

Atypical Employment in Greece: The gender factor

Anagnostopoulos Achilleas.¹, Papadimopoulos Ioannis.² Siebert W.Stanley.³, Bitzenis Aristidis.⁴

¹ Ph.D Candidate, Business School, University of Birmingham

² Professor, Business and Project Management, TEI of Larissa

³ Professor, Business School, University of Birmingham

⁴ Assistant Professor, International and European Economic and Political Sciences Department, University of Macedonia

Abstract: *This paper reports the flexibility in the Greek labour market together with the gender aspect. This issue is very controversial in Greece if the high unemployment during the last years is taken into consideration. The main query is whether the Greek labour market is flexible enough according to international standards. The issues discussed in this paper focus on flexible forms or atypical employment in businesses from Central Greece and how female.*

A questionnaire was constructed in order to explore the numerical flexibility in the workplace. Personnel data was analysed of businesses with employees in part-time, temporary time, employees such as those with fixed term contracts, seasonal workers, or agency workers, subcontractors, family members, home workers, and subsidized employees.

Data were collected between August 2006 and March 2007. Personal interviews at 236 businesses from central Greece took place. Data on businesses came from databases from four Chambers of Commerce and Industry at which all entrepreneurs and businesses are obliged by law to be registered. In order to have a representative sample of businesses, a proportional stratified sampling was chosen. The sample was chosen from the total number of businesses and its stratification deals with the main fields into which the companies are divided.

Preliminary results presented in this paper indicate the current situation on gender factor on flexible forms of employment in central Greece. In addition, information was collected about the future trends of these businesses on labour flexibility. Finally, findings can be used for recommendation policies in local employment strategy in Greece and European countries.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Labour markets have been going through dramatic changes over the past two decades. Low rates of economic growth, as a result of the recession in European Union (EU) countries in the first half of the nineties, have brought about changes in the management of production and the role of employment (Rompolis-Chletsos, 1995).

Generally, the problem of unemployment has been at the center of discussions for many years within Europe and elsewhere. Despite its decrease in Europe in the last two years, unemployment is still considered not only an economic but also a major social issue in the EU.

In Greece, at the end of 1974, after the seven year military dictatorship which had suppressed union activity, wages increased dramatically in both the government and private sectors while the unemployment rate was at a low of about 3 percent.

During the 1980s and early 1990s, the performance of the Greek labour market deteriorated sharply (Demekas et al, 1996). The unemployment rate increased to an average of 8 percent in the 1980s and close to 10 percent in the 1990s (Bank of Greece, 1998). This development reflected fundamental changes in the supply and demand for labour.

Recently, according to the OECD (2001) performance has been poor and labour market rigidities still need to be tackled. Even though a new package of labour market reforms was introduced in 2004, further reforms will be necessary (OECD, 2005). The standardized unemployment rate has fallen from 12 percent of the labour force in 1999 to around 9 percent in 2006, but still remains among the highest in OECD (OECD 2007). Moreover, the Greek labour market is still characterized by low employment and participation rates, and a high level of unemployment, particularly among youth and women.

One of the main characteristics of the Greek labour market is the large proportion of State employment (Demekas et al, 1997). It has the biggest public sector, broadly defined in percentage employment terms, among members of the OECD (Pirounakis N., 1997). This is perhaps the root problem of the modern Greek economy with government employees enjoying constitutionally-guaranteed life employment, much more lax conditions, and a generous pension system, including favorable early retirement provisions (IMF, 1999). In the last decade however, employment policy has changed. This has resulted in a reduction of hiring in public administration positions as well as an increase in unemployment (Nikolaou N., 2000). A large number of newly hired employees in the public sector lately come from temporary contracts (fixed-term contracts or subcontracting) which keep stable the share of total temporary jobs in total employment.

2. ATYPICAL EMPLOYMENT

It is evident that flexible working methods are a permanent feature of the modern employment market (Field, 1996). The creation of a single European market as well as the increasing globalisation of markets have forced companies to be able to keep up with all modern management and human resource management trends, such as labour market flexibility, so that they can compete effectively in the constant changing business environment. However, this issue, of flexible employment has been the cause of public debate in most countries (Voudouris, 2004).

Flexible work (otherwise atypical or non-standard forms of employment) is a term which covers a wide range of work styles and employment practices. Broadly speaking, it is used to describe all kinds of employment, which differ from the traditional 9-5 full time work with a permanent contract (Avramidou, 2001).

The use of flexible forms of employment (part-time, shift work, temporary work, fixed term work, sub-contracting, seasonal work, teleworking, homeworking, subsidized employment) is one of the main recent underlying employment trends in European Union (EU) countries.

The majority of job openings in EU in the 1990s have been part-time positions, rather than full-time (Voudouris, 2004). Thus, it seems that the overall level of flexible work is clearly increasing. However, the pattern varies substantially across the EU due to differences in labour regulations, resulting in different forms of flexibility in different countries (Voudouris, 2004).

Even though labour regulations may vary from country to country, there are certain issues in the EU that stand for all member countries, as they share a common goal. Labour market adjustment and employment issues are at the top of the European social policy agenda (Mihail, 2003).

Employment has been written into the Amsterdam Treaty, in the employment and social chapter. It commits the Member States to take coordinated action in promoting policies for the creation of employment (Mihail, 2003). All Member States are therefore working towards the model set by the EU, with Greece trying to combat unemployment (which is high and growing) and solve other employment issues, via the use of flexible forms of employment.

Other than combating unemployment on a national level, companies have their own reasons for adopting atypical methods of employment, with the main one being reaching excellence in the workplace. This is translated as: improved recruitment and retention; reducing absenteeism; reducing costs; extending hours of operation; and improving customer service.

Therefore, any request for flexible work should be seen not primarily as an obstacle to overcome, but an opportunity to re-evaluate and improve the way work is organized. At the same time, new communication technologies are offering a range of flexible working methods such as hot-desking, tele-working and back-office relocations (Field, 1996). The aim of non-standard forms of employment is to recruit only the required number of staff in the required capacities at any point in the business' life (Kelliher, 1989).

The purpose of the research in this paper is to study the types of flexible employment. What is the legal framework of Greek labour market: is this regulated? What is the reality of employment in Greek businesses? Can females play an active role in the atypical employment? Can these forms of employment find ways to increase the employment percentages and expand businesses in Greece? Can businesses use these "atypical" employment forms without prevention of the labour law?

These questions are of main importance for Greek enterprises taking into consideration that international organizations such as OECD, IMF and other Greek organizations (Bank of Greece, Alpha Bank) argue with some other organizations (Institute of Employment of General Confederation of Greek Labour) and many academics about the labour flexibility in Greek enterprises.

Similar studies on employment and labour flexibility have taken place in Greece⁴ and abroad. Previous research in Greece has investigated small and medium enterprises. In addition, studies on flexible working practices are limited and remain primarily descriptive according to the following academics (Papalexandris, 1997; Kufidu and Michail, 1999; Michail, 2003; Voudouris, 2004). Some of the above investigations refer only to part-time and temporary contracts; others examined only the use of independent contractors and subcontractors as forms of flexible employment. The strong point of our research is that we addressed micro-enterprises as well as small and medium enterprises taking into consideration “new” types of flexible employment such as family workers and subsidized employees.

3. REGULATION ON FLEXIBLE FORMS OF EMPLOYMENT

The Greek employment protection legislation was drafted principally with permanent, full-time employees in mind (Michail, 2003). Flexible forms of employment were later introduced to the Greek labour market in an effort for the Greek State to keep up with the tendencies that prevailed in the rest of Europe (Gravoglou S. and Kikilias E., 2001).

Furthermore, additional laws on labour relations and regulations try to provide better protection of atypical workers, while at the same time attempt to record the size of atypical employment. More analytical information about non-standard forms of employment is provided below:

Part-Time Employment

Part-time work is the employment in which the daily or weekly working hours are shorter than those of standard or full-time employment, accompanied by correspondingly reduced pay. The application of part-time employment could be possible in Greece based on the fundamental principle of freedom to conclude a contract (article 361, Civil Code).

Under the law (1892/1990, Article 38) this type of employment requires an individual agreement between employee and employer, which may be concluded at the commencement of the employment relationship or during its existence, and must be in writing. Two other additional laws 2639/1998 and 2874/2000 were introduced for better social protection of part-time workers as well as for the obligatory registration of this type of employment at the Labour Inspectorate for the better monitoring of the system.

Short-time employment is a category of part-time work is the where the contract of employment remains unchanged and the nature of the reduction may be characterized by the alternation of periods worked (hours, days, weeks, etc.) and periods not worked (EMIRE)

The part-time employment rate in Greece has followed a different path than in the rest of the EU countries. The most important differences evident are the low average earnings, the high employers/employee social insurance contributions, the extent and attitude towards the informal economy and immigrant labour. Thus, while part-time employment as a proportion of total employment in the EU-15 has been increasing during the last twenty years, reaching 16.6 percent of total employment, in Greece it has stagnated at about 5.5 percent (OECD 2004).

In addition the female share in part-time employment is 78.5 percent for women in EU-15 and almost 68 percent for women in Greece. It is obvious that Greece is still amongst the member states with the lowest percentage of part-time workers - almost entirely due to the general lack of interest in it expressed by both employers and employees. It is also very important to mention that according to Labour Force Survey Results (2001), 44 percent of the part-timers in Greece would prefer to have full time work but have settled with this type of employment because full-time jobs were not available.

Finally, in 2003 a new law (3174/2003) allows public sector organisations to recruit unemployed people and other groups on a part-time basis or fixed-term contracts. The main characteristic of this law is that the candidates must be selected from vulnerable groups (long-term unemployed, people with disabilities, etc).

Temporary Employment

Temporary employment is the most “popular” form of employment in Greece and represents 10.9 per cent of the total workforce in Greece (EIRO, 2007) However, there is a lack of definition of temporary employment while the institutional framework in which this operates is not clearly defined.

According to OECD (2002) the distinction between temporary and permanent jobs is complex and differs significantly between countries. This may be the reason why Greece doesn't have a clear legal framework for temporary employment. However, OECD (2002) considers as temporary jobs those forms of dependent employment, which, by their nature, do not offer workers the prospect of a long-lasting employment relationship.

This type of employment can be separated into three categories:

Fixed-term contracts are the most common form of temporary employment. A series of clauses in Chapter 180, Articles 648-680 of the Civil Code and also law 2112/1920 and law 2639/98 define the fixed-term labour agreements.

What is characteristic of this contract is that the termination of this kind of job is determined by objective conditions. The EU directive 70/1999 has been adopted by the presidential decree of the Greek government in April 2003. According to this, the longest duration of the continuing contracts is two years. In any other case (over two years duration) the fixed-term contract is transformed into an indeterminate duration contract.

Seasonal work differs from fixed-term contracts only by the seasonal activity of the company in specific durations of the year. Seasonal employment has high proportions in the tourism industry (restaurants and hotels) and in the food-processing industry as well as in the public sector trying to cover the seasonal needs of workforce.

Temporary Agency Work (TAW) is the third category of temporary employment in Greece. The state passed a new law (2956/2001) on employment services, which includes the operation of temporary employment agencies. Temporary employment via a third party means work provided to another employer (the indirect employer), for a limited period of time, by employees associated with their employer (the direct employer) under a contract or a relationship of subordination for a fixed or indeterminate period. (EIRO, 2001). For the first time the new legislation lays down specific rules on the establishment, operation and obligations of agencies (Soumeli

E., 2001). Thus, as a result, the Manpower Employment Organization (OAED)⁶ loses its monopoly on job brokerage.

Subsidised Employment

In the field of active labour market policies, the main types of intervention continue to be subsidised employment (wage subsidies and start-up incentives) and training. The management and the application of these subsidised employment schemes come from the Manpower Employment Organization (OAED) under the supervision of the Ministry of Employment and Social Protection. This is characterized by a highly centralized structure, however recently other governmental departments have been involved both in the engagement and the delivering of pro-active labour market policies (Karantinos, 2006).

The wage subsidies as a category of subsidised employment -which is investigated in this study- was initially applied in 1982 in Greece under a programme called Subsidies of the New Posts (EU, 2004) while in 1998 a new measure of employment has introduced called Stage (acquisition of professional experience for post-secondary and tertiary education graduates). Both measures are occasionally offered and announced by the government to the participants (businesses and the unemployed).

The goal is to try to motivate businesses to hire new employees (under this flexible employment) for a specific duration. Thus, unemployed people (especially long-term or other members of vulnerable categories) gain work experience and become more competitive in the labour market.

In addition, Manpower Employment Organization offers wage subsidies under trainee schemes for the work placement or internship of students of technical high schools or tertiary education institutes.

Evaluations of the above two active labour market policies have been conducted from research or academic organisations as well as public or quasi public organisations. The latter conclusions of the evaluations are mixed. PAEP (OAED's own affiliated research institute) has negative results for the New Posts programme and a reshaping is recommended for the Stage programme involving greater control by Manpower Employment Organization (OAED). Another research institute (KEPE) finds that the employment subsidy programme is effective in restricting unemployment and generating gains (mostly income support for unemployed workers) (Karantinos, 2006).

"Family" Employment

Family workers are mostly found in micro-enterprises. These are mainly family-owned businesses with individual legal status. Taking into consideration that 96.1 percent of enterprises in Greece have less than 4 employees and 2 percent of them have between 5 and 9 employees it is very clear why micro-enterprises account for 63 percent of total employment in Greece (Kikilias, 2005).

Parents, siblings and extended family-members work in family businesses (Sardeshmuck, 2006). The main question arising is how many of them are legally paid or not?

According to the European Employment Observatory Review (2004) undeclared work is bound to be higher in activities with a high incidence of family workers

(who represent 8.6 percent of the total workforce or 351,600 persons) and the self-⁷employed (who represent 24 percent of the total or 1 million persons).

The majority of family workers are females (Vaiou, 2001) who are registered by the National Statistical Services of Greece as housewives but contribute as illegal workers to the survival of micro-enterprises in Greece. Furthermore, the workplace in these businesses is considered as a kind of extension of the family relationship (Vaiou, 2001). However, these kinds of family members have no rights to a pension scheme and no labour taxes have been paid to the Social Security Office.

This is definitely a part of the underground economy, which according to International Monetary Fund (IMF, 1999) results in a 27.2 percent. Finally, it is evident that Labour Organisations, such as the Labour Inspectorate and Social Security Office that are responsible for the application and enforcement of labour meet many difficulties in controlling the undeclared work.

4. THE GENDER FACTOR IN THE GREEK LABOUR MARKET¹

There are few studies on gender equality policies in Greece. Since there is no real tradition in such policies in this country, Greek gender policy is highly influenced by EU directives, and is highly based on similar policies at the EU level. State feminism rules absolutely and all that goes on in the gender equality front moves around the General Secretariat for Equality, of the Ministry of the Interior (G.G.I.). The G.G.I. is the competent body for designing and implementing policies related to gender equality, in all areas. Its priorities refer to the major objectives of EU policies for gender equality, and include employment issues, the fight against gender stereotypes in all areas, and measures against gender violence. In its advisory capacity the G.G.I. must take care of the diffusion of the mainstreaming perspective in all policies. In this landscape of almost total reign of EU connected initiatives and measures, and of relative lack of research and studies on gender policy, studies on employment related policy form an exception and, secondarily, educational policy and family policy, especially in its aspect of the famous “reconciliation of work and family”.

Concerning the three issues, non employment is in a sense covered under the employment policies studies and thus seems to be rather well covered, since its gender related character is stressed and exploited. In fact, it must be noted that, although Greek women today are better represented in fields that were culturally almost closed to them in the past, although there is quasi no gender discrimination in salaries in the public or semi-public sector, and although new career options appear for them in traditionally male-restricted areas (such as the army and security forces), there is still a notable difference between men’s and women’s occupational ratio, their percentage of unemployment and career histories, as well as in their professional «choices», and definitely in their achieving posts of responsibility.

Recent data² reveal that the unemployment figure among Greek women is 13.3 percent; whereas it is only 5.4 percent among Greek men (the difference is more than double). Differences in salaries in the private sector create a gender wage gap

¹ Part of this chapter has been based on project QUING (Quality in Gender + Equality Policies)

² A progress report has been published on the 2004–2008 programme entitled ‘*National policy priorities and areas of action for gender equality*’ from Eurostat

of 25 percent, according to the latest data, while the implementation of an 'equal⁸ opportunities' policy in employment, promoted by the EU, finds as its prime enemy the structure of the traditional Greek family and the division of labour between members of the household, as well as in the underdeveloped social services. In addition, women's career advancement and the positions of responsibility that they assume are limited compared with those of their male colleagues (EIRO 2007).

In 2004, unemployment was as high as 10.5 percent (percentage of the unemployed out of the total active workforce population). The male unemployed held a 6.55 percent (percentage of the male unemployed out of the total male active workforce population), whereas the female unemployed was at an extremely high 16.23 percent (percentage of the female unemployed out of the total female active workforce population). In 2005, unemployment fell by 0.65 percent to 9.85 percent of the total active workforce. The male unemployed were at 6.1 percent of the total male active workforce, whereas the percentage of the female unemployed fell to 15.3 percent of the total female active workforce.

The differences between male – female in the workplace can also be seen in the statistics of the overall workforce population. Greece has been, and still remains, one of the countries with a large difference in the percentage of male – female active work population. To be more specific, in 2003, the male active workforce was 72.4 percent, and the female active workforce was at a low 43.8 percent (Greek National Action Plan for Employment, 2004).

To compare with another European country, the UK in 2003 held the following statistics: the male workforce being at 79.2 percent and the female at 69.8 percent (UK National Action Plan for Employment, 2004). It is evident that the difference between the two sexes is less than that of Greece for the same year, with the UK percentage difference being at a low 9.4 percent.

In the last quarterly of year 2005 in Greece, the percentage which shows the difference between male and female workforce, has fallen to about 22 percent, but still remains high (male 64.7 percent and female 42.3 percent) (Greek Labour Statistics, 2005). However, we should take under consideration the fact that this percentage is falling, as is the total percentage of the male and female workforce population.

5. METHODOLOGY AND DATASET

This focuses on the methodology and the dataset of our study. Its aim is to discover what the current situation of flexible employment in Greece is. Data collection is defined as the source that will be chosen, the construction of the questionnaire (the methodological tool which will be adopted or created), the sample of businesses – which sampling analysis will be followed, the interviews taken place, any obstacles presented and finally the preliminary results of this research.

The Sample

A very important issue arising in this study was the selection of businesses for our sample. In order to have an overall picture of businesses in the Thessaly region, enterprises from all economic sectors were examined. The Chamber of Commerce and Industry was selected as the source of our data. All companies engaged in “commercial activities” are obliged by law to register at the Chambers of

Commerce and Industry at the capitals of Prefectures which are defined as Public⁹ Sector Entities. After having access to the Thessalian businesses directories the sample to be interviewed was selected. In order to have a representative sample of businesses, a proportional stratified sampling was chosen. The sample was chosen from the total number of businesses of the databases and its stratification deals with the economic fields into which the companies are divided.

The Questionnaire

The next stage was the construction of the questionnaire which was based on The Workplace Employee Relations Survey (WERS) by the UK and is also used in other countries. However, a team of the academic and research staff of Higher Education Institutes: the TEI of Larissa, Greece and the University of Birmingham, Britain made some amendments.

It was very important to take into consideration that Greece has a large number of micro-enterprises, most of them family businesses, and the reaction on employment regulations would be different than in Britain or other countries which use the same methodological tool. Thus, some suggestions could improve the effectiveness of the questionnaire and consequently the results and the analysis of the data collected. Modifications were made on questions to the WERS questionnaire to make it more suitable or adaptable to Greek standards.

The Interviews

The survey was conducted in 2006 in 4 prefectures of Thessaly, Central Greece through in-depth interviews with the owner/manager/accountant of the business. Each interviewee asked a standard “core” range of questions with follow-up questions where appropriate. Questions with the five point Likert scale from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” were included. Both “hard” (figures) and “soft” (opinions, attitudes) data were collected with 246 variables.

A structured protocol was used to collect quantitative information along the following interrelated dimensions of employment in micro-enterprises:

- (a) full-time males & females, (b) flexible contracts (part-time, short time, temporary time etc) per sex, (c) family member employees & subsidized employees
- (d) labour legislation and new hiring (e) gender labour issues

6. PRELIMINARY FINDINGS & CONCLUSIONS

The main aim of the present research was to investigate the current situation of flexible employment in Thessaly, Greece and also to find out the extent to which females play an active role in the atypical employment. Two hundred and thirty six (236) Greek enterprises replied to the questionnaire studying what labour flexibility is for employers. Preliminary findings are presented below:

Table 1 contains information about the identity of Greek businesses surveyed as well as the number of employees per economic activity.

This survey developed a sample of more than three thousand five hundred (3519) employed people. Almost 90 percent of the employees work full-time and the other 11 percent are part-time workers. More than sixty percent (2218 employees) work the traditional 9-5 full-time work with a permanent contract. On the other hand, almost 37 percent of the personnel of our survey work with flexible contracts.

The most important factor that should be considered in the mapping out of a policy for the Greek labour market is the size of a company. The majority of businesses are micro-enterprises (148 out of 236) with individual legal status (85 out of 148). In addition, almost half the population of this sample was employed by individual companies. The figures confirm the dominance of individual company as a legal status in Greek enterprises.

The structure of employment as far as the distribution of occupations is also examined. The sectoral distribution of occupations depicts that the percentage of companies that employ scientists in the region of Thessaly is low. This finding suggests that there is a comparative disadvantage in this region regarding its production activities. According to these findings, it is obvious that the highest percentage of the workforce is occupied in the tertiary sector, where about 30 percent of the personnel is concentrated in two basic economic sectors: (a) wholesale and retail trade and (b) hotels and restaurants. Additional characteristic is that 27 percent of the employees of sampled work in the manufacturing sector. Furthermore, the jobs offered in this area required no special educational background of the employees. Table 3 indicates that employees in the survey have secondary education while the majority of the workforce are clerical and sales positions.

In an attempt to classify these flexible contracts of employment it is noted that one of the highest percentages come from family workers with a percentage of 7.3 (260 employees) of the total workforce while represents almost 20 percent of the total number of flexible employees.

In addition, it is very interesting to compare the number of family workers with the legal status of the company. More specifically, if we compare individual companies, the result indicates that (from just over one hundred companies which employ family workers) more than half of the family workers come from individual legal status companies.

The highest percentage of flexible form of employment comes from temporary employment, especially from males. These percentages of 11.7 of males and almost 4.0 of female participation are higher than the overall representation in Greece (almost 11 percent).

More than 50 percent (300 employees) of this “popular” form of employment derives from fixed term contracts while seasonal workers (27 percent) and subcontracting (21 percent) follow.

The percentage of agency workers is almost zero showing that Temporary Employment Agencies are a relatively recent phenomenon in Greece. The new legislation hasn't been adopted in Greece except in some circumstances in Athens, the capital of Greece.

Both part-time and subsidized employment is relatively low in our survey and confirms the lack of use of these flexible forms on national level. Wage subsidies, provided by Public Employment Services (PESE), are used by few companies. Work placement for students from tertiary education as well as technical high schools is very limited and not noticeable.

The issue of the differences between the sexes as far as both employment and unemployment rates are concerned in Greece, has been covered at the theoretical background of this paper. It has shown that even though Greece holds a very high percentage in these differences, only in part-time employment females' rate higher

than males. This is also the case in this survey taking into consideration that short time employment counts as a category of part-time.

However the female participation in the full-time employment category of this sample is higher than the overall Greek one. More specifically, the percentage which shows the difference between male and female participation of the overall labour force, is approximately a large 22 percentage. But it is mentioned before Thessaly region has a strong presence of businesses in the tertiary sector. Therefore, it is obvious that females are mostly preferred for employment in the services sector which is dominated by clerical, secretarial & sales occupations.

These professions define the “strongest” occupational category for women and related with the results shown on table 3 and table 5. However employers state that hired more females than males in managerial positions the last two years. This is very encouraged result for those women who have educational background.

More than sixty percent of the businesses claim that female employees can meet all the job positions of their company. In addition (table 8 and table 9), in the question “what would be the reasons that threaten the hiring of female employees?” also sixty percent of the businesses stated that they have no reason for not hiring female employees. The above “positive” points – by employers view – are significant for the future of females in the Greek labour market. This needs definitely an additional evidence research in a few years.

On the other hand, the high familial needs and the maternity leave are considered the main obstacles of hiring females. Female participation is also “weak” on the employment of the vulnerable groups (table 7). Females at the age of 20 as well as those above 50 years old confirm that age and sex are very important criteria for hiring employees. In addition women with disability or different origin than Greek will meet strong difficulties to entry to the labour market.

Overall it seems that gender issue plays a vital role to getting hired. Women considered peripheral workers who meet main difficulties getting into the core. It is also obvious that female employment rate is high in services sector which addressed in lower hierarchical positions that require semi-skilled workers (secretarial, sales positions, etc). In paternalistic societies, such as Greece, women tend to have more family responsibilities (even though this is slowly changing), and play a more active role at home than the Northern European ones. Thus it was expected that flexibility in employment is a labour situation that could be preferred by women. However part-time employment is one of the lowest in EU and this is controversial issue.

However, this research is based on findings from the employer’s point of view. This is a rather interesting finding for gender issue which needs more investigation looking at the actual employee’s point of view.

Finally although regulations to protect employment in Greece seem to be strict, the preliminary findings of this study indicate that in Thessaly businesses have flexibility in the workplace. More particularly, micro-enterprises seem to have more flexibility than small and medium enterprises. However controlling and monitoring -from the State- on labour issues on these types of businesses is very difficult. This is a degree of flexibility which may derive from undeclared employment, family members (mainly females) of the businesses.

APPENDICES

Table 1: *The identity of Greek businesses of the survey*

| Activity | Number of businesses | Number of employees |
|---------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| Manufacturing | 25 | 975 |
| Wholesale & Retail | 99 | 803 |
| Hotels & Restaurants | 44 | 461 |
| Transportation & Carriers | 4 | 35 |
| Financial Services | 4 | 10 |
| Real Estate, Leasing | 6 | 173 |
| Education | 10 | 252 |
| Health Care | 5 | 149 |
| Entertainment & Cultural | 19 | 235 |
| Construction | 18 | 411 |
| Other | 3 | 15 |
| SUM | 236 | 3519 |

Table 2: *LegalStatus with ScalEmployees (Crosstabulation)*

| Legal Status | Less than 10 | 10 to 49 | 50 to 499 | Total |
|---------------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|------------|
| Individual | 85 | 10 | 1 | 95 |
| General Partnership | 34 | 22 | 1 | 55 |
| Special Partership | 9 | 4 | 0 | 13 |
| S.A. company | 16 | 36 | 6 | 57 |
| Limited company | 2 | 3 | 0 | 5 |
| Other | 2 | 5 | 0 | 7 |
| TOTAL | 148 | 80 | 8 | 236 |

Table 3: *Hiring per Occupational Category (Mean)*

| Occupational Category | Male | Female | Total |
|---|------------|------------|-------------|
| Managers/Professional occupations | 1,1 | 0,5 | 1,6 |
| Clerical, secretarial, personal service & sales | 2,3 | 3,4 | 5,7 |
| Craft & skilled manual occupations | 2,4 | 0,6 | 3 |
| Routine manual occupations | 2,6 | 1 | 3,6 |
| TOTAL | 8,4 | 5,1 | 13,9 |

Table 4: Hiring Policy per employment type in the last 2 yrs (Gender Aspect)

| Type of Employment | Male (Mean) | Sum (No male employees) | Female (Mean) | Sum (No female employees) | Total |
|--------------------|-------------|-------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|-------|
| FULL-TIME | 1,91 | 287 | 1,34 | 202 | 3,25 |
| PART-TIME | 0,47 | 71 | 0,64 | 96 | 1,11 |
| TEMPORARY-TIME | 1,47 | 221 | 0,34 | 51 | 1,81 |
| SUBSIDISED | 0,07 | 11 | 0,04 | 6 | 0,11 |
| TOTAL | 3,92 | 590 | 2,36 | 355 | 6,28 |

Table 5: New Hiring (the last 2 yrs) - Occupational Structures (Mean)

| Hires – Occupational Group | Male | Female | Total |
|---|------|--------|-------|
| Managers/Professional occupations | 0,07 | 0,14 | 0,21 |
| Clerical, secretarial, personal service & sales | 1,1 | 1,6 | 2,7 |
| Craft & skilled manual occupations | 1,34 | 0,24 | 1,58 |
| Routine manual occupations | 1,07 | 0,22 | 1,29 |
| TOTAL | 3,58 | 2,2 | 5,78 |

Table 6: The employment structure of the survey

| Form of Employment | Number of employees | (%) FFE | (%) General | Mean |
|--------------------|---------------------|---------|-------------|-------|
| FAME | 260 | 19,95 | 7,39 | 1,16 |
| TRAE | 32 | 2,45 | 0,91 | 0,14 |
| PESE | 68 | 5,22 | 1,93 | 0,30 |
| AGEN | 5 | 0,38 | 0,14 | 0,02 |
| FTM | 1294 | - | 36,77 | 5,75 |
| FTF | 924 | - | 26,26 | 4,11 |
| PTM | 121 | 9,3 | 3,44 | 0,54 |
| PTF | 159 | 12,21 | 4,52 | 0,71 |
| STM | 37 | 2,84 | 1,05 | 0,16 |
| STF | 67 | 5,14 | 1,90 | 0,30 |
| TTM | 415 | 31,87 | 11,79 | 1,84 |
| TTF | 138 | 10,59 | 3,92 | 0,61 |
| TOTAL | 3519 | 100 | 100 | 15,64 |

Table 7: Employment in "Vulnerable" Groups per sex

| "Vulnerable" employment group | N | | Mean | Sum (No of employees) | Valid Percent (%) "Vulnerable Groups" | Valid Percent (%) Total No of Employees |
|-------------------------------|-------|---------|------|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|---|
| | Valid | Missing | | | | |
| >20M | 225 | 11 | 0,2 | 44 | 9,21 | 1,25 |
| >20F | 225 | 11 | 0,1 | 22 | 4,60 | 0,63 |
| <51M | 225 | 11 | 0,89 | 201 | 42,50 | 5,71 |
| <51F | 225 | 11 | 0,44 | 99 | 20,71 | 2,81 |
| DISABM | 225 | 11 | 0,04 | 9 | 1,88 | 0,26 |
| DISABF | 225 | 11 | 0,02 | 5 | 1,05 | 0,14 |
| EUEMPM | 225 | 11 | 0 | 1 | 0,21 | 0,03 |
| EUEMPF | 225 | 11 | 0,02 | 4 | 0,84 | 0,11 |
| NOEUEMPM | 225 | 11 | 0,3 | 67 | 14,02 | 1,9 |
| NOEUEMPF | 225 | 11 | 0,12 | 26 | 5,44 | 0,74 |
| TOTAL | - | - | 2,13 | 478 | 100 | 13,58 |

Table 8: Women can meet all job Positions

| FEMALES MEET ALL POST. | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|------------------------|--------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | No | 81 | 34,3 | 36,8 | 36,8 |
| | Yes | 139 | 58,9 | 63,2 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 220 | 93,2 | 100,0 | |
| Missing | System | 16 | 6,8 | | |
| Total | | 236 | 100,0 | | |

Table 9: Reasons threaten the hiring of female employees

| REASONS – NOT HIRING FEMALES | | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|------------------------------|---------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid | High Familial Needs | 45 | 19,1 | 20,8 | 20,8 |
| | Maternity Leave | 7 | 3,0 | 3,2 | 24,1 |
| | None of these | 86 | 36,4 | 39,8 | 63,9 |
| | Other | 47 | 19,9 | 21,8 | 85,6 |
| | Both from the above | 31 | 13,1 | 14,4 | 100,0 |
| | Total | 216 | 91,5 | 100,0 | |
| Missing | System | 20 | 8,5 | | |
| Total | | 236 | 100,0 | | |

Explanations of Variables in table 6

| Variable name | Explanation |
|---------------------|----------------------------|
| Employment Category | Employment Category |
| FAME | Family Members-workers |
| TRAE | Traineeship (UNI/TEI) |
| PESE | Public Employment Services |
| AGEN | Agency workers |
| FTM | Full time male |
| FTF | Full time female |
| PTM | Part time male |
| PTF | Part time female |
| STM | Short time male |
| STF | Short time female |
| TTM | Temporary time male |
| TTF | Temporary time female |

Explanations of Variables in table 7

| Variable name | Explanation |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| “Vulnerable” employment group | “Vulnerable” employment group |
| >20M | Males aged 20 or under |
| >20F | Females aged 20 or under |
| <51M | Males aged 51 or over |
| <51F | Females aged 51 or over |
| DISABM | Males who have disability |
| DISABF | Females who have disability |
| EUEMPM | Males who are from EU |
| EUEMPF | Females who are from EU |
| NOEUEMPM | Males who are from NON-EU |
| NOEUEMPF | Females who are from NON-EU |

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