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Delegations will find attached a research note entitled “Upscaling skills of women and men in precarious employment in the EU,” prepared by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) at the request of the Maltese Presidency.

Upscaling skills of women and men in precarious employment in the EU

Research note

European Institute for Gender Equality

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Country abbreviations

AT	Austria
BE	Belgium
BG	Bulgaria
CY	Cyprus
CZ	Czech Republic
DE	Germany
DK	Denmark
EE	Estonia
EL	Greece
ES	Spain
FI	Finland
FR	France
HR	Croatia
HU	Hungary
IE	Ireland
IT	Italy
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
LV	Latvia
MT	Malta
NL	Netherlands
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SE	Sweden
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
UK	United Kingdom
EU-28	28 EU Member States

Setting the scene

Globalisation, technological change, information and communication advances have led to important changes in the employment structure and skills content of jobs. Skills have a strategic importance for growth, innovation and social cohesion. Relevant skills form a basis for employability and adaptability in the labour market. The complexity of jobs is increasing across all sectors and occupations and there is inflation in relative skills demand, even for low-skilled jobs. Many low-skilled jobs now require greater literacy, numeracy and other basic skills. Even low-skilled jobs within the service sector increasingly include more demanding non-routine tasks (EC, 2016b). A number of already existing labour market challenges further intensified during the recent economic downturn. Education and investment in skills have now become a corner stone of Europe's strategy to overcome the crisis and boost growth and jobs.

By 2025, 49 % of all job openings (including both new and replacement jobs) in the EU will require high qualifications, 40 % – medium qualification and only 11 % – low or no qualifications (Cedefop, forthcoming in EC, 2016b). Currently, almost 23 % of the population aged 20-64 have a low level of education (less than primary, primary or lower secondary education). Low-qualified people have fewer employment opportunities; they are also more vulnerable to precarious jobs and are twice as likely as highly qualified people to experience long-term unemployment (EC, 2016a). In 2014, only 43 % of low-qualified women (20-64) in the EU-28 were employed and of those 37 % held precarious jobs. Among women aged 20-64 with low education (except for students) as many as 17 % have never been employed. Limited employment and career opportunities result in limited economic independence and poverty across the life-course, particularly in old age. Close to half of working-age women and men at risk of poverty or social exclusion have the lowest level of education (EIGE, 2016).

Following the request from the Maltese Presidency of the Council of the EU (2017), the research note delivered by the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) explores the potential for upscaling skills among women and men in the EU labour market. A gender perspective highlights important differences between low-qualified women and men in their employability, situation in the labour market and access to job-related training. An intersectional perspective reveals the numerous experiences of low-qualified people in precarious employment and factors that exacerbate vulnerabilities of certain groups of people in access to the quality employment and upscaling the skills.

Chapter 1 of the research note provides an overview of the EU policy framework for upscaling skills, working conditions and gender equality. Chapter 2 presents characteristics of low-qualified people across the EU and challenges they face. Chapter 3 analyses the main aspects of precarious work and the situation of different groups of women and men in the low-quality employment. The opportunities to participate in training and its benefits are presented in Chapter 4. The research note draws on data from Eurostat's Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), Adult Education Survey (AES), and Eurofound's European Working Condition Survey (EWCS).

1. EU policy framework

A number of EU policies and initiatives support upskilling and employability of people. The recently launched New Skills Agenda for Europe and its initiative – Proposal for a Council Recommendation on establishing a Skills Guarantee ⁽¹⁾ – address the European Commission’s highest political priority, ‘a new boost for jobs, growth and investments’. The New Skills Agenda for Europe acknowledges that tackling the challenges in regard to the skills deficit will require significant policy efforts and systemic reforms in education and training. While competence for the content and organisation of education and training systems lies with the Member States, it seeks a concerted effort and shared commitment of many players (national, regional and local authorities, businesses and employers, workers, social partners, civil society actors) to improve the quality and relevance of skills formation, make skills and qualifications more visible and comparable and improve skills intelligence and information for better career choices.

The need for reinforced and updated skills also features prominently in the draft outline of the European Pillar of Social Rights ⁽²⁾ presented in March 2016, which emphasises the need to ensure that everyone has lifelong access to quality education and training that allows for the acquisition of an adequate level of basic skills and key competences for active participation in society and employment. It specifically notes that low-skilled young people and working-age adults should be encouraged to upgrade their skills.

The Europe 2020 strategy ⁽³⁾ sets up a twofold education target to reduce school drop-out rates below 10 % and to increase the share of the population aged 30-34 having completed third level education from 31 % to at least 40 % in 2020. An agenda for new skills and jobs is one of the Europe 2020 flagship initiatives. It seeks to create conditions for modernising labour markets to help raise employment levels and ensure the sustainability of national social models. This means empowering people through the acquisition of new skills to enable the current and future workforce to adapt to new conditions and potential career shifts, reduce unemployment and raise labour productivity (EC, 2010).

The Social Investment Package 2020 gives guidance to the Member States on more efficient and effective social policies in response to the economic crisis and demographic changes and calls for investing in people, e.g. by providing programmes for upskilling and training and the recognition of skills and qualification as well as promoting mobility. It calls to address the barriers that impede the participation of women and other under-represented workers in the labour market. The Commission closely monitors the performance of national social protection systems through the European Semester.

¹ Commission’s Proposal for a Council Recommendation on establishing a Skills Guarantee, COM(2016) 382 final, <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regdoc/rep/1/2016/EN/1-2016-382-EN-F1-1.PDF>

² The Pillar should build on, and complement, the EU social *acquis* in order to guide policies in a number of fields essential for well-functioning and fair labour markets and welfare systems. Once established, the Pillar should become the reference framework to screen the employment and social performance of participating Member States, to drive reforms at national level and, more specifically, to serve as a compass for the renewed process of convergence within the euro area.

³ Commission Communication on the EUROPE 2020 – A strategy for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth, COM(2010) 2020 final, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52010DC2020&from=en>

The European Semester provides the framework for steering and monitoring Member States' economic and social reforms in areas such as job creation, enhancing labour and skills supply, fostering social inclusion, combatting poverty and promoting equal opportunities. The 2015 country specific recommendations ⁽⁴⁾ stressed that efficient, effective and forward looking vocational education and training programmes, including targeted adult learning, play a key role in improving employability. They also noted a need for public employment services to be strengthened in some Member States and active labour market measures to be more efficiently targeted to those furthest from the labour market (EC, 2016c).

A number of EU financial mechanisms support upskilling, such as the European Structural and Investment Funds and, in particular, the European Social Fund (ESF). The ESF and the European Regional Development Fund alone will inject over EUR 30 billion to support skills development in the period 2014-2020 and the Erasmus+ programme will support skills development in education and training with nearly EUR 15 billion.

1.1 Education and training

Specifically in education and training, the 2015 Joint Report on progress in the implementation of the Strategic Framework for European Cooperation in education and training (ET 2020) ⁽⁵⁾ sets out revised priorities, inclusive of those identified by the European Agenda for Adult Learning. It stressed the importance of covering the full range of key competences and recognition of skills and/or qualifications, including those acquired through digital, online and open learning resources, as well as non-formal and informal learning, especially for people without upper secondary education.

The 2012 Council Recommendation on validation of non-formal and informal learning, calls on the Member States to establish by 2018 national arrangements for the validation (identification, documentation, assessment and certification) of non-formal and informal learning, considering also possibilities for unemployed people or those at risk of unemployment to undergo a 'skills audit' to identify their skills. The arrangements put in place for validation and skills assessment will play a key role in the delivery of the Skills Guarantee.

The 2008 European Parliament and Council Recommendation on the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) for lifelong learning established a reference framework of qualification levels defined through learning outcomes. It provides that each level can be achieved through various routes of formal, non-formal and informal learning.

⁴ Council Recommendations on the National Reform Programmes, OJ 215/C 272 of 18 August 2015, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=OJ%3AC%3A2015%3A272%3ATOC>

⁵ Commission Communication on the New priorities for European cooperation in education and training, COM(2015) 408 final, http://ec.europa.eu/education/documents/et-2020-draft-joint-report-408-2015_en.pdf

1.2 Gender equality

In the 2015 ET 2020, the Commission and the Member States agreed on a priority of 'tackling the gender gap in education and promoting more gender balanced choices in education' (⁶). The gender equality dimension is integrated in the relevant European funding programmes, in particular Erasmus+ and the EU funding programme for education, training, youth and sport. In the Paris Declaration of March 2015 on Promoting citizenship and the common values of freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination through education, EU Education Ministers and the European Commissioner for Education agreed to strengthen their actions in education to promote, among other issues, gender equality. In this context, promoting gender equality is embedded within a wider framework of promoting fundamental values, tolerance and citizenship. These two policy-steering documents provide a new mandate to the Commission for action in the area of education and training.

The European Commission's Strategic Engagement for Gender Equality 2016-2020 seeks to promote gender equality in all levels and types of education, including in relation to gendered subject choices and careers, in line with the priorities set out in the ET 2020 framework. This is seen as one of the key actions to reduce potential gender gaps in income and poverty among women.

The close link between education and the labour market is also addressed in the European Pact for Gender Equality 2010–2020, which aims to 'eliminate gender stereotypes and promote gender equality at all levels of education and training, as well as in working life, in order to reduce gender segregation in the labour market' (Council of the European Union, 2011).

In September 2015, the European Parliament adopted a resolution on empowering girls through education in the EU (⁷). It highlights the fact that although significant progress has been achieved in terms of equal attainment and access to education, differences between girls and boys persist. It is important to implement specific strategies that address school curricula. Focus is also placed on discrimination against women and girls with disabilities and with special educational needs and on the significance of informal education.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ For more detailed information see <http://www.europarl.europa.eu/sides/getDoc.do?pubRef=-//EP//TEXT+TA+P8-TA-2015-0312+0+DOC+XML+Vo//EN&language=EN>

1.3 Employment and working conditions

Flexible forms of work have been on the political agenda since the end of the 1970s. The main aim has been to reconcile the flexible working arrangements and protection of employees. The approach adopted at the EU level has been twofold. On the one hand, a number of directives on non-standard forms of work (including part-time, fixed-term, temporary and posted work) were adopted. On the other hand, EU institutions also launched policy strategies to support the adoption of labour market reforms combining flexibility and security as well as supporting the quality of work. Flexicurity is explicitly acknowledged as a key element of the Europe 2020 strategy. The Commission's Communication on Europe 2020 calls for the implementation of flexicurity principles, while enabling workers 'to acquire new skills to adapt to new conditions and potential career shifts' (EC, 2010). In its 2007 Communication Towards common principles of flexicurity ⁽⁸⁾, the Commission adopted a comprehensive definition comprising four fundamental components:

- flexible and reliable contractual arrangements, both from the point of view of employers and employees;
- comprehensive lifelong learning strategies to ensure the adaptability of workers, particularly the most vulnerable;
- effective active labour market policies, to reduce unemployment spells and ease transitions into new jobs;
- modern social security systems, providing adequate income support and facilitating labour market mobility.

The Commission's Communication proposed a set of common principles of flexicurity and a number of model pathways for their implementation endorsed by the December 2007 European Council ⁽⁹⁾. Flexicurity is also meant to support gender equality in access to employment and reconciliation of work and family life.

⁸ Commission Communication on Towards common principles of flexicurity: more and better jobs through flexibility and security, COM(2007) 359 final, <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex:52007DCo359>

⁹ Council conclusions on Towards common principles of flexicurity of 5/6 December 2007 (16201/07), <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/doc/srv?l=EN&f=ST%2016201%202007%201NIT>

2. Gender, skills and education

2.1 Skills assessment from gender perspective

While educational attainment defines the level of completed education, a skill is a more dynamic concept indicating how education, work experience or lifelong learning influence what people know, understand and are capable of doing (EC, 2015a). Skills form the basis for employability, career advancement and earnings progression. Nevertheless, assessing skills and their value is not always clearly defined. In general, abilities associated with work traditionally carried out by women are valued less than those carried out by men, or are not considered skills at all (Rigby and Sanchis, 2006). For instance, caring abilities have been broadly understood as women's inner characteristics rather than skills that need to be acquired. As a result, care work is often considered low-skilled and is socially and financially undervalued or even unpaid. Studies of job evaluation systems have revealed bias in privileging the value of skills found in occupations considered masculine in contrast to jobs taken up predominantly by women (Acker, 1989; Oppenheimer, 1970; Rigby and Sanchis, 2006). Even though the relevance of social and transversal skills¹⁰ for labour market has been recognized, they are overlooked in many of the current policy discussions (OECD, 2014, 2015) and the focus is mostly given to cognitive skills.

The definition of skill, as closely associated with the labour market, is also a matter of discussion between employees and employers. Yet, the influence of gender hierarchies on the workplace organisation and professional or union activities has limited both women's access to skilled work and the attainment of skilled status for jobs where women are overrepresented (Steinberg, 1990; Phillips and Taylor, 1986). Moreover, in precarious employment, trade unions tend to be either weak or non-existent. As a result, the voice of workers in these jobs, taken up predominantly by women, is also weak in defining and assessing skills.

2.2 Skills and educational attainment

Most knowledge and skills are acquired through formal education and training, although people increasingly learn in settings outside formal education – at work, online, through professional courses, social activities or volunteering (EC, 2016a). The Survey of Adult Skills (PIAAC) shows a connection between the level of educational achievement and literacy, numeracy skills and problem solving in technology-rich environments (OECD, 2016). Adults with higher proficiency in basic cognitive skills are more likely to participate in higher levels of education and, at the same time, longer periods of study provide an opportunity to develop higher proficiency levels in information-processing skills (EC, 2016b).

¹⁰ Transversal skills can be defined as skills that are learned in one context in daily life, study or work and can be transferred to another context. They concern the ways of thinking (creativity and innovation, critical thinking, problem solving, decision making, learning to learn, metacognition), ways of working (communication, collaboration), tools for working (information literacy, digital literacy), living in the world (citizenship, life and career, personal and social responsibility) (EC, 2016b).

The research note focuses on low-qualified people in the EU who work in precarious employment and their opportunities to upscale skills. According to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), people who have only received early childhood education, primary education and lower secondary education (ISCED 0-2) are considered to be low-qualified. People with low levels of qualification usually do not acquire knowledge, skills and competencies needed for a particular occupation. As indicated in the Proposal for a Council recommendation on establishing a Skills Guarantee, European Qualification Framework (EQF) level 4 (upper secondary education) is increasingly becoming a threshold for getting better access to the labour market and for continuing education and training. The employment rate for people who have not attained this level is 25 percentage points lower than the rate for those who have and the number of jobs suitable for people without an upper secondary education is rapidly decreasing.¹¹

2.3 Who are people with low qualifications?

In general, overall educational attainment has increased in recent years among the young generation, and the share of the population without secondary education has significantly declined among both women and men in the EU. In 2015, the EU average rate of early school leaving (18-24 age group) was close to the Europe 2020 headline target of 10 % (12 % of men and 10 % of women) with wide variations across Member States. Nevertheless, there were still 64 million low-qualified people aged 25 to 64, half of them women.

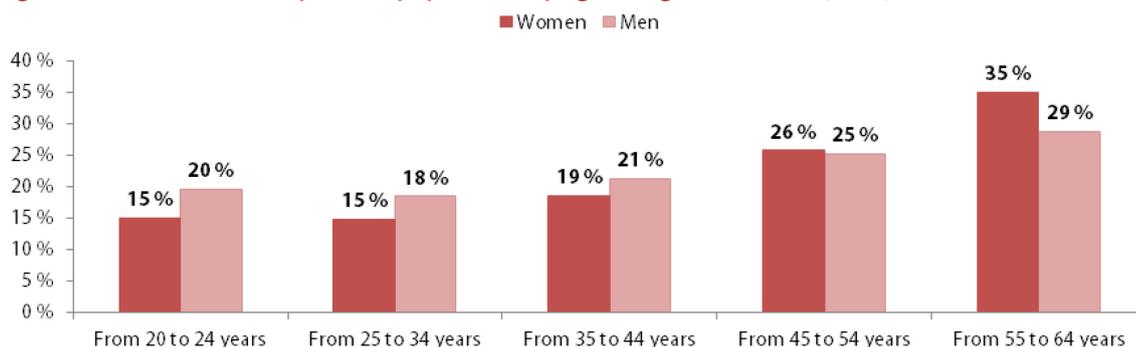
Early school leaving can be associated with the socio-economic or family background of the students or limited access to quality education, which may be more characteristic to rural areas. It may be triggered by health, personal or emotional difficulties, cumulative process of disengagement, but also unhealthy school climate, bullying or poor relationships between pupils and teachers (EC, 2013).

The share of low-qualified people is decreasing with new generations. If among the current young people (20-24 years old) 15 % of women and 20 % of men have low educational attainment (27 % of them are still studying), the share of low-qualified people is almost double in the older age cohort (35 % of women and 29 % of men aged 55-64) (¹²). While among young people, the proportion of low-qualified men is higher than the proportion of low-qualified women, the gender gap is reverse in the older population.

¹¹ Proposal for a COUNCIL RECOMMENDATION on the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning and repealing the Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 23 April 2008 on the establishment of the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning COM/2016/0383 final - 2016/0180 (NLE), <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52016DC0383>

¹² The proportion of those in education is decreasing with age (among low-educated people in age 25-34 years old, only 4 % are studying).

Figure 1 Share of the low-qualified population by age and gender (EU-28, 2015)



Source: Eurostat, LFS (edat_lfse_o3)

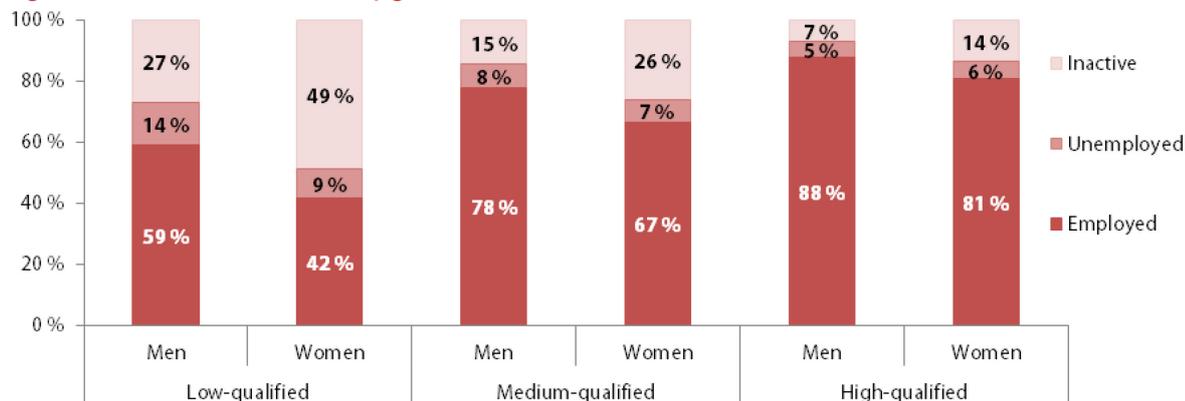
Note: Low-qualified people have completed primary education, lower secondary education or less

At the EU level, the lower educational attainment is more prevalent among women and men aged 25-64 born outside the EU (both 36 %) than among the native born (both 22 %). 23 % of EU born women who currently live in another EU country have low education (compared to 24 % of men). Out of all low-qualified people aged 25-64 in the EU, around 10 % are born in a non-EU country. However, there are significant differences in the educational level of the migrant population across Member States. In Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, Portugal, and the United Kingdom the share of low-qualified people is lower among non-EU born people than native born.

The level of education has a significant impact on the labour market participation. The employment of low-qualified women and men (¹³) is much lower than among people with medium and high educational attainment. The gender gap of low-qualified people in employment is 17 percentage points to the disadvantage of women.

¹³ 11% of people aged 15-64 say that their main activity is being in education (except DE and UK due to data availability). Therefore they are not included to the study as their final educational level is not yet clear and they cannot be regarded as a risk group in the labour market on the ground of their education.

Figure 2 Labour market status by gender and educational attainment (15-64, 2014)



Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main status is a student (except for DE and UK due to data availability)

Employees with low levels of education are almost five times more likely to earn two thirds or less of the national median gross hourly earnings than high-qualified people (6 % compared to 29 % in 2010) ⁽¹⁴⁾. The relationship between education, labour market participation and wages varies considerably among countries (EC, 2016b).

The persistent occupational segregation by gender disadvantages women. Almost quarter of low-qualified employed women worked as domestic, hotel or office cleaners and helpers (22 %) in 2014 in EU-28. Low-qualified women also worked as sales workers (13 %), did clerical support jobs, e.g. secretarial work (10 %), provided personal services (e.g. waitresses, cooks, hairdressers) (9 %) and worked in elementary occupations such as food preparation assistants, manufacturing and transportation labourers (8 %).

Low-qualified men were mainly working in elementary occupations such as transport, storage, manufacturing, mining, construction labourers, etc. (17 %). They also worked as car, truck and bus drivers (8 %), metal, machinery and related trades workers (8 %), building and related trades workers (11 %). 13 % of low-qualified men were services and sales workers, such as waiters and bartenders, shop salesperson, or protective services workers.

2.4 Low qualifications and detachment from labour market

Entering the labour market or coming back to employment after long breaks may be particularly challenging for people with low educational attainment. Over 6 million low-qualified women (17 %) and 2 million men (6 %) across the EU have never been employed (aged 20-64, whose main status is not a student) (Annex, Table 2). 14 % of all low-qualified women (5 % of men) have been out of the labour market for 10 or more years.

¹⁴ Eurostat, Earnings by Level of Education, 2010.

Figure 3 Previous working experience by gender and educational attainment (20-64, EU-28, 2014)

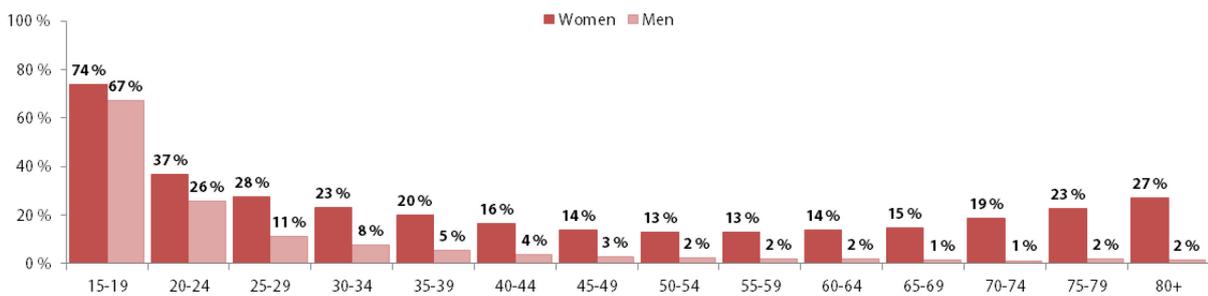


Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main status is a student (except for DE and UK due to data availability)

Although lifelong inactivity is prevalent in all age groups, it is most common among youngest and oldest population. There are 2 million low-qualified young (15-19) women and 2 million men (whose main status is not a student) who have never been employed and who are facing challenges with their first entrance to the labour market.

Figure 4 Low-qualified persons who have never been employed by gender and age (EU-28, 2014)



Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main status is a student (except for DE and UK due to data availability)

The majority of low-qualified people aged 20-64 (whose main status is not a student) who have never been employed are not searching for a job. Over 80 % of them do not want to have a job, and 43 % of women and 4 % of men are not searching for a job because of care and family responsibilities. People's attachment to the labour market can be assessed by their willingness to work and whether and to what extent the detachment from labour market is caused by personal or institutional reasons (as institutional settings may impact person's willingness to work and availability for work) (Duell et al., 2016). The motivation of low-qualified women to enter the labour market may be related to the costs of taking up a job. While a large share of low-qualified women are engaged in precarious low-paid jobs, the potential gain of employment (i.e. salary) may not exceed potential costs like child-care services, commuting costs, etc.

Over one third of people with low educational attainment that currently do not have a job (40 % of women and 32 % of men) have been employed before (aged 20-64, whose main status is not a student). 32 % of these men and 29 % of women become jobless due to the precarious nature of their previous job e.g. end of temporary contract. The second most common reason for the current inactivity is a dismissal (29 % of men and 23 % of women), while care or family reasons are mentioned by 9 % of low-qualified women and 1 % of men.

Potential reasons keeping low-qualified women out of labour market

Low-qualified and low-skilled women are more likely to take up precarious jobs with short contracts, low working hours and very low pay. This may impact their decision to work, particularly if searching for a job or taking it up brings along extra expenses, such as transportation or childcare costs. Additional costs may have bigger impact on employability of secondary earners and main carers, especially if they have more than one child. Child-care availability and prices significantly impede mother's labour market behaviour (Kimmel, 1998; Wrohlich, 2004; EC, 2014). Cipollone et al. (2014) found out that family-friendly policies, such as childcare subsidies and parental leave have a positive effect on the decision of women with children to participate in the labour market. Moreover, women in precarious jobs such as those with a limited work contract also have limited social protection. In many European countries, for instance, there are eligibility rules for job-protected parental leave and related benefits, which means that people in fragmented and non-continuous employment may have limited or non-existing rights to parental leave and benefits in case they have a child (Koslowski et al., 2016). Therefore, as a result of the need to take care of a child people may lose their job.

3. Gender, precarious employment and education

3.1 Dimensions of precarious employment

The concept of precariousness has been used widely to grasp a complexity of insecure and low-quality work. It usually covers several dimensions, concerning wages, work intensity, the presence of a union, or statutory protection, job stability, and access to social benefits (Rodgers and Rodgers, 1989). More recent studies also connect precariousness with protection against discrimination and opportunities for training and career progression (EU-OSHA, 2013). Precarious work has been referred to as a low quality employment which can include dead-end jobs and low pay/low productivity jobs (Duell, 2004), such as temporary, seasonal, short part-time, on-call work, day hire, casual or short-term contracts. Precarious employment can also be considered as a continuum ranging from high to low precariousness, depending on wage and regulatory protection across statuses, including full-time, part-time or temporary positions (Cranford et al., 2003; Young, 2010).

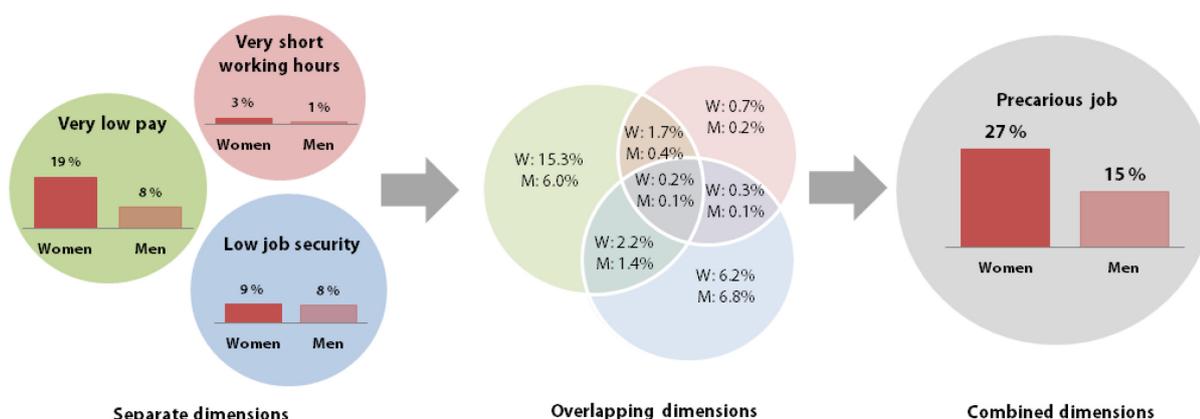
There are several major difficulties in measuring precarious work because it includes different aspects of employment relations and characteristics of jobs and working conditions. Statistical categories such as part-time work, temporary work, fixed-term contracts, and self-employment are related to precarious work but cannot be simply equated with it – not all non-standard jobs are precarious and what is considered standard employment differs among the Member States. Some aspects of precariousness are difficult to measure and are not included in the EU datasets, such as undeclared work, own-account workers, irregular schedules; and it is becoming increasingly difficult to distinguish who is an employer, employee and self-employed (EC, 2004).

In this research note, precarious employment is connected with at least one of these three working-conditions:

- 1) very low pay: take-home pay from the main job is below the first quintile;
- 2) very short working hours: less than 10 hours per week, also referred to as mini-jobs;
- 3) low job security which might entail that employees have:
 - a) a temporary contract which covers 12 months or less; or
 - b) a permanent contract, but are looking for another job due to the risk or certainty of loss or termination of present job.

If a person has a job with at least one of these characteristics, they are considered to be in precarious employment. Out of all employees aged 15-64, 27 % of women and 15 % of men across the EU work in precarious jobs (Annex, Table 1) ⁽¹⁵⁾.

Figure 5 Dimensions of precarious employment by gender (15-64, employees, 2014)



Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main status is a student (except for DE and UK due to data availability)

Looking at different dimensions of precariousness, the largest gender difference can be seen in pay. Among employees, almost every fifth woman and every twelfth man receive very low pay. The gender gap as high as 11 percentage points reflects the persisting inequalities in the gender distribution of economic and financial resources that have placed women at a disadvantage relative to men in terms of their ability to participate in the broader processes of economic development (EIGE, 2014). Low pay is a barrier in achieving the economic independence of women and men and may lead to a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion (EIGE, 2016).

The gender gap in the take up of mini-jobs is not large, although the reasons for working only a few hours per week are different for women and men. 30 % of women work less than 10 hours per week because of personal or family reasons and caring responsibilities while this is true only for 7 % of men. More than a quarter of women and men have mini-jobs because they could not find a full-time job (28 % of women and 27 % of men).

¹⁵ If not indicated otherwise, data based on LFS, EWCS and AES are calculated for the group of employees aged 15-64. Self-employed people and all those whose main activity is being in education (except DE and UK due to data availability) are not included.

Nearly one in ten employees in the EU (8 % of men and 9 % of women) is engaged in insecure jobs. For almost three quarters of women and men (74 %) with contracts lasting 12 months or less temporary employment is involuntary – they cannot find a permanent job. Insecure employment can eventually result in exit from the labour market as discussed earlier (see chapter 2).

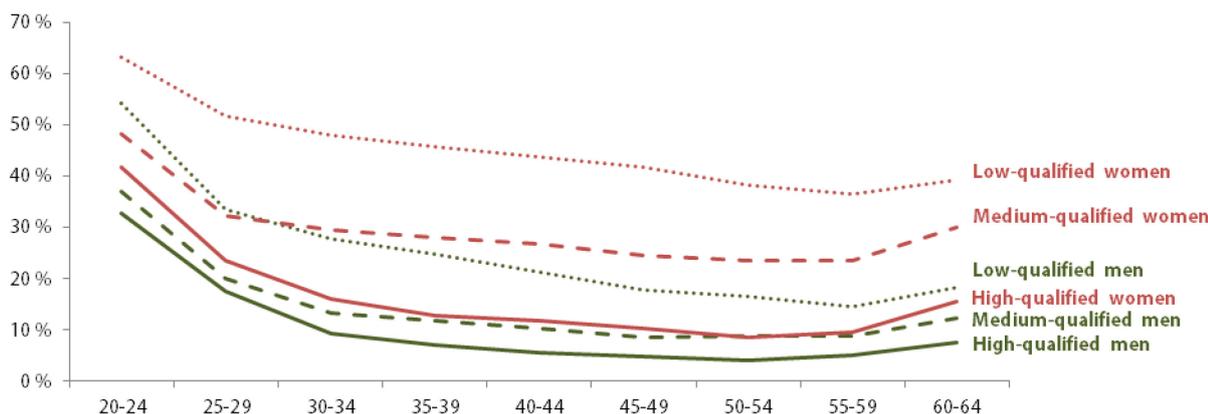
3.2 Who works in precarious jobs?

Precarious employment is most common among young people, particularly those who left school early. Almost half of women and 39 % of men aged 20-24 work in precarious jobs.

In general, young people – if employed – are less likely to have full-time permanent contracts than older people. They tend to be employed on the basis of apprenticeship or training contracts and to be engaged in part-time and fixed-term work (European Parliament, 2016). Young women and men in precarious work are often newcomers to the labour market lacking experience or qualifications; however, they also tend to be overqualified for the available jobs (McKay et al., 2012).

The share of people in precarious employment decreases with age, up to 55-59 years. Nevertheless, women with low and medium education are at high risk of precariousness throughout their all working lives (see Figure 6).

Figure 6 Proportion of employees in precarious jobs by gender, educational attainment and age (EU-28, 2014)



Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main status is a student (except for DE and UK due to data availability)

Low educational attainment increases the risk of precarious employment for both women and men. Almost every second (45 %) woman with low qualification works in precarious employment compared to 26 % of men. The gender gap among low-qualified people is the largest and it narrows down with increasing educational attainment. Overall, women are more likely than men to be in precarious employment throughout their lives regardless of educational level. The gender gap of low-qualified people in the age group 20-24 is nine percentage points and it increases up to 21 percentage points in pre-retirement age (60-64). In addition, in the pre-retirement age group, high-qualified women face similar risk of precariousness as low-qualified men (16 % of high-educated women compared with 18 % of low-educated men aged 60-64).

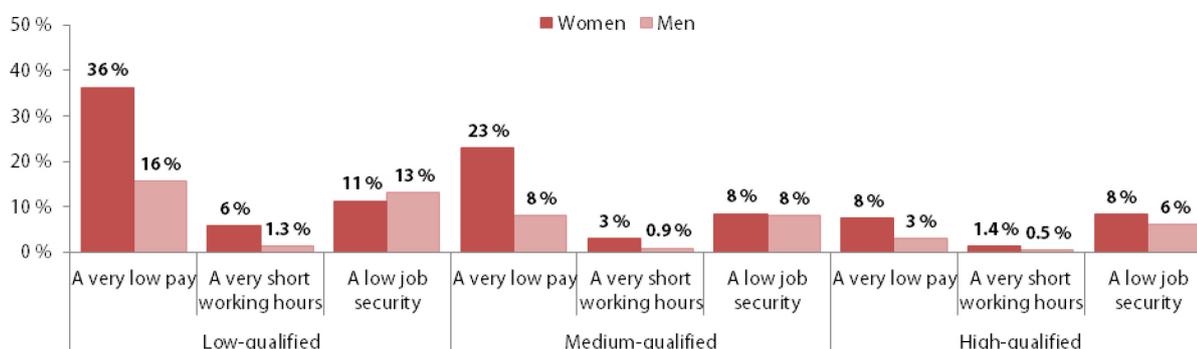
Country of birth is an important risk factor of precarious working conditions. Nearly one in three of non-EU born women (35 %) and one in four men (24 %) work in precarious jobs ⁽¹⁶⁾. Native born women work in precarious employment more often than any other group of men, including non-EU born (25 % native born women compared with 14 % of native born men, 16 % of EU born men or 24 % of non-EU born men). Migrant women may be disadvantaged due to their migrant background (e.g. some jobs are regarded as less suitable for migrants or have higher language requirements) and they also may be subjected to gender discrimination or face difficulties of work-life balance derived from traditional gender roles (Makkonen, 2002).

3.3 Low-qualified women and men in precarious jobs

Low-qualified women and men are less likely to be employed compared to people with higher educational attainment and they are also disproportionately affected by long-term unemployment. Low-qualified women are the most vulnerable group: the majority of them do not have a paid job and if they do, half of them either have very low pay, mini-job or insecure job. Most of the precariousness of low-educated women stems from the very low pay they receive from their main job (36% of low-qualified women and 16% of men receive very low pay).

Furthermore, low-qualified women are more likely than men to be engaged in mini-jobs because they are not able to find a full-time job (38 % v. 33 % respectively) or because they are engaged in caring and family-related activities at home (25 % and 6 %).

Figure 7 Dimensions of precariousness by gender and educational attainment (15-64, EU-28, 2014)



Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main status is a student (except for DE and UK due to data availability)

In general, the lower the qualification, the larger the gender gap regarding the number of hours worked. Women with low educational attainment spend, on average, only 30 hours in paid work while men with low education work 38 hours per week. In precarious employment low-qualified women work on average only 25 hours per week.

¹⁶ Data for EU born and non-EU born are missing for Germany, data for non-EU born are missing for Malta.

Low-qualified women who have a precarious job are working either in elementary occupations (46 %), such as domestic, hotel and office cleaners and helpers, or services and sales workers (31 %) such as shop salespersons, personal care workers, waitresses and child care workers. 31 % of low-qualified men who have precarious jobs are also in elementary occupations (mainly as transport, storage, agriculture or fishery labourers, but also drivers and cleaners). Precarious jobs for men include craft related occupations (e.g. construction), services and sales field as well (Annex II, Table 3).

Most of the low-qualified women working in precarious employment (62 %) consider their skills to be corresponding with the job requirements, whereas 50 % of men tend to do so. At the same time, more men relative to women (36 % and 29 %) claim that they would be able to cope with more demanding duties.

4. Training for low-qualified women and men

4.1 Participation in training

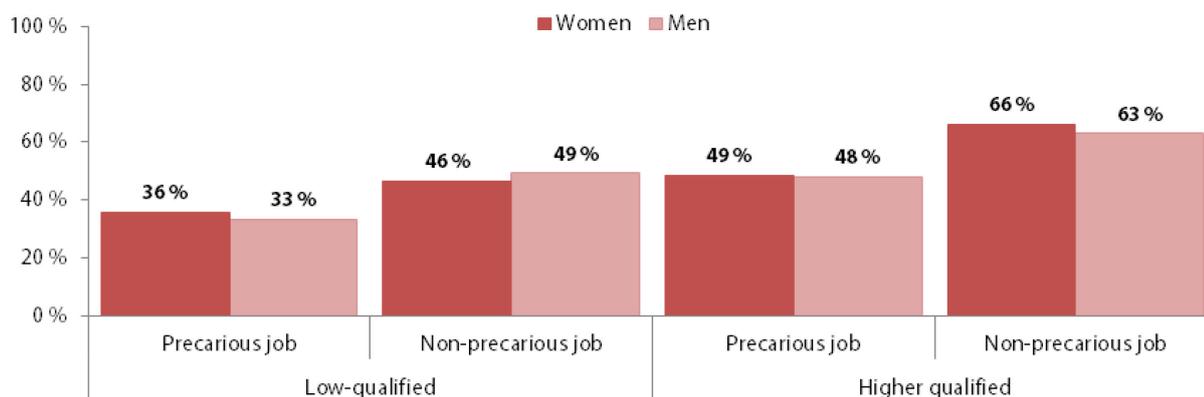
Job-related training raises knowledge and helps people to acquire skills they need either to enter the labour market or, when employed, to keep up with increasing skills demands. The role of training and lifelong learning can be particularly important for employability of those who have left initial education early without completing upper secondary education or equivalent (¹⁷).

Low-qualified and low-skilled people are less likely to participate in education and training that can result in a 'low-skills trap' (EC, 2015b). They tend to be employed in jobs that offer no learning opportunities and receive less training organised by employers. As a result, they are short of opportunities to upscale the skills necessary to keep up with the changing demands of their job and to avoid skills loss. In 2015, 46 % of low-qualified women and 49 % of men employees aged 15-64 (¹⁸) attended at least one training during the past 12 months (66 % of higher educated women and 63 % of men). The opportunities of low-qualified people in precarious jobs to attend training are even more limited (Figure 8).

¹⁷ <https://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regdoc/rep/1/2016/EN/1-2016-382-EN-F1-1.PDF>

¹⁸ Calculations in this chapter are based on microdata from the European Labour Force Survey (2014), Adult Education Survey (2011) and the Sixth European Working Condition Survey (2015). The age group is 15-64, those who indicated that their main status is a student are excluded.

Figure 8 Employees who attended at least one training during past 12 months by educational attainment, quality of work and gender (15-64, 2015)



Source: EWCS, calculations based on 2015 microdata

Note: Excluding those who indicated that their main status is a student.

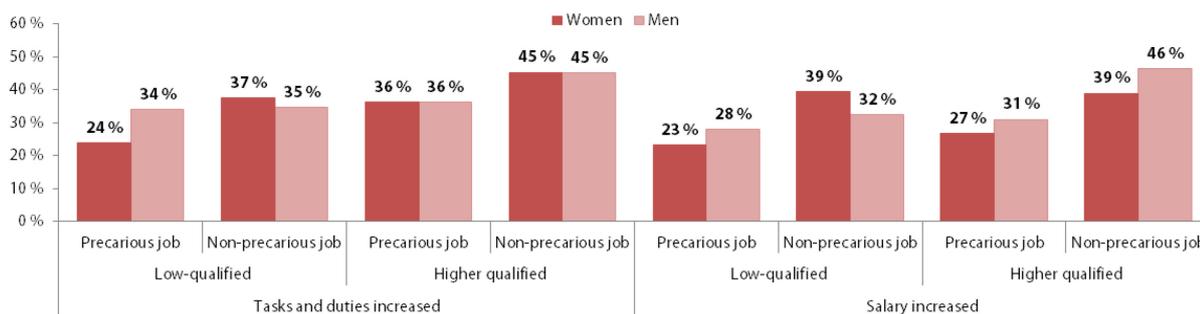
Just 16 % of low-qualified men in precarious jobs and 20 % of women attended training paid for or provided by their employer in the past year, which is much less than low-qualified people in non-precious jobs (31 % of women and 35 % of men) or people with higher level of education in precarious jobs (30 % of women and 28 % of men).

Even though low-qualified women in precarious jobs tend to participate in training provided by employers slightly more often than men (20 % and 16 %), their training tends to be shorter. 32 % of low-qualified women in precarious jobs and 30 % of men attended training that lasted only a day or less (on average 15 % of all employed women and 13 % of employed men had a training of this length in the EU-28). Only a very small share of low-qualified women in precarious jobs (3 % of those who got any training) spent in training 20 days and more (compared to 16 % of men).

Training overall is more common among employees in certain occupations such as managers and professionals. Low-qualified people, however, tend to work more often in occupations where training opportunities are lower. For instance, close to half of low-qualified women in precarious jobs are in elementary occupations (such as cleaners and home helpers) and only 20 % of them have received training in the last 12 months (30 % of men in elementary jobs such as drivers and agricultural workers). Among low-qualified services and sales workers in precarious jobs, 47 % of women and 32 % of men have attended any training (see more in Annex II, Table 3).

Besides the fact that people in precarious jobs receive training less frequently than those who are not, they also have poorer career perspectives. Among employees in precarious work who participated in training in the last twelve months, 24 % of women state that their tasks and duties increased and 23 % had increase in salary in the reference period. However, the pay rise was not very substantial and only 2 % of women and 4 % of men with low educational attainment and precarious job benefited from a significant salary increase. 39 % of low-qualified women in non-precious jobs had a salary increase which was similar to higher educated women in non-precious jobs. In other words, for women who have attended training, the nature of their job (precarious or not) is more important than educational level in determining an increase in salary.

Figure 9 Work-related changes during past 12 months among training participants by educational attainment, quality of work and gender (15-64, 2015)



Source: EWCS, calculations based on 2015 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main status is a student

4.2 Benefits of training

While the direct impact of training is difficult to measure, people tend to feel that training helps to improve their skills and career prospects. In 2015, most low-qualified people in precarious work across the EU found employer-provided training beneficial and said that it helped them to improve the way they work (81 % of women and 83 % of men). 67 % of low-qualified women and 69 % of men in precarious jobs feel that training increased their job security.

The impact of training also depends on the type and the format of training. While non-formal and formal education both help to improve the performance of the employees in their current job, participation in formal education has a stronger impact on getting a new job, promotion and a higher salary. Identification and validation of skills acquired in non-formal education could increase benefits of work-related training.

In the EU, 78 % of companies provide training to raise awareness of health and safety issues and 89 % do so to improve and extend the skills of their employees (Eurofound, 2015b). Job-related training offered to employees tends to be non-formal and can hardly provide the proof of participation or acquired qualification. While on average only a small share of low-qualified employees in precarious jobs participate in training, they mainly attend on-the-job training (70 % of women and 72 % of men who attended any training). Therefore, in comparison to the employees with higher qualification, the low-qualified are less likely to attend training in a form of courses which are more likely to provide evidence of acquired skills.

Gender mainstreaming and validation of skills

Skills relevant for the labour market can be acquired in a variety of ways therefore the validation of non-formal and informal learning would strengthen the employability of different groups of women and men, particularly those with low qualification levels. Member States have agreed to put in place by 2018 arrangements for the validation of non-formal and informal learning that would enable individuals to obtain a qualification on the basis of their experience ¹⁹. Gender should be mainstreamed in the arrangements to avoid gender bias in skill assessment. Social skills should be acknowledged as a relevant part of the labour market and validated as such.

¹⁹ Council Recommendation on the validation of non-formal and informal learning, OJ 2012/C 398/01 of 20 December 2012, [http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/?uri=CELEX:32012H1222\(01\)&from=EN](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/HTML/?uri=CELEX:32012H1222(01)&from=EN)

Even when skills are fully recognised and referenced by qualifications, their validation in the labour market might face challenges (EC, 2016a), such as discrimination on the grounds of gender, age or migration background. For instance, although stereotypes regarding productivity of older people are not confirmed, older employees are often perceived as less motivated, skilled and competent at work. The evidence shows that cognitive functions vary greatly among people and are closely related to years of education and not all deteriorate with age (WHO, 2015). Women also tend to be disadvantaged when evaluating their skills and competences (Rigby and Sanchis, 2006). This undervaluation contributes to the gender pay gap and gender segregation of the labour market. Measures on recognition, validation and upscaling skills should, therefore, tackle also structural inequalities in the labour market and beyond.

4.3 Barriers to participation in training

Equal access to affordable and good quality training is key for increasing life chances and employability, particularly among low-qualified people. However, training is not provided by all employers and not to all employees. European Company Survey shows that in 2013 in the EU-28, 73 % of companies provided on-the-job training, 71 % provided paid time off for training and only 13 % of companies did not provide any training. Only 20 % of work-places provided on-the-job training to their entire workforce and time off to participate in training was also available to specific jobs and employees only (Eurofound, 2015b). 15 % of low-qualified women and 16 % of low-qualified men employees say that lack of employer support or public services is the main reason why they do not attend any training, although they would like to do so. 19 % of low-qualified women and 17 % of low-qualified men are not able to take up training due to the high cost.

In 2011, three out of four low-qualified employees aged 15-64 did not want to participate in (further) training. Almost half of them stated it's because they do not need training (44 % of women and 43 % of men) ⁽²⁰⁾. Women considerably more often than men tend to report that family or household-related barriers limit their participation in adult education and training (Desjardins et al., 2006). For 22 % of low-qualified women (13 % of men) training family responsibilities are the main reason why they do not participate in the education and training even though they would like to. Conflict with work schedule or training organised at inconvenient time prevented from participation 14% of women and 23 % of men.

²⁰ Reasons for not wanting to participate in education and training and barriers preventing the participation concern both formal and informal education and training.

Conclusions

The European Union and its Member States' policies to reduce early school leaving are effective in bringing the EU closer to achieving the Europe 2020 headline target of the school drop-out rate below 10 %. Despite this, in 2015 over 64 million women and men aged 25-64 across the EU were low qualified (up to lower secondary education). OECD Survey of Adult Skills shows that similar shares of adults aged 16-65 performed at the lowest level of proficiency in 17 Member States. In today's society, upper secondary education is increasingly becoming a threshold for getting better access to the labour market and for continuing education and training. The employment rate among people who have not attained this level is 25 percentage points lower than the rate of those who have and the number of jobs suitable for people without an upper secondary education is rapidly decreasing.

In recent years the educational attainment of women is rising and among the young generation men are more likely to have lower qualifications than women (20 % of men and 15 % of women aged 20-24 have low education). However, the gender gap is reversed in the older population. Over one third of women in pre-retirement age have a low qualification level (35 % of women compared to 29 % of men aged 55-64). They also face a higher risk of poverty as a result of gender inequalities over the life course (EIGE, 2016). Older low-qualified women would therefore particularly benefit from a tailor-made education and training as anticipated in the Proposal for a Council Recommendation on establishing a Skills Guarantee. The measures must assure that skills they had acquired over the life-course through non-formal and informal learning are validated and recognised, that they have an access to appropriate learning settings, and their learning outcomes are documented and validated.

In 2014, more than one third of women and men born outside the EU had low educational attainment and they are more likely than EU nationals to have low level of basic skills. In general, non-EU born people face a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion, their participation in labour market is limited, particularly among women (EIGE, 2016), and the low qualification can reinforce this disadvantage. Moreover, migrant women and men tend to encounter difficulties in accessing the EU labour market and the quality work due to the under-developed system of recognition of non-EU qualifications. As part of the New Skills Agenda for Europe, the European Commission will work with national authorities to support recognition of migrants' skills and qualifications, including refugees', promote and support the sharing of information and good practices on understanding and recognizing of skills and qualifications.

Low-qualified people face higher risk of detachment from labour market, poverty and social exclusion. Due to the structural inequalities and persisting gender stereotypes, low-qualified women face additional challenges. Half of low-qualified women aged 16-64²¹ in the EU-28 are out of labour market (inactive) compared to 27 % of men. Additionally, 14 % of men and 9 % of women are unemployed. Adults with low educational attainment are at particular risk of lifelong detachment from labour market – over 6 million low-qualified women aged 20-64²² and 2 million men across the EU have never had a job and the majority of them are not searching for a job. Close to half of the working-age women and men in poverty have the lowest level of education. Restricted employment opportunities for low-qualified people may impact their decision to enter labour market or not, particularly if searching for a job or accepting it brings along extra expenses, such as transportation or childcare costs. Active labour market policies together with social protection systems outlined in the European Pillar of Social Rights should reflect the specific situation of low-qualified women and men detached from labour market in order to provide adequate and targeted support for (re)entering labour market as well as measures to develop skills, qualifications and work experience to enable entering into new occupations.

Low-qualified women and men are also more likely to work in precarious jobs. Almost every second woman (45 %) and every fifth man (26 %) with low qualification work in a precarious job. 36 % of low-educated women and 16 % of men receive the lowest income. Nearly half of low-qualified women (46 %) and a third of low-qualified men (31 %) who have a precarious job are working in elementary occupations. At the same time, a third of women (32 %) with low qualification in a precarious job work in women dominated elementary occupations, such as domestic, hotel and office cleaners and helpers and almost a fifth of low-educated men (19 %) in precarious work take up so called masculine elementary occupations (mainly as transport, storage, agriculture or fishery labourers, but also as drivers and cleaners). Upscaling skills among women and men in precarious employment therefore connects strongly to the aspects of sustainable work (Eurofound, 2016) understood as an interaction between characteristics of the job and the work environment (earnings, prospects, gender segregation, intrinsic job quality including training and working time) and the characteristics and circumstances of the individual (gender, health, skills and employability, care responsibilities, work experience). Political focus on training opportunities and outcomes should go hand in hand with increasing quality of work for all groups of women and men.

Overall women face a higher risk of precariousness throughout their lives. 27 % of women and 15 % of men are either very low paid, work very few hours per week or have a low job security. The biggest gender difference can be seen in pay – one in five women and one in ten men belong to the lowest wage group. Women and men in young and pre-retirement age, as well as people with a migrant background face a higher risk of working in precarious jobs. Yet, native born women work in precarious jobs more often than any other group of men, including those born outside the EU. Policy domains and principles set in the European Pillar for Social Rights as part of the Fair working conditions should therefore address the gendered character of precarious work in a broader context of the gender segregation of labour market and gender pay gap.

²¹ Excluding those who indicated that their main status is a student (except DE and UK due to data availability).

²² Excluding those who indicated that their main status is a student (except DE and UK due to data availability).

The employability and career prospects of low-qualified people can be addressed by upskilling – supporting them in acquiring skills they need either to enter the labour market, or, when employed, to keep up with increasing skills demands. A significant share of working age women and men, whether in employment or not, lacks the basic skills needed to take part in vocational training. They might also lack the guidance and information on the benefits of upskilling and of the available training opportunities. In addition, training opportunities are less available to low-qualified women and men, particularly if they work in precarious jobs. Only about a third of low-qualified women (36 %) and men (33 %) with precarious jobs have had training during the past 12 months and only a small share of them has received a training course by the employer. Partially it is because they work in occupations where training is less available. For instance, close to half of low-qualified women in precarious jobs are in elementary occupations (such as cleaners and home helpers) and only 20 % of them have received training.

Low-qualified women and men very often feel they do not need training and those who would like to participate face different barriers. While more women than men face pressures of work-life balance, fitting the training to the daily schedules may pose difficulties for both women and men. To assure equal access to education and training, support of learning environments at work as set out in the New Skills Agenda for Europe should be provided across all labour market sectors and occupations, with a focus on those that are mostly in need of upscaling skills. At the same time, barriers to participation that women and men face need to be addressed. One of the key flexicurity principles calls for comprehensive lifelong learning to ensure the adaptability of all workers to new working conditions and potential career shifts, regardless of their educational level. Increasing the qualifications and employability of the most vulnerable population is a shared responsibility of employees and employers, as well as the public sector.

In addition to training at work, there is a need for training opportunities that would allow people to acquire an entirely new vocation or qualifications that would open new job opportunities, particularly for those who are out of labour market or in precarious jobs with very little career prospects. Such provisions can and should be used to reduce occupational segregation, especially in low-skilled jobs. The career counselling, service provision and activation measures should encourage women and men to choose any occupation and not reproduce the traditional divide of occupations by gender.

Low-qualified women and men in precarious jobs most commonly receive non-formal on-the-job training, which does not provide any proof of participation or qualification. Improvement of identification and validation of skills acquired in non-formal education envisioned in the Proposal for a Council Recommendation on establishing a Skills Guarantee could therefore increase benefits of work-related training, particularly among low-qualified women and men. Integrated policies and mainstreaming of gender are needed so the measures on recognition, validation and upscaling skills tackle also structural inequalities in the labour market and beyond.

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Annexes

Table 1 Employment rate and proportion of employees in precarious job by gender and educational attainment (15-64, 2014)

MS	All qualification levels				Low-qualified			
	Employment rate (%)		Employees having precarious job (%)		Employment rate (%)		Employees having precarious job (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
BE	66.4	75.1	33.7	11.7	38.1	55.4	63.5	18.3
BG	64.1	70.2	25.4	16.4	30.8	43.5	69.1	42.4
CZ	68.2	86.1	5.8	4.6	35.7	52.1	11.0	14.0
DK	75.4	82.9	16.0	14.5	54.8	71.1	27.4	26.2
DE	69.5	78.1	33.3	15.4	41.6	51.0	63.3	46.1
EE	73.1	81.2	26.9	12.1	51.2	66.1	47.9	19.2
IE	63.4	75.9	12.1	4.8	31.5	56.9	25.9	7.9
EL	46.2	65.1	30.7	21.0	33.9	57.9	52.6	33.0
ES	55.0	65.4	24.2	22.2	39.4	55.2	27.1	29.0
FR	67.9	75.3	28.1	15.9	46.4	58.9	47.3	24.1
HR	57.0	66.2	26.4	19.6	32.5	45.7	52.1	34.0
IT	52.7	72.3	35.4	17.9	33.6	62.5	53.3	22.7
CY	65.8	73.7	40.5	21.5	49.8	59.5	73.8	33.5
LV	71.0	75.2	26.1	18.2	39.5	58.2	56.7	32.5
LT	73.8	75.9	16.8	12.1	35.7	47.7	38.4	31.5
LU	69.7	82.8	28.9	12.0	54.1	70.1	62.5	29.7
HU	62.6	76.4	14.4	12.8	36.6	53.4	34.2	35.7
MT	53.3	82.1	33.6	16.0	31.6	74.5	57.1	21.8
NL	70.9	82.9	21.6	12.1	47.8	70.8	35.1	18.2
AT	71.9	80.8	7.8	4.3	52.2	64.3	8.6	6.2
PL	61.9	76.0	22.4	19.1	28.6	49.1	43.6	41.3
PT	66.6	74.3	35.1	23.4	56.1	68.6	48.0	26.1
RO	59.6	76.6	28.5	18.2	44.6	66.6	57.6	34.0
SI	66.3	74.3	28.4	19.4	41.8	54.3	44.8	32.0
SK	62.0	76.2	19.3	11.3	28.0	36.7	60.6	47.5
FI	74.8	76.6	30.1	17.0	46.6	55.4	52.1	28.0
SE	81.6	85.6	10.0	8.3	56.9	70.9	13.8	12.8
UK	67.0	76.7	23.9	9.3	48.7	64.2	36.6	12.2
EU – 28	64.1	75.3	26.5	15.1	41.6	59.2	44.6	26.4

Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: excluding those whose main activity is being in education (except DE and UK due to data availability)

Table 2 Proportion of people who have never worked by gender and educational attainment (20-64, 2014)

MS	All qualification levels (%)		Low-qualified (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
BE	10.4	5.1	24.1	9.9
BG	6.8	5.3	22.0	14.5
CZ	2.5	1.4	12.4	14.3
DK	3.3	2.1	8.2	5.0
DE	5.9	3.4	18.9	8.5
EE	2.0	2.0	12.6	7.7
IE	8.2	4.1	22.3	8.3
EL	22.7	5.2	36.4	4.6
ES	6.1	2.5	9.7	2.8
FR	5.0	2.0	13.5	4.5
HR	9.9	4.0	23.6	8.4
IT	17.0	5.1	27.1	5.6
CY	5.0	3.1	7.3	4.5
LV	2.9	2.7	11.6	8.4
LT	2.7	2.7	19.0	13.7
LU	3.2	1.1	4.5	:
HU	4.3	2.7	12.2	8.7
MT	9.0	1.6	14.8	2.5
NL	4.1	1.7	9.5	3.5
AT	3.2	1.0	9.8	4.1
PL	5.3	3.0	17.7	12.7
PT	4.2	2.4	5.9	2.5
RO	16.6	4.7	28.4	9.2
SI	4.3	2.4	11.2	7.1
SK	5.7	3.6	23.3	20.3
FI	1.8	1.6	7.4	5.3
SE	3.6	2.6	12.4	7.0
UK	6.1	3.9	11.8	6.1
EU – 28	7.7	3.3	17.2	5.8

Source: LFS, calculations based on 2014 microdata

Note: ':' indicates data were not available; excluding those whose main activity is being in education (except DE and UK due to data availability)

Table 3 Low-qualified employees by gender, occupation and participation in at least one training EU-28 (% 15-64)

	All low-qualified employees (%)		Low-qualified in precarious work (%)		Participation in training among low-qualified in precarious work (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Managers	1.1	1.8	:	:	34.7	36.1
Professionals	1.3	1.8	:	:	75.1	40.6
Technicians and Associate Professionals	7.2	7.1	5.1	4.1	60.6	52.0
Clerical Support Workers	10.8	5.7	6.6	4.1	70.8	52.7
Services and Sales Workers	31.0	12.9	31.0	15.1	46.7	32.0
Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers	0.7	3.1	1.0	4.7	25.6	15.8
Craft and Related Trades Workers	4.8	25.7	4.0	26.3	19.1	33.1
Plant and Machine Operators And Assemblers	6.8	20.6	5.0	13.6	28.3	37.0
Elementary Occupations	36.3	20.5	46.1	30.6	20.2	29.9

Source: LFS (2014) and EWCS (2015), calculations based on microdata

Note: ':' indicates data were not available; excluding those whose main status is a student