

University of Groningen

Regional labour market dynamics and the gender employment gap

Noback-Hesseling, Inge

IMPORTANT NOTE: You are advised to consult the publisher's version (publisher's PDF) if you wish to cite from it. Please check the document version below.

Document Version

Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Publication date:

2011

[Link to publication in University of Groningen/UMCG research database](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Noback-Hesseling, I. (2011). *Regional labour market dynamics and the gender employment gap*. [Thesis fully internal (DIV), University of Groningen]. s.n.

Copyright

Other than for strictly personal use, it is not permitted to download or to forward/distribute the text or part of it without the consent of the author(s) and/or copyright holder(s), unless the work is under an open content license (like Creative Commons).

The publication may also be distributed here under the terms of Article 25fa of the Dutch Copyright Act, indicated by the "Taverne" license. More information can be found on the University of Groningen website: <https://www.rug.nl/library/open-access/self-archiving-pure/taverne-amendment>.

Take-down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Downloaded from the University of Groningen/UMCG research database (Pure): <http://www.rug.nl/research/portal>. For technical reasons the number of authors shown on this cover page is limited to 10 maximum.

1

Introduction

1.1 Motivation for this study

'The bloody arrogance of male executives' and 'The myth of the Dutch princess'¹ are just two examples of recent headlines in Dutch newspapers indicating a lively debate on the position of women in the labour market. To attain equality and to solve the problems resulting from aging, the author of the first article argues that men and women should spend equal amounts of time doing paid and unpaid work. In the second article the author claims women should be considered serious participants in the labour market and should not be depicted as dependent, ignorant and workshy creatures. In general, the public debate largely focuses on the need for and desirability of policy measures to increase female labour participation.

Female labour market participation has changed substantially over the last few decades in the Netherlands. There has been a sharp increase in participation and women also remain in the labour market after having children. Mothers, who traditionally formed a group with low labour force participation, have taken up work in large numbers since part-time jobs have become much more widely available. This tremendous increase in part-time jobs has resulted in a combination of high levels of employment with low average work hours. Working part-time is not without disadvantages however: these jobs generally offer lower wages, less training and fewer opportunities for career advancement (Van den Brakel et al., 2010; Saint-Martin and Venn, 2010).

Despite the increase in female participation, important differences between the position of men and women on the labour market remain. Women work fewer hours, earn less, are more frequently unemployed and their share in jobs at a supervisory level is lower (Merens et al., 2011). This unfavourable position of women in the labour market is referred to in the literature as *the gender employment gap*. While most studies on gender differences in the labour market do not consider that the labour market functions on a regional scale, most regional labour market studies in turn do not pay much attention to gender differences. According to Elhorst (1996), the national labour market does not exist. Psychological and geographical frictions limit daily commuting time, resulting in employees and employers being confronted with a

¹ 'The bloody arrogance of male executives' appeared in NRC Handelsblad 6-10-2009 as '*De godvergeten arrogantie van mannen aan de top*' by Elsbeth Etty. 'The myth of the Dutch princess' appeared in de Volkskrant 6-11-2010 as '*De mythe van de Nederlandse prinses*' by Marjon Bolwijn.

small set of overlapping regional labour markets. The limited spatial range of labour market behaviour is clearly illustrated by the fact that people are only willing to accept a limited daily commute (Van Ham, 2002; Turner and Niemeier, 1997). The main aim of this thesis is therefore *to gain insight into the gender-specific regional differences in labour market participation*.

There are several arguments to increase female labour participation or close the gender employment gap. An often cited argument is that having a paid job with sufficient wage is considered a prerequisite for an independent existence (Merens et al., 2011). In addition, the equality argument is often referred to. For example, the European Commission has developed a new strategy for gender equality where the main purpose is to improve the utilization of female capacities (EU, 2010). However, in the context of aging, the economic argument to increase female participation is becoming equally relevant. The Netherlands, like many European countries, faces a decline in the working-age population as a result of aging, which poses a serious threat to current welfare levels. Given the high prevalence of part-time work among women, increasing female participation –especially in terms of working hours– could make a significant contribution to mitigate the adverse effects of aging.

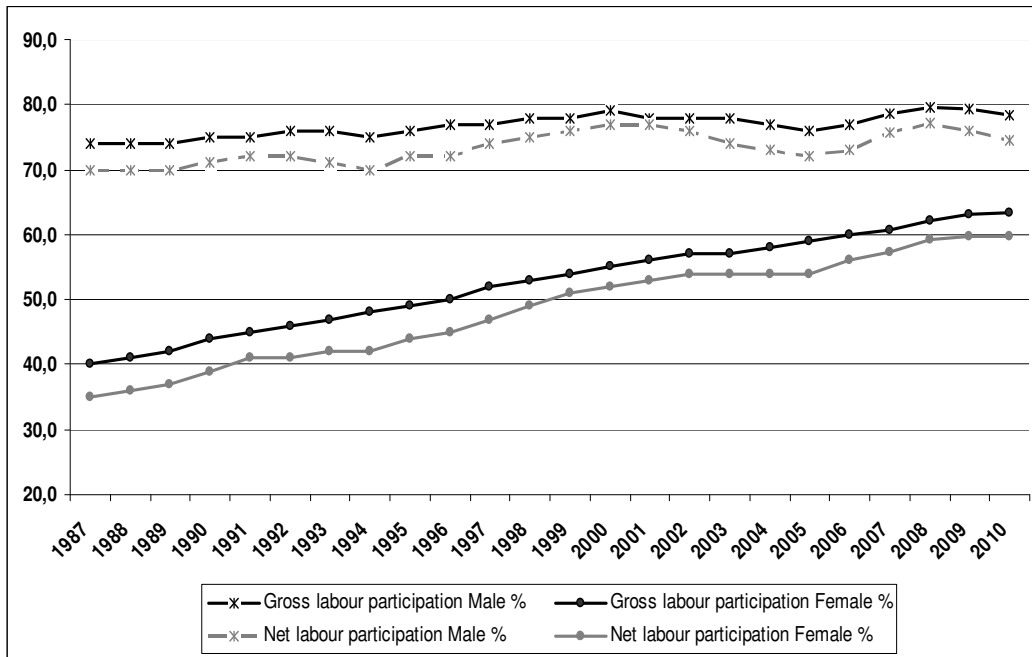
This thesis contributes to existing literature by exploring several aspects of the gender employment gap. At the heart of each chapter are differences between men and women in a labour market context. Specific attention is paid to differences in employment rates, working hours and career advancement. The remainder of this chapter comprises both a description of the research framework, including a brief overview of the recent developments in the Dutch labour market, and the research aims and outline of this thesis.

1.2 Research framework

The Dutch labour market differs from other countries due to a unique combination of high levels of labour market participation combined with low average working hours. Since the mid-1980s female employment rates, or net participation, increased from 30 percent in 1985 to almost 60 percent in 2009. As shown in Figure 1, during the same period male employment rates only increased gradually and appear more cyclical in nature. As a result of the increase in female employment, *the gender employment gap*,

i.e. the difference between male and female employment, decreased drastically from 35 percentage points to about 15 percentage points in 2009.

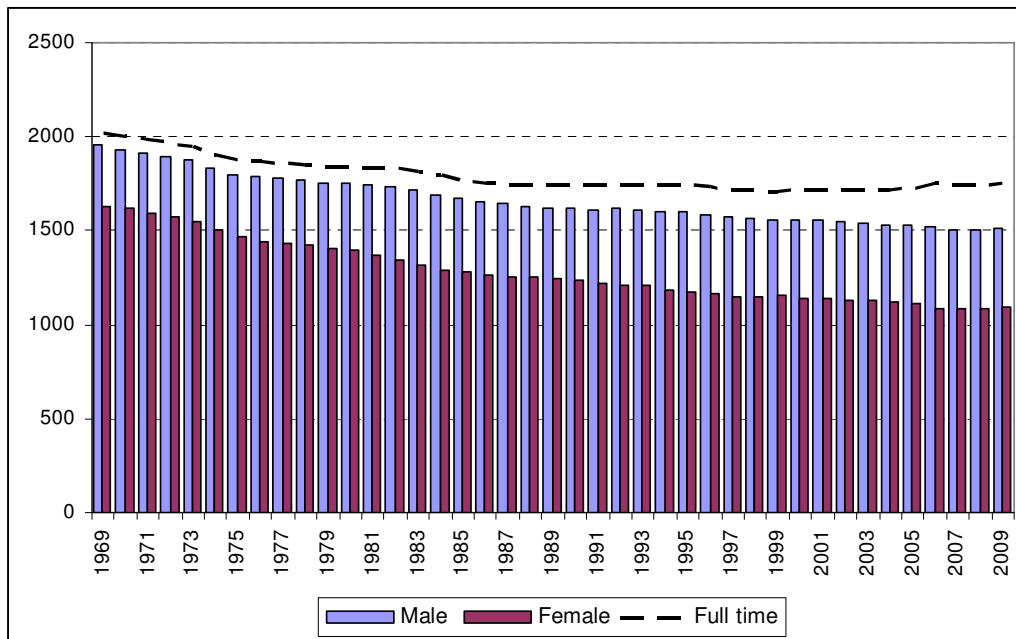
Figure 1 Male and female labour market participation for the Netherlands



Source: Statistics Netherlands 2011

Figure 2 depicts the development of the gender-specific average annual working hours per job compared to full-time hours. During the same period that the gender employment gap has been closing, *the gender hours gap* has increased. Although both male and female working hours per job have dropped, the drop is larger for females than for males. The developments depicted in Figures 1 and 2 have resulted in the unique combination of high employment rates and low average working hours compared to other countries.

Figure 2 Male and female average annual working hours for the Netherlands



Source: Statistics Netherlands 2010

The increase in female participation in the labour market can be attributed to a combination of factors. Women have become better educated, there has been a drop in fertility and it is more accepted that women combine work with raising children (e.g. De Graaf and Vermeulen, 1997; OECD, 2002). On the demand-side, there has been a shift from agriculture and manufacturing towards a service economy, in which women are overrepresented. Moreover, in addition to these factors, a broader variety of employment and working-time arrangements has become available through a bi-directional process: female participation is encouraged by greater flexibility, while more women in the labour market create a greater demand for these types of arrangements.

This thesis considers the differences between men and women in the Dutch labour market. The three main topics are gender-specific differences in employment rates, working hours and career advancement. The theoretical framework adopted in this study is constructed using concepts from labour supply studies, time-space geography and the managerial literature.

Determinants of employment and hours worked

The next section presents a brief overview of the main determinants of labour market participation. Regional labour market participation can be interpreted as the proportion of people willing to work at the current wage, after correcting for a broad range of micro-oriented variables such as education and household situation (Elhorst, 1996). The individual decision to participate in the labour market can be aggregated to obtain an explanatory model of regional participation (Elhorst and Zeilstra, 2007). Pencavel (1986) described this method for homogeneous groups, after which Elhorst and Zeilstra (2007) further developed the methodology to correct for the occurrence of heterogeneity within groups. The advantage of explanatory models of regional participation is that they acknowledge that the regional opportunity structure influences individual labour decisions. The micro-oriented variables or socioeconomic characteristics and the regional opportunity structure are briefly described in the following sections.

Socioeconomic characteristics

Given the wage offered, people decide to work for a certain number of hours by weighing leisure and work against each other (e.g. Groot and Pott-Buter, 1993; Cörvers and Goldsteyn, 2003; Henkens et al., 2002). Individuals are assumed to maximize utility, subject to time and budget constraints (Bosworth et al., 1996). In other words, people try to achieve maximum utility but are limited both by time and money. Other than time spent in paid work and leisure, time also refers to unpaid activities such as domestic work and caretaking. A change in the wage-rate can be broken down into income and substitution effects. When the income effect is greater than the substitution effect the individual can achieve the same level of utility while working fewer hours than before. A larger substitution effect indicates that leisure has become more expensive, which means the individual will choose to work more hours.

Human capital theory suggests that investing in human capital through education, work experience or on-the-job training generates a higher rate of return. This means that those who are better educated or have more professional experience will have higher wages. Better educated workers have better access to high productivity jobs and higher wages, however there are also higher opportunity costs of choosing not to work (OECD, 2002; Callens et al., 2000). Furthermore, the better

educated have an advantage in searching for new jobs, they are more career-oriented and are better able to arrange supporting services such as domestic help and childcare (Elhorst and Zeilstra, 2007; Van der Laan and Van der Bout, 1990; Siegers and Zanedel, 1981). In the local labour market a larger share of better educated people will lead to higher employment rates (Shapiro, 2006). Higher human capital leads to longer working hours for individuals. Only when wages far exceed average wage levels will the labour supply curve bend backwards.

Decisions about labour participation and working hours are made by individuals and at the household level. According to new home economics, partners divide all paid and unpaid tasks to maximize household utility (Becker, 1981). This however does not imply that men and women consequently spend an equal amount of time on paid and unpaid work. In the Netherlands the division in paid and unpaid tasks is not only determined by differences in human capital between the partners in a household. Dutch women have a strong preference for taking care of their children and balance work with caregiving by working fewer hours (Vlasblom and Schipper, 2004; Turner and Niemeier, 1997). Therefore, despite comparable levels of education and work experience, when a couple has children the mother will reduce her working hours or even stop working altogether. Providing care is not necessarily limited to children but can also refer to taking care of other dependent relatives (Moen and Yan, 2000). In a society that faces rapid aging, the increase in, for example, dependent parents can have a negative impact on women's labour participation, as they continue to take on the greatest share of household tasks and caregiving (Turner and Niemeier, 1997).

Labour supply decisions are furthermore affected by age and the individual's stage in the life course. Age-specific employment patterns tend to follow an inverted U-curve: young people participate less because they are still in education, while towards the end of a career people participate less to anticipate retirement. Female labour participation is also influenced by the presence of children. The presence of young children especially affects female employment since Dutch women prefer to take care of their children. If women decide to withdraw from the labour force permanently after the birth of a first or subsequent child, their age-specific employment pattern will follow a uni-modal curve. If the withdrawal is during child rearing years only, the age-specific employment pattern will show a bi-modal or M-shaped curve.

Regional opportunity structure

The rise in dual-income households contributed to a rise in spatial mismatches between place of residence and the place of work (Van Ham et al., 2001). Taking two job locations into consideration makes it more difficult to find the optimal location to live with minimal commuting. A place of residence also reflects lifestyle preferences: some people prefer highly urban areas with easy access to amenities like shops and theatres, whereas others prefer the space and tranquillity that certain rural areas provide (De Meester et al., 2007).

Where people live determines their local opportunity structure: nearby jobs, shops, childcare facilities, schools and other amenities such as theatres and restaurants. Highly urban areas have more jobs available which means that there are more opportunities for finding good job matches (Van der Laan and Van der Bout, 1990). De Meester et al. (2007) found that women work more hours in highly urban areas, either because they pursue a modern lifestyle or because they benefit from the supporting opportunity structure of large cities. Men on the other hand work fewer hours in cities because in highly urban areas there is a higher prevalence of more symmetrical household arrangements (Kasten, 2003). With respect to childcare, access to childcare facilities is important for the employment opportunities of women, since women continue to do most of the housework, including taking care of children (Van Ham and Mulder, 2005).

Daily life occurs at a variety of locations and you have to travel to get from one location to the next. Depending on the mode of transportation and the time available in a day, people can only travel a maximum distance a day. Hägerstrand (1970) calls this a person's 'potential daily prism'. A larger potential daily prism offers better opportunities to get a higher paid job. In general, women have a smaller potential daily prism: they commute shorter distances and for shorter durations than men (Turner and Niemeier, 1997; Camstra, 1996; Hanson and Pratt, 1990). On average, women travel 28.8 km a day and men 41.8, including the commute to work and all other trips (Statistics Netherlands, 2007). Since women continue to do a larger share of the unpaid work, there is less time available to travel (Hanson and Pratt, 1990). Moreover, since most women work part-time and earn less, it is also more expensive to engage in long commutes (Camstra, 1996).

Employment opportunities in the local labour market are furthermore determined by the demand for labour in a region, the sectoral composition of

employment and access to employment opportunities in a region. The vacancy-unemployment ratio gives an indication of the demand for labour in a region, and the likelihood of finding a job is higher when there are more vacancies available per unemployed person. However, the kinds of jobs that are available also influence the chances of finding a positive job match. Due to occupational segregation, job opportunities differ for men and women. Bowen and Finegan (1969) developed the 'industry-mix' to measure structural differences between regions in the relative abundance of jobs commonly held by females. In regions with a larger share of female-dominated sectors such as healthcare and education there are more employment opportunities for women. Finally, poor access to local employment opportunities becomes apparent through high regional unemployment rates (Van Ham and Büchel, 2006). Although the effect of unemployment is a priori unknown, a positive effect on employment is interpreted as an additional worker effect and a negative effect as a discouraged worker effect (e.g. Euwals, 2007; Elhorst, 1996). When long-term unemployment of the main earner (usually male) leads to low household income, the partner (usually female) accepts a job to increase the household income (Lundberg, 1985). On the other hand, high levels of unemployment imply poor opportunities and increased competition for jobs, which could discourage people to look for a job. Women were found to be particularly sensitive to the discouraged worker effect (Van Ham, 2002).

Determinants of career advancement

Household composition and human capital described in the previous sections also affect career advancement. Family responsibilities form a barrier to the advancement of women because of persistent stereotypes such as 'mothers are not career oriented' and because mothers generally work fewer hours, which implies there is less time to invest in training and development opportunities (Metz, 2005; Tharenou et al., 1994). For men, on the other hand, having children positively affects career advancement because they make career choices beneficial to their role as the main breadwinner (Tharenou et al., 1994). For women, being single and childless contributes to achieving occupational success (Dykstra and Fokkema, 2000). Investing in human capital, either sector-specific knowledge or enterprise-specific knowledge through on-the-job training, also positively contributes to career advancement. Men were found to be more likely to participate in training (Dieckhoff and Steiber, 2010).

The remainder of this section provides a description of the relationship between gender stereotypes and corporate culture, spatial flexibility and career advancement based on the managerial literature.

Gender stereotypes and corporate culture

There is ample evidence that women face more obstacles that hinder career advancement than men do (e.g. Eddleston et al., 2004; Tharenou, 2005). These barriers include gender discrimination, a male-dominated organizational structure and a lack of informal networks to help women advance (Tharenou, 2005). Gender stereotypes and social identity are important for career advancement because they are integral to the thoughts, behaviours and attitudes of employees (Kottke and Agars, 2005). Women are perceived as quitters, less career oriented and less competitive than their male colleagues and men are thought to have superior leadership qualities. Being female or male forms an important part of an employee's identity, which can cause in-group bias and group conflict (Kottke and Agars, 2005).

Although organizations encompass both masculine and feminine characteristics, they generally tend to be more masculine in nature (e.g. Van Vianen and Fischer, 2002; Priola and Brannan, 2009; Guillaume and Pochic, 2009). Management cultures in particular are characterized by the establishment and maintenance of status and authority, hierarchy, linear career paths and competition, which are all considered masculine traits. This type of male-dominated culture forms a barrier for women's careers through a process of exclusion and selection (Van Vianen and Fischer, 2002). Exclusion refers to prejudiced attitudes and gender stereotypes and selection refers to male employees favouring male colleagues and the self-selection of female employees into certain jobs or companies.

Spatial flexibility

Access to top-level positions in some cases requires long-distance commuting or even relocation to be near a firm's headquarters, where most of the higher positions are concentrated. Several studies discuss the relationship between career advancement and spatial flexibility, which is the willingness to relocate or engage in long-distance commuting to further a career (Van Ham, 2002; Guillaume and Pochic, 2009; Eddelston, 2004). Female managerial careers were found to lag behind those of their

male colleagues because they relocate less frequently, particular when they have children (Bielby and Bielby, 1992; Brett, 1997; Guillaume and Pochic, 2009).

In addition to a lower willingness to relocate, women also have shorter commute duration and distance (Turner and Niemeier, 1997; Camstra, 1996; Hanson and Pratt, 1990). The time geographical perspective used to explain the shorter commute distance of women is described in the previous section on the regional opportunity structure. To summarize, a lower willingness to relocate or commute over larger distances has a negative effect on the career advancement of female employees.

1.3 Research aims and outline of the thesis

The aim of this study is to gain insight into various aspects of the gender employment gap in the Netherlands. In particular, attention is paid to gender-specific differences in regional employment rates, working hours and career advancement. The main motivation for this thesis is to explore the options for increasing female employment, in particular with respect to working hours, to tackle the adverse effects of aging the Netherlands is facing.

The first part of this thesis consists of two studies that focus on regional labour markets and differences in male and female employment rates. Chapter 2 presents an analysis of gender-specific employment rates and the gender employment gap in Dutch municipalities in 2002. A Spatial Moving Average (SMA) specification is used to handle the occurrence of spatial dependence for female employment and the gender employment gap. Since no significant spatial structure could be identified for male employment, an OLS regression is used. Not all municipalities are included in this analysis because important variables such as education and childcare were not available for all areas. The methodology is therefore applied to a data set comprised of a sample of nearly 300 municipalities, which account for 80 percent of the Dutch population. All models are estimated using GeoDa. The research aim of Chapter 2 is *to increase insight into the regional variation of gender-specific employment in the Netherlands and more specifically regional variation of the gender employment gap.*

As an extension of Chapter 2, Chapter 3 adopts a Structural Equation Model (SEM) to analyse female employment rates. The dataset created for the research presented in Chapter 2 contains several highly correlated variables which in a

regression model are likely to lead to multicollinearity and finally to incorrectly dropping variables from the model. The advantage of a SEM structure is that it is designed to handle both observed variables and latent variables, i.e. theoretical concepts such as socioeconomic status, in a single model framework to solve typical problems of multicollinearity. The structural model and measurement model of the latent variables are estimated simultaneously by means of maximum likelihood using LISREL. The research aim of Chapter 3 is *to gain further insight into the determinants of regional variation in female labour participation by incorporating observed variables and theoretical derived variables.*

Differences in work hours between men and women are addressed in Chapter 4. For this purpose a unique micro-level database was compiled from the Social Statistics Jobs database (SSB-Jobs) and the Municipal Base Registry (MBR) available through Statistics Netherlands. The analysis is focused on changes in working hours without change in employment, therefore employees are selected that have occupied the same job over a period of several years. This resulted in a dataset containing roughly 2.6 million male and 2.5 million female employees. The data includes personal and household characteristics, residential context and job characteristics. Due to the level of detail of the data, information on partners with jobs could be incorporated in the analysis, including same-sex couples. First, the determinants of working hours are analysed using an OLS regression. Next, a bivariate probit with sample selection is used to estimate what factors influence the occurrence of a change in working hours and subsequently the nature of the change, namely an increase or decrease in working hours. All models are estimated in STATA and are corrected for the occurrence of heterogeneity, which is a common problem for large micro-level datasets. Given the low and declining average working hours in relation to the decline of the working population due to aging, the research aim of Chapter 4 is *to explore the options for increasing working hours by analysing the dynamics in hours of male and female employees in the Netherlands.*

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the analysis of gender-specific differences in career advancement. Career advancement refers to differences in tangible outcomes, i.e. income, job level and career mobility. The analysis was based on a data set of around 10,000 mid-level and top-level managers. These data were obtained from the personnel records of a major Dutch financial services company for 2001 and 2008. Specific attention is paid to employees who work full-time over four days (4*9),

because they combine aspects of the Dutch culture of working part-time and the corporate culture of working full-time to further a career. Gender differences in income, function-level and career mobility are estimated separately. First, models are estimated by means of an OLS regression including a gender-dummy, to explore structural differences between men and women. Next, the models are also estimated separately for men and women, to detect possible differences in magnitude and significance. The main aim of Chapter 5 is *to gain insight into the determinants of female and male career advancement in financial services*.

Finally, Chapter 6 presents an overview of the main findings drawn from the analyses in Chapters 2 to 5. Furthermore, this chapter also presents a discussion of the policy implications, the limitations of this thesis and suggestions for further research.

References

- Becker, G. (1981), *A treatise on the family*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Bielby, W. and Bielby, D. (1992), I will follow him: family ties, gender-role beliefs, and reluctance to relocate for a better job, *The American Journal of Sociology*, 97, 5, 1241-1267.
- Brett, J.M. (1997), Family, sex, and career advancement, In: Greenhaus, J. and Parasuraman, S. (Eds), *Integrating work and family: Challenges and choices for a changing world*, Quorum Books, Westport, CT, 141-153.
- Bowen, W.G. and Finegan, T.A. (1969), *The economics of labor force participation*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Bosworth, D., Dawkins, P. and Stromback, T. (1996), *The economics of the labour market*, Singapore: Longman Singapore Publishers (Pte) Ltd.
- Callens, M., van Hoorn, W. and de Jong, A. (2000), Labour force participation of mothers, In: De Beer, J. and Deven, F. (Eds). Diversity in family formation: the 2nd demographic transition in Belgium and the Netherlands, *European studies of populations*, 8, 89-139.
- Camstra, R. (1996), Commuting and gender in a lifestyle perspective, *Urban Studies* 33, 2, 283-300.
- Cörvers, F. and Golsteyn, B. (2003), Changes in women's willingness to work in a tightening labour market: the impact of preferences, wages and individual characteristics. *ROA Research Memorandum* 2003/5E.
- De Graaf, P. and Vermeulen, H. (1997), Female labour market participation in the Netherlands: developments in the relationship between family cycle and employment, In: Blossfeld, H.P. and Hakim, C. (Eds), *Between Equalization and Marginalization*:

- Women Working Part-time in Europe and the United States of America*, Oxford University Press, Oxford, 191-209.
- De Meester, E., Mulder, C.H. and Droogleever Fortuijn, J. (2007), Time spent in paid work by women and men in urban and less urban contexts in the Netherlands, *TESG*, 98, 5, 585-602.
- Dieckhoff, M. and Steiber, N. (2010), A Re-assessment of common theoretical approaches to explain gender differences in continuing training participation, *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 1-23.
- Dykstra, P.A. and Fokkema, T. (2000), Partner en kinderen: belemmerend of bevorderend voor beroepssucces? Beroepsmobiliteit van mannen en vrouwen met verschillende huwelijks- en ouderschapscarrieres, *Mens en Maatschappij*, 75, 2.
- Eddleston, K.A., Baldrige, D.C. and Veiga, J.F. (2004), Toward modelling the predictors of managerial career success: does gender matter?, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 19, 4, 360-385.
- Elhorst, J.P. (1996), Regional labour market research on participation rates, *TESG*, 87, 3, 209-221.
- Elhorst, J.P. and Zeilstra, A.S. (2007), Labour force participation rates at the regional and national levels of the European Union: An integrated analysis, *Papers in Regional Science*, 86, 4, 525-549.
- EU (2010), *Strategy for equality between women and men (2010-2015)* Brussels: Committee for European Communities.
- Euwals, R., Knoef, M. and Van Vuuren, D. (2007), The trend in female labour force participation: What can be expected for the future?, *IZA DP*, 3225, 1-50.
- Guillaume, C. and Pochic, J. (2009), What would you sacrifice? Access to top management and the work-life balance, *Gender, Work and Organization*, 16, 1, 14-36.
- Groot, W. and Pott-Buter, H. (1993), Why women's labour supply in the Netherlands has increased, *De economist*, 141, 2, 238-255.
- Hägerstrand, T. (1970), What about people in regional science? *Papers of the Regional Science Association*, 24, 7-21.
- Hanson, S. and Pratt, G. (1990), Geographic perspectives on the occupational segregation of women, *National Geographic Review* 6, 4, 376-399.
- Henkens, K., Grift, Y. and Siegers, J. (2002), Changes in female labour supply in the Netherlands 1989-1998: The case of married and cohabiting women, *European Journal of Population* 18, 39-57.
- Kasten, L. (2003), Family gentrifiers: challenging the city as a place simultaneously to build a career and to raise children, *Urban Studies*, 40, 2573-2584.

- Kottke, J.L. and Agars, M.D. (2005), Understanding the processes that facilitate and hinder efforts to advance women in organizations, *Career Development International*, 10, 3, 190-202.
- Lundberg, S. (1985), The added worker effect, *Journal of Labor Economics*, 3, 1, 11-37.
- Merens, A., van den Brakel, M., Hartgers, M. and Hermans, B. (2011), *Emancipatiemonitor 2010*, Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau.
- Metz, I. (2005), Advancing the careers of women with children. *Career Development International*, 10, 3, 228-245.
- Moen, P. and Yan, Y. (2000), Effective work-life strategies: working couples, work conditions, gender, and life quality, *Social Problems* 47, 3, 291-326.
- OECD (2002), Women at work: who are they and how are they faring?, In: *OECD Employment Outlook*, 63-125.
- Pencavel, J. (1986), Labor supply of men: A survey, In: Ashenfelter, O., Layard, R. (eds) *Handbook of Labor Economics*, Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Priola, V. and Brannan, M.J. (2009), Between a rock and a hard place Exploring women's experiences of participation and progress in managerial careers, *Equal Opportunities International*, 28, 5, 378-397.
- Saint-Martin, A. and Venn, D. (2010), How good is part-time work? In: *OECD Employment Outlook. Moving beyond the jobs crisis*.
- Shapiro, J.M. (2006), Smart cities: quality of life, productivity, and the growth effects of human capital, *The review of Economics and Statistics*, 88, 2, 324-335.
- Siegers, J. J. and Zandanel, R. (1981), A Simultaneous Analysis of the Labour Force Participation of Married Women and the Presence of Young Children in the Family, *De economist*, 129, 3, 382.
- Statistics Netherlands (2007), CBS Statline. Statistics on the gender-specific mobility, available at: <http://statline.cbs.nl>
- Statistics Netherlands (2010), CBS Statline. Statistics on the gender-specific average annual working hours, available at: <http://statline.cbs.nl>
- Statistics Netherlands (2011), CBS Statline. Statistics on the gender-specific labour market participation, available at: <http://statline.cbs.nl>
- Tharenou, P. (2005), Does mentor support increase women's career advancement more than men's? The differential effects of career and psychosocial support, *Australian Journal of Management*, 30, 1, 77-109.
- Tharenou, P., Latimer, S. and Conroy, D. (1994), How do you make it to the top? An examination of influences on women's and men's managerial advancement, *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 4, 899-931.

- Turner, T. and Niemeier, D. (1997), Travel to work and household responsibility: new evidence, *Transportation* 24, 4, 397-419.
- Van den Brakel, M., Bos, W., Merens, A., Dankmeyer, B. and Hagoort, K. (2010), Inkomen, In: Merens, A., Van den Brakel, M., Hartgers, M. and Hermans, B., *Emancipatiemonitor 2010*, Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau.
- Van der Laan, L. and Van der Bout, E. R. (1990), *Een Economisch-geografische Analyse van de Regionale Verschillen in de Participatie van Vrouwen op de Arbeidsmarkt in Nederland*, Rotterdam: Economisch Geografisch Instituut, Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam.
- Van Ham, M. (2002), *Job Access, Workplace Mobility, and Occupational Achievement*, Delft: Eburon Publishers.
- Van Ham, M. and Büchel, F. (2006), Unwilling or unable? Spatial and socio-economic restrictions on females' labour market access, *Regional Studies* 40, 3, 345-357.
- Van Ham, M. and Mulder, C. (2005), Geographical access to childcare and mother's labour-force participation, *TESG* 96, 1, 63-74.
- Van Ham, M., Mulder, C.H. and Hooimeijer, P. (2001), Spatial flexibility in job mobility: macrolevel opportunities and microlevel restrictions, *Environment and Planning A*, 33, 921-940.
- Van Vianen, A.E.M. and Fischer, A.H. (2002), Illuminating the glass ceiling: The role of organizational cultural preferences, *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75, 315-337.
- Vlasblom, J.D. and Schippers, J.J. (2004), Increases in female labour force participation in Europe: similarities and differences, *European Journal of Population* 20, 4, 375-392.