The participation of women in the Greek labour force: A spatial analysis

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ABSTRACT

The participation of women in the labour market is being effected by their biological circle and social standards, as well as, stereotypes that delineate domestic work as woman's primary activity. Particularly in Greece, the sovereignty of *Mediterranean family-work model* undermines the effectiveness of policies aiming to promote female employment, constituting a brake for employment equality between the sexes. Consequently, female employment rate continues to remain in the lowest levels among E.U. countries, despite the fact that several issues have been raised during the past years, such as: the evolution of the legislative system towards equality, higher educational level of women, increased consuming needs, the decrease of fertility, the struggle of women for economic independence etc. Nevertheless, the participation of Greek women in the labour market continues to be 8-10 percent lower than the average of E.U. countries.

In this paper, we try to identify and represent the participation of women in the work force, in terms of economically active population, while emphasizing the spatial and age-structured patterns in national level. The data used in this analysis, emanate from the latest Population Census of 2001, conducted by the National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE). The spatial level of reference is the Municipality administrative level, which allows us to identify the "unfavorable" regions of Greece with low participation in the economically active population, forming clusters with similar characteristics.

Using statistical methods of multivariate analysis, we derive the spatial profile of economically active women, focusing on age-related groups, responsible for the intensity of the phenomenon. In-depth spatial and age-related analysis reveals the intense problem of mountainous and rural regions, while the age distribution is identified.

Keywords: Female employment; Economically active women; Age-related groups; Labour force; Convergence; Divergence; Spatial analysis; Greece

1. Introduction

The necessity for researching gender and spatial inequalities concerning female employment springs from the general acceptance that women undergo a wide variety of discriminations, in the labour market or during the effort to enter in it. However, the concept of female employment is not a new issue as women have been working for centuries in the rural and domestic space, while later they entered the industry, as well. So, what could have happened and women employment has become a subject of consideration and scientific interest, in the past two decades? One likely reason is that women employment has been re-evaluated and transformed to a "social value" that is measurable and productive (and not only "procreative", as it used to be). Although this transformation has weakened certain inequalities, at the same time it has created new, "modern", versions (Perrot, 1988: 9). However, the progress to the labour equality between sexes is considered to be far more than important today, due to the fact that, just two centuries ago, the right of women for paid employment (outside the domestic environment) was something that could be achieved only with struggle and intense protestations.

Similarly, the participation of Greek women to the labour force has experienced significant developments during the past three decades. These developments concern not only the legislative, but the economic and social aspects, as well. Legislative changes started taking place during the 1970s, partially, due to the preparation of Greece, to join the predecessor of the European Union. Moreover, the dynamic and successive demands of women for labour equality (mainly, through the feminist movement), generated a succession of amendments in the economic role of women, contributing to the reformation of the Greek legislative frame. Regarding the economic changes, they came as a result of a general post-war transformation of the Greek economy, and also, as a consequence of the globalized economic environment (growth of capitalism, increase of consumerism, etc). Finally, social changes of paramount importance, such as, increase in the mean age of first marriage, reduction in fertility, increase in female education level, and the demand of women for respectable social status and economic self-containment, have also been highly influential on the development of the labour market (Kanellopoulos, Mavromaras, 2000: 13-16).

Although legislative, economic and social changes have had a profound effect on the contemporary position of women in the labour market, there are still quite a few inequalities between genders in the labour field. The considerable increase in the supply of the female labour force was not matched by corresponding demand. Indeed, it is widely claimed that Greek women maintain the lowest percentages of employment among the European countries, as well as the lowest participation to some occupations that, until recently, were regarded to be appropriate only for men. Moreover, they are still classified, depending on their employment as "secondary" workers and face much more difficulties to entry or to progress in the working environment. At the same time, the continuant increase in the

women unemployment cannot be ignored; specifically, for the period between 1990-2000 women unemployment in national level, increased by, almost, 5 percentage, (reaching the level of 16,9%), and broadened the gap between men and women (Mouriki, Naoumi, Papapetrou, 2002 : 125-128, Eurostat, 2002:55-104).

Additionally, the participation of Greek women to the labour force, in comparison to the E.U. member-states, is quite low. Looking at *Table 1* we can realize that Greek women maintain among the lowest percentages of economically active population (except Italy, Hungary and Malta), and as a result, the lowest percentages of female employment (*Table 2*). Particularly, economically active women in Greece are still below the E.U. average (54,1 and 62%, respectively), while most member-states are above 60%. Actually, apart from Italy (50.6%), Greece is the only country from the 15 E.U. countries that maintains such a low female activity. Furthermore, the course of Greece at the last 4 years has not been remarkable, since the percentages of female activity saw only small increases. The same situation can be noticed to the employment rate of European countries. Greece and Italy (the European south) have the lowest female employment rate (45,2), much less than the European average (55,7) or the northern countries. Considering the low share of the labour force, that women have, as well as the various labour discriminations, measures have been taken in order to boost women employment. Such measures are included in the frame of social policies, not only in European but in international level, as well. (Karamesini, 2001: 2-6). Particularly in Europe, all members of E.U. coordinated their policies, in order to create a European Strategy for Employment, giving priority to three fundamental objectives for each country-member: Maximal Employment, Quality and Productivity in work, Social cohesion and integration 1 (NAP, 2004).

Apart from gender inequalities, Greek women have to deal with spatial inequalities, as well, according to their place of residence. Women from urban regions tend to participate more to the labour force, than women from rural or mountainous areas. For instance, there is a wide variation between the employment profile of a woman who works in the wider area of Athens (capital district) and a woman who works in Ipirous (north-western part of Greece). These differences, combined to the differential economic growth of each region, are translated to spatial inequalities in employment, between areas. Moreover, a mixture of social, geographic and cultural factors diversifies even more the above employment opportunities.

[1] The objectives of the National Action Plan 2005 for the Employment are: rate of employment 67%, while the rate of feminine employment must be 57%. However, in 2001 the specific percentages were only 55% and 40%, respectively (National Plan of Action 2004).

Consequently, it is necessary to make a first research of the present situation and examine the economically active women per age and spatial unit, which determines the employment profile. Due to the differing age distribution per spatial unit (Municipality Level), a standardisation was applied in order to proceed with direct comparison between different regions in Greece.

2. Data & Methodology

The data used in the present research emanate from the 2001 Census, by the National Statistical Service of Greece. The research was based on the permanent population data, which are considered to be more reliable, due to the fact that they are more objective, compared to the data of *legal* or *real* population. Particularly, *permanent* population of a region (prefecture/municipality/community or settlement) is the total number of individuals that have their **usual** residence in the specific region. On the contrary, *real* population of a region is the total number of individuals who are registered in the particular region at the day of the census, for any cause; either they permanently reside in this region, or they turned out there provisionally or accidentally. On the other hand, *legal population* is the number of citizens, who are registered at the municipal records and are included in the census of the region, either as presents, or as provisionally absents (Statistical Yearbook of Greece, 2003).

From the above definitions we may conclude that permanent population is the most suitable in order to examine the profile of a region, since it is exempted from the accidental, internal population's movements at the day of the Census which are usual in Greece, especially from urban to rural areas, and distort the demographic dynamic of a region. In addition, the adoption of permanent population reduces the danger of a false enlargement of total population that would happen with the legal population, as it includes the individuals that, while are registered at the municipal records of the region, they live permanently in another region and do not constitute real elements of the particular spatial unit (Kotzamanis, Pilidis, 2006).

In order to research the field of employment, the most fundamental indicator is the percentage of *economically active population* over the usual (permanent) population, which constitutes the labour-market profile of the area[2]. The percentage of the economically active population of an area "x" is:

$$ECx(\%) = (\text{Economically Active Population } 2001)\, x/\ (\text{Permanent Population } 2001)\text{x}$$

Equation (1), where x= spatial entity

[2] For more information see Observatory of Employment, www.paep.org.gr

The *economically active population of* a spatial unit is divided to the employed and unemployed persons, more specifically:

1. Employeds are considered the ones who are over 15 years old and have declared (at the census) that they work, aiming at the profit or at a specific wage. What is more, employed person is the one who works as un-salaried assistant in familial enterprise or agricultural exploitation, provided that he/she is occupied daily in this activity, at least at the 1/3 of the regular working hours or more than 90 days per year. Consequently, an employed person must have worked more than 15 hours at the week before the Census. However, those who hadn't worked more than 15 hours that specific week, due to weather, seasonal or other reasons (ex. illness), are still classified as employed.
2. Unemployed are considered the individuals who are over 15 years old and have declared that they do not work, *but they wish to do*, and they, actively, search for employment with various ways. Unemployeds are distinguished in: a) persons who lost their job for different reasons and b) the "new" unemployeds, who are the ones that try to enter to the labour market, for the first time.

As *economic inactive population* we define the individuals who have declared that neither they work nor they seek any kind of employment (for instance: students, housewives, pensioners, soldiers, people of independent means) (Statistical Yearbook of Greece, 2003, www.ilo.org).

In this paper we, primarily, try to compose the profile of women's participation in labour market per spatial unit, and secondly, to examine the intensity of the phenomenon according to the age structure of the women's labour force[3]. However, in order to fulfil the first target correctly, we must isolate the effects from the different age-structured populations, which influence the indicator and hinder the possibility of spatial comparisons. For that cause, *the method of standardization* is widely applied, because of its capability to constitute a weighted system between real and pattern scales. In other words, standardization is an adaptable technique that focuses on the problem of lack of comparability. The standardization can take two forms, the direct and the indirect form: in the direct standardization we select the population that will constitute the pattern, and then we apply it in the selected indicators, following a standardised process. On the contrary, in the indirect standardization we select the special indicators per age (pattern indicators) which are, then, applied to the real age-structured population of our study (Rowland, 2003: 121-134, Papadakis, Tsibos, 2004:104-108). In this case, we have chosen to use the direct standardization, with projected population the total permanent population of women, per spatial unit (municipality).

The second purpose of the paper is being fulfilled with the analysis of the age structure of economically active women per spatial unit, in order to see if the indicator's intensity is being

[3] The ages we examine are between 15-75 years old, according to the ESYE age- group standards. Examining the active women until the age of 75 we have the opportunity to include in our analysis the women who work in the agricultural sector, beyond the retirement age.

affected by particular age groups or is equivalently allotted, between the age groups. In *Table 3*, the calculated variables used in this analysis are presented. A K-means cluster[4] analysis was applied to the total of the variables.

3. Theoretical Perspectives on gender inequality in the labour market

The issue of gender inequality in the labour market can take different types, including differential labour force participation, occupational segregation by sex, lower pay received by women, harassment in the work place, etc. Many theories have been written in order to explain the gender inequality in the labour market, most of which can be divided in three major groups: neo-classical theories, labour segmentation theories and gender/feminist theories. Neo-classical theories accentuate the importance of human capital and productivity, as well as the rationality of different groups in their decision making. Workers are considered to have rational behaviour when seeking occupations in that, they require a job suitable to their qualifications, interests and needs. Consequently, a rational woman is seeking an occupation with relatively high salary, low returns to experience and low penalties in case of temporary withdrawal from the labour force (due to children care, household, family responsibilities). On the other hand, families are rational when they invest more in their sons' education than in their daughters', mostly because they have greater labour force expectations from their sons' and consider boys to have more job opportunities. Moreover, a rational family, will demand from the mother to quit from the labour force in case of the care of the children or the elderly, since fathers are considered to have better paid jobs and career opportunities than mothers and the social cost of their withdrawal would be higher. Girls are rational when they choose a more academic study, like humanities or languages, which is less relevant to the labour market, due to the fact that women have fewer opportunities and expectations from their occupation. As regards the employers, they search for the best qualified employees, with the lowest costs of employment, at the market-determined wage rate. As a result, men are more likely to be hired for better paid jobs since they have more years of experience and market oriented studies. This ceaseless procedure is being established by different participation in the labour force, gender segregation of occupations and salary gap between sexes. The traditional distribution of social roles that is maintained by neo-classical theories leads to a gender-based labour market inequality (DeGraff, Anker, 1999: 1-4).

Unlike neo-classical theories, labour segmentation theories claim that labour markets do not operate freely and institutional factors split the labour market in certain ways. Particularly, labour market is divided in the *primary* and *secondary* market. Employees in the *primary market* savor high posts in the hierarchy, stability of employment, better working environment, more probabilities of development and better wage, according to their

[4] For more information on K-means cluster analysis see Mavromatis, 1999: 234-251

education and experience. On the contrary, secondary sector is characterized by insecurity and low paid jobs, with limited opportunities for professional development. According to statistical data, women tend to concentrate on the *secondary* sector, on specific branches and posts that don't demand specialisation and don't offer satisfactory payment or hierarchical progress. One type of labour segmentation is the statistical discrimination theory, which gives an explanation for the reason that labour markets are divided by sex. According to this theory, employers are partial against certain groups of potential employees that are less productive and/or more costly than some others (women, national or racial minorities). Women are an example of those groups, because men are physically stronger, on average. The phenomenon is called statistical discrimination owing to the fact that one group (women) is being discriminated according to a small, probably, average statistical difference with another group (men). In other words, the entire group of women is being discriminated, although there could be many members of the group who are more productive, or stronger than men (Konstadinidou, 1997: 151-152, Kantas, Hanji, 1991: 96-103).

The direct result of this discrimination is the *occupational segregation* of the labour market, which offers to women less choices and less "skilled" jobs, that are usually related to female characteristics (such as patience, caring, docility, or even more traditional female activities, like cooking, cleaning etc). Recapitulating, we may deduce that economic analyses of labour market explain women's disadvantage and gender discrimination in terms of:

- Supply factors that determine the quantity and quality of women employees in the labour market (family duties, discrimination in education or in their access to productive resources…)
- Demand factors, which are set by particular structures of the economy system (labour market segmentation, discrimination in pay, higher possibilities of unemployment for women…)
- Implicit policies that degrade women (discriminatory legislation, unequal hiring standards…) and sway their route to the labour market (Masika, Joekes, 1996: 8-9).

Finally, the gender/feminist theories played an important role to the issue of female employment, supporting the dependant relation between: a) family/social structures and production systems and b) the degree of attendance on the domestic and public space, of each sex. According to feminist consideration, women are disadvantaged in the labour market, because contemporary society has a patriarchal structure that places women in a subordinate position. What is more, the labour submission of women depends on the segregation of domestic and public space in each society. Thus, the less limited is this segregation, the smaller is the asymmetry in the labour field. Feministic theories consider that inequality in employment does not spring from biology, but from the way that biological data become perceptible, categorized, interpreted and evaluated in various societies' systems. This emphasis to non-labour market factors which can have essential influence in the female

employment is the main difference between neo-classical, labour segmentation and feminist theories. This social structure makes women responsible for children care and housework, while it assigns to men the role of the "breadwinner". Consequently, women have a secondary participation to the work force, which can be explained through cultural values, division of roles and patriarchal ordering of society (DeGraff, Anker, 1999: 1-4, Bakalaki, 1994: 17-24).

Considering all the above, we realize that family responsibilities are seen by all theories as having a serious affect in the determination of women's position to the labour market, without ignoring the demographic behaviour, as well (marriage, child bearing...). However, there is a wide variety in the way that this factor is treated: neo-classical views accept this factor but consider it as something given and determined outside the labour market, thus, with no interest of neo-classical economics. Gender theories, on the other hand, accentuate on women's family responsibilities and try to prove that this inequality (not only in the labour but also in the family) can be altered. Moreover, feminist aspects question the assumption that women are more costly to employers and demand policies and laws which will help parents to combine work and family duties.

4. Economically active female population in Greek municipalities

Conducting a first approach to the profile of modern Greek women concerning employment, we focused our investigation on the economically active population related to permanent, in the level of municipality. The examination of the indicator took place as a whole, in the beginning, in order to have an initial picture of the distribution of women's active population throughout Greece.

However, the particular indicator (although commonly used) makes impossible the compatibility and the comparison between spatial units, because of its dependence on age-related structures of each municipality, giving thus, misleading intensity of the phenomenon, in each region *Figure 1*. Consequently, we would have drawn false conclusions for spatial inequalities. To overcome the above problem, we applied the method of standardization which impresses the economically active population, without being influenced by the age factor which varies between municipalities *Figure 2*. It can be realised that the map with the standardized indicator depicts, more intensely, and accurately the economically active female population indicator while it emphasizes more on spatial differentiations. For instance, the standardized indicator includes most of the municipalities of Thrace, Thessaly and Peloponniso, in the highest rates of active population, presenting thus, more strongly differentiations among the adjacent municipalities. On the contrary, the crude indicator, shows a false "smoother" distribution of active population, not accomplishing however to mark out the differentiated intensity of the phenomenon.

According to the standardized indicator of female active population, many mountainous, western and central Greek municipalities maintain a low attendance of women in the job market, lower than the national estimated value (37%). The problem is intense in many of the municipalities of Cyclades, Ipirous and Fokida, while some mountainous areas of Arcadia, have also a lack of female active population (lower than 30%). What is more, municipalities of the western Attica are found in a more unfavourable position compared with the rest Attica, while few active women are also presented in municipalities of Chios and Dodecanese. The region of Crete is in a better position, especially some municipalities of the Heraklion and Lasithi prefectures. East Crete maintains higher rates of economically active population of women that exceed the national estimated value (40-50%).

In addition, high percentages of active women are observed in the many municipalities of Laconia, as well as, in enough municipalities of Corinthos and Argolida (more than 40%). In the north and eastern side of the country, we can observe a group of municipalities with, relatively, high percentages of female economically active population (40-60%); these municipalities are found, mostly, in the prefecture of Trikala and Karditsa, as well as in the prefecture of Pieria, Xanthi and Rodopi (prefectures with essential presence of the agricultural sector). Moreover, there are few municipalities in Messinia and Rodopi that reach the highest percentages of active women (more than 60%). Finally, it should be noted that the prefecture of Athens (with 42% economically active women) shows explicit differentiation from the remainder basin, since the rates of women's active population, maintain higher levels.

After having examined the total economically active population of women per spatial unit, it is necessary to see whether the intensity of the phenomenon is being affected by specific age groups, or is equivalently distributed in all age groups, between 15 -75. For that purpose, we analyzed the age groups of active population per spatial unit and grouped the municipalities in which the economically active population owes its intensity in the same age groups, using methods of multivariate analysis. The analysis indicated 6 groups of municipalities, in which the inside-group areas have common characteristics. Although there is a small overlap in these groups, in terms of common tendencies, they are sufficiently different in the intensity of active population and the age-related teams (*Table 4*). In the *Figure 3*, we depict these municipality groups, giving to the first group the highest percentage of economically active women, while this percentage is declining towards the sixth group.

Firstly, we can infer that there is a large concentration of economically active women in many areas of north Crete, Laconia, Messinia Argolida, Corintho, Thessaly, as well as in some prefectures of Evro and Rodopi. Most of these regions have a high development of the agricultural sector and women tend to work in the fields, either having the privileges of an

employee, or not[5]. On the other hand, there is a lack of active women in many areas of Ipiro, Fokida, Etoloakarnania, Viotia, Evia, as well as in mountainous Arcadia, Ilia and in most islands. What is more, the western Attica and the perfecture of Piraous seem to face serious shortage of active women, compared to the rest Attica. Generally, eastern Greece seems to concentrate more economically active women[6].

Main characteristic of the first municipalities' group *(Group A)* is the high percentages of economically active women, according to permanent population. In all age groups, women have strong participation to labour market (more than 70%), while the standardized indicator is the highest among all groups (49%). In addition, we can observe high percentages of active women above the age of 40 and until the retirement age, which is a characteristic of this group only. This group is the one with the least number of municipalities (only 66).

In the second group *(Group B)* there are still high percentages of active women, particularly adjacent to the first's group municipalities. The standardized indicator of this group is 41%, while there are high percentages of active females, in each age-group. According to the map, a big concentration of these areas can be observed in Thessaly, Imathia and Pella and Aitoloakarnania.

The third group *(Group C)* can be characterized as the "group of capitals", since it contains the most of the perfectures' capitals, as well as the municipality of Athens and Thessaloniki. Main feature of that group is the young age active women, particularly between 25-29 years old and also, the concentration in municipalities of Crete and north Greece. Again, we have, relatively, high percentages of active women, while the standardized indicator is 38%.

In the forth group *(Group D)*, almost half of the permanent women tend to participate in the labour market, while the standardized indicator of their participation is 37.5%. The particular group includes a large number of municipalities, especially in Thraki, as well as in the perfectures of Kilkis and Serres.

Under this point, women seem to participate much less to the labour market, relatively to the previous groups. In the fifth group *(Group E)* the standardized indicator of active women is only 32,4% while half or less than the half of the permanent women are economically active. This group consists of many municipalities in the entire country, particularly next to the bigest cities. Moreover, municipalities of this group seem concentrated in west Macedonia, Thessaloniki, Attica, Viotia, Evia and Cyclades. It is the largest group, eith 252 municipalities.

Finally, the last group *(Group F)* of municipalities maintains the lowest percentages of active women, while the standardized indicator is only 28,4%. This group, in combination with the previous one have the most municipalities among Greece, especially in the west-central

[5] The indicator of economically active women, cannot reveal the women how work in agriculture but are "unpaid family assistants". As a result, high percentages of active women in these regions, do not necessarily mean that women are active members of the labour market.

[6] There is a small number of municipalities that has been excluded from the map, due to the lack of permanent or active population of women or due to the "small number" problem (grey color)

Greece and mountainous areas. The group F is being mostly noticed in Ipirous, Arkadia, Agean islands, and generally in central – western parts of the country.

To recapitulate, the areas of the 2 last groups *(Groups E,F,)* are the ones with the most serious problem on female active population and intensify spatial inequalities between Greek regions. We must also note that all municipalities groups (apart from group C that has a concentration in the 25-29 tean) have a normal distribution in their age related teams, which is low at the age of 15-19, increases after the age of 44, and has a declining cource after that point.

5. Conclusions

In the above analysis we presented a first approach, to identify the "unfavourable" and "privileged" regions of the country, concerning the attendance of women in the work force. Although the low spatial level of the research reassures the accuracy of the results, a more detailed approach is required, which exceeds, however, the limits of this research. The economically active population can be analysed separately for employed and unemployed women, as well as juxtaposing them. As the generic profile was determent, a more in depth view should reveal the matter of small numbers concerning the low levels of permanent population in various municipalities in Greece.

Summarizing, the first intense spatial differentiation that was observed, concerns the different levels of economically active population of women, between western-centre and Eastern Greece, as well as between certain mountainous and flat regions. Many are the regions that have a serious lack in the economically active women, while the entire country is below the European average. The grouping of municipalities with the same age structure and intensity, showed a large concentration of economically active women in agricultural areas. In the groups with the highests participation of women, we also see significant attendance of the young women, especially of the age 20-44. In good, relatively, position, are the women of the “group of capitals” where there are high percentages of economically active, and also youthful age structure. Nevertheless, most municipalities have an inadequate participation of women in the labour force, since only half of the permanent women in these areas, work or seek employment. The problem deteriorates even more in 457 municipalities (last 2 groups), where the most of the permanent women choose to stay at home or most probably can be characterized as contributing family workers.

In any case, most of the Greek municipalities maintain low participation of women in the labour market, while the situation varies between the regions. Here comes the questioning, of the extent to which Greek feminine abstention from the labour market is only a result of insufficient work offer or a combination of low demand and social conservativeness, which necessitate women to choose between family duties and career. In fact, all the economic and social alterations, little have contributed to an essential feminine liberation. On the contrary,

modern women are obligated to succeed in two different roles: housewives (and mothers), as well as employeds. This is a consequence of a slower modernization of the social norms, compared to the rabid changes of the globalized economic environment.

The slow process towards modernization of the social norms combined with a conservative and insufficient welfare state, hold responsibility for the low attendance of women in the workforce, in the South-European countries. Many sociologists come to the conclusion that the Southern - European model of family/employment, leads women indirectly out of the job market, forcing them to "select" the care of the dependent members of their family. This model dictates a strict distribution of roles, while it gives major importance to family institution and commitments, which should be undertaken only by women. Simultaneously, the welfare state doesn't provide the appropriate foundations for children or elderly, and forces the enhancement of family obligations. The result of this vicious circle (stagnant welfare state ↔ restriction of women with the protection of dependent members) and the role-distribution system is the underestimation of women employment and the perception that it is something optional, of secondarily significance, that should be obtained only in case of economical needs (Flaquer, 2002: 62-66, Karlos, Maratou-Alipranti, 2002: 145-156).

In a social system like this, that creates the ideological admission that family should foresee for the society and not reverse, women abstain from the job market, with minimal probabilities to stage a come-back in the future; this happens, not only because of the lack of public services that would conciliate professional and familial life, but also because of the increased competition and the scorn of knowledge, in case that women don't practice their profession for a long period. Consequently, the familial solidarity of south, is explained and springs from an underdeveloped familial policy, which feedbacks from the "obligatory altruism'" of women as well as from the complexity, and the lack of co-ordination, of any social policies (Flaquer, 2002: 55-56, Simeonidou, Kavouriaris, 2000: 193).

According to all the above analysis, we can infer that Greek women have to face the reasons which keep them outside the labour market, but also, have to battle with spatial inequalities, as well. Despite the recent progress which has, relatively, increased economically active population and has put the traditional model into a social-economic transformation, the gender equality of access to the labour market has yet to be achieved.

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ANNEX

Table 1: Female economically active population (%) in E.U., aged 15-64, 2000-2004

	2000	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
EU (25 countries)	*60.0*	*60.2*	*60.7*	*61.2*	*62.0*
Belgium	56.4	55.1	56.3	56.9	58.2
Czech Republic	63.6	63.2	62.7	62.5	62.2
Denmark	75.6	75.9	75.5	75.1	76.2
Germany	63.3	63.8	64.4	65.1	65.8
Estonia	65.3	65.5	64.4	65.7	66.0
Greece	**50.5**	**49.7**	**51.0**	**52.2**	**54.1**
Spain	52.0	50.9	53.1	55.1	56.8
France	62.4	62.4	63.0	63.5	63.9
Ireland	56.3	57.1	57.8	58.3	59.0
Italy	46.3	47.3	47.9	48.3	50.6
Cyprus	57.7	60.6	61.8	63.3	62.8
Latvia	62.1	63.2	63.9	64.7	65.3
Lithuania	67.3	66.0	65.8	66.5	65.6
Luxembourg	51.6	52.2	53.6	54.5	54.3
Hungary	52.7	52.4	52.7	53.9	54.0
Malta	35.2	34.6	36.7	36.8	36.0
Netherlands	66.0	67.1	68.3	68.7	69.2
Austria	62.0	62.5	63.7	64.3	64.2
Poland	59.9	59.7	58.7	58.0	57.9
Portugal	63.9	64.8	65.6	66.5	67.0
Slovenia	62.9	63.2	63.0	62.1	65.0
Slovakia	63.2	63.7	63.2	63.5	63.0
Finland	71.9	72.4	72.8	72.2	72.0
Sweden	74.8	75.7	75.8	75.4	75.2
United Kingdom	68.2	68.0	68.3	68.3	68.6

Source: Eurostat, http://epp.eurostat.cec.eu.int , last accessed March 2006

Table 2: Female employment rate in E.U., (%) aged 15-64, 2000-2004

	2000	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
EU (25 countries)	53.6	54.3	54.7	55.0	55.7
Belgium	51.5	51.0	51.4	51.8	52.6
Czech Republic	56.9	56.9	57.0	56.3	56.0
Denmark	71.6	72.0	71.7	70.5	71.6
Germany	58.1	58.7	58.9	58.9	59.2
Estonia	56.9	57.4	57.9	59.0	60.0
Greece	**41.7**	**41.5**	**42.9**	**44.3**	**45.2**
Spain	41.3	43.1	44.4	46.3	48.3
France	55.2	56.0	56.7	57.3	57.4
Ireland	53.9	54.9	55.4	55.7	56.5
Italy	39.6	41.1	42.0	42.7	45.2
Cyprus	53.5	57.2	59.1	60.4	58.7
Latvia	53.8	55.7	56.8	57.9	58.5
Lithuania	57.7	56.2	57.2	58.4	57.8
Luxembourg	50.1	50.9	51.6	52.0	50.6
Hungary	49.7	49.8	49.8	50.9	50.7
Malta	33.1	32.1	33.9	33.6	32.7
Netherlands	63.5	65.2	66.2	66.0	65.8
Austria	59.6	60.7	61.3	61.6	60.7
Poland	48.9	47.7	46.2	46.0	46.2
Portugal	60.5	61.3	61.4	61.4	61.7
Slovenia	58.4	58.8	58.6	57.6	60.5
Slovakia	51.5	51.8	51.4	52.2	50.9
Finland	64.2	65.4	66.2	65.7	65.6
Sweden	70.9	72.3	72.2	71.5	70.5
United Kingdom	64.7	65.0	65.2	65.3	65.6

Source: Eurostat, http://epp.eurostat.cec.eu.int , last accessed March 2006

Table 3: List of used variables

Variable	Code
economically active women, aged 20-24 (%)	act_2024_f
economically active women, aged 25-29 (%)	act_2529_f
economically active women, aged 30-34 (%)	act_3034_f
economically active women, aged 35-39 (%)	act_3539_f
economically active women, aged 40-44 (%)	act_4044_f
economically active women, aged 45-49 (%)	act_4549_f
economically active women, aged 50-54 (%)	act_5054_f
economically active women, aged 55-59 (%)	act_5559_f
economically active women, aged 60-64 (%)	act_6064_f
economically active women, aged 65-69 (%)	act_6569_f
economically active women, aged 70-74 (%)	act_7074_f
economically active women, aged 75+ (%)	act_75_f
econ. active women 15-19 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_1519_f
econ. active women 20-24 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_2024_f
econ. active women 25-29 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_2529_f
econ. active women 30-34 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_3034_f
econ. active women 35-39 / total econ. active women(%)	p_act_3539_f
econ. active women 40-44 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_4044_f
econ. active women 45-49 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_4549_f
econ. active women 50-54 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_5054_f
econ. active women 55-59 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_5559_f
econ. active women 60-64 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_6064_f
econ. active women 65-69 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_6569_f
econ. active women 70-74 / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_7074_f
econ. active women 75+ / total econ. active women (%)	p_act_75_f
Standardized (econ. active women / permanent population (%)	sdp_act_tot_f
economically active women 15-19 / permanent pop. 15-19 (%)	p_actper_1519_f
economically active women 20-24 / permanent pop. 20-24 (%)	p_actper_2024_f
economically active women 25-29 / permanent pop. 25-29 (%)	p_actper_2529_f
economically active women 30-34 / permanent pop. 30-34 (%)	p_actper_3034_f
economically active women 35-39 / permanent pop. 35-39 (%)	p_actper_3539_f
economically active women 40-44 / permanent pop. 40-44 (%)	p_actper_4044_f
economically active women 45-49 / permanent pop. 45-49 (%)	p_actper_4549_f
economically active women 50-54 / permanent pop. 50-54(%)	p_actper_5054_f
economically active women 55-59 / permanent pop. 55-59 (%)	p_actper_5559_f
economically active women 60-64 / permanent pop. 60-64(%)	p_actper_6064_f
economically active women 65-69 / permanent pop. 65-69(%)	p_actper_6569_f
economically active women 70-74 / permanent pop. 70-74(%)	p_actper_7074_f
economically active women 75+ / permanent pop. 75+ (%)	p_actper_75_f

Table 4: Clusters Centers of the Municipality groups

	GROUP A	GROUP B	GROUP C	GROUP D	GROUP E	GROUP F
p_actper_1519_f	17,49	13,60	10,81	12,39	13,16	11,65
p_actper_2024_f	59,17	56,33	51,86	51,24	53,40	43,85
p_actper_2529_f	70,32	64,91	72,93	57,92	59,83	47,30
p_actper_3034_f	74,09	66,46	69,63	57,77	56,07	46,12
p_actper_3539_f	75,82	65,86	66,85	57,95	53,43	45,00
p_actper_4044_f	75,68	65,71	62,38	57,90	49,79	42,07
p_actper_4549_f	72,73	62,38	53,80	55,21	43,25	40,36
p_actper_5054_f	67,90	54,59	39,79	48,58	32,72	33,83
p_actper_5559_f	56,80	39,02	23,41	39,43	20,50	24,75
p_actper_6064_f	35,08	16,50	10,59	21,55	10,32	12,36
p_actper_6569_f	7,54	2,87	4,29	4,45	3,03	3,26
p_actper_7074_f	3,93	1,17	2,60	2,36	1,73	1,41
p_actper_75_f	0,57	0,15	0,14	0,29	0,10	0,09
sdp_act_tot_f	49,14	41,05	38,32	37,43	32,41	28,42
p_act_1519_f	2,60	2,51	2,00	2,39	3,16	3,05
p_act_2024_f	9,08	11,18	11,68	10,60	13,69	12,40
p_act_2529_f	11,36	13,11	16,74	12,80	16,17	13,96
p_act_3034_f	12,13	13,68	16,74	12,79	15,89	13,99
p_act_3539_f	11,84	12,47	14,58	12,00	13,97	12,18
p_act_4044_f	11,88	12,22	13,83	11,92	12,90	11,64
p_act_4549_f	11,22	11,28	10,77	10,91	9,85	10,50
p_act_5054_f	10,92	10,63	7,50	10,52	7,25	9,74
p_act_5559_f	9,05	7,65	3,42	8,07	3,82	6,60
p_act_6064_f	7,32	4,23	1,72	6,04	2,30	4,27
p_act_6569_f	1,65	0,74	0,65	1,27	0,66	1,18
p_act_7074_f	0,78	0,26	0,36	0,61	0,33	0,46
p_act_75_f	0,16	0,04	0,02	0,10	0,02	0,04

Source: Individual Calculations

Figure 1:Crude Percentage (%) of
Female Economically Active Population (Aged 15-59),
Permanent Population 2001

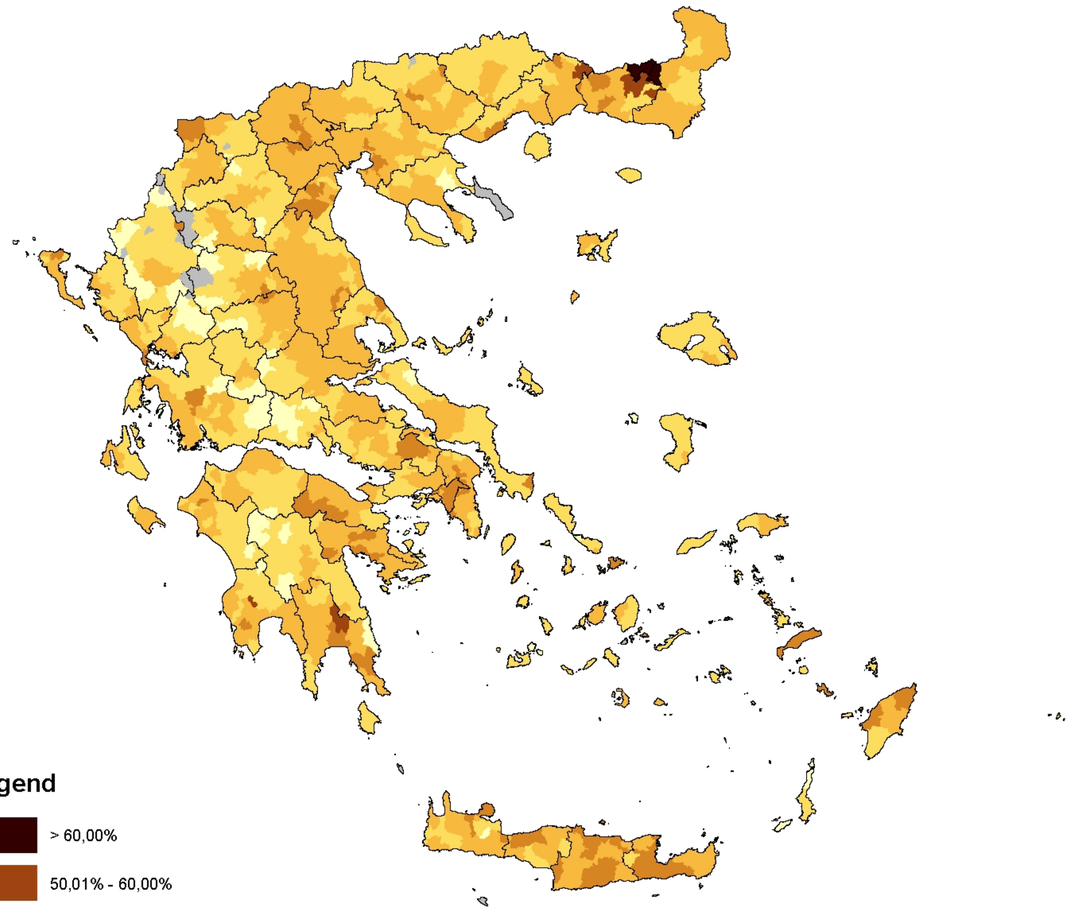

Figure 2: Standardized Percentage (%) of
Female Economically Active Population (Aged 15-59),
Permanent Population 2001

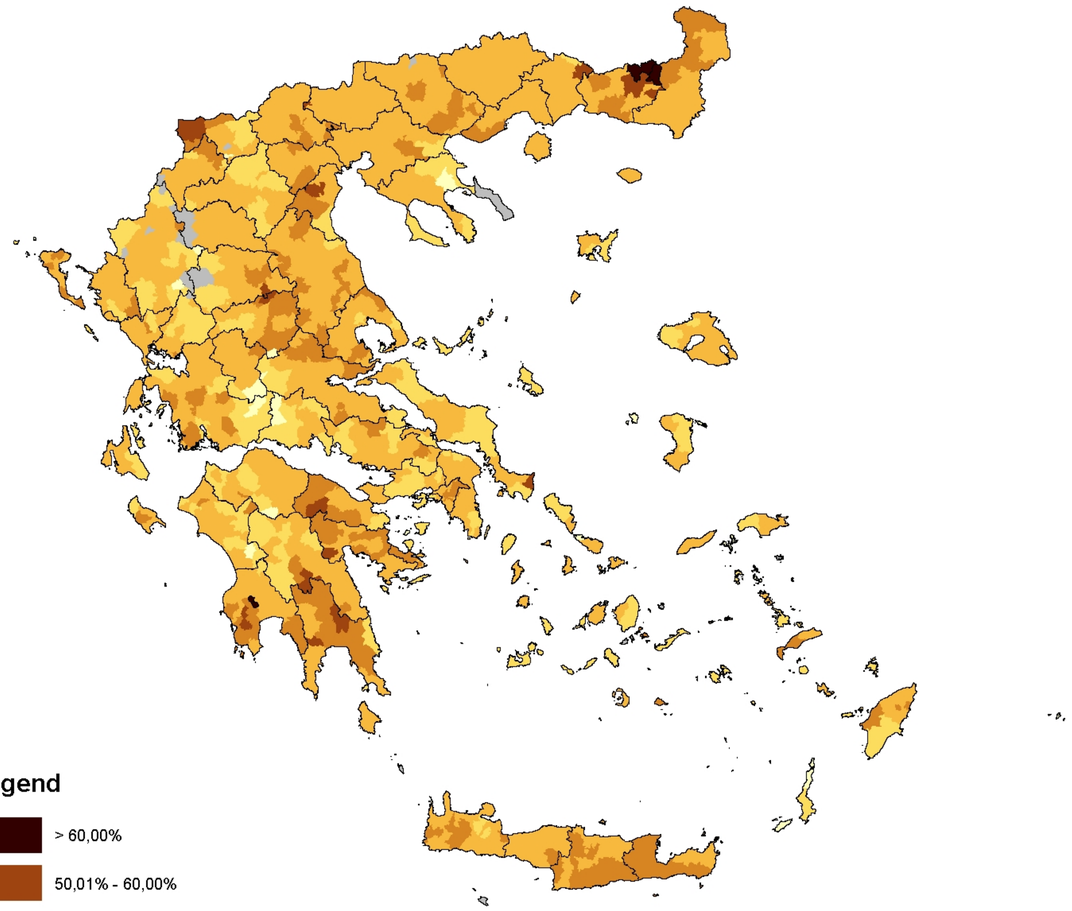

Figure 3: Classification of Greek Municipalities,
Employment Profile