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Part-time employment among men:

The interplay between country's gender culture, legal entitlements to part-time work and individual's gender role attitudes

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ABSTRACT

The prevalence of male part-time employment in Europe varies greatly from country to country. Using data from Round 2 and Round 5 of the European Social Survey on 24 countries, this study examines (1) the effect of a country's gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work on men's employment decision to work part-time, (2) the effect of men's gender role attitudes on their employment decision to work part-time and (3) to what extent the relationship between men's gender role attitudes and part-time employment is conditioned by the gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work. Results show that a country's gender culture is related to men's employment decision to work part-time. Men in countries with more traditional gender culture are more likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with more egalitarian gender culture. Contrary to country-level context, at the individual level, men with more egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to work part-time compared to men with more traditional gender role attitudes. The effect of men's gender role attitudes on working part-time has been found to vary across countries. However, variation cannot be explained by a country's gender culture and legal entitlements to work part-time.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The prevalence of male part-time employment in Europe varies greatly from country to country, ranging from 1.2 percent in Bulgaria to 18.7 percent in the Netherlands (OECD, 2016). Part-time employment, in international comparison, is often defined as people in employment who usually work less than 30 hours per week in their main job (Delsen, 1997; OECD, 2016; Van Bastelaer, Lemaître & Marianna, 1997). Understanding variation in patterns of male part-time employment across countries requires cross-national research, however, few studies have analysed male part-time employment from a comparative cross-national perspective.

Studying countries' cultural and structural constellation may provide insight into cross-national variation in patterns of male part-time employment. Countries differ with respect to their gender arrangements and institutional framework and, as a result, employment behaviours of different country populations are embedded within distinct country-specific contexts (Pfau-Effinger, 1998; 2017). Research on cross-national variation in patterns of part-time employment among women has shown that women's employment decision to work part-time relates to cultural as well as structural country-level factors: The more egalitarian gender culture in a country, and also the more extensive family policy legislation in a country, the less women reduce working hours and work part-time (Pfau-Effinger, 1998; 2017; Rosenfeld & Birkelund, 1997; Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002). It can be expected that country-specific contexts also affect men's employment decision to work part-time as this can be seen as a socialisation environment, although for men mechanisms regarding gender culture and family policy legislation may work in opposite direction compared to women. In this paper, it is studied: *to what extent do a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work affect men's employment decision to work part-time?*

While the country-level context may frame individual's employment behaviour, assuming that there is a uniform pattern of employment behaviours of individuals within each particular country, does not seem appropriate (Pfau-Effinger, 1998; 2017). Individual-level factors are important in employment behaviours as well. Moreover, it is important to pay attention to individual-level factors to take into account composition effects at the country-level (Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002). Research on part-time employment among women describes that choices about employment behaviour are influenced by individual's perception of norms and values about the 'correct' gender division of labour (Andringa, Nieuwenhuis & Van Gerven, 2015; Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; Fortin, 2005; Uunk et al., 2005; Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002). Besides focusing on the effects of gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work on men's employment decision to work part-time, this paper tests the relation between gender role attitudes and part-time employment among men at the individual level: *to what extent do men's gender role attitudes affect their employment decision to work part-time?*

The relation between gender role attitudes and part-time employment can be expected to vary across countries as the relation between gender role attitudes and part-time employment may be conditioned by the country-level context. When individual-level gender role attitudes do not conform to a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work, individuals may encounter constraints in employment decisions (Andringa, Nieuwenhuis & Van Gerven, 2015; Inglehart & Norris, 2003; Uunk, 2005). After examining male part-time employment in relation to, first, a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work and, second, individual's gender role attitudes, this paper studies the interplay between country-level context and gender role attitudes by examining: *to what extent is the relationship between men's gender role attitudes and part-time employment conditioned by the gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work?*

This study improves upon earlier research in several ways. First, most research on part-time employment focuses on female part-time employment. Yet, given the gendered nature of part-time employment in Europe, it is crucial to a comprehensive understanding of part-time employment to also study male part-time employment. By concentrating on male part-time employment, this study aims to explore the other side of the part-time employment story.

Second, most studies that do take into account male part-time employment study part-time employment within a single context. By researching male part-time employment in a cross-national perspective, this study aims to improve understanding of cross-national variation in patterns of male part-time employment. Fostering deeper knowledge of cross-national variation in male part-time employment is necessary for evaluation of employment policy regarding part-time work and can be beneficial for further development of employment policy regarding part-time work, both at the national and the European level.

Third, as far as known, there are no cross-national studies on male part-time employment studying the interplay between country-level and individual-level factors. By analysing how the relationship between gender role attitudes and part-time employment among men is conditioned by a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work, this study aims to provide insight into the relative importance of country-factors and individual-factors regarding male part-time employment. As the relation between structure and agency is a central debate within the social sciences, from a sociological point of view, it is important to understand to what extent employment behaviours of individuals can be explained by country-level factors and to what extent by individual-level factors to improve theoretical understanding of the relation between structure and agency.

2. THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

In order to study male part-time employment with country-level factors and individual-level factors, it is essential to first understand how the country level and the individual level are linked to each other. Coleman (1986; 1994) developed a broadly used theoretical framework, known as the Coleman boat, which clarifies the relationships between the macro level and the micro level. Central to the Coleman boat is the idea of a changeover between the macro and the micro level.

Figure 1. Schematic representation of the Coleman boat (see Coleman, 1994).

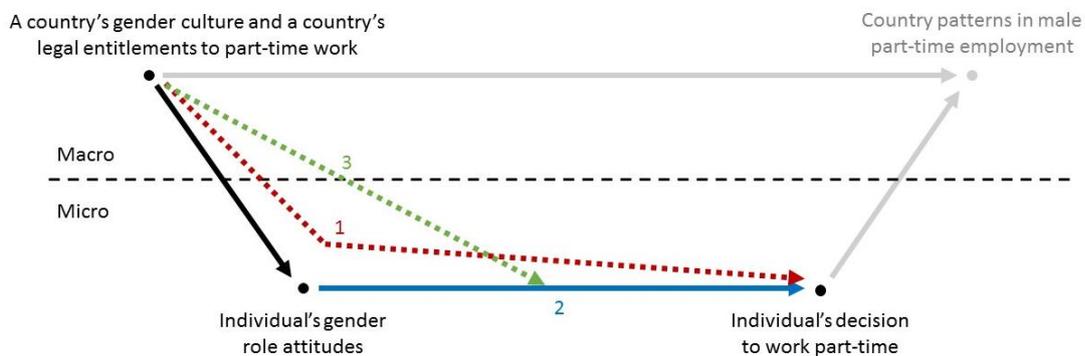


Figure 1 shows a schematic representation of the Coleman boat adapted for the purposes of this paper's topic. The left-bottom of the figure shows that a country's macro-level context generates certain micro-level attitudes among individuals within the country's population and micro-level attitudes may predict micro-level action. In this way, macro-level context is linked to micro-level action: A country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work can be related to men's employment decision to work part-time (arrow 1). However, the relation between macro-level context and micro-level action runs through micro-level attitudes, and therefore the relation between individual gender role attitudes and men's employment decision to work part-time should be taken into account as well (arrow 2). Finally, the relation between individual's gender role attitudes and employment behaviours of individuals can be conditioned by a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work (arrow 3). The relations described and highlighted by the three arrows are further clarified in the next section.

2.1 Country-level context

A country's gender culture

In many European countries, traditionally, a clear gendered division in paid and unpaid work exists. Providing income through paid work previously has been mainly considered a male task, while unpaid work as child care and household work have been considered female tasks (Crompton, 1999; Lewis, 2001). This traditional gendered division of paid and unpaid work is reflected in a male breadwinner / female caregiver model, assuming regular and full-time male employment and a dependent non-paid wife (Lewis, 2001; Pfau-Effinger, 1998). In most European countries, the sharp gendered division between paid and unpaid work has been eroding during the second half of the twentieth century and also the male breadwinner / female caregiver model has been gradually displaced in most countries (Crompton, 1999; Delsen, 1997; Lewis, 2001; Pfau-Effinger, 1998). Large differences between countries, however, persist in regard to predominant societal norms and values about gender relations (Andringa, Nieuwenhuis & Van Gerven, 2015; Crompton, 1999; Fortin, 2005).

In societies where a traditional gender culture continues to prevail, it is likely men remain mainly responsible for providing the family income. A male breadwinner / female caregiver model, although in weakened form, continues to exist (Pfau-Effinger, 1998). Being primary wage earner has large symbolic importance and in countries with traditional gender culture, men are not expected to reduce working hours in order to support in family responsibilities. Societal assumptions about the desirable 'correct' form of gender relations and the division of labour between men and women leads then to lower status of male part-time employment (Delsen, 1997). Because of the low status of male part-time employment and normative expectations from immediate social environments, men are unwilling to take up a part-time job, resulting in few men working part-time.

Contrarily, in societies with a culture of gender equality, traditional gender norms and values are less articulated and men and women are expected to share equally in work and family activities (Crompton, 1999; Lewis, 2001). This is reflected in a dual breadwinner / dual carer model, with integration of both men and women in the labour market (Pfau-Effinger, 1998). Part-time employment can be an accepted way of combining work and family responsibilities (Beham et al., 2018). A dismantling of the male breadwinner / female caregiver model increases demand for part-time work among men. From this, the following hypothesis is derived:

H1. Men in countries with more egalitarian gender culture are more likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with more traditional gender culture.

A country's legal entitlements to part-time work

Societal norms and values concerning the appropriate division of labour between both genders are reflected in a country's institutions and policies (Lewis, 2001; Pfau-Effinger, 1998). Opportunities to reduce working hours or to balance work and family responsibilities are shaped and defined by a country's legislation, regulations and practices (Plantenga & Remery, 2010; Hoekstra et al., 2016; Rosenfeld & Birkelund, 1997; Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002). As a result of the traditional male breadwinner / female caregiver model, in Europe, part-time employment has long been associated with less desirable forms of employment. Compared to full-time workers, part-time employees were given less employment protection and as a result, employers have been using part-time employment as a means to reduce wage and benefits costs and as an instrument to increase working time flexibility (Clifford, Morley & Gunnigle, 1997; Kalleberg, 2000; Spreitzer, Cameron & Garrett, 2017). However, in 1997, the Council of the European Union adopted a directive aiming to improve both access and quality of part-time employment within the EU. EU Directive 97/81/EC (1997) seeks to enforce equal treatment of part-time workers compared to full-time workers in each EU member state. It says that: Part-time employees are not allowed to be treated differently just because they work part-time. Furthermore, employees have to some

extent the right to request to change from full-time work to part-time work and vice versa. Employers must adequately consider those requests. Refusal of such a request cannot be an argument for an employee's dismissal. While the EU directive intends to harmonise national laws between the EU member states regarding regulations on the length of working time, member states enjoy large autonomy in establishing the details of implementation of legislation addressing the objective of non-discrimination between full-time and part-time work (EU Directive, 1997). Moreover, member states have been permitted to introduce more favourable regulations regarding part-time work. Countries that introduced additional regulations can be divided into countries that have legal entitlements to part-time work for employees with care responsibilities and countries with legal entitlements to part-time work for all employees (Plantenga & Remery, 2010). As men's employment decision to work part-time ultimately depends on the actual availability of part-time work, it can be expected that men in countries with more legal entitlements to part-time work, have greater possibilities to work part-time and therefore are also more likely to work part-time. The following hypothesis is tested:

H2. Men in countries with more legal entitlements to part-time work are more likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with less legal entitlements to part-time work.

2.2 Individual-level gender role attitudes

Within countries, individuals vary in their gender role attitudes concerning the appropriate division of labour between both genders (Fortin, 2005; Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002) . Individual gender role attitudes can be seen as one's personal perception of the desirable 'correct' form of gender relations and the division of labour between men and women. Individuals with more traditional gender role attitudes believe that men's primary role is being breadwinner and women's primary role is being caregiver, while individuals with more egalitarian gender role attitudes believe in a more equal division of labour within the family with men and women both being involved in the workplace as well as in family life (Corrigall & Konrad, 2007). Individual's

gender role attitudes influence employment decisions (Fortin, 2005). More egalitarian gender role attitudes may encourage men to work part-time in order to accommodate child care and household work, while men with more traditional gender role attitudes may be less inclined to reduce working hours in order to balance work and family responsibilities as they pursue a more traditional male breadwinner / female caregiver model. At the individual level, the following hypothesis is tested:

H3. Men with more egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to work part-time compared to men with more traditional gender role attitudes.

2.3 Interplay country-context and individual-level gender role attitudes

For the reason that men's employment decision to work part-time is expected to be explained by both country-context and individual's gender role attitudes, it is predicted that associations between gender role attitudes and men's employment decision to work part-time vary across countries, conditioned by country-contexts. Individual's employment decision to work part-time depends on individual gender role attitudes balanced with societal norms and values concerning the appropriate division of labour between both genders and opportunities to work part-time, shaped and defined by a country's legislation, regulations and practices (Fortin, 2005). When individual-level gender role attitudes do not conform to a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work, individuals may encounter constraints in employment decisions (Andringa, Nieuwenhuis & Van Gerven, 2015; Inglehart & Norris, 2003; Uunk, 2005). Men with more gender egalitarian gender role attitudes in a country-context with a more traditional gender culture, may experience stronger normative pressure from immediate social environments because of lower status of male part-time employment, while for men with more traditional gender role attitudes in a country-context with a more egalitarian gender culture, it is unlikely that male full-time employment is socially unapproved. Furthermore, men with more gender egalitarian gender role attitudes in a country-context with less legal entitlements to part-

time work, have little possibilities to work part-time as the country-context does not allow for opportunities to work part-time, while men with more traditional gender role attitudes in a country-context with more legal entitlements to part-time work, men with more traditional gender role attitudes have greater chance at choosing not to work part-time. Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4. The association between men's gender role attitudes and working part-time is stronger in countries with more traditional gender culture compared to countries with more egalitarian gender culture.

H5. The association between men's gender role attitudes and working part-time is stronger in countries with more legal entitlements to part-time work compared to countries with less legal entitlements to part-time work.

3. DATA AND METHOD

3.1 Data

To test the different hypotheses, for this research data from Round 2 (2004) and Round 5 (2010) of the European Social Survey have been used. The ESS is a biannual cross-sectional survey measuring attitudes, beliefs and behaviour patterns across European countries. The ESS aims to provide data representative of all persons aged 15 and over living in private households in each participating country. Data are collected in a comparable way across countries, allowing for cross-national research (ESS, 2017). Round 2 and Round 5 of the ESS have been selected for this research as they contain a rotating thematic module focused on the interrelations between work, family and well-being. ESS data has been supplemented by country-level measures obtained from the fourth (2008) wave of the European Values Study, the EU expert group report on flexible working time arrangements written by Plantenga and Remery (2010), and the World Bank's (2006) World Development Indicators database.

3.2 Sample

The study's research sample includes all male respondents between the ages of 25 and 55 whose main activity is paid work (working at least 12 hours per week): Unemployed, full-time students, homemakers and retirees are excluded from analyses. Due to lack of internationally comparable country-level data on non-EU countries, analyses have been restricted to EU countries. The final research sample consists of 13,815 respondents in 24 countries.

3.3 Measures

Dependent variable

The dependent variable in this research is men's employment decision to work part-time. The ESS assesses respondents' total contracted hours per week in their main job excluding overtime. Information on respondents' working hours has been converted into a binary variable where 0 represents full-time employment and 1 represents part-time employment, based on a cut-off of 30 hours. Proportions of male part-time employment by country, separately for both ESS Rounds, are displayed in Table 1. The proportion of part-time working men is lowest in the Czech Republic in Round 5 (0.63%), while it is highest in Ireland in Round 5 (8.24%). Proportions of male part-time employment are lower than for example in OECD (2016) statistics as full-time students, homemakers and retirees are not taken into account. Cross-national differences in proportions of male part-time employment are visually represented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Proportion of men in part-time employment, by country and by ESS Round.

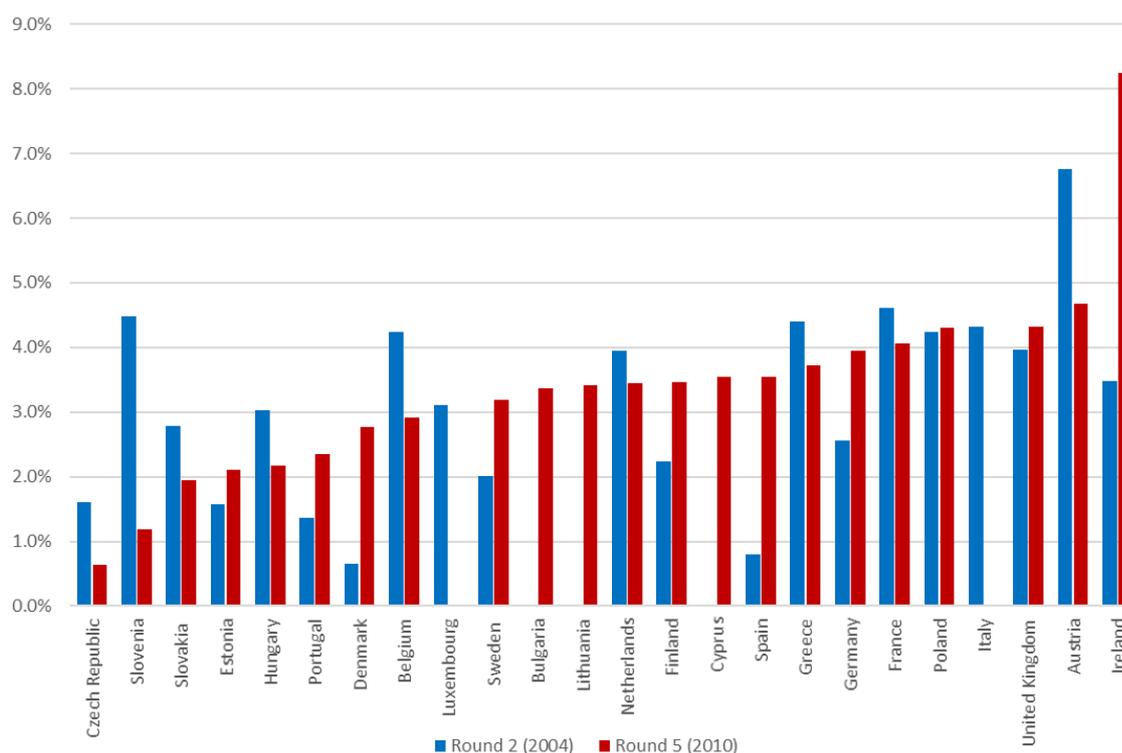


Table 1. Proportion of men in part-time employment, by country and by ESS Round.

	Part-time employment 2002 (%)	Part-time employment 2010 (%)
Austria	6.76	4.67
Belgium	4.24	2.92
Bulgaria	-	3.36
Cyprus	-	3.54
Czech Republic	1.60	0.63
Germany	2.56	3.95
Denmark	0.66	2.77
Estonia	1.57	2.10
Spain	0.80	3.55
Finland	2.23	3.46
France	4.61	4.06
United Kingdom	3.97	4.32
Greece	4.40	3.72
Hungary	3.03	2.17
Ireland	3.48	8.24
Italy	4.32	-
Lithuania	-	3.42
Luxembourg	3.11	-
Netherlands	3.95	3.45
Poland	4.24	4.31
Portugal	1.37	2.35
Sweden	2.01	3.19
Slovenia	4.48	1.18
Slovakia	2.79	1.95

Country-level measures

There are two main independent variables at the country level: gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work. Two variables, obtained from the European Value Study (2008) have been used to construct a measure estimating a country's gender culture. The EVS asks respondents whether they agree or disagree with the statements '*When jobs are scarce, men have more right to a job than women*' and '*A job is alright but what most women really want is a home and children*'. The first statement refers to gender culture regarding the labour market, while the second variable refers to gender culture regarding the family (Arts & Halman, 2013). The two variables were converted into binary variables where 0 represents agreeing with the statement and 1 represents rejection of the statement. Country proportions of rejection of the first and second statement have been calculated. The Spearman-Brown formula predicted a reliability coefficient of 0.78 for combining the two items. A single country-level variable has been constructed by averaging the two items. A higher score represents a more egalitarian gender culture. Descriptive statistics for countries' gender culture are displayed in Table 2. Estimates for gender culture range from 35.23 in Lithuania to 93.33 in Denmark.

Information on a country's legal entitlements to part-time work has been extracted from the "Flexible working time arrangements and gender equality" report, commissioned by the European Commission and written by Plantenga and Remery (2010). For this report, information has been collected by national experts of the EU Expert Group on Gender and Employment. A three-point scale indicates whether a country has no additional legal entitlements to part-time work (0), legal entitlements for employees with caring responsibilities (1) or legal entitlements for all employees (2). Whether countries have legal entitlements to part-time work or not is displayed in Table 2. Countries are rather evenly spread across the three categories.

Gross domestic product per capita at purchasing power parity in international dollar and the annual percentage of GDP per capita growth are included as control variables at the country-level as the matching between supply and demand of part-time labour takes place within a

country's economic context (Hoekstra., 2016; Kjeldstad & Nymoer, 2012). Furthermore, economic development is related to gender equality (Inglehart & Norris, 2003). Data on GDP per capita and GDP per capita growth have been retrieved from the World Development Indicators database (2006). Descriptive statistics for GDP per capita and GDP per capita growth are given in Table 2. GDP per capita ranges from \$11,030 in Bulgaria to \$63,630 in Luxembourg. GDP per capita growth ranges from 1.55% in Portugal to 10.27% in Estonia. Table 3 shows a correlation matrix for the country-level measures used in the analyses.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics country-level variables.

	Gender culture	Legal entitlements to part-time work	GDP per capita, ppp (int. \$)	GDP per capita change (%)
Austria	59.46	1	37,720	3.45
Belgium	62.66	0	35,870	2.51
Bulgaria	43.22	0	11,030	6.87
Cyprus	37.65	2	29,340	4.51
Czech Republic	44.17	0	22,300	6.85
Germany	64.77	2	34,840	3.70
Denmark	92.33	2	37,750	3.91
Estonia	51.69	1	18,260	10.27
Spain	60.92	2	30,280	4.17
Finland	75.78	1	34,690	4.06
France	64.92	2	33,180	2.37
United Kingdom	65.93	1	34,700	2.46
Greece	41.64	0	27,990	5.65
Hungary	59.57	0	17,290	3.85
Ireland	57.95	0	38,790	5.52
Italy	50.75	0	32,460	2.01
Lithuania	35.23	2	16,170	7.41
Luxembourg	65.79	0	63,630	5.18
Netherlands	71.78	2	41,230	3.52
Poland	48.68	2	14,830	6.18
Portugal	54.11	2	23,880	1.55
Sweden	82.95	1	38,460	4.69
Slovenia	58.19	1	25,530	5.66
Slovakia	48.24	0	18,300	8.45

Table 3. Correlations of country-level variables.

	Gender culture	Legal entitlements	GDP	GDP growth
Gender culture	1			
Legal entitlements	0.372	1		
GDP	0.610	0.061	1	
GDP growth	-0.457	-0.334	-0.481	1

Individual-level measures

The main independent variable at the individual level is gender role attitudes. The ESS measures individual's gender role attitudes by two Likert-type items containing five-point scales ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Respondents were asked how much they agree or disagree with the statements '*Women should be prepared to cut down on paid work for sake of family*' and '*Men should have more right to job than women when jobs are scarce*'. The Spearman-Brown formula predicted a reliability coefficient of 0.65 for combining the two items. The mean score of the two items has been used to estimate respondents' gender role attitudes. A higher score represents higher degree of egalitarian gender role attitudes. Country-specific means and standard errors for gender role attitudes by ESS Round are shown in Table 4. Mean scores of gender role attitudes range between 2.47 in Hungary in Round 5 and 4.09 in Denmark in Round 5.

Age, education, living with a partner and living with children in the home are often found to be associated with women's employment decision to work part-time (Andringa, Nieuwenhuis & Van Gerven, 2015; Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002) and included as individual-level control variables. Age is a continuous variable and has been centred around its mean [40.37] in order to estimate effects at the average age. Education has been measured based on the International Standard Classification of Education 1997. This variable has been recoded into a variable where 0 represents primary education, 1 represents secondary education and 2 represents tertiary education. Whether a respondent lives with a partner or not is indicated by a binary variable where 0 represents not living with a partner and 1 represents living with a partner. Similar, a binary variable indicates whether a respondent has a child living in the home or not: 0 represents not living with a child and 1 represents living with a child.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics individual-level variables.

	Age (centred)	Education		Partner	Children	Gender role attitudes	N
	M (SD)	Sec.(%)	Ter.(%)	(%)	(%)	M (SD)	
Austria (2004)	1.18 (8.03)	77.75	21.56	66.51	50.00	3.04 (0.91)	359
Austria (2010)	0.70 (8.42)	63.85	35.94	59.41	41.44	3.27 (1.04)	400
Belgium (2004)	-0.73 (8.24)	58.06	36.48	77.42	60.30	3.42 (1.00)	351
Belgium (2010)	0.47 (8.60)	40.23	54.81	72.09	60.17	3.69 (1.00)	307
Bulgaria (2010)	0.85 (8.76)	71.80	27.54	67.54	53.44	3.04 (1.10)	259
Cyprus (2010)	-1.16 (9.17)	51.36	41.82	74.89	57.47	2.51 (1.01)	192
Czech Republic (2004)	0.16 (8.87)	85.24	14.10	69.15	52.90	2.75 (0.94)	529
Czech Republic (2010)	-0.98 (8.55)	73.06	26.94	64.71	49.72	2.81 (1.00)	469
Germany (2004)	1.73 (8.22)	50.83	48.43	72.01	53.54	3.14 (0.86)	167
Germany (2010)	2.17 (8.32)	53.68	45.70	71.83	48.83	3.39 (0.83)	596
Denmark (2004)	0.57 (8.30)	54.31	45.37	80.19	60.38	3.99 (0.79)	303
Denmark (2010)	2.55 (7.77)	48.57	50.79	80.38	65.19	4.09 (0.71)	286
Estonia (2004)	-0.47 (9.14)	63.00	37.00	75.77	65.34	2.78 (0.80)	298
Estonia (2010)	-0.27 (8.78)	55.03	44.97	72.15	61.07	3.15 (0.79)	279
Spain (2004)	-1.49 (8.41)	33.91	40.79	71.67	55.42	3.25 (1.00)	369
Spain (2010)	0.09 (8.03)	40.98	44.73	71.66	58.08	3.53 (0.85)	393
Finland (2004)	0.03 (8.62)	58.11	38.01	79.42	63.68	3.68 (0.81)	403
Finland (2010)	0.76 (8.75)	40.06	56.53	75.85	56.25	3.87 (0.70)	347
France (2004)	0.11 (8.26)	61.10	32.05	71.51	55.34	3.38 (1.11)	346
France (2010)	1.39 (8.31)	61.61	30.95	63.80	50.74	3.59 (1.00)	317
United Kingdom (2004)	-0.97 (7.85)	42.70	30.00	68.65	50.54	3.29 (0.77)	326
United Kingdom (2010)	0.38 (8.41)	40.62	47.81	71.72	50.00	3.59 (0.82)	361
Greece (2004)	-0.49 (8.22)	54.34	29.22	65.30	54.34	2.75 (1.00)	361
Greece (2010)	-0.87 (8.16)	54.39	35.33	57.82	42.18	2.60 (1.03)	399
Hungary (2004)	-0.74 (8.91)	73.40	26.60	78.06	65.00	2.49 (0.98)	225
Hungary (2010)	-0.42 (8.59)	71.57	28.09	68.23	59.53	2.47 (0.96)	271
Ireland (2004)	-0.51 (8.80)	54.24	36.32	64.16	55.21	3.21 (0.86)	363
Ireland (2010)	-1.67 (8.61)	40.68	55.08	60.39	42.42	3.69 (0.85)	342
Italy (2004)	0.08 (8.26)	80.31	16.25	64.38	51.88	2.64 (0.81)	156
Lithuania (2010)	0.73 (8.56)	54.22	45.78	74.55	59.28	2.60 (0.76)	139
Luxembourg (2004)	-0.44 (8.49)	49.64	31.83	73.40	56.77	3.04 (0.90)	376
Netherlands (2004)	-0.09 (8.22)	52.52	44.03	69.76	46.68	3.55 (0.85)	350
Netherlands (2010)	0.90 (7.97)	54.20	43.48	73.12	54.05	3.89 (0.83)	312
Poland (2004)	-1.88 (8.66)	80.40	19.03	79.83	69.03	2.71 (0.84)	317
Poland (2010)	-1.34 (9.28)	67.65	32.35	80.05	64.96	2.99 (0.84)	341
Portugal (2004)	-1.39 (8.68)	41.42	13.61	76.63	55.03	2.76 (0.86)	289
Portugal (2010)	-0.53 (8.31)	48.28	18.28	70.00	52.41	3.14 (0.84)	253
Sweden (2004)	-0.04 (8.69)	70.82	26.18	76.82	59.23	3.87 (0.68)	446
Sweden (2010)	-0.08 (8.31)	49.31	49.66	76.55	60.00	4.05 (0.77)	282
Slovenia (2004)	-0.32 (8.84)	82.66	15.87	77.99	69.32	3.24 (0.80)	190
Slovenia (2010)	-0.37 (8.87)	75.47	24.53	67.04	58.11	3.46 (0.78)	248
Slovakia (2004)	-0.91 (9.08)	79.06	16.25	79.53	74.43	2.98 (0.79)	251
Slovakia (2010)	1.54 (8.58)	73.84	26.16	68.95	63.21	2.86 (0.96)	247
Pooled	0.00 (8.55)	74.50	19.32	71.21	55.75	3.23 (0.99)	13,815

3.4 Analytical approach

The four different hypotheses are tested using two-level logistic models, taking into account that respondents are nested in countries. The country-year level is not included as separate level, instead, models include a dummy variable controlling for ESS round. All models include a random intercept. First, an empty model, only including the dependent variable of part-time employment is performed. Second, two-level logistic models only including country-level variables are estimated. Third, two-level logistic models only including individual-level variables are estimated. After running two-level logistic models for country-level variables and individual-level variables separately, fourth, two-level logistic models including both country-level and individual-level variables are executed. Finally, models with a cross-level interaction and models introducing a random slope are performed.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Analyses with men's employment decision to work part-time and country-level variables

The results of the empty model and the two-level logistic models including only country-level variables are shown in Table 5. Model 0 is an empty two-level logistic model, which describes that the between-country variance of men working part-time is 0.101. The obtained intraclass correlation coefficient is 0.032, meaning 3.2% of the variance in men's employment decision to work part-time can be attributed to differences between countries.

Model 1 adds gender culture to the empty model and shows a negative but insignificant effect of gender culture on men's employment decision to work part-time. Model 2 adds legal entitlements to part-time work to the empty model and also shows negative but insignificant effects of additional legal entitlements to part-time work compared to no additional legal entitlements to part-time work.

In Model 3, GDP per capita and GDP growth are added to gender culture in Model 1. Model 3 shows a negative effect of country's gender culture on men's employment decision to

work part-time, significant at the 0.05 level. This implies that men in countries with more gender egalitarian culture are less likely to work part-time. In Model 4, GDP per capita and GDP growth are added to legal entitlements to part-time work in Model 2. Model 4, again, shows negative but insignificant effects of additional legal entitlements to part-time work compared to no additional legal entitlements to part-time work. In both Model 3 and Model 4, no significant effects for GDP per capita and GDP growth are found. The direction of the findings for gender culture in Table 5 is opposite to Hypothesis 1 that men in countries with more egalitarian gender culture are more likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with more traditional . Furthermore, the findings do not support Hypothesis 2 that men in countries with more legal entitlements to part-time work are more likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with less legal entitlements to part-time work. However, the models in Table 5 do not yet control for composition effects.

4.2 Analyses with individual-level variables

The results of the two-level logistic models including only individual-level variables are shown in Table 6. Model 1 contains gender role attitudes and shows a positive effect of gender role attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time, significant at the 0.05 level. This implies that men with more egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to work part-time.

Model 2 adds the individual-level control variables of age, living with a partner and living with children in the home to the analysis. The positive effect of gender roles attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time remains significant at the 0.05 level. In addition, a negative effect of living with a partner compared to not living with a partner on men's employment decision to work part-time is found, significant at the 0.01 level. No significant effects for age and living with a child in the home are found.

Model 3 adds education to the analysis. Again, the positive effect of gender roles attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time remains significant at the 0.05 level. The

significance level of the negative effect of living with a partner compared to not living with a partner increases to 0.001. The findings in Table 6 support Hypothesis 3 that men with more egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to work part-time compared to men with more traditional gender role attitudes.

4.3 Analyses with both individual-level and country-level variables

The results of the two-level logistic models including both country-level and individual-level variables are shown in Table 7. Model 1 includes the country-level variable of gender culture and the individual-level variable of gender role attitudes. Conforming country-level results in Table 5 and individual-level results in Table 6, Model 1 shows a negative and insignificant effect of gender culture on men's employment decision to work part-time and a positive effect of gender roles attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time, significant at the 0.05 level.

Model 2 includes the country-level variable of legal entitlements to part-time work and the individual-level variable of gender role attitudes and, again, shows negative and insignificant effects of additional legal entitlements to part-time work compared to no additional legal entitlements to part-time work and also a positive effect of gender roles attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time, significant at the 0.05 level.

Model 3 and Model 4 add the individual-level control variables of age, education, living with a partner and living with a child in the home to, respectively, Model 1 and Model 2. In both Model 3 and Model 4, the positive effect of gender roles attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time remains significant at the 0.05 level.

Model 5 and Model 6 add the country-level control variables of GDP per capita and GDP per capita growth to, respectively, Model 3 and Model 4. As country-level results in Table 5, adding GDP per capita and GDP per capita growth in Model 5, leads to the negative effect of country's gender culture on men's employment decision to work part-time becoming significant at the 0.05 level. In Model 5, again the positive effect of gender roles attitudes on men's

employment decision to work part-time remains significant at the 0.05 level. As country-level results in Table 5, adding GDP per capita and GDP per capita growth in Model 6, does not change the negative and insignificant effects of additional legal entitlements to part-time work compared to no additional legal entitlements to part-time work. However, the positive effect of gender role attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time, also becomes insignificant in Model 6.

Corresponding to results in Table 5 and Table 6, the direction of the findings for gender culture in Table 7 is opposite to Hypothesis 1, rejecting Hypothesis 1 that men in countries with more egalitarian gender culture are more likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with more traditional gender culture. The findings also reject Hypothesis 2 that that men in countries with more legal entitlements to part-time work are more likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with less legal entitlements to part-time work. The findings do support Hypothesis 3 that men with more egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to work part-time compared to men with more traditional gender role attitudes.

4.4 Analyses including cross-level interaction and random slope

The results of the two-level logistic models including both country-level and individual-level variables with a cross-level interaction and models introducing a random slope are shown in Table 8.

Model 1 estimates a cross-level interaction between the country-level variable of gender culture and the individual-level variable of gender role attitudes. Model 1 includes the country-level control variables of GDP per capita and GDP per capita growth, and the individual-level control variables of age, education, living with a partner and living with a child in the home. The cross-level interaction is insignificant and adding the cross-level interaction also leaves country-level gender culture and individual-level gender role attitudes insignificant.

Model 2 estimates a cross-level interaction between the country-level variable of gender legal entitlements to part-time work and the individual-level variable of gender role attitudes. Model 2 includes the country-level control variables of GDP per capita and GDP per capita

growth, and the individual-level control variables of age, education, living with a partner and living with a child in the home. The cross-level interaction is insignificant for the interaction with legal entitlements for employees compared to no additional legal entitlements, however, the cross-level interaction is significant for the interaction with legal entitlements for all employees compared to no additional legal entitlements, indicating that the effect of gender role attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time is weaker in countries with legal entitlements to part-time work for all employees compared to no additional legal entitlements. The positive effect of gender role attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time, which was found insignificant in Model 6 in Table 7, is found to be significant at the 0.01 level.

Model 3 and Model 4 introduce a random slope for gender role attitudes to, respectively Model 1 and Model 2. The effect of gender role attitudes is allowed to vary across countries. The statistically significant estimate for the slopes imply that the effect of gender role attitudes differs between countries. Introducing the random slope in Model 3 does not change much to the other results in Model 1, while introducing the random slope in Model 4 leaves the cross-level interaction between individual-level gender role attitudes and country-level legal entitlements to part-time work insignificant.

The findings for the cross-level interaction between individual-level gender role attitudes and country-level gender culture in Table 8 are not in line with Hypothesis 4 that the association between men's gender role attitudes and working part-time is stronger in countries with more traditional gender culture compared to countries with more egalitarian gender culture and Hypothesis 4 is rejected. The findings for the cross-level interaction between individual-level gender role attitudes and legal entitlements to part-time work in Model 2 in Table 8 seem to partly support Hypothesis 5 that the association between men's gender role attitudes and working part-time is stronger in countries with more legal entitlements to part-time work compared to countries with less legal entitlements to part-time work, however, adding a random slope in Model 4 in Table 8 leads to rejection of Hypothesis 5.

Table 5. Two-level logistic regression models: Analyses with men's employment decision to work part-time and country-level variables

	Model 0		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)								
<i>Fixed part</i>										
Constant	-3.445***	(0.085)	-3.359***	(0.136)	-3.472***	(0.145)	-2.814***	(0.508)	-3.379***	(0.444)
ESS Round (<i>ref. Round 2</i>)			0.096	(0.096)	0.100	(0.096)	0.120	(0.097)	0.122	(0.097)
Country: Gender			-0.002	(0.007)			-0.015*	(0.007)		
Country: Legal entitlements (<i>ref. no leg. ent.</i>)										
- <i>Legal entitlements caring responsibility</i>					-0.011	(0.214)			-0.044	(0.198)
- <i>Legal entitlements all</i>					-0.060	(0.197)			-0.132	(0.192)
Country: GDP x1000							0.017	(0.009)	0.007	(0.008)
Country: GDP growth							-0.068	(0.042)	-0.058	(0.046)
<i>Random part</i>										
Country: Var. constant	0.101***	(0.047)	0.108***	(0.047)	0.087***	(0.039)	0.087***	(0.039)	0.084***	(0.040)

Table 6. Two-level logistic regression models: Analyses with men's employment decision to work part-time and individual-level variables

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)
<i>Fixed part</i>						
Constant	-3.876***	(0.194)	-3.592***	(0.205)	-3.514***	(0.206)
ESS Round (<i>ref. Round 2</i>)	0.080	(0.098)	0.062	(0.098)	0.342	(0.299)
Individual: Gender role attitudes	0.117*	(0.052)	0.124*	(0.052)	0.105*	(0.052)
Individual: Age			0.010	(0.006)	0.010	(0.006)
Individual: Partner			-0.448**	(0.130)	-0.463***	(0.130)
Individual: Child			0.010	(0.125)	0.007	(0.125)
Individual: Education (<i>ref. primary education</i>)						
-Secondary education					-0.569	(0.309)
-Tertiary education					-0.013	(0.306)
<i>Random part</i>						
Country: Var. constant	0.110***	(0.048)	0.108***	(0.047)	0.101***	(0.046)

Table 7. Two-level logistic regression models: Analyses with both country-level and individual-level variables.

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5		Model 6	
	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)										
<i>Fixed part</i>												
Constant	-3.496***	(0.409)	-3.828***	(0.216)	-3.119***	(0.406)	-3.473***	(0.225)	-2.552***	(0.526)	-3.227***	(0.487)
ESS Round (<i>ref. Round 2</i>)	0.069	(0.098)	0.082	(0.098)	0.332	(0.299)	0.346	(0.300)	0.283	(0.300)	0.328	(0.300)
Country: Gender	-0.007	(0.007)			-0.007	(0.007)			-0.018*	(0.007)		
Country: Legal entitlements (<i>ref. no leg. ent.</i>)												
- <i>Legal entitlements caring responsibility</i>			-0.089	(0.217)			-0.086	(0.213)			-0.109	(0.205)
- <i>Legal entitlements all</i>			-0.090	(0.200)			-0.073	(0.195)			-0.142	(0.199)
Country: GDP x1000									0.013	(0.009)	0.002	(0.009)
Country: GDP growth									-0.070	(0.042)	-0.053	(0.048)
Individual: Gender role attitudes	0.130*	(0.053)	0.120*	(0.052)	0.119*	(0.054)	0.108*	(0.053)	0.120*	(0.054)	0.100	(0.053)
Individual: Age					0.010	(0.006)	0.010	(0.006)	0.010	(0.006)	0.010	(0.006)
Individual: Partner (<i>ref. no partner</i>)					-0.462***	(0.130)	-0.461***	(0.130)	-0.462***	(0.130)	-0.462***	(0.130)
Individual: Children (<i>ref. no children</i>)					0.006	(0.125)	0.007	(0.125)	0.018	(0.125)	0.011	(0.125)
Individual: Education (<i>ref. primary education</i>)												
- <i>Tertiary education</i>					-0.014	(0.306)	-0.016	(0.307)	0.053	(0.308)	0.016	(0.308)
- <i>Secondary education</i>					-0.573	(0.309)	-0.573	(0.309)	-0.498	(0.310)	-0.538	(0.310)
<i>Random part</i>												
Country: Var. gender role attitudes												
Country: Var. constant	0.103***	(0.046)	0.108***	(0.048)	0.094***	(0.044)	0.100***	(0.046)	0.062***	(0.034)	0.088***	(0.042)

Table 8. Two-level logistic regression models: Analyses including cross-level interaction and random slope

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3 rand. slope		Model 4 rand. slope	
	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)	<i>b</i>	(<i>SD</i>)
<i>Fixed part</i>								
Constant	-3.911***	(1.060)	-3.648***	(0.519)	-3.863***	(1.028)	-3.540***	(0.505)
ESS Round (<i>ref. Round 2</i>)	0.293	(0.300)	0.323	(0.301)	0.280	(0.300)	0.304	(0.300)
Country: Gender	0.005	(0.018)			0.008	(0.017)		
Country: Legal entitlements (<i>ref. no leg. ent.</i>)								
- <i>Legal entitlements caring responsibility</i>			0.432	(0.496)			0.517	(0.467)
- <i>Legal entitlements all</i>			0.670	(0.431)			0.666	(0.408)
Country: GDP x1000	0.013	(0.009)	0.002	(0.008)	0.009	(0.009)	0.001	(0.008)
Country: GDP growth	-0.065	(0.042)	-0.055	(0.046)	-0.072	(0.042)	-0.061	(0.045)
Individual: Gender role attitudes	0.506	(0.269)	0.144**	(0.085)	0.489	(0.279)	0.208*	(0.091)
Individual: Age	0.010	(0.006)	0.010	(0.006)	0.011	(0.006)	0.014*	(0.006)
Individual: Education (<i>ref. primary education</i>)								
- <i>Secondary education</i>	-0.497	(0.310)	-0.525	(0.310)	-0.482	(0.309)	-0.504	(0.309)
- <i>Tertiary education</i>	0.051	(0.308)	0.025	(0.308)	0.064	(0.307)	0.044	(0.307)
Individual: Partner (<i>ref. no partner</i>)	-0.459***	(0.130)	-0.461***	(0.130)	-0.457***	(0.130)	-0.458***	(0.130)
Individual: Children (<i>ref. no children</i>)	0.016	(0.125)	0.008	(0.125)	0.015	(0.126)	0.009	(0.125)
<i>Individual: Gender role attitudes x</i>								
Country: Gender	-0.007	(0.004)			-0.007	(0.005)		
Country: Legal entitlements (<i>ref. no leg. ent.</i>)								
- <i>Legal entitlements caring responsibility</i>			-0.168	(0.134)			-0.184	(0.143)
- <i>Legal entitlements all</i>			-0.252*	(0.119)			-0.246	(0.128)
<i>Random part</i>								
Country: Var. gender role attitudes					0.006***	(0.003)	0.008***	(0.004)
Country: Var. constant	0.058***	(0.033)	0.078***	(0.039)	0.000	(0.000)	0.000	(0.000)

4.5 Robustness checks

Several robustness checks have been conducted to estimate sensitivity of the models. First, the two-level logistic regression models have been rerun using cut-offs of 28 hours and 35 hours for part-time employment. Changing the cut-off point for part-time employment does not alter the results found using a cut-off of 30 hours. Second, the age range of the sample has been extended to respondents between the ages of 18 and 65. When extending the age range, the effects found earlier are altered and the significance of the effects becomes insignificant. An explanation for the non-robustness is that part-time employment may function as a transition from education to employment for younger people or as a preparation for retirement for older people. Third, at the country level, a country's taxation system and the Gini-coefficient were taken into account as control variables. The tax system is a powerful policy instrument which can be used to shape incentives regarding working hours (Bettio & Verashchagina, 2009), while the Gini-index portrays distribution of economic development within a country. After analyses turned out that both variables are insignificant throughout the analyses and including the two control variables does not alter the relation of the other variables, taxation system and Gini-coefficient are not included into the model presented in this paper, also because the two-level logistic models are easily over-specified. Fourth, at the individual level, data on respondent's highest achieved level of education has also been converted into the International Standard Level of Education [ISLED]. The advantage of using ISLED-scores is that it allows for continuous scaling (Schröder & Ganzeboom, 2014). Because of the non-linear effect of education, using the three-point scale of primary, secondary and tertiary education has been preferred in the models shown in the paper.

5. DISCUSSION

Previous research on part-time employment mainly focuses on female part-time employment and found that women's employment decision to work part-time is influenced by both country-level context and individual-level gender role attitudes (Andringa, Nieuwenhuis & Van Gerven, 2015; Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; Fortin, 2005; Pfau-Effinger, 1998; 2017; Rosenfeld & Birkelund, 1997;

Uunk et al., 2005; Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002), This paper concentrated on men's employment decision to work part-time and aimed to explore cross-national variation in patterns of male part-time employment, examining men's employment decision to work part-time in relation to a country's gender culture, a country's legal entitlements to part-time work, individual-level gender role attitudes, and the interplay between country-level context and gender role attitudes. Data on 24 European countries from Round 2 and Round 5 of the European Social Survey has been used for this research.

The first research question of this paper was to what extent do a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work affect men's employment decision to work part-time. Against expectations, the results show that men in countries with more egalitarian gender culture are less likely to work part-time compared to men in countries with more traditional gender culture. While it was expected that men's employment decision to work part-time reflects societal assumptions about the desirable 'correct' form of gender relations and the division of labour between men and women, a possible explanation for this finding is that men's employment decision to work part-time reflects a more general trend in part-time employment in a country. In countries with a more traditional gender culture, more women work part-time (Andringa, Nieuwenhuis & Van Gerven, 2015; Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; Fortin, 2005; Pfau-Effinger, 1998; 2017; Rosenfeld & Birkelund, 1997; Uunk et al., 2005; Van der Lippe & Van Dijk, 2002) and as a result, part-time jobs are more widely spread in those countries. Higher availability of part-time jobs may lead to more men working part-time. Further research comparing the effects of a country's gender culture on both men's and women's employment decision to work part-time is needed to test whether men's employment decision to work part-time indeed can be related to a more general trend in part-time employment, however, this is beyond the scope of this paper. An alternative explanation for the findings would be that male part-time employment is of a different nature than female part-time employment as female part-time employment mainly involves voluntarily part-time work, while involuntary part-time work

could be of higher importance for male part-time employment. Countries with more traditional gender culture could be countries with more traditional employment opportunities with higher levels of involuntarily part-time work. Again, further research comparing the effects of a country's gender culture on both men's and women's employment decision to work part-time is needed to test whether men's employment decision to work part-time indeed can be related to involuntarily part-time employment. Regarding a country's legal entitlements to part-time work on men's employment decision to work part time, no significant effects were found.

The second research question was to what extent do men's gender role attitudes affect their employment decision to work part-time. In general, results confirmed that men with more egalitarian gender role attitudes are more likely to work part-time compared to men with more traditional gender role attitudes. This is in line with the idea that more egalitarian gender role attitudes may encourage men to work part-time in order to accommodate child care and household work, while men with more traditional gender role attitudes may be less inclined to reduce working hours in order to balance work and family responsibilities as they pursue a more traditional male breadwinner / female caregiver model. Contrary to country-context, at the individual level, men's employment decision to work part-time does reflect perception of the desirable 'correct' form of gender relations and the division of labour between men and women.

The third research question was to what extent is the relationship between men's gender role attitudes and part-time employment conditioned by gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work. By analysing how the relationship between gender role attitudes and part-time employment among men is conditioned by a country's gender culture and a country's legal entitlements to part-time work, this paper aimed to provide insight into the relative importance of country's gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work and individual's gender role attitudes regarding men's employment decision to work part-time. Associations between men's gender role attitudes and working part-time have been found to vary across countries, however variation is not explained by a country's gender culture and legal entitlements to part-time work.

Regarding a country's legal entitlements to part-time work, before introducing a random slope for gender role attitudes, the effect of gender role attitudes on men's employment decision to work part-time has been found to be weaker in countries with legal entitlements to part-time work for all employees compared to no additional legal entitlements. However, as there is no significant effect of legal entitlements on men's employment decision to work part-time in any of the analyses and as the effect becomes insignificant when allowing the effect of gender role attitudes to vary across countries, this result might be found because of overestimation in the model. There has been growing scepticism about using multi-level modelling with a relatively low number of higher-level units (Bryan & Jenkins, 2016). Robustness checks have been conducted, but a relatively small number of 24 countries in the two-level logistic models can lead to overestimation of the estimates.

A number of interesting avenues for future research could be mentioned. Probably the most promising way to a comprehensive understanding of part-time employment is to compare cross-national variation in male and female part-time employment within one study. Another idea could be to focus on cross-national differences in voluntarily and involuntarily part-time work. A main challenge for such an approach is to deal with how to define when part-time employment is involuntarily or not. Finally, as the robustness checks in this study point out the relevance of the age range for part-time employment. Studying part-time employment regarding more specific age groups can be of interest.

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