (6%).

Gender pay gap constant for years

Since 2002, the earnings gap between women and men has been nearly constant.

Hence the Federal Government’s target to reduce the pay gap to 15% by 2010 was clearly missed.

Gender Pay Gap in selected economic branches 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Branch</th>
<th>Pay Gap Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional, scientific and technical activities</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial and insurance activities</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts, entertainment and recreation</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information and communication</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other service activities</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail trade; Repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human health and social work activities</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, gas, steam and air condition supply</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real estate activities</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative and support service activities</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation and food service activities</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation and storage</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and quarrying</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Men earn more than women in every economic branch
The gender pay gap differed considerably between economic branches. It was particularly large for professional, scientific and technical activities (33%), as well as for banking and insurance activities and for manufacturing (29% each). The earnings gaps were also rather large in the branches of human health and social work activities as well as education (24% and 16%, respectively), where women traditionally are found more often than men.

In the economic branches of mining and quarrying (4%) as well as transportation and storage (5%), the gender pay gap was comparatively small. However, only few women worked there. There is not a single economic branch where women earned more than men.

Differences even with equal qualification and job
Further calculations for 2006 show that women often were paid worse even if they formally had the same qualification and did the same job. Even when they did the same job, there was an average gap of 8% at the expense of women.

Differences in working life seem to play a major role. For women, gaps and breaks are often caused by part-time work due to child-rearing or other family obligations (see 3.6 and 3.7) which lead to lower earnings.
Dimension 2: Income and indirect benefits from employment

2.1 Low-wage rate

The low-wage rate shows the proportion of employees whose earnings are by two thirds below the median income of all employees. The decisive criterion for an income to be classified as low income is the difference from the general wage level. This refers to gross hourly earnings.

Persons employed in agriculture, in public service and in establishments with up to ten persons employed are not included in the calculations. Also, only those persons were covered who were aged between 15 and 64 years and were not undergoing education or training.

Low wage starting at Euro 10.36

In 2010, the low-wage threshold was gross earnings of Euro 10.36 per hour. Lower hourly earnings were classified as low wage.

Low wage for one in five employees

In 2010, 20.6% of the employees got low wages. Hence one in five earned less than Euro 10.36 per hour in gross terms. With 37% of the persons employed in the new Länder receiving low wages, low wages were much more widespread there than in the former territory of the Federal Republic, where the percentage was just 18%.

Female, young, working as hairdressers or cleaning ladies

Low wages were quite unevenly distributed across groups of the society and economic branches. In 2010, 27% of the women got low wages, compared with 16% of the men.

One of the main reasons is that women work much more frequently part-time or in marginal employment and, consequently, receive markedly lower gross hourly wages.

Age plays a role, too: An above-average number of young employees received low wages. 51% of all employees aged 15 to 24 years got low pay.

In 2010, the proportion of low-wage earners was particularly large among taxi drivers (87.0%), hairdressers (85.6%) and in the cleaning branch (81.5%). Other branches with an especially large number of low-wage earners were restaurants (77.3%), washing and dry cleaning (73.6%) as well as cinemas (73.5%).

Share of persons employed with low wage 2010

by age group in years, in %

- 15–24: 51%
- 25–34: 23%
- 35–44: 16%
- 45–54: 16%
- 55–64: 20%
Qualification protecting from low wage

Only some 2% of the employees with an academic degree received low wages in 2010. Among persons employed with an apprenticeship qualification or a full-time vocational school certificate, 18% were affected, while the proportion among those without vocational qualification was markedly higher (53%).

Share of persons employed with low wage 2010
by gender and territory

One square is equivalent to one percent
2.2 Vacation

The indicator shows the average number of vacation days taken by employees in a calendar year.

Vacation includes both the number of vacation days, as well as additional free days authorised by the employer and maternity leave.

The number of vacation days actually taken is not the same as vacation entitlement.

Vacation entitlement

According to the Federal Holidays Act, all employees in Germany with a 6-day week are entitled to a minimum of 24 vacation days per year. Most collective agreements, however, include entitlements to larger numbers of days.

Figures from 2006 confirm that there are differences of up to five days between economic branches.

In most economic branches, full-time workers were entitled to at least 28 vacation days in 2006. Top of the list were mining as well as energy and water supply with 30 days. In accommodation and food service activities (25 days) and in construction (27 days) the vacation entitlement was markedly smaller. However, special vacation granted in those branches, which are characterised by seasonal effects, is not covered. In the branch of business services, too, the vacation entitlement was rather low (26 days).

Number of vacation days actually taken

Employees actually take 31 free days per calendar year. The number of vacation days taken has nearly been constant since 1991.

Average annual vacation actually taken per employee

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 preliminary value
Dimension 2: Income and indirect benefits from employment

2.3 Staff on sick leave

This figure indicates the extent of sickness notifications of employees. In Germany, employees reporting sick are entitled to receive continued full pay from their employer. That entitlement generally is limited to six weeks per year. Afterwards, the health insurance institutions pay sickness benefit.

When calculating the indicator, only those notifications of sickness are included which extend beyond a three-day waiting period.

Employees reported sick for nine and a half days in 2011

In 2011, employees in Germany reported sick for an average 9.5 working days. This number increased by 0.3 days compared to the previous year. A moderate increase in the number of days of sick leave can be observed from 2008 onwards.

Smallest number of days of sick leave in 2007

In 2007, the smallest number of days of absence were recorded since 1991, when the average had been 12.7 days of sick leave. The figure was down to 7.9 in 2007, which is a 38% decrease.

Possible reasons for that trend might be an improved health situation or the decrease of work involving health risks (e.g. in industry). Also, the fear of losing their job may cause employees to report sick less often. Especially in periods of weak economic activity, the number of sickness notifications decreases, as is shown by the development since 1991.

Proportion of people reporting sick rises slightly again, too

The proportion of employees reporting sick is a piece of information complementing the data on the average length of sick leave periods.

The average share has developed parallel to the average number of days of sick leave since 1991. At the time, 5.1% of the employees had reported sick. In 2007, the share of sickness notifications reached its low (3.2%). In 2011, an average of 3.8% of the employees reported sick.
Average annual sick leave per employee
Number of days

1 preliminary value

Federal Statistical Office, Quality of employment, 2012
Dimension 2: Income and indirect benefits from employment

2.4 Health insurance coverage

In Germany, health insurance is part of the social security system. In general, all persons are required to insure themselves on a statutory or private basis. The contributions (for employees) are made jointly by employers and employees.

In statutory health insurance, persons in employment (below certain income thresholds), recipients of revenues as income replacement (for example, unemployment pay, pensions or sick pay), students, pensioners and pension claimants as well as certain family members are insured.

For employees above certain income thresholds, self-employed, artists and other exceptions, there is the opportunity to insure on a voluntary basis under a statutory or private health insurance scheme. Public officials or self-employed persons are usually insured with a private health insurance company.

86% of the persons employed are insured under a statutory health insurance scheme

In 2011, 90% of the employees and 54% of the self-employed were insured under a statutory health insurance scheme. Almost all employees are insured on a compulsory basis, while only a small proportion (4%) are voluntarily insured there. 9.5% of the employees and 46% of the self-employed are covered by a private health insurance.

Men more often insured voluntarily than women

Among men, the share of people insured on a private basis is higher than among women. This is probably mainly due to the fact that men exceed the income threshold more often than women and thus may choose whether they insure voluntarily under a statutory or a private health insurance scheme.

Less than 1% of persons employed are not insured

It is astonishing that, despite the obligation, not all persons employed are insured. Although it is a small proportion, it is remarkable that especially young people are not insured. Among men aged 15-24 years, the share of people without health insurance is 1.7%.
Type of health insurance of persons in employment 2011

- **Statutory health insurance**
  - on compulsory basis
  - on voluntary basis
  - as family member

- **Private health insurance**
  - on voluntary basis
  - as family member

- **No health insurance**

One square is equivalent to one percent
- Men
- Women
Dimension 3: Working hours and work-life balance

3.1 Weekly hours worked

How many hours do persons in employment work on average per week? Working hours are a major variable of the quality of employment. Hours worked are usually linked to both salaries and workload as well as to the possibility of balancing work and private interests.

The group of persons in employment consists of employees, self-employed and unpaid family workers. This indicator covers all persons in employment aged 15 years and older.

In 2011, full-time employees worked 42 hours per week.

The average number of hours usually worked per week was 35.5 hours for all persons employed in Germany in 2011. As the number of hours worked depends considerably on the proportion of part-time workers, full-time employees (41.9 hours per week) and part-time employees (18.1 hours per week) should be examined separately.

Working hours decreasing since 1991

The average number of usual weekly working hours decreased by approximately three hours since 1991 (38.4 hours per week). When examining full-time and part-time workers separately, however, it is noticeable that, particularly for full-time employees, the number of hours worked has remained rather constant over the years. In comparison, a slight decrease from 20 hours (1991) to 18 hours (2011) is observed for part-time employees. The average number of hours worked by all persons employed is influenced by the increasing proportion of part-time workers. In 1991, this proportion was about 14% of all persons in employment and it increased to 27% in 2011.

Average weekly hours worked

in hours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Full-time</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Part-time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
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<td>2005</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In comparison, a slight decrease from 20 hours (1991) to 18 hours (2011) is observed for part-time employees. The average number of hours worked by all persons employed is influenced by the increasing proportion of part-time workers. In 1991, this proportion was about 14% of all persons in employment and it increased to 27% in 2011.
More than one employed person in many households
In Germany, the average number of hours worked per household was about 35 hours per week in 2011. When looking only at households with at least one employed person, the number rises to 54 hours per week. This considerably large number of weekly working hours – compared to employed individuals – suggests that more than one person is employed in many working households.

Weekly working time is below European average
With 35.5 hours worked per week in 2011, Germany was somewhat below the European average (37.4 hours). Persons employed in Turkey worked particularly long hours (48.9 hours), while the Netherlands had the lowest value with 30.5 hours per week. It should be noted here, too, that this figure is influenced by a country’s proportion of part-time employment. The fact that the Netherlands had similar results as the Federal Republic for full-time and part-time employees, amounting to 40.9 hours (full-time) and to 19.8 hours (part-time) per week, suggests that, in the Netherlands, too, the low average number of hours worked is due to its very high proportion of part-time workers of 49%.
Dimension 3: Working hours and work-life balance

3.2 Excessive working hours

What is the proportion of persons in employment with excessive working hours? The calculation covers all full-time employees generally working more than 48 hours per week. The data are based on the respondents’ self-assessment.

The definition of “excessive” working hours is based on international conventions.

Average weekly working hours (see 3.1) cover a wide range of working hours, part of which are (far) above or below average. Both cases may pose problems: Excessively long working hours may put a strain on people as they do not have sufficient time for their private lives. Jobs with (too) short working hours usually lead to wage losses. In many cases, they are accepted because no job with longer working hours is available (see 3.5).

One in eight people working more than 48 hours a week

One in eight persons in full-time employment (13%) indicated in 2011 to work generally more than 48 hours per week. Such long working hours affect mainly men: 16% of the men but just 8% of the women gave that response.

Increasing age, longer working hours

There is a general rule: the older the people the longer their working hours. Only 2% of the persons in full-time employment aged 15 to 24 years worked more than 48 hours a week in 2011. That share rose along with age, so that 17% of the full-time employees aged 55 to 64 years worked more than 48 hours a week.

Excessive hours almost normal for managers

One of the reasons for the marked age differences is the large proportion of excessive working hours among legislators, senior officials and managers, which are observed more often in the older age groups. 39% of such managers in full-time jobs usually worked more than 48 hours in 2011 – among the other persons in employment that share was much smaller (12%). Many skilled agricultural workers (42%) and professionals (21%) worked longer, too.

Persons in full-time employment working more than 48 hours per week 2011 by age groups 2011, in %

- 15–24: 2%
- 25–34: 10%
- 35–44: 15%
- 45–54: 16%
- 55–64: 17%
Long working hours were observed least often for people in full-time elementary occupations as well as clerks (5%) and craftsmen (6%).

**Self-employed work longer than 48 hours most often**

The group working more than 48 hours most frequently is self-employed people: 57% of all self-employed work particularly long; self-employed with staff (67%) even much more often than solo self-employed (47%).

In comparison, only 7.5% of all full-time employees worked as many hours.
Dimension 3: Working hours and work-life balance

3.3 Evening and weekend work

What is the proportion of persons in employment who regularly work in the evening, at night, on Saturdays or on Sundays? Persons in employment working just occasionally at such times are not included here. The calculations are based on the respondents’ self-assessment.

Evening work is work performed between usual working hours and the time people usually go to bed (6 p.m. to 11 p.m.). Night work (11 p.m. to 6 a.m.) is done at times when people generally sleep.

Important factors for the quality of life are not only the hours worked but also the times at which people work. Evening, night and weekend work are also referred to as unusual or “atypical” working hours.

More and more often people work until late in the evening

The proportion of persons in employment who work in the evening rose by a good twelve percentage points from 15 % in 1992 to 27 % in 2011. The share of those who regularly work at night, however, increased just slightly from 7 % to 9 %. Men worked at night almost twice (12 %) as often as women (6 %).

Self-employed finish work later

Almost half of the self-employed with staff (48.5 %), but only about one in four employees (25.5 %) worked regularly between 6 p.m. and 11 p.m. in 2011. For night work, the opposite relation applied: Only 6 % of the self-employed with staff but almost 10 % of the employees earned their money while others are sleeping.

Persons in employment regularly working in the evening and at night 2011 by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evening work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The end of the weekend?
More and more often, people worked not only on weekdays but also at weekends. The proportion of persons in employment who work on Saturdays rose from 20 % (1992) to 27 % (2011), that of Sunday workers from 10 % to 14.5 %. One reason probably was the liberalisation of shop opening hours.

Especially self-employed work at weekends
More than half of the self-employed with staff (52 %) worked on Saturdays in 2011, compared with 24.5 % of the employees. Although considerably fewer people work on Sundays, similar differences were observed here: Almost one in four self-employed worked also on Sundays (24 %), while only a good one in eight employees (13 %) did so. Persons working on Sundays are very likely to work on Saturdays, too. 14 % of the persons in employment work continuously or regularly on both days of the weekend.

Persons in employment regularly working on Saturday and Sunday 2011
by economic sectors, in %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Sector</th>
<th>Saturday</th>
<th>Sunday</th>
<th>Saturday and Sunday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural sector</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial sector</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service sector</td>
<td></td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Federal Statistical Office, Quality of employment, 2012
3.4 Flexible working hours

Flexible working hours offer employees opportunities to reconcile their private and working lives. Thus, for example, family responsibilities can better be fulfilled and leisure time be used more efficiently. However, employers can benefit from flexible working time arrangements, too: they may lead to an increased motivation and commitment of the employees. Both aspects can have a positive effect on performance.

Flexible working hours most frequent in communication and information branches

The share of employees with flexible working hours was largest in communication and information branches with 68% in 2010. In trade, transportation (60%) and financial and insurance activities (56%), more than one half of the employees worked in such arrangements.

In contrast, the employees in industry were, as expected, predominantly exposed to fixed working times. Among them, just 25% had flexible working hours. In the service sector, the share was less than 30%, too.
Share of employed persons in flexible working time models in %

1 Fixed start and end of a working day or varying working time as decided by the employer.
2 Other individual arrangements meeting none of the above.
3.5 “Involuntary” part-time workers

Part-time workers who would like to work full time but could not find such a job on the labour market are also referred to as involuntary part-time workers. The calculations are based on what the respondents indicated as the main reason for their part-time job.

The indicator is calculated as the proportion of involuntary part-time workers aged over 15 in all part-time workers aged over 15. Involuntary part-time workers are persons in employment who indicate that the reason for their part-time job is not to have found a full-time job on the labour market. As a result, many of them have to put up with losses in earnings and old-age provision.

Working part-time involuntarily?

In 2011, nearly 10 million people were employed part-time. 16% considered part-time work as a makeshift solution. They indicated that the reason for their part-time job was not to have found a full-time job. Compared with previous years the proportion of involuntary part-time employees declined markedly (from 21% in 2010). There were still considerable differences in assessment between men and women. 24% of the men but only 14% of the women were really looking for a full-time job.

This phenomenon applies not only to job starters. For almost all age classes, the share of involuntary part-time workers is similarly high (about 16%). The share is slightly higher only for those aged over 45: here every fifth part-time employee had actually looked for a full-time job.

Long-term increase in “involuntary” part-time workers

In 2011, considerably fewer persons in employment than in 2010 were forced to take up part-time work because of a lack of alternatives. However, the proportion of involuntary part-time workers was still markedly higher than in 1992 (5%). The largest increase was recorded for the years from 2002 to 2006. In that period, the number of marginal jobs rose considerably as a result of legal changes. For the years from 2005,
the increase shown is probably slightly larger than reality, which is due to modifications in the data collection and processing method of the Microcensus; however, this does not affect the general trend.

High involuntary part-time employment in industry

A particularly large number of involuntary part-time employees in 2011 were working in the economic sectors of trade, transport and accommodation and food services as well as in the field of business services: in each of these sectors, 22% of the part-time employees would prefer working full time.

When examined by occupations, plant and machine operators as well as assemblers working part time were affected most often. 28% reported to actually prefer working full time.

Family obligations most important reasons for women to work part time

Many persons in employment work part time for family reasons: In 2011, 22% indicated that taking care of children or other family members was the reason, 24% mentioned other family obligations. Women worked much more often part time than men because of family obligations. In 2011, 54% of the women but only 10% of the men gave one of the above two reasons.

25% of the part-time workers indicated not to wish to work full time for other reasons, while another 9.5% mentioned education or training as a reason.

It is not possible to really find out whether those groups work part time voluntarily. It is assumed that changes in child care and long-term care services offered have an impact on the wishes for full-time or part-time work.

### Reasons for part-time work 2011 in %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education or training</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sickness or consequences of an accident</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking care of children or persons in need of long-term care</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other family or personal fields of responsibility</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could not find a full-time job</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time job not wanted for other reasons</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>35.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.6 Participation of parents in economic activity

What is the relation between parents and persons without children in terms of participation in economic activity?

The employment rates of parents show the extent to which fathers and, in particular, mothers withdraw from working life when starting a family.

The employment rate of parents is defined as the share of parents in active employment in the total population. Persons are considered to be actively employed if they worked in the week prior to the survey. Persons who are on leave, special leave or parental leave are not counted.

The indicator covers all parents aged 20 to 49 years with at least one child under 6 years of age.

A balanced relation between occupational and private life is one of the basic requirements for efficiency and satisfaction at work. For many people who are in the phase of starting a family, a reasonable work and family life balance is of crucial importance for their quality of life.

Mothers put job aside for their family more often

In 2011, 73% of all parents were in employment. While 91% of the fathers aged 20 to 49 years were actively employed, the employment rate of mothers was just 57%.

Tendency to work decreases with increasing number of children

While almost 75% of the parents with one child under six years worked in 2011, the tendency to work decreased along with an increasing number of children. The employment rate of parents with two children decreased by 8 percentage points to 67%, the rate of parents with three and more children was 51%. Among women this phenomenon is particularly pronounced:

While 61% of the mothers with one child were actively employed, the rate of working mothers with two children was by about 15 percentage points lower at 46%. The participation in economic activity of mothers with 3 or more children decreased by another 20 percentage points and amounted to just 24.5% in 2011.

On the other hand, the employment rate of fathers is affected only from a number of 3 children onwards. While 91% of the fathers with one or two children were actively employed, the proportion of fathers with three or more children was down by 10 percentage points to just under 81%.
Employment rate of parents with youngest child under 6 years of age 2011
by number of children and gender

1 child

2 children

3 and more children

Total

One square is equivalent to one percent
- Fathers
- Mothers
- Total
3.7

Parents working part time

What is the share of fathers and mothers working part time?

A high participation especially of mothers in economic activity is not sufficient to indicate a balanced integration in the labour market. The extent of working hours must be taken into account, too.

Parents included are only those who are aged 20 to 49 years, have at least one child under 6 years and worked in the week prior to the survey. Those who are on leave, special leave or parental leave are not counted.

It is true for parents too, that employment is not always the same. On the one hand, part-time work allows better reconciling one’s job and family in terms of time. On the other hand, reduced working hours often means having to accept losses in earnings and old-age provision and to put up with career restrictions.

For mothers in employment, part-time work is the rule, for fathers it is the exception

In 2011, a total of 73% of all parents were in active employment. 93.8% of the employed fathers worked full time while just 6.2% worked part time. For mothers, the opposite relation applied and it was less dramatic: among mothers 34.1% worked full time and 65.9% part time.

The part-time employment rate of fathers grows with an increasing number of children. 6% of fathers with a child at pre-school age have a job with a reduced number of working hours. The share increases to 8.3% when three children live in a family.

### Part-time employment rate of parents with youngest child under 6 years of age 2011

by number of children and gender, in %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>6.2</th>
<th>65.9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 child</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>65.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 children</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 and more children</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>57.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mothers  Fathers
Part-time: children make the difference

Persons without children at pre-school age are more similar to the distribution of the total population in employment. Among them, the employment rate is lower (59.1 %). The share of men and women working full time or part time is more balanced. 88 % of men and 78 % of women without children at pre-school age have a full-time job.

Women are much more likely than their partners to cut back on work after the birth of a child. However, when compared with other European countries, many mothers in Germany try to stay in contact with working life by taking the opportunity of part-time work.
Dimension 4: Security of employment and social protection

4.1 Duration of employment

How long are employees in Germany employed with their current employer?

The duration of employment with the current employer can be viewed as an important indicator of the stability of employment, which may have an impact on the satisfaction of the employees. Employees feeling comfortable with their job and their employer are probably less likely to change the place of work. However, it has to be considered that more and more employees have a fixed-term job. Thus, it is getting more likely that people are forced to take on a different job although they are (very) satisfied with their current job. In the following, all employees aged 25 years or over are examined.

Almost 50% stay with their current employer for more than ten years

In 2011, nearly 50% of the employees surveyed were employed with their current employer for at least ten years. Almost 20% had had the same job for five to ten years and a third indicated a job tenure of less than five years. This distribution of duration of employment has not changed markedly during the last 15 years.

Short duration of employment due to fixed-term jobs

Among employees who had been employed for ten years and longer with their employer, just 0.9% had a fixed-term employment contract. The proportion of fixed-term jobs is continuously increasing with a decreasing duration of employment: 40% of those with a duration of less than one year and 20% working between one and three years at the current job, had a fixed-term contract in 2011.

Men more often employed for a longer period

While the shares of men and women who had worked for less than ten years at their current firm differed only marginally, men had slightly more often been employed for ten or more years (49.3%) than women with 45.3%.

Career start in part-time?

Part-time jobs are more common among employments with shorter job tenure. 38.5% of men and women who had been in employment for less than a year worked part time. This proportion is decreasing with an increasing duration of employment. Only 22.3% of persons employed for ten years and more with their current employer were part-time employed.

Unskilled workers are least likely to be employed for a long time with one employer. For just a third of them, the job tenure is longer than ten years. Among service occupations, the duration of employment with one employer is rather short, too.
Duration of employment with the current employer by occupations 2011
in %

Managers
- less than 1 year: 8.2%
- 1 to under 3 years: 10.7%
- 3 to under 5 years: 10.5%
- 5 to under 10 years: 18.3%
- 10 years and longer: 50.0%

Professionals
- less than 1 year: 11.8%
- 1 to under 3 years: 13.3%
- 3 to under 5 years: 12.2%
- 5 to under 10 years: 17.6%
- 10 years and longer: 43.3%

Technicians and associate professionals
- less than 1 year: 8.4%
- 1 to under 3 years: 9.2%
- 3 to under 5 years: 8.7%
- 5 to under 10 years: 15.6%
- 10 years and longer: 56.0%

Clerical support workers
- less than 1 year: 9.5%
- 1 to under 3 years: 9.4%
- 3 to under 5 years: 9.0%
- 5 to under 10 years: 15.9%
- 10 years and longer: 53.6%

Service and sales workers
- less than 1 year: 14.2%
- 1 to under 3 years: 13.7%
- 3 to under 5 years: 11.5%
- 5 to under 10 years: 18.9%
- 10 years and longer: 38.8%

Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers
- less than 1 year: 16.4%
- 1 to under 3 years: 9.9%
- 3 to under 5 years: 10.4%
- 5 to under 10 years: 15.2%
- 10 years and longer: 45.1%

Craft and related trades workers
- less than 1 year: 11.1%
- 1 to under 3 years: 9.1%
- 3 to under 5 years: 9.1%
- 5 to under 10 years: 16.3%
- 10 years and longer: 52.0%

Plant and machine operators, and assemblers
- less than 1 year: 12.7%
- 1 to under 3 years: 10.6%
- 3 to under 5 years: 9.7%
- 5 to under 10 years: 16.1%
- 10 years and longer: 48.3%

Elementary occupations
- less than 1 year: 19.6%
- 1 to under 3 years: 15.4%
- 3 to under 5 years: 11.7%
- 5 to under 10 years: 16.5%
- 10 years and longer: 32.4%

Not available, between 1.7 and 4.3%
Dimension 4: Security of employment and social protection

4.2 Fixed-term employment

What is the proportion of fixed-term employment contracts among employees? When calculating the rate of fixed-term jobs, all persons in dependent employment from the age of 25 years are included. Younger employees who are in transition from the educational to the employment system and often have fixed-term contracts are not included in the calculation. So the group of apprentices, where fixed-term employment is widespread, is largely excluded, too. The indicator thus does not cover the whole extent of fixed-term employment.

One in eleven employment contracts has an expiry date

In 2011, 9% of the employees aged 25 years or over in Germany had a fixed-term employment contract. The differences in the rate of fixed-term jobs between women (9.4%) and men (8.6%) almost vanished in comparison to the past. Twenty years earlier, the difference had been somewhat larger. In 1991, 6.7% of the female and 5.1% of the male employees had a fixed-term job. The majority (60%) of the employees with fixed-term jobs had a contract with a term of less than a year. Shares of approximately 20% of the respondents were recorded for those whose term was between one and two (19%) or between three and four years (21%). 10% indicated having a contract with a term of more than three years.

Fixed-term employees in selected EU-countries 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>EU(27)-average men: 10.4</th>
<th>EU(27)-average women: 11.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fixed-term contracts growing moderately
Since 1991, the rate of fixed-term jobs has been up by three percentage points from 5.8% to 9%. It should be taken into account that the increase shown is somewhat larger than reality, which is due to methodological changes. The share generally grew more strongly in phases of weak economic activity, while it was slightly down in upturn phases. In 2009, in consequence of the financial crisis, the share of persons having a fixed-term employment decreased slightly before it increased again moderately since 2010.

Germany among middle-ranking EU countries
In a European comparison, Germany was below the EU average of just under 11% regarding the rate of fixed-term jobs and hence was among the middle-ranking EU member states. Rates of fixed-term jobs were particularly high in Spain and Poland (about 23% each). The six countries with rates of fixed-term jobs of less than 5% included Austria, Bulgaria, Estonia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania which ranks last with a rate of fixed-term jobs of 1.3%. In an international comparison, however, a lower rate of fixed-term jobs does not always mean higher job security because the national provisions on protection against dismissal differ.

In most countries, the rates of fixed-term jobs were higher for women. Germany was among the countries with the smallest differences between men and women.

In Germany, the rate of fixed-term jobs was highest for professionals, elementary occupations, and skilled workers of the agriculture and fishing sector, at about 12% each.
Dimension 4: Security of employment and social protection

4.3 Fixed-term employees wanting a permanent job

What is the proportion of involuntary fixed-term employees? The indicator shows the share of employees who have a fixed-term job because they did not find a permanent job. Employees from the age of 25 years are included.

There may be various reasons for employees to have a fixed-term contract. Apprenticeship contracts and contracts for a trial period automatically involve a fixed term. The Labour Force Survey also includes a question on whether the employee sought a permanent job but did not find any.

Respondents who indicated to have sought a permanent job but did not find any are considered as “involuntary” fixed-term employees. Long-term occupational and personal life planning is made difficult by fixed-term employment contracts.

Almost half work involuntarily on a fixed-term basis

46.2% of the fixed-term employees questioned in 2011 indicated to have accepted a fixed-term job because they had not found a permanent job.

27% indicated a contract for a trial period to be the reason for the fixed term and 22% had an apprenticeship. About 5% had deliberately chosen a fixed-term job.

Women (48%) indicated slightly more often than men (45%) to work involuntarily on a fixed-term basis.

Fixed-term employees wanting a permanent job 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Share in all fixed-term employees who indicated a reason for the fixed-term job, in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

no permanent job found
The highest proportion of the persons in involuntary fixed-term employment, amounting to 60%, was observed among skilled workers in agriculture and fishing. Unskilled workers also reported quite often to have a fixed-term job (57%) since they had not found a permanent position.

**Unwanted fixed-term contracts continued to increase**

Over the last ten years, the proportion of employees with an unwanted fixed-term job has increased, but recently it has decreased slightly. The share was by just under seven percentage points higher in 2011 (46%) than in 2001, but 6 percentage points lower than the all-time high of 52% which had been reached in 2007.

The increase in unwanted fixed-term contracts may be due, among other things, to changing framework conditions in terms of labour market policy, demanding more compromises on the part of the employees.
Dimension 4: Security of employment and social protection

4.4 Temporary employment

Temporary employment refers to an employment relationship in which a company places or “lends” an employee to a third party (temporary agency worker). Such a tripartite relationship can have both advantages and disadvantages for employees: On the one hand, it may provide a way out of unemployment. Additionally, temporary employment often allows people to get to know several different companies within a short period. On the other hand, the duration of employment is markedly shorter, indicating a lower stability of employment and a related higher uncertainty in terms of salaries.

The indicator examines the share of temporary workers in all employees over 25 years.

Distribution of temporary agency workers across occupational groups 2011

- Elementary occupations
- Craft and related trades workers
- Plant and machine operators, and assemblers
- Technicians and associate professionals
- Clerical support workers
- Service and sales workers
- Professionals

One square is equivalent to one percent
Temporary work is increasing dynamically
In 2011, 2.3% of the employees were employed by temporary employment agencies. In the last five years, temporary employment has increased by almost a quarter of the current proportion. However, there was a slight decline in 2008 and 2009, when temporary work was used in the financial crisis as a flexible response to the decline in labour demand.

Temporary work as full-time job
This activity was a full-time job for most of the temporary workers surveyed in 2011: 82% of them reported to do temporary work as a full-time job. Only 18% worked part time.

Temporary workers are often middle-aged men
Considering men and women separately, it is striking that men are almost twice as likely to be temporarily employed as women: 65% of the persons employed in a temporary employment agency are men, 35% are women.

This could be due to the occupations in which temporary workers are mainly employed: The largest shares of the temporary workers surveyed (24% each) worked in craft and related occupations, in which usually more men are found, or were unskilled workers. At some distance, they were followed by plant and machine operators and assemblers, with 13%, and technicians as well as related non-technical occupations with 12%.

The largest proportion of temporary workers can be found among persons in employment aged 25 to 34 years: In this age group 4% of employed men and 2% of women are temporary workers.
4.5 Self-employed without staff

The indicator shows the proportion of “solo self-employed” in all persons in employment aged 15 to 64 years. Solo self-employed are self-employed persons without staff, also referred to as own-account workers. Solo self-employed must not only pay themselves the contributions to health and pension insurance but also take a usually higher business risk than self-employed with employees.

Self-employed who are on their own are often in the start-up phase. That kind of self-employment is frequently characterised by instability and insecurity as time not worked cannot be compensated for.

6% of persons in employment are self-employed and have no staff

In 2011, 6% of all persons in employment aged between 15 and 64 years were self-employed without any staff. Among women the share was smaller (5%), while it was 7% for men.

Government subsidies affect development

Compared with 1991, the share of self-employed who are on their own rose by just under two percentage points. At the time it had been 4%.
The share of solo self-employed rose rather continuously between 1991 and 2005. The growth period from 2003 onwards was probably closely related to the business start-up grants – also referred to as “Me PLC” (“Ich-AG”) – that had been introduced by the Hartz laws.

In mid-2006, the business start-up grant was modified and restricted to a smaller number of eligible people. Consequently, the proportion of solo self-employed slightly decreased in the subsequent period. One can observe a slight increase since 2009.

The largest share of solo self-employed was to be found in agriculture and forestry (23%). There were many self-employed without any staff also in the real estate sector (16%) as well as in business services (13%) and in communication and information industries (12%).
Dimension 4: Security of employment and social protection

4.6 Employees entitled to unemployment benefits

What is the proportion of employees who are entitled to wage replacement benefits in case of unemployment?

Persons in dependent employment are entitled to benefits if they paid contributions to unemployment insurance for at least a year in the last two years. The reference variable is persons in paid employment aged 15 years and over. Not included are public officials as, due to their status, they cannot be dismissed.

The contribution to unemployment insurance currently is 3% of gross remuneration and employers and employees each pay half of it. Unemployment benefit I paid in case of need amounts to 60% of previous year’s gross salary and to 67% if there are children. Generally it is paid for a year. After that period, all people capable of earning get unemployment benefit II which, however, is not an insurance benefit and is based on the persons’ need of assistance.

The minimum contributory period required to be entitled to unemployment benefit has not been taken into account in the calculation. Consequently, the share of persons insured and entitled to wage replacement benefits is somewhat smaller in reality.

84.6% of employees are insured against unemployment

In 2011, 84.6% of the employees were entitled to unemployment benefit I should they lose their job.

The proportion of employees insured against unemployment was slightly down since 2000. In 2000 it had been 87.5%, then it decreased until 2004 and has remained at that level. A factor contributing to that development was the extension of marginal jobs which do not involve such insurance.

The number of employees fully subject to social insurance contributions decreased between 2000 and 2005, whereas the number of persons in marginal part-time employment was up in that period as a result of legal changes introduced in 2003.

Since 2006, the number of persons fully subject to social insurance contributions has again increased slightly. As the increase in the number of persons in marginal employment was smaller, the share of employees insured against unemployment has increased slightly from 84% in 2009 to 84.6%.

Foreign employees are less often insured against unemployment

The rate of insured persons among foreigners was lower than among German citizens: in 2011, 80% of the foreign employees, compared to 85% of the German employees, were insured against unemployment. Since 2001 the difference has increased: at that time, the level of insurance had been around 87% for both Germans and foreigners.
Employed persons entitled to unemployment benefits
in %

Year: 2000 to 2011
4.7 Persons insured under statutory pension insurance schemes

What is the proportion of the labour force insured under statutory pension insurance schemes? The labour force comprises all people working or looking for a job, that is, persons in employment and unemployed. Pension entitlements of people not looking for work are not included.

In Germany, all employees below the contribution assessment ceiling pay 19.6% of their gross income as a contribution to the statutory pension insurance scheme. Half of that amount is paid by the employer. Currently the contribution assessment ceiling is a monthly income of Euro 5,600 in the old Länder and of Euro 4,800 in the new Länder. For registered unemployed, too, the employment agency pays a pension contribution leading to pension entitlements. Self-employed may voluntarily insure themselves under a statutory pension insurance scheme. The amount of the contributions and the period over which they are paid will later determine the old-age pension.

Until the end of 2011, people were entitled to a pension without any deductions after the age of 65. Since 2012, the retirement age has started to be gradually raised to 67 years.

All people from the age of 15 who do not receive pension payments yet were asked if they are insured on a voluntary or compulsory basis.

A large percentage of the labour force have a pension insurance

In 2011, 81% of the labour force in Germany were insured under a statutory pension insurance scheme. In 2011, the majority of people insured were insured under a statutory pension insurance scheme on a compulsory basis (77%), while 4% were insured on a voluntary basis.

However, those rates underestimate the extent of social security after retirement because pension entitlements of public officials are not included here. People making old-age provisions only on a private basis were not included either.

The indicator does not provide any information on the level of the pensions the people insured are entitled to or on whether those entitlements are sufficient for the needs at old age.

Low contributions or many interruptions in paying the contributions may later result in relatively low statutory pensions. Therefore company and private old-age pension schemes are getting more and more important for old age.

One in five is not insured under statutory pension insurance schemes

Persons who are not insured under statutory pension insurance schemes are either officials or other persons in employment being uninsured or insured on a private basis. Actually, 41% of those not insured are self-employed persons and another 20% are officials. However, almost 40% of the employees are also not insured under statutory pension insurance schemes. Presumably, these are mainly persons in marginal employment.
Labour force insured under statutory pension schemes 2011 in %

- Insured on compulsory basis: 77%
- Insured on voluntary basis: 19%
- Not insured: 4%
Dimension 5: Social dialogue

5.1 Branch-specific collective agreements and employee representative bodies

What is the proportion of employees whose job is regulated by a collective agreement? Collective agreements govern pay, working hours and other working conditions. They may be negotiated for companies or economic branches. For persons employed in establishments with a collective agreement, minimum standards apply, although branch-specific collective agreements involve manifold opening clauses.

An indicator of the social dialogue at the establishment level is the share of employees for whom there is an employee representative body. Works councils in companies and in the public service are involved in staff decisions and, representing the employees, conclude agreements with the employers.

Collective bargaining coverage markedly higher in the West
For 54% of the employees in the old Länder, their job was regulated by a branch-specific collective agreement in 2011. Company agreements applied to 7% of the employees. In the new Länder, the collective bargaining coverage was considerably lower. Branch-specific collective agreements applied to 37% of the employees there. 12% worked in enterprises with company agreements.

Collective bargaining coverage decreasing
The development of branch-specific collective agreements shows a decrease in collec-

Coverage of collective bargaining of employees since 1998
in %
tive bargaining coverage both in the old and the new Länder. In 1998, a collective agreement applied to 76% of the employees in the former territory of the Federal Republic. Hence the coverage of collective agreements in the West was down by 25% from 1998 to 2011 (61%).

In eastern Germany, branch-specific or company agreements applied to 63% of the employees in 1998. By 2011, that proportion had decreased by even 29 percent.

**Employee representative bodies more widespread in public service than in the private sector**

In 2011, a total 43% of the employees of the private sector in Germany were represented by employee representative bodies. Works councils are elected in establishments with more than five persons employed. In the public service, the share of employees for whom there are staff councils was 88%, which is twice the share.

**Chance of having a works council increasing with firm size**

The firm size plays an important role, too: just 10% of the persons employed in establishments with 5 to 50 employees had a works council. The share rises with the firm size, reaching 92% in establishments with more than 500 employees.

**Share of employees represented by work councils by number of employees 2011**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Employees</th>
<th>Latter Federal Republic</th>
<th>New Länder and Berlin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 to 50</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 to 100</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101 to 199</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200 to 500</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>501 and more</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dimension 5: Social dialogue

5.2 Working days lost through strikes or lockouts

The indicator shows the annual number of working days lost through strikes or lockouts per 1,000 employees. When considering strikes and lockouts, the various national forms of the social dialogue must be taken into account. In Germany, employees usually strike after failed negotiations for new collective agreements. As the most frequent form in Germany are regional collective agreements, which are binding for all enterprises of a specific branch in a specific region and also apply to employees who are not members of the trade union, strikes are rather rare. In many cases, regional collective agreements are subsequently adopted in other regions (pilot collective agreement). This shows that employer and employee representative bodies in Germany are rather consensus oriented.

The right to strike is a fundamental right of employees to add emphasis to their demands. However, frequent strikes may reflect bad working conditions.

**Number of days of strike depending on economic branches**

In Germany, 1.9 working days per 1,000 employees were lost through strikes in 2011. In 2006, the average had been 12.3 days of strike and in 2000 it had been less than one strike day. The average number of strike days depends on the number and size of economic branches on strike. The ten-year average is less prone to such fluctuation: for many years it has been about 4 strike days. Between 2002 and 2011, an average 4.4 working days per 1,000 employees were lost through strikes in Germany.

**Average number of working days lost through strikes or lockouts** by days

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1993</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Days</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Federal Statistical Office, Quality of employment, 2012
2011: The largest strike in the economic section of information and communication
The strike at Deutsche Telekom in 2011 resulted in the highest loss of working days. Because of the protracted wage negotiations and the resulting strikes 77 days were lost per 1,000 employees.

In most economic branches, strikes are short and rare
The strike at Deutsche Bahn railways in 2011 resulted in a smaller loss of working days compared to 2007. At that time, strikes caused a loss of 102 days in the section of transport, storage and communication. In 2006, there had been another large-scale strike in public service so that, in that area alone, 52.4 days per 1,000 employees had been lost.

In most branches strikes occurred only temporarily, while in many years there was no work stoppage at all. Only in manufacturing, strikes were relatively frequent. More than five days per 1,000 employees were lost in 1999, from 2002 to 2004 and in 2006.

Loss of working time in Germany moderate in a European comparison
The long-term average based on results available at the EU level shows that in Spain, Italy and France the working time lost was largest (more than 77 strike days per 1,000 employees).

In Finland, too, strikes were relatively frequent (57.9 days). Compared with that, the number of days lost through strikes was lowest in Germany, Austria and several eastern European countries.
Dimension 6: Skills and training

6.1 Persons in employment in highly qualified occupations

What is the proportion of persons in employment who work in occupations requiring a higher qualification? Examined are persons in employment aged 15 to 64 years who work as professionals, as specialists in highly qualified occupations (e.g. in the technology or health sector) or as legislators, senior officials and managers. This includes occupations learned at universities of applied sciences, vocational academies or full-time vocational schools.

A typical feature of highly qualified occupations is that they require specialised knowledge in the field concerned. People largely have to structure their work flows themselves and often the work involves the supervision of employees.

Four in ten persons in employment have higher qualified occupations

In 2011, 42% of the persons in employment aged 15 to 64 years worked in a higher qualified occupation. Those men and women were e.g. executives in companies or authorities, performed scientific jobs, or worked as programmers, engineers, doctors, social scientists, teachers, technicians, physiotherapists, detective superintendents or social education workers.

Women working more often in higher qualified occupations

Women worked more often than men in occupations requiring a higher qualification. 44% of the women in employment had such jobs, compared with 41% of the men. The higher share among women is due to the relatively large number of female teachers, education workers as well as medical and technical assistants. In contrast, the proportion of men was larger in managerial positions or among professionals.

Higher qualified occupations becoming ever more important

Since 1992, the share of persons in employment with higher qualified jobs has increased markedly. In 1992, it had been 33% and 42% in 2011. This increase is caused by a growth in persons working as professionals (+ 7 percentage points) or as specialists in highly qualified occupations (e.g. in the technology or health sector). Both sexes contributed equally to that trend.

The share of young persons in employment aged up to 25 years (who generally have not finished studies yet) rose considerably, too. It was up by 6 percentage points from 1992 to 2011. This is due to the growing number of occupations in the medical-technical or the educational sector requiring a higher qualification. Also, the proportion of young people among professionals increased slightly, which is probably a result of shorter study periods.
Persons in employment in highly qualified occupations in %

- Managers: 2011 = 18, 1992 = 17
- Professionals: 2011 = 10, 1992 = 5
- Technicians and associate professionals: 2011 = 20, 1992 = 17
- Other occupations: 2011 = 58, 1992 = 67
- Managers: 2011 = 5, 1992 = 5
Dimension 6: Skills and training

6.2 Continuing training

What is the proportion of persons in employment who attended events of continuing vocational training in the last four weeks? That proportion refers to the total of persons in employment aged 15 to 64 years. The only relevant criterion is attendance, irrespective of the number and duration of events attended.

Continuing training covers formal training courses to obtain an advanced qualification or for retraining. Courses of non-formal continuing training are included, too. Usually they are less comprehensive and do not provide a generally recognised qualification. They may provide various skills such as leadership skills, languages or software skills.

One in twenty participated in continuing vocational training in the last four weeks

Among the 15 to 64 year old persons in employment, 5% attended courses or seminars of continuing vocational training in 2011. The continuing training rate hardly differed between men and women. 5.3% of the women and 4.6% of the men indicated to have attended at least one continuing training event in the four weeks preceding the survey.

Persons in employment aged 25 to 34 years attended continuing training courses more often (6.1%) than those in other age groups. Participation was lowest for the 15 to 24 year olds (3.8%) and in the oldest age group, that is those who will withdraw from economic activity soon (3.7%). The Microcensus shows that total participation in continuing vocational training has been around 5% since 2005.

In addition to vocational training there is also the possibility to participate in training on one's own initiative. However, professional continuing trainings constitute markedly larger part (90%).

Rates of continuing vocational training 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15 to 24</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 to 34</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35 to 44</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45 to 54</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 to 64</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participation in continuing training over time

The long-term development of participation in continuing training is monitored by means of a survey of individuals conducted every four years by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research. The survey shows that the proportion of persons in employment who attended continuing training courses in the last twelve months was up by a good half between the beginning of the 1990s and 1997.

Afterwards, participation in continuing vocational training decreased until 2003 when, however, its level was still by about a quarter higher than in the early 1990s.
Dimension 7: Workplace relationships and work motivation

7.1 Relations with colleagues and superiors

How is the quality of the relations with colleagues and superiors measured? What is the proportion of employees who indicate to have good friends at work and to feel supported by their superiors?

To determine the exchange of information between employees and their direct superiors, the share of employees is shown who, in the last twelve months, felt supported or received feedback by their superiors. The information is based on the respondents' self-assessment made as part of a Europe-wide survey on working conditions.

Employees often spend more time with their colleagues and superiors than with friends or their own family. A good working atmosphere therefore is of major importance when it comes to the quality of employment.

Two thirds have good friends at work

In 2010, 67% of the respondents in Germany indicated to have good friends at work. Another indicator of good workplace relationships is the support provided by colleagues. 69% of the respondents indicated to be supported by their colleagues often or in most cases. There were hardly any differences between men and women.

Just under half of employees feel supported by their superiors

Getting support from superiors is another major criterion for the quality of employment. Just under half of the employees (47%) were supported by their superiors in 2010, according to their own assessment. Women indicated slightly more often (51%) than men (43%) to be supported.

There is a difference in age groups: support is decreasing with age. 15 to 24 year old persons feel more often supported by their superiors (60%) than those aged 25 to 44 years (about 46%) or people aged over 45 years (44%).

Four in five receive feedback on their performance

By giving regular feedback on the performance of their staff members and by involving them in problem-solving, superiors show their appreciation, which reflects the quality of workplace relationships. Such behaviour is highly important for staff motivation. 81% of the surveyed employees indicated that they receive feedback on their performance by their superior.
Dimension 7: Workplace relationships and work motivation

7.2 Discrimination at work

What is the proportion of employees who are discriminated against at work because of age, sex or nationality? What is the share of employees who are even harassed or threatened?

Harassment and threats at work are even more serious than discrimination. People who are threatened or harassed are more often absent due to sickness. Harassment and threats may occur as physical violence, sexual harassment or mobbing.

The results are based on the respondents’ self-assessment.

Problems at work are often a cause of health problems. Various forms of discrimination contribute to psychological strain and stress. This leads to sometimes massive impairment not only of individual well-being but also of the efficiency of those concerned.

Most frequent reason for discrimination: age

In 2010, almost one in ten employees (9%) in Germany was subject to discrimination at work. The reason for discrimination mentioned most frequently was age. About 5% of the employees felt discriminated against because of their age. Younger and older employees were particularly affected.

Reasons for discrimination 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination due to age</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unwanted sexual attention</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination due to nationality</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination due to sex</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination due to religion</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination due to origin</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination due to disablement</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination of any kind</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second most frequent reason indicated was sex (1.3%) or nationality (1.5%). Sex-specific discrimination concerned almost only women. Two percent of the women felt discriminated against due to their sex, while that type of discrimination was hardly relevant for men. Discrimination due to nationality leads to opposite results. In this case men feel rather more affected than women. Other reasons for discrimination were indicated as relevant more often by women than by men.

**Harassment at work**

Mobbing, sexual harassment, physical violence or threat of violence have increased in the last few years. In 2010, 7.5% of the respondents indicated to have been harassed or threatened at work in the previous twelve months. 2% of the employees questioned mentioned to have been threatened with violence.

About 5% of the women and of the men were subject to harassment by mobbing. A similar strain was sexual harassment, by which particularly women are affected. A good 1% of the women surveyed indicated to have been sexually harassed in the previous twelve months.

2% of women had to deal with the weaker variant of unwanted sexual attention. Younger women suffer much more often from these two forms of harassment.

When compared across Europe, employees in Germany were not particularly affected by discrimination. The proportions are generally rather small, which shows that discrimination at work is more the exception than the rule in Germany.

As measuring such sensitive items is based on subjective information, the results should be interpreted with caution.

---

**Reasons for harassment 2010**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mobbing</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical violence</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual harassment</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any kind of harassment</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dimension 7: Workplace relationships and work motivation

7.3 Identification and self-determination

What is the proportion of employees who feel that they do a meaningful job and who identify with their work? What is the share of employees who can implement ideas of their own at work? The proportion of employees who can organise and perform their work in a self-determined way is obtained through three questions. Are the respondents in a position to define themselves the sequence of tasks, the approach and the working speed? The results are based on the respondents’ self-assessment.

An important aspect of work motivation is a persons’ identification with the job performed. Ideally, employees consider their job as important and meaningful and can also contribute ideas of their own.

84 % consider their job as meaningful

Most respondents considered their job as a meaningful activity in 2010. An average 84 % of the employees questioned in Germany had that opinion. That was within the EU average of 83 %. There were no differences in results either between men and women or between age groups.

Employees considering their job as meaningful 2010 in %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers</td>
<td>94.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>92.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft and related trades workers</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and associate professionals</td>
<td>84.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service and sales workers</td>
<td>80.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical support workers</td>
<td>80.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant and machine operators, and assemblers</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary occupations</td>
<td>60.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, a considerable difference can be observed by looking at the qualification requirements for the current job: employees in higher qualified occupations considered their job as a meaningful activity to a greater extent (90 %) than those in other occupations (79 %).
Self-determination in the European average

No differences were observed where contributing ideas of one’s own is concerned. In the EU, an average 39% of the respondents were almost always or often in a position to implement ideas of their own. In Germany, the proportion equals exactly the average. The older an employee, the more often own ideas are taken into account. Among the 15 to 24-year-old persons 25% reported to feel that their ideas are implemented. At the end of a working career, the proportion rises to over 50%.

Those who can plan their tasks and work flows in a self-determined way will more easily be able to motivate themselves and do a good job.

High degree of self-determination in doing the job

Examining separately the indicators of self-determination shows a high degree of self-determination for each indicator. The respondents were most often (70%) able to influence the approach of how to do their job. It was less frequent for employees to define their working speed themselves. About 60% of the respondents were able to define the speed and rhythm of their work themselves.

Influencing the sequence of tasks was least easy. Only 55% of the respondents were able to define it themselves.

It was much more seldom that employees could determine all three aspects themselves. Altogether, only 44% were able to do their job in a self-determined way in terms of approach, sequence and rhythm.

More detailed analyses show that the degree of self-determination differs substantially, depending on the job. In economic branches and occupational groups where people mostly operate machines or do crafts jobs, the degree of self-determination was lower than in office jobs.

Self-determination regarding work flows 2010

- Free choice of approach of how to do the job
- Speed and rhythm are exchangeable
- Self-determined sequence of tasks
- Self-determine all three aspects

One square is equivalent to one percent
Dimension 7: Workplace relationships and work motivation

7.4 General satisfaction with working conditions

What is the general satisfaction with general working conditions altogether?
That indicator describes how satisfied German employees are in general with their working conditions.
The results are based on the respondents’ self-assessment.

Just under 90% are satisfied with their working conditions

Even though the indicators of workplace relationships and work motivation were not excellent from all aspects in an international comparison, people in Germany were very satisfied with their general working conditions in 2010, too. 88% of the German employees were satisfied in general with their working conditions. This puts them above the EU average of 81%.

Denmark is the leading country with 95%, the EU candidate countries have a satisfaction rate of just 65%.
In Germany, 61% of the employees surveyed were satisfied with their working conditions. 27% were even very satisfied. Only 10% were not very satisfied and a minority (2%) were not at all satisfied.

The satisfaction of employees is equally distributed over sex and age. Additionally, the job performed and the level of education do not play a major role. There are slight differences in satisfaction only between economic branches: in the hotel and restaurant sector and the transport sector employees are less satisfied.

Satisfaction with general working conditions 2010

- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Not very satisfied
- Not at all satisfied

One square is equivalent to one percent
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Satisfaction with general working conditions in Europe 2010 in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>89</td>
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<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>89</td>
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<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
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<td>Poland</td>
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<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
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<td>Italy</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Czech Republic</td>
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<td>France</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>73</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of data sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Data source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dimension 1: Safety at work and gender equality</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Accidents at work</td>
<td>European Statistics on Accidents at Work (ESAW)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Health risks at work</td>
<td>Labour Force Survey (ad hoc module, 2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Participation of women in working life</td>
<td>Labour Force Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Participation of women in economic activity by occupations</td>
<td>Labour Force Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Gender pay gap</td>
<td>Structure of Earnings Survey/Quarterly Survey of Earnings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dimension 2: Income and indirect benefits from employment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Low-wage rate</td>
<td>Structure of Earnings Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Vacation</td>
<td>Labour Volume Accounting (Institute for Employment Research (IAB))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Staff on sick leave</td>
<td>Labour Volume Accounting (Institute for Employment Research (IAB))</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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