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**Come la pandemia di Covid-19 ha influenzato
l’organizzazione occupazionale, una prospettiva di
genere**

**How the Covid-19 pandemic has influenced the
occupational organization, a gender perspective**

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A mia mamma,

Graziella.

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INTRODUCTION

How the occupation has been influenced by the coronavirus? Which part of the population has suffered most because of the pandemic? This work tries to reply to these questions, firstly it focuses on the macroeconomic aspects reporting data on the coronavirus effects in Italy about the GDP, the occupational levels, and the worked hours, and then it compares them to the European levels.

Concepts as lockdown, smart working and teleworking have been presented because of their intensity on this scenario, being the first a direct response and solution to fight the health crisis, while the second ones, measures to ensure the continuation of the economic activities.

Going ahead the thesis goes to investigate the microeconomic effects brought by the pandemic, addressing the role of the leadership inside the companies, and the resilience requested by the economic agents at the forefront of the crisis.

An interesting qualification has been done respect the gender differences, reporting firstly the literature connected to this phenomenon that has been studied in several facets as the economical as the social one.

To conclude the study, the empirical analysis conducted, with the software RStudio on the CICO dataset, has tried to compare information related to the contract initiations and terminations of the crisis period (9th March – 4th May) and the post-crisis period (5th May – 31st October) of the 2020 with the data of the precedent year in the same two periods. The characteristics object of study have been: the contract

typology, the working hours typology, the territorial area, the educational attainment, the average wage, and the reason for termination in the case of contract terminations.

A GENERAL OVERVIEW

I.I. COVID-19 CRISIS

The COVID-19 pandemic has led not only to an economic crisis, but also to a health and social one too. It has generated unique and fundamental challenges for all the countries, and their governments have been forced to issue quick responses to deal with the spread of infections. Each country has applied containment strategies that have proved to be very different in effectiveness, to the point that the lethality of the virus has appeared different from country to country. This has led to different consequences in the legal, economic, and social aspects of each different country. Employers have had to think about solutions to organize the daily work and tasks, introducing teleworking when it was possible, and/or opting for governmental instruments as the “Cassa Integrazione” for Italy, to mitigate the negative consequences of the firings. Employees have had to adjust their work, family duties and free time, to cohabit with the coronavirus. Suddenly, jobs have been started to be classified in base of their functionality to beat the pandemic and their essentially for people lives. Employees have been turned into “Work from home” employees, essential or life-sustaining workers, and laid-off ones perceiving unemployment benefits. Parents have started to deal with additional demands in terms of childcare and housework due to the closure of schools and infant centres.

The literature produces since the beginning of the pandemic, has compared the current crisis with the Great Recession of 2008 that has been characterized by

greater negative effects on men's employment levels in respect to women's, because male-dominated sectors as construction and manufacturing were the most affected in terms of job losses, while women's working hours increased. (Rubery and Rafferty, 2013; Hoynes, Miller and Schaller, 2012). As reported in a very recent study, the current recession is likely to have a similar impact on male and female employment, since the social measures taken have affected sectors where both genders are employed (Upkau and Petrongolo, 2020; Alon et al., 2020). In the current recession, younger workers, those on low incomes and self-employed seem to be the ones more likely to lose their jobs or experiencing a drop-in economic activity that is likely to result in a reduction in earnings during the lockdown (Covid-19 and inequalities, Richard Blundell, Monica Costa Dias, Robert Joyce, Xiaowei Xu).

"Telework has helped to mitigate part of the negative consequences caused by social distancing and restrictions, however, working from home requires important changes in the lifestyle of workers and, therefore, creates new challenges for work-life balance, mental health issues and work organization practices. But in terms of employment, it is a practice that allows people to maintain their activity and income even when the strictest restrictions are imposed, however, not all workers can benefit from this form of work arrangement." (Employment impact of Covid-19 crisis: from short-term effects to long terms prospects, Journal of Industrial and

Business Economics, Marta Fana, Serio Torrejòn Pèrez, Enrique Fernández-Macías)

I.II. ITALY COMPARISON UE

I.II.1 Covid-19 effects in terms of GDP, occupational levels, and worked hours.

To understand the impact of the COVID-19 in the European countries, we can have a look at different variables as the GDP, the working hours, and the employment levels, comparing these variables from the last trimester of 2019 to the ones of 2020.

Keeping in mind that the first effects of the pandemic restrictions should be visible in the second trimester of 2020.

In terms of GDP, we can observe that in the second trimester the only country below the Eurozone average has been Germany that has shown a decrease of 9.8%, while, Italy (13%), France (13.8%), and Spain (17.8%) have reached high losses in terms of GDP. In the third semester, in correspondence of the slackening closure measures, the GDP has increased in respect to the previous trimester by 12.5% on average, France (+18.7%), Spain (+16.7%), Italy (+ 15.9%), however, German improvement has been marginal (+8.5%). (*See table 1: Eurozone and main EU country GDP*)

Another variable that should be considered is the employment level, Spain is the country that has suffered most in the second trimester of 2020 with -7,50 points of employed people, but it is also the one with the strongest recovery in the following period. Italy shows a lower loss in terms of number of employed than the other

European countries with a consequent increase partly in line with the average. (See *table 2: Eurozone and main EU country employment levels*)

Analysing the number of working hours, in the euro zone in the second trimester of 2020 they have been decreased for 13.6%, with an increase of 14.8% in the third semester. Despite the increase, it has not been able to restore the value before the pandemic. And the countries hit most in terms of decreased working hours have been Spain (-21.7%), France (-17.10), and Italy too (-15.10%). (See *table 3: Eurozone and main EU country working hours*). However, those are the countries that in the third semester have shown the higher increase in terms of hours worked. To support this data, we can recall a survey conducted by Eurofound in 2020 concerning the number of hours worked during the pandemic and it has shown that they have been decreased above all in the Mediterranean countries such as Malta, Cyprus, Spain, Greece, and Italy in respect to Nordic, Eastern and Central European countries.

I.II.2 Telework as reliver tool.

A part of the negative consequences caused by social distancing and restrictions on activities, have been mitigated by telework. However, not all the European countries have been able to convert the normal working practices into this type of working arrangement. This may be a possible explanation of the reduction in working hours.

According to Dingel and Neiman (2020), the share of jobs that can be done at home exceeds 40% in Sweden and UK, while the proportion decreases in the cases of France (38%), Italy (35%), and Spain (32%). The potential for telework seems to be lower in those countries that are being hardest hit by the COVID crisis in terms of infections. As a result, the Mediterranean countries are not only severely affected by it, but also worse prepared than other European countries for the large-scale transition to telework triggered by the crisis. This idea is supported by study conducted by Fana, Pèrez, Fernandez-Macias (2020), they have produced an indicator that shows if a sector is essential or not. It varies from 0 to 1, the former means that a sector is not essential (forcefully closed or that can operate under certain condition), while 1 shows the full essentiality (can continue to operate even in the strictest confinement). All the values between 0 and 1 indicate that there are some sub-sectors that can operate or not under given conditions. The five categories are:

1. *Essential and fully active sectors*: food production, utilities, and health services, in those sectors most employment continues operating with normality,
2. *Active but via telework*: education, most of PA, finance, insurance and telecommunications. Most employment in this sector is also maintained even in strict confinement but with telework,

3. *Mostly essential and partly active, not teleworkable*: retail and manufacturing of chemical and paper, which remain to some extent active even in the strict confinement situation,
4. *Mostly non-essential and inactive, not teleworkable*: most of the manufacturing not previously mentioned, as well as some machine and computer repair activities and constructions. Since, they generally do not involve direct interaction with clients, in regular confinement situations they are normally allowed to function under strict conditions,
5. *Closed*: hotels, restaurants and accommodations, estate and travel agencies, leisure, and recreation services.

Applying this classification with an ad-hoc extraction of EU-LFS data, the authors conducted an analysis of employment in Germany, Italy, Spain, UK, Poland, and Sweden. The main outcomes are that:

- Poland is characterized by the biggest share of employment in *essential activities*, even higher than the EU-28 average, due to the importance of the primary sector in the polish economy,
- Sweden and UK, show employment levels in sectors *active via telework* above the EU average but for different reasons, in Sweden because of the predominance of the Public Sector and in the UK because of the higher share of financial and professional services,

- Germany and Italy are characterized by an employment share above the average in the *mostly essential sectors*, driven by a relative specialization in chemical manufacturing, wholesale and retail trade,
- *Non-essential activities*, that include the rest of manufacturing and construction, are more prevalent in Italy and Poland,
- *Closed*: southern Italy and the UK are the countries with the highest share of employment in the forcefully closed sectors, all belonging to the category of LTI (Less Knowledge Intensive) services activities. Italy and Spain present high share of employment in tourism and related activities as a part of the deindustrialization process strengthened by the structural reforms of recent years and the labour market reforms approved after the 2008 crisis, which may have shifted investments towards less innovative and more labour-intensive sectors. (*See figure 1: Employment distribution across sector categories and country (in %)*).

From the analysis, it emerges that there are asymmetric effects of the Covid lockdown measures across different groups of workers within and between the selected European countries. The countries that are being hardest hit by the pandemic are Spain, Italy and UK and are those countries that are more likely to suffer the worst employment implications of the confinement, because of their specialisation in sectors which are more likely to be forcefully closed. Moreover, these countries were also the most vulnerable before the crisis, they

have been characterized by high unemployment levels, precarious work conditions, inequality and relative poverty compared to the rest of EU. Spain and Italy are also the most affected countries by the financial crisis; therefore, the current crisis is likely to exacerbate ongoing economic asymmetries in Europe.

I.II.3 Supplementary indicators to unemployment.

In the previous sections, it has been discussed the pandemic effects in terms of GDP, worked hours and employment levels. These variables give only a partial understanding of the macroeconomic effects brought by the coronavirus. Furthermore, it may be good to look also at supplementary indicators to unemployment such as not seeking people and job leavers.

For definition, persons available to work but not seeking are persons aged 15-74 neither employed nor unemployed who want to work, but do not seek work. They are not qualifiable as unemployed because they are not actively looking for a job. Together with persons seeking work but not immediately available, they form the potential additional labour force. (https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Glossary:Person_available_to_work_but_not_seeking)

Among the countries displayed in the table, Italy shows the highest number of people who do not seek for employment. Belgium, Netherlands, and Austria, show the lowest value. Common to all the countries is the increase in the second four months of 2020, with a prevalence of women in respect to men in all of them, in

exception of UK. (*See table 4: Not seeking people in the main European Countries (from 2019-Q4 to 2020Q3)*)

The second four months of 2020 display also high value of job leavers, with Spain being the one with the highest number, followed by Italy. Italy, France, and Spain show that there are more male than women that are leaving. (*See table 5: Job Leavers in the main European Countries (from 2019-Q4 to 2020Q3)*)

I.III. THE ITALIAN SCENARIO

I.III.1 Lockdown effects in terms of unemployment

Italy was the first European country to report people infected with the coronavirus and one of the countries with the highest number of cases. At the beginning of March 2020, the Italian government imposed drastic measures to contain the growing epidemic: a lockdown on activities and public services, regulations prohibiting all movement by individuals unless for justified for work, health or other urgent necessities, school closures, and required social distancing of at least one meter between individuals. In the wake of the pandemic, the government decided to shut down entire sectors, which were deemed as non-essential. They were mainly concentrated in services, such as restaurants, bars, hotels, and some categories of wholesale and retail shops, in line with government decisions in other countries. (The heterogeneous effects of COVID-19 on labour market flows:

evidence from administrative data, Alessandra Casarico and Salvatore Lattanzio, CEPR PRESS, 15 October 2020).

Before the Covid19 pandemic, the Italian social insurance system was characterized by the presence of a benefit scheme for unemployment due to firings or because of contract expires. But no measures for self-employers individuals.

The lockdown was followed by two further policy measures relevant for labour market dynamics: a firing freeze and an ease of the requirements to access the short-time work (STW) compensation schemes. While the former is unique to Italy for its breadth, the latter is common to most European countries. These measures have contributed to a substantial increase in public spending, according to the European Commission forecast done in autumn it was about 828.8 billion euro in 2020, while in the previous year it has been about 748.3. Thus the pandemic year has been signed for 80.5 billion more in terms of public spending justified by the emergency reason. These measures aimed to reduce the spread of the virus; however, it has influenced female and male labour market participation (Barbieri, Basso and Scicchitano, 2020; Casarico and Lattanzio, 2020; Centra, Filippi and Quaranta, 2020) and in inequality (Galasso, 2020). The economic repercussions of the Covid19 pandemic impacted workers asymmetrically. Inequalities increased since the shock mainly affected workers with unstable and poorly protected jobs. (Blundell et al., 2020) The Italian economic structure is characterized by a high weight and heterogeneity of self-employed workers, small and medium enterprises

run by families, concentration in service sectors such as tourism that have been hit most by the COVID restrictions, high number of hours worked per day, informality, and difficulty in the market labour access for youngers, women. The Italian context shows rigidity, fragility, and an unemployment rate above the EU average. (*Il mercato del lavoro 2020, una lettura integrata*; Carlo Maria De Gregorio, Maurizio Lucarelli, Isabella Siciliani, Andrea Spizzichino). Furthermore, the Peninsula is characterized by both traditionally high gender gaps in the labour market and conservative gender roles, which put most of the burden of housework and childcare on women. Comparative data show that when summing work in the labour market and work at home, Italian women not only work more than Italian men, but also more than men and women in most European countries (ISTAT, 2019).

In the absence of social insurance benefits, the crisis would have had a significant effect on distribution of labour income, especially because restrictions would have affected families with workers employed in non-essential sectors that would have had fewer possibilities to work from home.

Youngers often with temporary or seasonal contracts who on average have lower wages, were hit hardest by the crisis and they have faced the highest unemployment duration. Inequalities would have increased in case of lack of social insurance benefits. In fact, in the short term, the benefits proposed by the Italian government have at least compensated the income losses and the increase in inequality. (“The

impact of the Covid19 shock on labour income inequality: evidence from Italy"-
Francesca Carta and Marta De Philippis)

The instruments that have been introduced for the short range of action, have been effective and have helped low-income families to a greater extent. In respect to the past, it has been introduced a great novel that is the lump-sum bonus given to all self-employment individuals. This is a substantial difference, since self-employed are not insured against cyclical income losses in Italy.

To understand the implications in the medium term in terms of effectiveness of these measures, it remains fundamental to monitor the ability of the market of reabsorbing displaced workers. (Blundell et al., 2020)

The unemployment rate curve for the year 2020 shows a decreasing trend from January to April when for both women and men there is a minimum, and then increasing values in the following months but above the initial level of the year.

The unemployment rate is the percentage of unemployed workers in the total labour force. In normal times, the decreasing value may be associated to increasing employed workers and/or an increase of the total labour force. For what concerns the labour force in April, it has decreased in respect to the previous months of 2.5% and, in respect to March the 15.9% fewer people do not seek for a job, with women showing higher values in respect to men. (*See figure 2: Unemployment rate 2020-Italy*) Thus, what at the beginning seemed to be a positive insight is instead a contradiction, because even if the unemployment rate had never been so low since

2007, employed people in absolute terms are decreased, and furthermore, inactive too. Inactive are those people who neither do not work nor seek for a job. Combining this information with the loss in terms of employed people, what apparently seemed a positive scenario characterized by a low unemployment rate, is on contrary not good at all. (<https://quifinanza.it/lavoro/disoccupazione-aprile-2020-dato-basso-cattiva-notizia/389433/#:~:text=La%20disoccupazione%20in%20Italia%20ad,rilevazione%20del%20mese%20di%20marzo.>)

In 2020 the number of ended contracts in the private sector excluding agriculture has just passed the activated ones. January and February 2020 showed the same levels of 2019 in terms of workplace activations, but with the first infections at the end of February, the labour market has suffered a deterioration and the balance between activations and separations has become negative. A partial recovery has been shown in the summertime, that has been then interrupted in November because of the second wave of infections.

The industry has been hit less hard in respect to the tertiary sector, with constructions suggesting a positive trend. The drop in occupational levels has been more marked above all for females, that are more present in those sectors with less favourable trends such as the tourist services, vice versa, the male component has beneficiated more of the recovery related to the industry and above all the constructions in which the 90% is man. According to the age, people between 15-

34 that are the 25% of the people employed in the private sector, has contributed for more than a half of the total occupational drop.

From a study conducted by using data from the Italian Labour Force Survey (ILFS), it has been discovered that the lockdown measures have suspended or limited activities that count the 44% of self-employed workers and the 33% of employees. Looking at the households' patterns, we can find that in the 38% of the families considered, there is at least one worker affected by the lockdown measures in terms of occupation and also in this case, those at the bottom of the equivalized labour income distribution are the ones hit the most. Furthermore, the share of family members employed in occupations with a higher possibility of teleworking is larger for higher income households rather than the other ones.

I.III.2 Smart working as a response to lockdown restrictions.

The 23 of February the Italian government approved a decree to reply to the pandemic emergency with “smart working” practices as a tool for those companies in the critic zones to continue working despite the restrictions. Smart working as a term in Italy has been introduced in 2017, and it is utilized to describe an evolution of teleworking that is the work done from home in the same hours and in a similar workspace supplied by the company. The smart working is a flexible version that should not reckon on rigid schedule, on contrary, the worker should have the possibility to choose the work time and to move on objectives. During the lockdown

months, the smart working has been an adaptation of the office work at home with the same schedule but with the difference in term of the location.

From ISTAT research it has been adopted by the 90% of large companies and the 73% of medium companies, that already knew and adopted the smart working; while it has been less popular among small and micro enterprises that see it as a temporary solution and not as a possible organizational tool.

The North-West of Italy is the region with the higher ability in recurring to smart working as a solution to lockdown restrictions with the 26.4% of companies adopting it as a working tool. At the second place there is the North-East with 22.9%, and then the Centre of Italy with almost 20% and the South with 15%. Central regions are the ones that most have resorted to the Cassa Integrazione Guadagni that is renamed Cig Covid, and with the lowest number of companies that have reduced their staff through firings. Thanks to the “Cura Italia” decree and its following emanations and renewals, most of the companies have decided to leave the option of firing their employees, and opting for other types of instruments as the working time reduction, on average the 31% of italian companies decided to adopt. Compulsory holidays to reduce costs measures have been very popular among the Northern regions with the 40% of companies in respect to the 16.5% of the Southern ones.

Furthermore, it is possible to have a look how the different economic sectors have reacted during the 2020. The sectors that have most applied to smart working

practices have been utilities with the 66.6% of companies adopting smart working practices, information and communication services with the 69%, professional, scientific and technical activities with the 55.4%, education with 52.2%. Those sectors for which it has been less common working from home due to their nature, are manufacturing activities, constructions, tourist services, entertainment and sportive activities.

HOW THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC HAS INFLUENCED ECONOMIC ORGANIZATION, A GENDER GAP ANALYSIS

II.I THE ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES CAUSED BY THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC

II.I.1 How different institutions have reacted in terms of confinement measures: a global value chain perspective.

A situation of crisis can be identified by three elements: time pressure, the contingency of a fundamental threat and surprise, and the fact that it is the result of both the danger and the circumstances under which it occurs. (Clarke, 1995)

The Covid19 pandemic has been an unexpected and unforeseen event that have hit all the world. Analysts have classified it as a black swan event. According to the literature, a black swan event is distinguished by:

- Being unexpected, unusual, unpredictable, highly unlikely,
- Having a big impact on the economy and society when they occur,
- Leading many people claiming that it could have been predicted.

This type of event occurs more often than we may think, and often the failure is in the fact that it is not anticipated. The interconnection among countries has contributed to a fast spreading of the virus, so many governments have decided to limit the movement of people across countries, the same contraction has been also for export bans once medical supply shortages have been met. An immediate and direct consequence in the supply side has been the shutdown of economic activities

resulting in a decrease of production, this has been combined by a drop in the demand for those goods and services that did not correspond to those ones considered “saving for emergency”, “wait and see”, and “hoarding” (Baldwin & Tomiura, 2020). In a pandemic situation, demand for food and medicine considered essential goods goes up, while non-essential goods demand declines, because people tend to save money for health emergencies. The demand drops lead to lower production and thus to supply chain disruptions and this effect expand in all the countries in a globalized world as a domino effect because it needs only a country that suspend its economic activities that all the others are influenced by it. After twenty years of international trade growth in terms of unbundled production stages and activities, thank of the reduction of transport and communication costs, it has been started a process of “slowbalization” (Antras, 2020), or also called “deglobalization” constituted by a significant transformation in the structure of the international trade. This has mostly been caused by lockdowns that have stopped the production in many different countries and thus, it has disrupted the smooth working of the different value chains. However, firms operating in sectors with higher export intensity and more involved in global value chains have tended to suffer less and met a lower reduction in sales. In fact, from an analysis done by the Università of Firenze related to Italian firms, it has been discovered that firms that are more internationalized are also more productive, larger, and resilient, so they can react faster and adopt new strategies to remain in the market. While domestic

firms are much more exposed to suffer from negative shocks and they do not have instruments to mitigate them. In this context it is necessary to put into action measures aimed to provide income support and ensure access to social protection to those vulnerable segments of the population. In fact, the crisis brought by the spread of the virus has forced economies and societies to readapt as never before, many countries have started to take extraordinary fiscal and monetary policy measures to increase consumers' income to not arrest the demand. To avoid the spread of the infections among the population, governments have taken measures to limit the movement of individuals and assure social distancing. Each country has imposed different measures in term of intensity, some of them have adopted stringent ones, while others have opted for a less restrictive approach. Government responses and their enforcement have been heterogeneous, and they allowed substantial discretion, in some cases national measures are not modifiable at the local level, while in other cases it is, as for example when countries have a higher level of administrative decentralisation. The Italian and German government allow regional authorities to introduce stricter measures concerning the lockdown, whereas the same is not applicable to Spain. Also, the timeliness in which decisions have been taken has varied substantially across countries, in Spain there have been alternating periods of closure for economic activities, when only essential sectors have been allowed to operate. The differences in the labour market measures adopted have been related to the different national approaches of the countries but

also to the sectoral specialisation of them. For instance, the closure of all leisure and hospitality activities will affect most those countries more specialised in touristic activities.

Lockdown measures have also met the opposition of the public opinion, both private and economic organizations.

When externalities exist, free enterprise produces more of the negative ones and less of the positive ones than is socially optimal. This is a justification for the existence of government power. Nevertheless, incentives from the governments can also diverge substantially from the social optimal. In this case, government interventions lead to government failures. Based on this it is important to investigate whether the government actions during the Coronavirus outbreak can be justified on the grounds of market failures. This is the reason mobility restrictions can be justified since low-risk individuals generate for high-risk individuals the threat of infection. A study conducted by Thiago de Oliveira Souza from the University of Southern Denmark has shown that paradoxically, the argument requires that self-interested high-risk individuals do not see infection as strongly unwanted. On contrary, we would have met that the circulation of low-risk individuals would have had generated strong positive externalities in the form of “herd immunity”. And we learn that imposed confinement by governments, prohibits low risk individuals from generating this positive effect. Hence, government-imposed confinement during the Coronavirus outbreak in the U.S. is an example of government failure

under the assumption that high-risk individuals perceive infection as sufficiently undesirable, even if we ignore the socio-economic costs associated with the destruction of businesses, jobs, and violations of individual rights. (“Externalities, incentives, government failure, and the Coronavirus outbreak”, Thiago de Oliveira Souza, University of Southern Denmark, 2nd November 2020)

Different studies have been investigated the relationship between the quality of the institutions and the spread of the coronavirus.

Looking at the relationship between the mobility index (a measure of movement) and the stringency index (a measure of the extent of the lockdown), both combined and organised in base of the quality of institutions (a measure of the rights and freedom of the individuals in each country), it has been discovered that countries that show low quality of institutions achieve lower population movement. (“Covid-19: Lockdown and Institutions”, Ferraresi, Kotsogiannis, Rizzo, and Secomandi).

A way to understand this finding is that a country characterized by high level of quality of institutions and so that have the capacity of setting limits to the government powers, when the basic laws and information on legal rights are publicly available, and the freedom of expression and freedom of opinion is at the basis of people rights, the implementation of measures that cause the limitation of people is considered as against the rights of the citizens.

This finding is supported by the fact that countries highly democratic, with rule of law, and focused on the protection of property rights and political stability are on

average more efficient, and that means that they can rely more on public healthcare spending and at the same time the economic inequalities levels are low.

Furthermore, within the democratic, the most efficient ones are the ones that are characterised by cultural elements such as lower power distance and high patience (“Efficiency of government policy during the Covid-19 pandemic”, Manthos D. Delis, Maria Iosifidi, Meneloas Tasiou.).

From a comparative analysis done by The COVID & Employ Working Group related to the restrictions put into action by Spain, Germany, and Italy, it has been discovered that the first has been slightly more restrictive than the other two in the classification of sectors. Spain has classified as essential only fewer sectors, and their percentages are often slightly lower. Italy has been discovered of being less restrictive in the sector classification, in the peninsula, most of the professional service activities are deemed essential while in Germany and Spain they are not. In Italy, a big proportion of manufacturing activities have been considered essential, while in Germany and Spain they have used to consider fully non-essential most of them. These differences should not be over-emphasized because they can just reflect the idiosyncrasy of the nation, and moreover, they may have led to small consequences due to the work from home arrangements that have allowed to not completely stop the work practices. An example is education, considered essential in Italy, mostly essential in Germany, and non-essential in Spain, but in all the three countries it has continued to operate in similar way.

II.I.2 The changes in working practices: leadership at the core of the survival

It is difficult to define the concept of crisis in an organization because it is multidimensional and it refers to different objects, generally is a difficult situation in which an organization faces obstacles that lead the management to deal with decision-making situations. A crisis, as it is the Covid19 pandemic, can influence the existence and the survival of an organization, its objectives achievement and put it in conditions of strong pressure. (Slatter and Lovett, 2001)

The main consequences that the pandemic has led are disorganization (lack of information and information chaos), uncertainty (lack of knowledge, anxiety about the future, decision-making risk), disruption (violation of established order, structural and process balance), threat (fear and danger of loss of health and assets), breakdown (loss of life, loss of livelihood).

Most living organism have survival mechanism encoded into them as the instinct for self-preservation, organisations must put into action methods for surviving, and they are the actions taken by them. Organizational resilience is the ability of recognizing sudden changes and threats and react to them through their strategic and operational activities in order to ensure safety and adapt to the crisis.

From the outbreak of the pandemic, organizations have constantly faced challenges of unprecedent proportions, that have forced management to organize the workforces in different departmental areas or fields in ways not seen before. Barro

and Weng (2020) have discovered that organizations have applied different technical, psychological ways to reduce the workforce as an instrument of surviving the crisis, as a result, the market of some solutions offered has reduced globally since companies have reduced the employment levels in areas as marketing and sales departments, pushed by the need of reducing operational costs (Baldwin & Weder, 2020). From a research conducted by K. Obloj according to how polish organizations have acted in the months of the pandemic, surveyed companies have been classified in two groups in base of the type of actions they have chosen, proactive and reactive. The first ones have showed changed procedures of conduct the enterprise; digitalization of work, company documentation, and introduction of digital applications through the utilization of the “cloud” as work tool; introduction of health and medical security procedures, a shift of product sales to new markets, the launch of new product manufacturing. On the other hand, reactive companies have presented a high financial liquidity resulted by cost reduction policy, limited suppliers and customers visits, and a reduction in investments and project developments.

The coronavirus has changed the normal work routines and led to an acceleration of trends toward the online and virtual environments. The pandemic has forced the human resource management to think new methods of adapting to crisis time. One of the emerging solutions is remote working utilized for maintain smooth operations and quality services for the clients (McKibbin & Fernando, 2020). At the beginning

of the pandemic, one half of the companies had experimented working from home practices for more than the 80% of their employees. This new working arrangement has led to the increase of connectivity and communication technologies, despite that, many workers have met challenges, as for example, the organisation of the workspace. Furthermore, most of the alternative places as for example internet café or libraries are also closed due to government restrictions, and thus, this situation exacerbates the difficulties faced by employees who are forced to work from home to adapt an unusual workspace.

Other problems have been related to the balancing of the work-life with non-work life, and the loneliness faced due to social distancing. Furthermore, many employees have been reluctant in the adoption of working from home arrangements because of the perceived loss in control that they would have had in the case employees would have stayed in the company.

Managing-by-walking around would have not been possible anymore, and so managers would have to introduce new methodologies to monitor employees. Videoconferencing has been a solution introduced by many, and it has allowed the virtual sightlines, but they are still fraught with a risk, because they can cause stress through continuous monitoring and lead to feelings of privacy invasion. A new entry in the work from home arrangements has been the introduction of virtual teams, that as it has been demonstrated by previous research, they tend to show a lack of communication in respect to face-to-face teams (Martins, Gilson, Maynard,

2004), risking in leading to exacerbating problems in terms of conflicts and coordination (Mortensen and Hinds, 2001).

A way to avoid such problems is the institution of structural scaffolds, the alignment of teams, and ensuring safe information processes.

Communication is the sharing of information between two or more individuals or group of people to reach a common understanding. The economic and technological development has an impact on the dynamic environmental settings organizations must deal with and the degree of their success depends on the power of the organizational system to effectively maintain the workforce. The main goal of organization is to convert information into achievable tasks through a decision-making process. A well-established model of organizational communication is called C-P-R, it highlights three components: content, process, and roles. The author of the model suggests that at the core of the organizational culture (beliefs, norms, and values) there is the content of information, processes are the mechanisms and ways of interaction to which the information is transferred within the organization, and roles help people understand who is accountable for or involved in the different processes. Before the pandemic, most of the communication was face-to-face, while with the outbreak of the Covid19 infections communication has started to be mostly based on safer virus-free communication means as SMS, Messenger, Skype, and so on. It has been shown also an increase in the utilization of virtual team, and this may have also affected helping and prosocial

behaviour. It has been demonstrated by Flynn and Lake (2008) and Newark, Bohns, and Flynn (2017) that especially during crisis, people are more willing to help, and give better-quality help usually. While, in normal situations the impediments to requesting are related to feelings of being uncomfortable, awkward, and embarrassing. The effectiveness of virtual teams in terms of communication show contradictions. Prior studies have highlighted that teams operating online tend to be more effective at brainstorming than physical teams (De Rosa, Smith, Hantula, 2007), and also that individual performance has suggested that remotely interactions lose the creative benefits that are on contrary related to face-to-face meetings. (Allen, Golden, Shockley, 2015)

This new rapid growth should suggest to deep examine how improve virtual teamwork. In addition to virtual teamworking, there has been introduced the virtual leadership and management. Organizational outcomes are strictly influenced by the role of leaders, and that has a strong impact on employees at all levels, and above all in situation of crisis as it is the coronavirus. As mentioned before, the pandemic has forced workers to work from home and at the same time also leadership has needed to adapt to work well from distance.

From research it has been highlighted that the successful leader is the one who can make the right decisions and provide reassurance through a combination of realism and optimism about the future. Effective leaders strive to project vision (Antonakis et al., 2016). The effectiveness of leadership practices during the Covid19 pandemic

refers to their ability of persuasion when they state their value that will guide others action, understand, and discuss hopes and fears of the organization, communicate an ambitious vision, and confidently affirm that goals can be achieved. These skills are referred as charisma (Antonakis, et al., 2016, Grabo, Spisak, & Van Vugt, 2017). Leadership from a communicative perspective, can be considered as “a distinctive set of interpersonal communicative behaviours geared together toward the optimization of hierarchical relationships to reach a certain group or individual goals” (De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, Oostenveld). Crises can bring changes in leadership styles, and they can be better prepared in the case they have invested in professional development (Stoker, Garretsen & Soudis, 2019). One management instrument called Coopetition Strategy has been proposed by Crick and Crick (2020) and it is related to a marketing strategy put into action by firms that cooperate through a partnership, this involves cooperative and competitive forces with the attention about which competitors they are working with. Kuckertz et al. (2020) have suggested a different proposition to manage the crisis, their work based on a study on startups has shown that they are better prepared than other companies to deal with a situation of crisis because they are innovative, and innovation is a prerequisite for being resilient. Being startups innovative for nature, they tend to adapt and anticipate constantly, this is the reason why they are more likely to survive in respect to other firms. However, not all the startups have the same likelihood of succeeding, it depends on the relational and financial capabilities and

the government and institutional support (“Proactive and reactive actions of the organization during Covid19 pandemic crisis”, Aldona Małgorzata Deren, Jan Skonieczny, 20th May 2020).

II.I.3 The social and psychological impacts: resilience as a key word.

One of the worst impacts the coronavirus has having on the population is in terms of the social and economic costs to those who lost jobs and well as those who remain employed. For those who have been fired, in addition to the loss of income, they have experienced stress-related consequences as for example depression, anxiety, and physical ailments (Wanber, 2012). Latent deprivation model by Jahoda (1982) explains how unemployment negatively influences the psychological well-being of the individual, by affirming that employment provides manifest and latent benefits, the first being the income, and the second referring to social contact, status, sharing of common goals. Unemployment in leads to financial deprivation that can be devastating and brings a spiral of adversity that can influence the entire family (McKee-Ryan & Maitoza, 2018).

The negative effects for those who remain employed are called spillover effects, in fact, research have discovered that when companies reduce the staff levels, there are consequences in terms of organizational commitment, job involvement, and stress (Trevor & Nyberg, 2008). According to Frey and Stutzer (2010), studying economics of happiness is important because people's wellbeing is a necessary

component of the economy and society. There are a lot of different studies that have studied what determine happiness in different countries and periods of time, some of them concentrate on socioeconomic factors, situational, and institutional factors. In relation to the first ones, it has been discovered that women are more likely to be happier than men, and younger more than older ones. Others think that the major determinant of happiness is income (Frey & Stutzer, 2000, Ball and Chernova, 2008), and employment being essential for an individual to have a sufficient living, is correlated with substantial unhappiness (Clark and Oswald, 1994, Winkelmann, 1998). From a study conducted by the Asian Development Bank Institute related to different countries as China, Korea, Japan, Italy, UK, and US, it has been discovered that there is a relationship between employment and income changes, and negative feelings and enjoyment of positive activities during the pandemic and the individual wellbeing. Furthermore, that this change in base of the country of origin. People who experience negative feelings and enjoy positive activities during the pandemic are less likely to be unhappy, this is true in almost all the examined countries, at exception for the UK and this difference may reflect the effectiveness of the welfare policies of the country itself. This suggests that, most of the policies put into action by governments are linked to the safeguard of the financial and economic effects of the pandemic, however, there are lot of non-financial effects that affect the well-being of the individuals. Thus, governments should provide policies to provide support and improve the psycho-social aspect of their lives.

Looking at those who continue to work during the pandemic, there is likely to be growth in presenteeism, that is people going to work when ill. Miraglia and Johns (2016) have suggested two types of people who go to work when ill, the first profile is related to people who feel forced to go to work because of excessive workload and/or understaffing, and the second profile concerns those who are committed to their organization or highly engaged in their work. In this context, an important role is played by compensation policies that should help to ensure that co-workers do not force others to go to work when sick. (Kessler, 2017)

Another cost associated with the pandemic is inequality, that is increased as the wake of Covid-19 and as it was during the financial crisis of 2008, the increase in inequality contribute to the decrease in work centrality, in burnout, turnover, and absenteeism. (Bapuji et al., 2020) There should be organizational investments that discourage low-paid workers to increase public health risks through risk-taking and presenteeism.

The covid19 pandemic has led also to loss of social connections. High-quality social interactions are essential for mental and physical health (Mogilner, Whillans & Norton, 2018) Related to it, there is loneliness that is a psychological painful emotion that results from people's subjective feelings that their social needs are not completely satisfied (Cacioppo et al., 2006). Research has demonstrated that loneliness has a negative influence on workers' commitment and performance (Ozcelick & Barsade, 2018), and it should be addressed by HR managements as

employee well-being. Recalling the Job Demands-Resources theory, it has been observed that there is variation across industries in respect to the effects Covid19 has led the demands and resources of given jobs, for example for workers employed in the healthcare the evidence suggests that working conditions have been deteriorating and resulted in feeling of exhaustion and a distant attitude toward work. Similar conditions of depression and stress have been noted about people who have been exposed to Hurricane Katrina, and these mental health problems have remained long after the phenomenon. In this context, organisations can help providing tangible resources as employee assistance programs, therapy, and training, and psychological resources as feedback, support, and inspiration through videocalls that enable them to remain in contact.

Traumatic events can lead to an increase in alcohol consumption, as it has been for the 9/11/2001 attacks, the pandemic and especially the WFH arrangements have increased the alcohol use disorders, this thesis is supported by a study that have found that this diagnosis is applicable to nearly 13% of Americans and 20% of Americans. Isolation may be protective in many circumstances such as terrorist attacks, and previous experiences with an increase of mental distress. The emerging interests on the spread of infections all over the world may have distracted the attention on the psychological consequences of the pandemic outbreak. The mental health issues caused by the phenomenon may lead to long-lasting health problems, isolation, and stigma. There may be the need of developing mental health measures

to cope with psychosocial stressors, caused using isolation/quarantine, fear, and vulnerability among the general population. The information from media and social network should be closely controlled and community supportive psychological interventions globally promoted

In this context, a very important concept is the one that refers to individual resilience. “By absorbing shocks, resilience is a necessary capacity for survival in a turbulent environment” (Altintas & Royer, 2009). This word has a Latin origin, it comes from “resilire” and expresses the attitude of a system or organization of resisting constraints with minimal damage. Referring to individuals it is the intrinsic quality of an individual of overcoming his suffering and becoming stronger by learning from painful events and experiences (Cyrulnik, 2002). Individual resilience is not an innate quality that a person is born with (Szerman, 2006), but it is built over time with the family and social environment of the subject. The three main factors that allow an individual to be resilient are individual factors, family factors, and socio-environmental factors. The first one is linked to good intellectual functioning, being empathic and self-confident, these lead to self-esteem and enable the person to use psychological defence mechanisms (Taylore et al., 2019, Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004).

Families may act as obstacles for the future resilience development of an individual when they show parental imbalance, while it is a place that foster resilience when it is a secure and comfortable environment (Cyrulnik, 2002). When the first miss of

exist, it may be a “resilience guardian” that replace the deficient parent to restore the individual desire of build again a life project and his self-esteem and self-love. Considering it a bigger context, as individuals being part of economic organizations, individual resilience does not necessarily foster organizational resilience because a person may prefer to take care of his own survival rather than the one of the companies. Being the Covid-19 pandemic a health and economic crisis, it has led to psychological impacts on business, and especially on employees. “If resilient individuals all interpret reality differently, their decisions and actions will be in conflict, risking the survival of the company in times of crisis” (Coutu, 2002). This is the reason why companies must provide triggering strategies for psychological adjustment of the individual, that enable people to have defence mechanisms for recovering traumas, through the involvement in creative projects the company should allow the individual to rebuild himself and transform traumas into a mean for satisfaction and motivation. Furthermore, another important aspect is the post-resilience learning, that lead to the development of protective factors that allow the company to deal with future traumas.

II.I.4 The moderating factors

The decreasing number of births and the increasing life expectancy in respect to the past has led to an aging workforce around the world, in this context, the aging work force is a challenge because older people are more likely of dying when infected so

they need more attention. Given the risk of older employees, organisations have offered retirement incentives, and this have led to a new organisation pattern about the age of the workers presenting an increased age diversity of the workforce. This can be seen as an advantage for employers, but policies of integrations should be opted to exploit the benefits of developing a cross-age mentoring practices and knowledge sharing initiatives, to ensure the development of human capital and the strengthening of the internal labour market. Another moderating factor is race, the evidence suggests that minority groups are less likely to be able to be employed in those jobs that can be performed from home, and they are more exposed to the virus. Specifically, research on bias and discrimination in organizations suggests that racial and ethnic minorities are more likely to work under harmful working conditions (Hirsh & Kornrich, 2008), and report lower levels of supervision support (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2017). Psychologists and scholars have proposed individual-level coping strategies, interpersonal identity management strategies, and organizational-level interventions such as diversity training that can improve racial and ethnic minorities' experiences at work. For what concerns gender, higher fatality rates for men imply that male workers might need greater physical protection from the virus, while women face greater occupational risks. Women tend to work in positions that are more directly affected by Covid19 and more easily replaceable, moreover, being them more empathetic than men, they tend to experience more distress from stressful life events. Given the relation between

distress and performance, women show more severe work disruptions. To support this thesis, a survey done in U.K. have discovered that more women experience job disruption and distress than men. (IPPR, 2020)

Family status is another moderating factor, research has shown that in heterosexual couples, women are more in charge of housework than men, in this context, it is important to understand to what extent working from home arrangements amplify gender differences or lead couples to revisit their uneven distribution of housework.

II.II THE GENDER GAP DURING THE COVID19 OUTBREAK

II.II.1 Introduction at the concept of gender gap

Stereotypes, mentalities, culture, language, religion, and education are the main causes of the perpetuation of gender inequalities. Furthermore, women across the world take responsibilities for the take care of children and elderly, and household tasks, all of them being considered as unpaid work.

The problem arises when young adults try to balance work and family, and women end up carrying nearly all caring responsibilities. It has been studied that the 46% of women spend at least one hour a day at taking care of the family against the 25% of men. Considering women and men aged between 25-49, the 62% of women and 37% of men have daily care responsibilities. Furthermore, this difference becomes worse within couples with children with the 82% of women, and the 52% of men (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2017).

Gender inequality resulting in gender gaps is not a new phenomenon. Societies have been characterized by it for millennia, with varying degrees across countries and over time. However, with the movements linked to human rights, and women's movements in the middle of the 20th century, have contributed to increase a global attention to this form of inequalities (Fraser, 1999; Bunch, 2021; Seguino, 2016).

Women can be critical for innovation and long-term growth. Organizations where women hold 30% of leadership positions could add up to their net margins, according to recent research (Noland et al., 2016; Brooke-Marciniak, 2018; Woltzel et al., 2015). Women continue to face battles in leadership positions. The higher women climb, the more biases, challenges, and stereotypes they face (Brooke-Marciniak, 2018).

Gender is an important marker of social and economic stratification, and hence of exclusion (Seguino, 2016). Even if there is a global consensus that gender equality matters, policy makers continue to wrestle with the question why stark gender gaps persist (England et al., 1998; Magnusson, 2010; Cerise & Francavilla, 2012; Bohnet, 2016; Schuller, 2018).

Gender equality assumes that all human being, both men and women, are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles, or prejudices.

Gender refers to the array of socially constructed roles and relationships, personally traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power, and influence, that a society

ascribes to the sexes on a differential basis. Whereas biological sex is determined by genetic and anatomical characteristics, gender is an acquired identity that is learned, changes over time, and varies widely within and across cultures. Furthermore, gender is relational and refers not simply to women and men, but to the relationship between them. The unequal relationship between men and women often results in gender gaps.

Gender equality also means that different behaviours, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered valued and favoured equally. It does not mean that women and men must become the same, but that their rights, responsibilities, and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female (“The gender gap: past, present, and perspectives” – Review of international comparative management, 5th December 2018, Frank Elbergs, Ana-Maria Grigone).

In this context gender parity refers to contexts and situations in which an equal number of men and women hold positions in the private and public sector.

Schuller has tried to explain the reason why women are still lagging behind men although they possess a greater human capital in respect to men’s’. The first factor could be considered the discrimination faced by women in terms of earning a lower remuneration than men for the same working position, the second reason is to be considered structural, being absent or expensive childcare centres. There is also the psychological aspect, women often lack the self-confidence needed to apply for a certain job, even if when they are well qualified for it. On contrary, men often apply

even when they lack the official requirements (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Blau & Kahn, 2008). In fact, women had overtaken men and make up most of all university graduates in the OECD countries (Marçal, 2015).

Women usually lack the vertical connections; they know fewer people in higher level jobs who can help them with mentoring and information (Hewlett, 2002).

The last factor is about choice, they may prefer a better quality of life, as working life, by not opting for rising as high as they might, thus, not being subject to the strains and stresses linked to full-time work. Usually, they look for jobs in sectors that allow the possibility of working with people and preferring a lateral rather than a vertical career (Croson, & Uri, 2009; Schuller, 2018).

II.II.2 Gender Gap Indexes, some quantification of the phenomenon

Talent is one of the most important factors to ensure growth and competitiveness, and to build economies that are inclusive and dynamic equal opportunities should be ensured to everyone. If women and girls were not being integrated the global community loses skills, ideas, and perspectives, that are critical for addressing global challenges and harnessing new opportunities. No single measure could capture the whole picture, and there exist different indexes that try to explain the conceptualization of the gender gap.

There are several institutions that have tried to measure, monitor, and diagnose gender gaps over the time, examples are the Organisation for Economic

Cooperation and Development (OECD), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Economic Forum (WEF), and a recent institution called the European Institution for Gender Equality (EIGE). The concept of gender wage gap has been studied since the 70's by the OECD, and being considered as the difference between median earnings of men and women relative to median earnings of men on the basis of the information collected about full-time employees and self-employed ones. (OECD, 2018)

The European Institute for Gender Equality considers gaps that are to the detriment of either woman or men as being problematic at the same level. It is based on thirty-one indicators and assigns scores to European Union member countries from 1 to 100. The lowest score suggests the total inequality, while 100 represents the full equality in domains such as work, money, knowledge, time, power, and health. In relation to the first two aspects the indicators considered are for example the full-time employment rate, the duration of the working life, the career perspective index, and so on.

The World Economic Forum in 2006 started to publish the Global Gender Gap Report, and the utilized methodology has been maintained the same since the first publication assuring the possibility for a cross-country and time-series analysis (Hausmann et al., 2006; Lopez-Claros & Zahidi, 2005).

The Global Gender Gap Index is based on three basic concepts, how indicators were chosen, how the data is treated, and how the scale can be used. The index focuses

on measuring gaps rather than levels, it captures gaps in outcome variables rather than in input variables, and it ranks countries according to gender equality rather than on women's empowerment (World Economic Forum, 2018).

The index does not seek to set priorities for countries but, rather, to provide a comprehensive set of data and a clear method for tracking gaps on critical indicators so that countries may make decisions concerning their own economic, political, and cultural contexts. Furthermore, it suggests potential role models by highlighting those countries that are good at distributing resources more equitably between women and men, despite the overall level of available resources.

This index is composed by four sub-indices: Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Attainment, Health and Survival, and Political Empowerment.

The first sub-index contains three concepts, the participation gap, the remuneration gap, and the advancement gap.

The **Participation Gap** is analysed by looking at the difference between women and men in labour force participation rates. The remuneration gap is captured through a hard data indicator (ratio of estimated female-to-male earned income) and a qualitative indicator gathered through the World Economic Forum Annual Executive Opinion Survey that is the wage equality for similar work. And the advancement gap is obtained by the ratio of women to men among legislators,

senior officials, and managers, and the ratio of women to men among technical and professional workers.

The **Educational Attainment** captures the gap between women and men current access in the different educational levels (primary, secondary, and tertiary level).

The **Health and Survival Index** shows the difference between men and women in terms of sex ratio at birth, that is the representation of the phenomenon called “missing women” present in those countries that prefer having a son baby rather than a female one, and in terms of women and men healthy life expectancy. That is an estimate of the life duration for a woman considering the possibility of incurring in events of violence, malnutrition, and other factors.

The **Political Empowerment** shows the difference between men and women in the decision-making highest level of ministerial positions and parliamentary ones.

Being this index expressed for more than a decade, a first conclusion can be the fact that there is a current stagnation of progress in closing the economic gender gap. More in specific we can say that the global participation in the labour market has been decreasing for both genders, and it is exacerbated for women rather than for men. Furthermore, even though in absolute terms both women and men have faced an increase in wage earned, this trend has been steeper for male than female, suggesting that the growth in prosperity is not equitable distributed among men and women. Finally, we can also affirm the women share respect to men ones in senior

positions in the private and public sector is not going toward a equal representation, in fact, women hold only the 22% of senior managerial positions.

The Global Gender Gap Report of 2020 has reported that there are four Nordic countries in the top four positions, such as Iceland, Norway, Finland, and Sweden. Iceland is the country where progress towards gender parity is the most advanced, and it has closed the 88% of its gender gap, followed by Norway with the 84.2%. The four Nordic countries are followed by Nicaragua, New Zealand, and Ireland. Furthermore, this report provides a comprehensive overview of the current state and of the efforts and insights to close the global gender gap. Thanks to this index it is possible to understand which are the best countries and subjects in terms of practices adopted and to track the progresses of each country. For what concern the year 2020, the gender gap has closed slightly since the year before, however, it still requires 100 years to achieve the full parity. Furthermore, the report highlights the positive correlation between a country's gender gap and its economic performances, stressing that for remaining competitive and inclusive, countries should focus more on gender equality as a basis for human capital development.

II.II.3 The Gender Gap in occupational fields

Gender gap has been investigated in depth by both economical and sociological literature. For what concerns Italy, Biagetti and Scicchitano (2014) have demonstrated that the average gender wage gap is greater among managers rather

than among non-managers. Pigini and Staffolani (2019) pointed out that teleworkers have benefits in terms of a wage premium, above all when male and employed in high-level job positions. Furthermore, Angelici and Profeta (2020) in a randomized experiment among Italian workers, have demonstrated that the flexibility of working from home arrangements can reduce gender inequalities. To analyse the effectiveness of this finding we can recall Arulampalam et al., (2007) who have showed that among eleven European countries, there exist a glass ceiling effect in nine of them, and a sticky floor effect in Italy and Spain. A significant gender gap is also found along the Italian wage distribution which even increased over time (Mussida and Picchio, 2004). The first phenomenon refers to a situation in which a given group of people are kept at the bottom of the job scale. They often are pink collar workers as secretaries, nurses, or waitress. For glass ceiling we refer to the artificial discriminatory barrier which impedes the advancement of a certain group of people who already hold good jobs, usually in the middle management. The second situation describes a more educated and privileged women but, in both cases, they have low mobility and find themselves unable to better their situation. From a recent study, it has been emerged that the gender wage gap is higher for those occupation with a high level of working from home attitudes. WFH plays an important role in increasing existing gender gaps in wages. Furthermore, there have been found indications of both sticky floor and glass ceiling effects for employees with a high WFH attitude, and only a sticky floor effect for the group with a low

WFH attitude (“Will it be a shecession? The unintended influence of working from home on the gender wage gap related to the Covid-19 pandemic” – Luca Bonacini, Giovani Gallo, Sergio Scicchitano).

There is a positive relation between the different levels of working from home attitudes and the different values of the gender wage gap along the wage distribution. However, we should consider also that there are other characteristics to be considered too as age, marital status, occupational sectors. For what concerns that, it has been demonstrated that the level of WFH that seems to affect the estimated gender wage gap along the wage distribution is more likely to be found among older employees, than among youngers. Comparing not married female and male employees to married employees, the gender wage gap seems to be much smaller for the first group. Considering the private and public sectors, the gender wage gap seems to appear much lower among public workers than on private ones. This is because in the public context workers tend to experience a reduced bargaining power as well as a potential discrimination in the moment of hiring (Fournier and Koske, 2013). Thus, there is a positive relationship between the level of working from home attitude and the gender wage gap, however, it varies according to individual and job characteristics.

A lot of different economies show a limit in the access to technology for girls and women, and thus, to their ability to gain proficiency in its utilization. This results in a lower participation in the labour market and so in less opportunities to learn on

the job. In fact, it has been shown that once women do not possess mathematical and technological skills, there exist unconscious biases that influence other recognition perception of their capabilities. Given that, the occupational gender imbalances reflect on one hand the social expectations and role models that contribute

The evidence has suggested that the pandemic is likely to impact women's employment more than men's based on surveys in 129 countries. The main reason is that because of the social distancing imposed by governments, there is a new category of jobs that are not able to be done anymore, and they are linked to those jobs that need to be done in direct contact with other people such as those in accommodations, food services, retails, that are female-dominated occupations all around the world. The consequences related to the event of losing a job are current ones both also refers to the future perspectives of the worker, in terms of the destruction of the opportunities for advancement, the reduction of future income, and a higher difficulty in finding a new job position especially in case of the presence of a negative shock as it is the Covid19 pandemic (Brand, 2006).

II.II.4 Gender Gap during the Covid-19 pandemic: the unequal distribution of housework

There are continued gender gaps in the workplace and at home. At work, women get paid less and receive fewer promotion than men (Bolotnyy and Emanuel, 2018;

Frances et al., 2012, Ibarra et al., 2010), they are also underrepresented in corporate leadership positions (Acker, 2006; Cook and Glass, 2014; Glass and Cook, 2016).

At home, women spend more time on domestic tasks such as housework and childcare (Geist, 2010). Although these gender gaps might suggest lowered work productivity and job satisfaction in women compared to men, the literature documents little or no gender differences in these work-related outcomes (Aryee et al., 2005, Banerjee and Perucci, 2010, Bonte and Krabel, 2014; Robb and Watson, 2012; Roth et al., 2012; Westower, 2012).

This is arguably because women draw help from various sources to deal with housework and childcare without sacrificing their work productivity and job satisfaction, indeed, governments in many countries have initiated work-life balance programs to help women juggle work and family, narrowing gender gaps in job related outcome among working patterns.

With the outbreak of Covid19 pandemic, the gender gap would emerge among dual-career parents given the sudden increase in housework and childcare.

Lockdowns have brought all people working in non-essential jobs forced to stay home, while only a small percentage of employees in essential services to go to work. Professional working parents working from home would also have to take care of their children during the office hours.

Despite the co-presence of male and female at home, during the lockdown it has been shown an asymmetry in the housework division. For the 53% of the women

who have replied to the INAPP survey conducted in January 2021 among Italian workers, the housework amount has increased, while for the 34% of men it has been remained the same. It is possible to affirm that the housework shares between women and men, even in an obligatory context as the lockdown, have not led to stable effects.

Telecommuting can provide benefits to both employees and employers. The ability to work from home has been found to increase productivity (Bloom et al., 2015; Choudhury et al., 2020) and employee satisfaction, although it can influence feelings of isolation and loneliness (Bloom et al., 2015).

The effects of working from home are different in base of whether the worker is a man or a woman, and there is the presence of children or not. If on one side telecommuting practices have provided more flexibility, it also rose to more housework. Furthermore, because of the unavailability of domestic help previously offered by parents, grandparents for the children, and external subjects, couples have had to come up with the housework by themselves. The situation has been exacerbated in case of presence of children, due to the closure of schools, day care centres, and visit restrictions by nannies. Grose (2020) highlighted that parental burnout has been a common outcome arising from organizing the logistics and time commitment of home schooling and distance learning.

The reality has suggested that the newly created additional housework has fallen on women, and this is in line with the gender theory, that defines the family role as central to women's life and not on men's (Bem, 1993; Gutek et al., 1991).

It has been shown a greater childcare provided by mothers and fathers who have flexible work arrangements and the ability to work from home, in respect to parents with less flexible jobs (Alon et al., 2020). Despite that, fathers are less likely to increase their childcare and housework tasks when also the other partner is telecommuting during the pandemic. This reflects in an increasing gender gap in paid working hours, given the way men and women utilize their work flexibility.

Flexible work arrangements can facilitate traditional gender roles and reduce women's access to high-status jobs. The existence of family friendly policies, as for example the parental leave and the right to part-time work, on one side increase the women participation in the labour market, but they go against the women's advancement and increase of their pay (Blau and Kahn, 2013; Flabbi and Moro, 2012), because they are more used to apply for these kinds of solutions rather than men. Research has reported small even absent gender differences in work outcomes as the job satisfaction and work productivity, thus, the absence of a gender differential in the work outcomes means that women have been able to accomplish more tasks rather than men in the same amount of time, implying a sacrifice in term of leisure time. Furthermore, the outcome produced in terms of job satisfaction and work productivity has been related to the fact that women being forced to take care

of a higher share of housework and childcare, they have experienced a lower perceived work productivity and job satisfaction than men. After the lockdown, men have been more likely to come back to work in respect to women, both in the case of self-employment and employees. The main reason of the return for both males and females have regarded the legislation, and the specific requests of the employers. The phenomenon of the return to work, on one site has been influenced by the gender composition of the economic sectors, on the other one, it shows some elements related to the gender relationship and the individual choices that show the gender criticalities in the female productive participation. From a survey conducted by the INAPP (January 2021), it has been discovered that the 8% of the female workers, and the 15% of the self-employed women have affirmed that the return to work has been the result of an agreement with the partner. These women are mainly mothers that have an average yearly income lower than the partners.

The main reasons linked to this type of decision are organizational ones, the women work arrangement is more flexible than the partner one; economical ones, the women income is often lower than the partner one, thus, the women income loss is less severe than the one that would have been showed in the opposite situation; cultural ones, women are often more able to take care of the housework and childcare. The renounce by women to return work has a negative economic influence on the national income, in terms of underutilization or non-utilization of the available human capital. Thus, the gender assessment suggests not to

underestimate the gender dynamics inside the families and the women renounces to favour the work of the partner with the higher income, on contrary, the situation would be irreversible for the whole economic scenario, in terms of missing gross domestic product. It would necessary policies that sustain the equal opportunities and a more equitable income regime, that would be possible through measures linked to the burden sharing, so to a more equal gender contribution of the housework and childcare inside the family.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS FROM CICO DATASET

III.I. THE DATASET

III.I.1 Introduction to CICO dataset

The Italian Ministry of Labour and Social Policies and INPS, the national social security institute, since April 2013, have made available elementary data for the analysis and assessment of the evolution of the labor market. CICO, Integrated Sample of Mandatory Communications Information, utilized in this thesis as a basis of analysis, comes from a sample of employees and self-employed workers derived from INPS databases, and a sample of employees and para-subordinate workers.

The starting data shows observations related to work contracts that are active until the third semester of 2020 and the characteristics highlighted are:

- An identifier number for the employer,
- An identifier number for the employee,
- The start date of the work relationship,
- The year of birth of the employee,
- A number that identifies the gender of the employee (1 for males, and 2 for females),
- A number that identifies the region of birth of the employee,
- A number that identifies the citizenship of the employee,
- A number that identifies the title of education of the employee,
- A number that identifies the region of residence of the employee,

- A number that identifies the region of work of the employee,
- The code of the work sector of the employee,
- A number that identifies the contract typology,
- A number that identifies the type of working hours,
- The code of the professional qualification of the employee,
- The code of the national collective bargaining,
- The code of the facilitation if present,
- The end date of the relationship if ended,
- The reason of the end,
- The employee typology in base of the INPS classification,
- The expected monthly pay.

After a first query, from the initial dataset have been selected 4,844,184 observations. This data reply to the characteristics of being started or ended in 2019 or 2020. The 2019 has been considered as a benchmark in the analysis of the labour market trends of 2020, that is the year object of analysis being the one hit by the Covid19 pandemic. Both of them have been split in the two considered periods, the covid-crisis from the 9th March to the 4th May, and the post-covid from the 5th May to the end of the year. Being considered the 9th March as the beginning of the lockdown measures application in Italy, and the 5th May as the start of the slowdown of the same. The aim has been the one of understanding the main changes in terms of hiring, terminations, work arrangements, and wage income, for women and men

in the analysed period, trying to understand whether the Covid-19 pandemic has penalized women rather than men. Not all the variables have been considered, the analysis focuses on the contract typology, the type of working hours, the region of work, the educational attainment, the reason of termination, and the wage.

The software that has been utilized to manipulate this dataset is RStudio that works with an open-source license.

III.I.2 An explanation of the chosen variables

The contract typology

The CICO dataset suggests 50 different contract types, to simplify the analysis they have been grouped in four categories: permanent, temporary, placement contracts and, others. The first two categories include contracts related to the private sectors but also to the public one, the domestic work, the intermittent work, occupations through agencies, and in agriculture, while, placement contracts are referred mainly to internships contracts that are finalized to enable a person that is has not already experienced a work relation to enter in the market labour, and the least type is related to jobs in the show sector and those collaborations characterized by being continuative and coordinated (alias CoCoCo). The grouping has been done in base of the nature of the rights and duties of each work contracts, in fact, each contract typology suggests different treatments in terms of economic benefits, with the permanent contract the most protected form of work conditions. Indefinite period

contracts should describe the traditional work relationship and they do not have a deadline; thus, they guarantee higher work stability to workers. Fixed-term contracts, in the Italian legislation, imply a term that cannot exceed 12 months and they can be renewed at maximum 4 times. Those that have a duration higher than 12 months can be stipulated only under given circumstances as temporary and objective needs unrelated to ordinary activities, needs to replace other workers, needs related to temporary, significant, and non-programmable increases in ordinary activity. Apprenticeship contracts imply an initial training period at the end of which the two parties should agree upon the transformation of it in an indefinite contract. This typology can be applied only to individuals younger than 30 years old, there are different typologies of apprenticeship such as for example, apprenticeship for professional qualification, professionalizing apprenticeship, apprenticeship of high education and research.

The type of working hours

For what concern the work hours typology described in the dataset, they are: full-time, horizontal part-time, vertical part-time, mixed part-time, and not defined. Full-time contracts are often characterized for 40 hours per week, and it is the most common contract typology in Italy, while part-time contracts have a minimum of 16 hours per week, although the most common typologies show 20 or 30 hours per week. Part-time contracts can be of 3 types: horizontal, vertical, and mixed one; they differ in base of the distribution of working hours. In the first typology the

lower number of working hours is spread each day with a reduced daily timetable, the employee works every day with a reduced number of hours (usually 4 or 5 per day). The vertical part-time is characterized by a worker working only in specific days in the week with the same working hours of the full-time workers. A combination of the horizontal and vertical solutions is shown in the mixed part-time, that implies that a worker must work some days full-time and others with the reduced time. Despite the differences in working time, each solution implies the same worker rights in terms of remuneration and holidays; the remuneration is calculated in respect of the worked hours.

The region of work

In Italy there are twenty regions, the same division is described in the dataset, and they have been grouped in three common categories: North, Centre, and South. At these three categories, it has been added a fourth one that consider the abroad. The North is composed by: Valle d'Aosta, Liguria, Lombardia, Piemonte, Trentino-Alto Adige, Veneto, Friuli-Venezia-Giulia, and Emilia-Romagna.

The Centre is composed by: Toscana, Lazio, Marche, and Umbria.

The South and Isles: Abruzzo, Molise, Campania, Puglia, Basilicata, Calabria, Sicilia, and Sardegna.

This division is one of the most utilized due to the differences among the different areas in terms of infrastructures, employment rates, GDP per capita, and so on.

The educational attainment

As in the other countries, Italy has different level of education, and up to 16 years the school is mandatory, and in it often coincides with the second or third year of the high school. In this context, the educational attainment of the individuals observed in the dataset, has been divided in five categories: no title, middle school diploma, high school license (whether with university access or not), university degree, post university degree (as for example the doctorate, and the first level university master's degree).

The reason of termination

The different categories described in the dataset concerning the reason why the work relationship has been ended have been grouped in 4 classes, and they are: resignation (for just cause, during the probationary period, of mothers in protected period), dismissal (collective firings, for just cause, for justified reason objective and subjective), contract transformation, termination at the term, and others (failure to pass the probationary period, death, retirement).

III.II. THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

III.II.1 Introduction

As mentioned above, each year has been analysed according to the “crisis period” from the 9th of March and the 4th of May, and the “post-crisis period” characterized by the slowing of the restriction measures. The aim is to understand what has changed from an year to another because of the health and social emergency caused

by the spread of the pandemic. Firstly, there is the comparison between the year 2019 and the 2020 in relation to the crisis period for what concerns the contract initiations and then for the contract terminations, respectively trying to understand whether women or men have been more penalized by the emergency. Secondly, a similar analysis has been done for the post-covid period. A preliminary conclusion follows each of them to highlight findings.

III.II.2 Contract Initiations and Terminations during the “crisis period”- comparison between 2019 and 2020

Contract Initiations

Considering the Initiations related to the two years, it is observable that if we focus on the characteristics of the contract typology, on the 2020 the most common work contract solution has been the temporary one for both women and men, in fact the 60,05% of the male contract initiations and the 43,42% of the females' have seen this type of contract arrangement. Less common have been the other types, with permanent work conditions at the second place, and placement contracts and trainee ones being the last ones. Comparing this information with the ones of the 2019, it seems that the work stability has been affected by the pandemic in the 2020, because the previous year a half of men and women contract were permanent work ones. And temporary work contracts and placement ones were less common (*see table 6*). Looking at the distribution organised by relative terms, it emerges that there has

been a discrimination for male workers in respect to female ones, because considering the permanent work arrangements the referent characteristic has shifted from 51,67% to 32,50% for men, and from 52,43% to 49,03% for women (*see table 7*). Thus, the decrease of permanent work arrangements has been reflected mainly to men in respect to women. Maybe the fact that the 2020 has been signed by an increase in temporary work contracts have been related to somehow production peaks in some sectors, thus, organizations may have preferred to cover these types of increase with temporary solutions.

Going ahead the other characteristic that should be analysed is the typology of working hours typology. During the crisis period of the pandemic year the 71,37% of men have been hired on a full-time basis, showing higher numbers in respect to women that have been more characterized by full-time contract initiations for only the 45,74%. More common for the female workers have been the part-time solutions (horizontal, vertical, and mixed) that count for the 54,56% of their initiations. The predominance of this type of work solution may be related to organizational causes of the company or may be connected to the worker's preference in managing their work life with the duties related to their family and housework. However, comparing this data with the one of the precedent year, both genders have met an increase of full-time initiations, male full-time contracts have increased by 4,38 points and female ones of 5,28 (*see table 8 and table 9*).

Looking at the contract initiations distribution according to the territorial area, the North of Italy seems to be the one with the highest score of contract initiations for both genders, with the 2019 having higher percentages in respect to the pandemic year. In fact, the Northern regions in the 2020 seem to have lost almost the 9% of male contract initiations and the 6% of the female ones, a decrease that finds room also in the central area of the country for the 3% of the men and the 1% of women, in favour on contrary of the meridional regions that have gained in term of contract initiations. It means that in the pandemic year the southern regions have been favoured in terms of contract initiations and this has gone to be related to the 12% of men and the 7,51% of women (*see table 10 and table 11*).

Another important comparison is the one referred to the educational attainment, looking at people possessing no educational attainment there has been an increase for both genders respectively of almost 4% (men) and 10% (women), while middle school diploma contract initiations in 2020 have remained almost in line with the precedent year in the case of women, and in the case of men they suggest an increase of 2,53 percentage points. A higher variation can be found in the case of high school graduated, with men losing the 7,59% of contract initiations and women showing an even higher loss of 12,32 percentage points. A different scenario is found for people possessing a university degree, in fact while men has met an increase of 0,88%, women have found a positive thrust of 2,77%. We can say that the occupational organization reflects the educational composition of the country. In

fact, the European average of graduated people is 32,8% while in our country only the 20% of the population between the 25- and 64-years old possess a university degree. The same is for people with the college diploma, in fact the European average is 79,0% while the Italian one is 62,9%; however, women are more likely to have a university diploma in respect to men but not in subjects as mathematics, physics, and engineering (https://www.ilsole24ore.com/art/cresce-gap-dell-italia-201percento-laureati-contro-328percento-ue-AEWn3co?refresh_ce=1). Most contract initiations for both genders and both years are concentrated in relation to workers who do not possess any title or a middle school diploma. Instead, in relation to the university degree level and post university ones, both years mark higher values for women than for men, above all in the 2020. Thus, the pandemic year has created a sort of discrimination for those workers in the middle of the educational system, suggesting that who have been more hurt are who possess a high school license (*see table 12 and table 13*).

From the analysis of the dataset, it has emerged that the average wage of contract initiations during the covid crisis in 2020 has been equal to 1.292,35 euros for men, while 1.001,75 for women, suggesting a decrease for men in respect to the previous year of almost 90 euros, and an increase for women of 24 euros (*see table 14*).

Contract Terminations

Before talking about the contract terminations analysis in the two periods, it is important to remember that during the 2020, the Italian government has decided to introduce measures to avoid firings. The measure has been introduced with the “Decreto Cura Italia” issued the 17th of March of 2020 and has been referred to all the companies and was meant to contrast collective and objective justified reason firings. The measure has been renewed at each expiration many times during the 2020.

Contract Terminations in the 2019 have been mainly related to temporary works, in particular to the 74,00% of men and the 72,85% of women. Despite the 2020 shows lower absolute values, looking at the relative values is observable that temporary workers have been hurt more in respect to the previous year. Men with temporary work contracts have increased terminations for almost 8 percentage points and women for the 4,50%. Despite it seems there is a discrimination for male in terms of temporary contract terminations, the ratio of the terminations of the permanent work contract decreases for men, while it increases for women by 2,54 percentage points (*see table 15 and table 16*).

Most contract terminations of 2020 have been related to full-time contracts especially for men, the same had been in 2019, this reflects the fact that as mentioned before they are the most common contract solutions. Looking at the variation related to female workers in the 2020, it is observable that the full-time workers have met lower contract terminations in respect to the precedent year. On

contrary, female part-time workers contract terminations have shifted from 37,8% to 44,67%. Thus, while in the 2020, men have scored values that are in line with the precedent year, discrimination is found for female part-time workers that show the highest variation in terms of contract terminations (*see table 17 and table 18*). The North of Italy has been marked by the highest number of contract terminations for both genders in both years, however, female workers have been hit more severely than men because their variation counts for 6,29%, while men's one for 2,75% only. Luckier have been workers at the centre of the Centre of Italy, in fact both genders suggest lower contract terminations. While Southern female workers terminations have met a little decrease in the two compared years, male workers ones have increased of 1 percentage point (*see table 19 and table 20*). Looking at the contract terminations by educational attainment is observable that who have suffered most in the 2020 are those who do not possess any title or a middle school diploma, being women or men. While, high school license workers have met lower contract terminations, in fact, men have shifted from 27,89% to 23,54% and women from 39,79% to 34,37%. Workers possessing a university degree or a post university one show similar patterns in the two years (*see table 21 and table 22*). The majority of contract terminations have regarded termination at the term for both genders and this is in line with the data of the precedent year, at the second place there are resignation and then dismissal. Contract transformations show higher values in respect to the precedent year for both women and men. Terminations at

the term have increased in the case of male workers and decreased for women. Despite that, women have increased dismissal terminations, while the men choice of spontaneously abandoning the workplace has decreased (*see table 23 and table 24*). Looking at the average wage of the contract terminations it is possible to notice that contract terminations in 2020 have regarded on average jobs that were paid less in respect to the previous year, in fact the average wage of the contract terminations in 2019 was 1.377,30 euros for men and 1.119,98 for women, while the following year was 1.298,23 euros and 1.041,80 respectively (*see table 25*).

Results

To summarize the findings connected to the comparison of the crisis period from the 9th of March and the 4th of May of the 2019 and the 2020, we could say that the number of contract initiations has not changed so much in the pandemic year, in respect to the previous one, it has slightly increased for both genders, furthermore that the contract initiations of the pandemic year have been characterized by being mainly temporary ones for both genders especially in the case of male workers, that have encountered a higher loss in terms of permanent work contracts. Thus, the incidence of the Covid-19 is not strictly related to the absolute values, whether to the composition of the contract typology especially for men. The working hours typology of the two years show the same patterns, with the full-time solution being the most common characteristic for men and the part-time ones the one for women.

In the case of male workers, the covid-19 pandemic has increased their participation in the work market through full-time contracts, while, for women their participation through part-time contracts. Thus, the coronavirus has confirmed the fact that men are more likely to work on a full-time basis, while women may prefer less work hours. Moreover, contract initiations suggest positive variations in the pandemic year for the South and the Isles, at the expense of the Northern and Central regions that have lost in terms of numerosity. Despite that, the North of Italy remains at the first place for the contract initiations in the two analysed years. It may seem that the pandemic has increased the possibility of finding a job in the southern regions and decreased it in the Northern regions. Workers possessing no educational title increase, as it is in the case of middle school male workers, while high school workers find a decrease in terms of contract initiations above all in the case of women, that on contrary meet positive variations if possess a university degree. The discrimination created by the pandemic is related to high school graduated workers, in favour of less educated workers and high educated ones. Thus, in the case we desire to describe the average profile of the contract initiations, we could say that men are hired with a temporary solution, working full-time, on the North of Italy, possessing a middle school diploma and gaining on average 1.292 euros. While women also tend to work on a temporary basis but are more likely to work part-time but with a higher educational level despite the average wage level that is inferior in respect to men's ones by 300 euros.

On the site of the contract terminations, they have been less common in the 2020 in respect to the 2019 also thank of the intervention of the government to avoid the negative repercussions given by firings, however, terminations at the term have had their predominance and in fact, they are most of the cause of the terminations in the pandemic year. Furthermore, we could say that the covid-19 pandemic has not increased the contract terminations in absolute terms, but it has exacerbated them in the case of temporary work contracts and above all in the case of men, because the positive variation in terms of terminations at the term has been more related to male workers in respect to women, that on contrary have increased their likelihood to close their work relationship through dismissal. Furthermore, they have been related to temporary and full-time contracts in the case of males and part-time contracts for female workers and this goes to confirm the fact that women are also more likely to be hired through a part-time basis in respect to a full-time one. The northern regions of Italy remain at the first place for having the higher number of contract terminations, favouring the other areas of the country that count for lower terminations except for the South that show a little increase in the case of male workers. For both genders the average wage of the terminations in the pandemic year is lower in respect to the precedent year. In the case the wage reflects the educational attainment of the worker, this relates to the fact that no title and middle school workers have met most of the contract terminations, with more educated ones scoring the lower ones. Suggesting that the pandemic has created a sort of

discrimination for less educated workers who have met the most of the contract terminations.

III.II.3 Contract Initiations and Terminations during the “post-crisis period”- comparison between 2019 and 2020

Contract Initiations

Analysing the contract initiations in the 2020 in the period that follows the covid-crisis, thus, during the weeks between the 5th of May and the 31st of October, it is possible to notice a predominance of temporary work, with the male component of workforce being more interested in respect to the female one. Comparing this information with the numbers showed in the same period in the preceding year, it seems that this type of work contract has found a much more room in the year of the pandemic. In fact, reasoning with the relative values, it has found that they have more than doubled, men's have shifted from 35,54% to 72,61% and women's from 30,18% to 67,52%. On contrary, permanent work contracts have met a drastic drop, male permanent work contracts have lost almost 29 and female ones more than 21 percentage points. For what concerns the other contract typology, it may be interesting to notice that also placement contracts have decreased in the 2020 in respect to the previous year (*see table 26 and table 27*). Not only the dataset suggests a higher employment rate for the pandemic year and mostly connected to temporary work contracts, but it suggests also that these contract initiations have

regarded full-time solutions. In fact, the pandemic year have confirmed that the most common working hour typology for men is the full-time one and compared to the precedent year, it shows an increase of 2,10 percentage points. Also, female full-time workers have met an increase in numerosity, and in respect to their male partners, the positive variation is even higher, and it counts for 7,10 percentage points. The positive thrust in the full-time contracts has had a reflection on the part-time solutions, and it has been more common in the case of female workers than on male ones, the first have shifted from 51,93% to 41,99% and male part-time initiations have passed from 29% to 25,23%. In both cases considering all the possible solutions connected to the part-time work contract: horizontal, vertical, and mixed (*see table 28 and table 29*).

Looking at the territorial area of the contract initiation distribution is observable that the Northern and Central regions have met a decrease in terms of contract initiations for both genders, going in favour of the Southern regions and the Isles that have met contract initiations for almost the 10% in the case of men, and 9% in the case of women (*see table 30 and table 31*).

The positive thrust in terms of contract initiations for the 2020 has reflected the educational attainment composition in the following way comparing the data of the 2019, an increase in terms of no title workers in the case of male ones, shifting from the 23,49% to the 32,72%, while no title female contract initiations have remained almost the same. Middle school diploma workers have increased in the case of both

genders for almost the 4% in both cases, while high school license contract initiations have met a substantial decrease of 8.31% in the case of male despite female scores a decrease of only 2,53%. Male contract initiations decrease also in the case of university graduates, and the loss is for 4%, while women's one is for only 1,15 percentage points. It emerges that, despite the women distribution in the 2020 is almost in line with the one of the precedent year, with the exception of the increase of middle school diploma workers at the expense of the high school graduated ones, male initiations distribution suggests a different scenario. It seems there is a sort of discrimination for high school and university graduated workers, leaving space on contrary to less educated men (*see table 32 and table 33*). The average wage of the contract initiations in the pandemic year has been almost in line with the one of the previous year, however, despite that there has been a little decrease equal to 7 euros for women's because their average wage has shifted from 983.43 to 976.81 euros, men's one has passed from 1,284.40 euros to 1,230.71, thus, it has been distinguished by a little increase (*see table 34*).

Contract Terminations

Thankful of the decision of the Italian government, there has been the introduction of the firing freeze, thus the post-covid period it has been distinguished by a lower number of contract terminations in respect to the previous year. Looking at the contract terminations distribution by contract typology it is possible to notice that

as in the reference year, the most common piece of the population who has met a termination is the one hired with a temporary contract, and secondly, permanent workers. Temporary worker terminations have increased of 5,18% in the case of male workers and of 3,58% in the case of women. On contrary, male permanent worker terminations have decreased by 6,70 and female ones of 4,85 percentage points. Suggesting that the pandemic year has created a sort of discrimination for temporary workers, especially if men (*see table 35 and table 36*). Full-time contract terminations have remained almost in line in the two years, with a little decrease in the case of male workers, that in fact have shifted from 67,67% to 65,72%, leading to an increase of the terminations in the case of part-time solutions. The women distribution of the contract terminations based on the working hours typology shows similar patterns in the two years (*see table 37 and table 38*). Northern regions of the country suggest lower contract terminations in the post-crisis period, and both genders have benefited of that, in fact male terminations have decreased by 3,62 and female ones of 3,10 percentage points. A different situation is found in the case of the central and southern regions, in which the contract terminations have increased in the case of both genders. Despite that, the northern regions remain the ones with the highest score of terminations (*see table 39 and table 40*). For what concerns the educational attainment it is possible to notice that combining together the data of the 2019 and 2020 there are no such big differences, male terminations are more common in the case they do not an educational title, or they possess a

middle school diploma, while in the case of female workers, they have been more likely to encounter a termination in respect to the male component of the workforce, if possess a high school diploma or a university degree (*see table 41 and table 42*). Going to investigate the reason why there have been contract terminations it is noticeable that the most of them are related to termination at the term, and as it was in the 2019, even if for little variation, women have been more likely to meet a termination at the term in respect to men. This finding relates to the data of the terminations by contract typology, as mentioned above, most of the contract terminations have been temporary work contracts. Resignations have been more pronounced for males than for female workers, however, the 2020 counts lower numbers in respect to the previous year. Dismissal have decreased too in the pandemic year, but if for men they have diminished for 4,54 percentage points, women's ones have decreased for only the 2,92% (*see table 43 and table 44*). The average wage of the contract terminations in the 2020 is a little bit lower than the one of the previous years for both genders, in fact the women's one has shifted from 1.096,23 to 1.064,62, while men has met a decrease of almost 14 euros because the 2019 suggested 1.330,26 and the pandemic year 1.316,69 euros (*see table 45*).

Results

The predominance of contract initiations is related to temporary work contracts especially for men, at the expense of permanent work contracts. In this case, in

respect to the crisis period, the absolute values of the contract initiations are lower in respect to the precedent year, thus, not only there is a difference in the composition of the contract initiations but also in the numerosity of them. Furthermore, both genders have faced an increase for temporary work arrangements and a decrease of permanent ones. It seems that the covid-19 pandemic has led to a discrimination in respect to work contract stability, being the permanent contracts more common in respect to the other ones. Full-time based jobs show positive variation in respect to part-time ones, and this difference finds more room for women more than for men. Despite the North of Italy suggests being at the first place for contract initiations, the area of the country that shows the higher positive variation is the South of Italy for both genders. Moreover, the pandemic year goes in favour of less educated men, suggesting a discrimination for more educated ones, while women initiations do not seem to be influenced by their educational attainment. Despite that, the female component of the workforce presents a little increase in terms of average wage, while the male one a little increase. In the same period, fewer permanent contract terminations have regarded both genders, at the expense of temporary work contracts; in fact, recalling the reason for termination is observable that termination at the term has increased in the pandemic year, in favour of other reasons such as resignation and dismissal. As mentioned above, the North of Italy is the area with most contract initiations, but it is also the one with most of the contract terminations, however, in respect to the 2019, the 2020 shows

lower contract terminations, linked to the fact that the Centre and the South have met higher ones. The educational attainment suggests that male terminations are referred to middle and high school diploma workers, while female ones to high school and university graduated ones. We could say that the covid-19 pandemic has led to a discrimination for less educated men and high educated women, and moreover, for both genders there is a decrease of the average wage.

CONCLUSIONS

The macroeconomic effects of the pandemic in the Italian scenario are related to a high variation of the GDP, with a strict decrease in the second semester of the 2020 and a significant increase in the third one. The employment level also has been influenced by the pandemic, and this work has tried to reply to the question who has suffered most by the virus phenomenon. The shutdown of the economic activities has affected those sectors that have not been consider essentials, thus consequently they have been closed and Italy has been marked by several closure of the economic activities. Furthermore, there are increased also not seeking workers and job leavers, that are people who do not even try to search for a job and that voluntarily leave their occupation. The Italian government has intervened through measures such as the firing freeze and the regulation of telework practices to avoid severe repercussions for the economic agents. As a direct consequence to the closure of schools and the imposed social distancing, housework and childcare have needed to be remodulated and redistributed in the house, this has influenced the organization of the workforce and it has led to psychological effects as for example the burden effect. Through the elaboration of the data of the CICO dataset, it has found that in the crisis-period between the 9th March to the 4th of May, discrimination is found on male workers who has increased their likelihood to being hired through temporary work contracts in respect to permanent ones, it is found also in the Northern regions that show a lower positive variation in terms of contract

initiations in respect to the other regions of the country, and it is found on male higher educated workers that have been less likely to find a job. Terminations in that period have decreased, but the pandemic has exacerbated the termination at term, and this has been found above all for male workers in respect to female ones. Even though high educated workers have been discriminated in the contract initiations, the less educated ones have been the ones with the highest contract terminations. Considering the information of the post-crisis period that goes from the 5th May to the 31 October, contract initiations have been lower in the pandemic year in respect to the precedent year, temporary work arrangements have been more common suggesting a discrimination for the permanent work contracts for both genders, with a higher distribution in the case of full-time jobs and in the South of Italy in respect to the precedent year; discrimination is found also in the case of more educated men, while in the case of women the educational attainment seems of not producing prejudice. The covid-19 pandemic has increased the negative impact in terms of terminations for temporary work contracts being the termination at term the highest one, for workers in the North of Italy, less educated men, and high educated women.

To conclude we could say that it is not easy to understand at priori who has suffered most by the Covid-19 pandemic, whether women or men, because there are psychological and economical indicators that are considered in the study, and both

should be taken under attention to better understand the consequences of the pandemic in a gender perspective.

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APPENDIXES

| | | GDP | | | | | | | |
|-----------|--|-------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---|---------|---------|---------|
| | | In respect to the previous semester | | | | In respect to the same trimester of the previous year | | | |
| | | T4-2019 | T1-2020 | T2-2020 | T3-2020 | T4-2019 | T1-2020 | T2-2020 | T3-2020 |
| EURO zone | | 0,10 | -3,70 | -11,70 | 12,50 | 1,00 | -3,20 | -14,70 | -4,30 |
| Italy | | -0,30 | -5,50 | -13,00 | 15,90 | 0,10 | -5,60 | -18,00 | -5,00 |
| Germany | | 0,00 | -1,90 | -9,80 | 8,50 | 0,40 | -2,10 | -11,20 | -4,00 |
| France | | -0,20 | -5,90 | -13,80 | 18,70 | 0,80 | -5,70 | -18,90 | -3,90 |
| Spain | | 0,40 | -5,20 | -17,80 | 16,70 | 1,70 | -4,20 | -21,50 | -8,70 |

TABLE 1. Eurozone and main EU country GDP (*Source: Eurostat, Quarterly national accounts*)

| | | EMPLOYED | | | | | | | |
|-----------|--|-------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---|---------|---------|---------|
| | | In respect to the previous semester | | | | In respect to the same trimester of the previous year | | | |
| | | T4-2019 | T1-2020 | T2-2020 | T3-2020 | T4-2019 | T1-2020 | T2-2020 | T3-2020 |
| EURO zone | | 0,20 | -0,30 | -3,00 | 1,00 | 1,10 | 0,40 | -3,10 | -2,30 |
| Italy | | -0,40 | -0,50 | -2,40 | 0,90 | 0,50 | -0,10 | -3,70 | -2,40 |
| Germany | | 0,10 | 0,00 | -1,40 | -0,10 | 0,60 | 0,30 | -1,30 | -1,40 |
| France | | 0,20 | -0,30 | -2,90 | 1,30 | 1,10 | 0,50 | -3,30 | -2,60 |
| Spain | | 0,70 | -1,00 | -7,50 | 3,10 | 2,10 | 0,20 | -7,60 | -5,00 |

TABLE 2. Eurozone and main EU country employment levels (*Source: Eurostat, Quarterly national accounts*)

| | | WORKING HOURS | | | | | | | |
|-----------|--|-------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---|---------|---------|---------|
| | | In respect to the previous semester | | | | In respect to the same trimester of the previous year | | | |
| | | T4-2019 | T1-2020 | T2-2020 | T3-2020 | T4-2019 | T1-2020 | T2-2020 | T3-2020 |
| EURO zone | | 0,00 | -3,80 | -13,60 | 14,80 | 0,60 | -3,40 | -17,20 | -4,50 |
| Italy | | -0,70 | -7,70 | -15,10 | 21,00 | 0,10 | -7,40 | -22,10 | -5,20 |
| Germany | | -0,40 | -1,60 | -7,20 | 5,40 | -0,30 | -1,60 | -8,90 | -4,00 |
| France | | 0,00 | -4,30 | -17,10 | 20,60 | 0,80 | -3,10 | -20,30 | -4,30 |
| Spain | | 0,60 | -4,50 | -21,70 | 24,70 | 1,80 | -4,30 | -24,70 | -6,50 |

TABLE 3. Eurozone and main EU country working hours (*Source: Eurostat, Quarterly national accounts*)

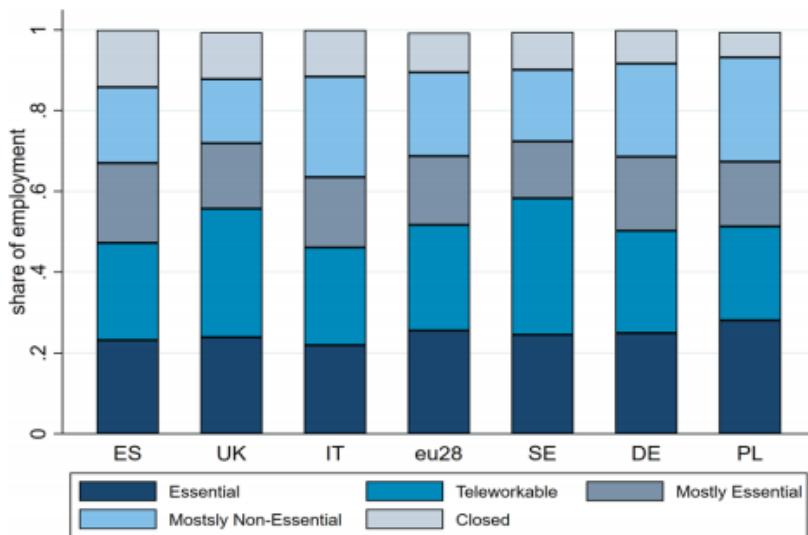


FIGURE 1: Employment distribution across sector categories and country (in %)

| TIME | 2019-Q4 | | 2020-Q1 | | 2020-Q2 | | 2020-Q3 | |
|--------------------------------------|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|
| | female | male | female | male | female | male | female | male |
| Euro area - 19 countries (from 2015) | 3.213 | 2.475 | 3.639 | 2.922 | 4.904 | 3.926 | 3.844 | 3.114 |
| Belgium | 51 | 57 | 53 | 58 | 79 | 79 | 72 | 64 |
| Germany | 258 | 227 | 585 | 531 | 627 | 551 | 492 | 495 |
| Ireland | 56 | 53 | 53 | 53 | 115 | 83 | 71 | 67 |
| Spain | 485 | 268 | 511 | 310 | 884 | 606 | 678 | 440 |
| France | 397 | 368 | 395 | 386 | 582 | 536 | 429 | 426 |
| Italy | 1.616 | 1.147 | 1.628 | 1.203 | 1.966 | 1.522 | 1.642 | 1.190 |
| Netherlands | 102 | 108 | 107 | 112 | 143 | 141 | 119 | 118 |
| Austria | 54 | 56 | 74 | 68 | 116 | 111 | 66 | 86 |
| United Kingdom | 255 | 281 | 238 | 307 | 370 | 388 | 355 | 366 |

TABLE 4. Not seeking people in the main European Countries (from 2019-Q4 to 2020Q3),

(Source: Eurostat - <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/bookmark/4c3f2150-b564-434fb1bb-d6b0c75e2dd0?lang=en>)

| TIME | 2019-Q4 | | 2020-Q1 | | 2020-Q2 | | 2020-Q3 | |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | female | male | female | male | female | male | female | male |
| European Union - 27 countries (from 2020) | 2.062,9 | 2.056,2 | 2.090,8 | 2.122,4 | 3.158,0 | 3.104,5 | 1.993,6 | 1.877,1 |
| Belgium | 41,3 | 41,1 | 52,2 | 40,3 | 61,0 | 53,0 | 42,7 | 34,8 |
| Ireland | 16,6 | 16,3 | 24,4 | 20,1 | 66,0 | 54,3 | 10,9 | 13,3 |
| Spain | 516,5 | 535,8 | 605,6 | 551,8 | 831,3 | 793,2 | 377,1 | 482,3 |
| France | 275,1 | 274,8 | 319,0 | 249,7 | 351,0 | 379,2 | 254,5 | 234,7 |
| Italy | 354,2 | 368,2 | 388,0 | 368,2 | 419,3 | 447,4 | 277,1 | 332,9 |
| Netherlands | 11,7 | 13,5 | 12,4 | 11,3 | 15,8 | 18,0 | 14,1 | 11,8 |
| Austria | 55,1 | 51,8 | 65,1 | 66,0 | 94,3 | 113,1 | 42,7 | 57,5 |
| United Kingdom | 204,8 | 160,0 | 194,7 | 201,8 | 176,3 | 208,9 | 219,9 | 216,6 |

TABLE 5. Job Leavers in the main European Countries (from 2019-Q4 to 2020Q3), (Source: Eurostat - <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/bookmark/4c3f2150-b564-434f-b1bb-d6b0c75e2dd0?lang=en>)

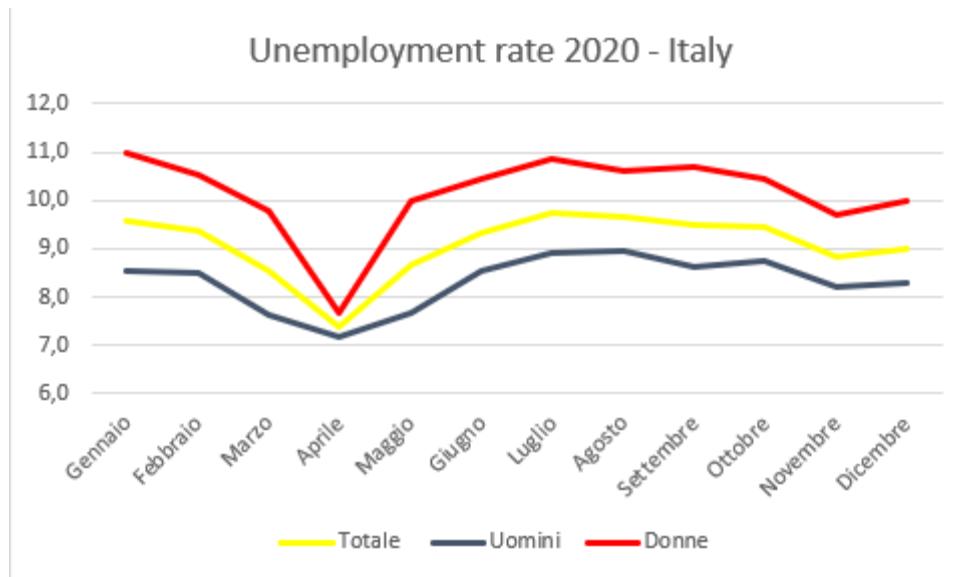


FIGURE 2 Unemployment rate 2020 - Italy, Source: Serie Storiche mensili, ISTAT

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| PERMANENT WORK | 12.423 | 8.859 | 7.939 | 8.666 |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 8.020 | 5.339 | 14.672 | 7.674 |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 3.344 | 2.429 | 1.181 | 700 |
| OTHERS | 257 | 269 | 639 | 635 |
| Total | 24.044 | 16.896 | 24.431 | 17.675 |

TABLE 6 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Contract typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| PERMANENT WORK | 51,67% | 52,43% | 32,50% | 49,03% |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 33,36% | 31,60% | 60,05% | 43,42% |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 13,91% | 14,38% | 4,83% | 3,96% |
| OTHERS | 1,07% | 1,59% | 2,62% | 3,59% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 7 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Contract typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| <i>Working hours typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| FULL TIME | 16.108 | 6.836 | 17.436 | 8.085 |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 6.160 | 8.172 | 5.063 | 8.069 |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 332 | 314 | 297 | 211 |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 622 | 804 | 541 | 481 |
| NOT DEFINED | 822 | 770 | 1.094 | 829 |
| Total | 24.044 | 16.896 | 24.431 | 17.675 |

TABLE 8 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Working hours typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| <i>Working hours typology</i> | 9th March - 4th May | | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| FULL TIME | 66,99% | 40,46% | 71,37% | 45,74% |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 25,62% | 48,37% | 20,72% | 45,65% |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 1,38% | 1,86% | 1,22% | 1,19% |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 2,59% | 4,76% | 2,21% | 2,72% |
| NOT DEFINED | 3,42% | 4,56% | 4,48% | 4,69% |
| <i>Total</i> | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 9 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Working hours typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| <i>Territorial area</i> | 9th March - 4th May | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NORTH | 12.783 | 9.072 | 10.853 | 8.404 |
| CENTRE | 5.230 | 4.016 | 4.430 | 3.955 |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 6.017 | 3.807 | 9.139 | 5.313 |
| ABROAD | 14 | 1 | 9 | 3 |
| <i>Total</i> | 24.044 | 16.896 | 24.431 | 17.675 |

TABLE 10 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Territorial Area, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| <i>Territorial area</i> | 9th March - 4th May | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NORTH | 53,17% | 53,69% | 44,42% | 47,55% |
| CENTRE | 21,75% | 23,77% | 18,13% | 22,38% |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 25,02% | 22,53% | 37,41% | 30,06% |
| ABROAD | 0,06% | 0,01% | 0,04% | 0,02% |
| <i>Total</i> | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 11 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Territorial Area, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| Educational Attainment | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| NO TITLE | 5.764 | 4.526 | 6.842 | 6.472 |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 8.119 | 3.431 | 8.869 | 3.431 |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 7.729 | 6.116 | 6.000 | 4.221 |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 2.228 | 2.640 | 2.480 | 3.253 |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 204 | 183 | 240 | 298 |
| <i>Total</i> | 24.044 | 16.896 | 24.431 | 17.675 |

TABLE 12 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Educational Attainment, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Educational Attainment | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| NO TITLE | 23,97% | 26,79% | 28,01% | 36,62% |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 33,77% | 20,31% | 36,30% | 19,41% |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 32,15% | 36,20% | 24,56% | 23,88% |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 9,27% | 15,63% | 10,15% | 18,40% |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 0,85% | 1,08% | 0,98% | 1,69% |
| <i>Total</i> | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 13 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Educational Attainment, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|---------------------|------------|----------|------------|------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| <i>Average wage</i> | 1.380,87 € | 977,24 € | 1.292,35 € | 1.001,75 € |

TABLE 14 Average wage of Contract Initiations, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| PERMANENT WORK | 21.731 | 15.793 | 10.348 | 11.576 |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 90.422 | 66.473 | 66.184 | 45.022 |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 3.020 | 2.038 | 1.384 | 1.069 |
| OTHERS | 7.029 | 6.945 | 2.958 | 638 |
| Total | 122.202 | 91.249 | 80.874 | 58.305 |

TABLE 15 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Contract Typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| PERMANENT WORK | 17,78% | 17,31% | 12,80% | 19,85% |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 73,99% | 72,85% | 81,84% | 77,22% |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 2,47% | 2,23% | 1,71% | 1,83% |
| OTHERS | 5,75% | 7,61% | 3,66% | 1,09% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 16 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Contract Typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| <i>Working hours typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| FULL TIME | 83.311 | 46.154 | 54.597 | 24.186 |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 22.449 | 27.480 | 15.645 | 21.801 |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 2.265 | 2.834 | 1.200 | 1.638 |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 3.308 | 3.515 | 2.177 | 2.609 |
| NOT DEFINED | 10.869 | 11.266 | 7.255 | 8.071 |
| Total | 122.202 | 91.249 | 80.874 | 58.305 |

TABLE 17 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Working Hours Typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| Working hours typology | male | female | male | female |
| FULL TIME | 68,17% | 50,58% | 67,51% | 41,48% |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 18,37% | 30,12% | 19,34% | 37,39% |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 1,85% | 3,11% | 1,48% | 2,81% |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 2,71% | 3,85% | 2,69% | 4,47% |
| NOT DEFINED | 8,89% | 12,35% | 8,97% | 13,84% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 18 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Working Hours Typology, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|---------------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| Territorial area | male | female | male | female |
| NORTH | 51.930 | 40.135 | 36.592 | 29.310 |
| CENTRE | 28.075 | 24.187 | 15.583 | 12.706 |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 42.121 | 26.910 | 28.671 | 16.282 |
| ABROAD | 76 | 17 | 28 | 7 |
| Total | 122.202 | 91.249 | 80.874 | 58.305 |

TABLE 19 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Territorial Area, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 9th March - 4th May | | | | |
|---------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| Territorial area | male | female | male | female |
| NORTH | 42,50% | 43,98% | 45,25% | 50,27% |
| CENTRE | 22,97% | 26,51% | 19,27% | 21,79% |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 34,47% | 29,49% | 35,45% | 27,93% |
| ABROAD | 0,06% | 0,02% | 0,03% | 0,01% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 20 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Territorial Area, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

9th March - 4th May

| Educational Attainment | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|-------------------------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NO TITLE | 34.903 | 20.583 | 25.253 | 15.429 |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 45.794 | 21.327 | 31.844 | 14.724 |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 34.085 | 36.307 | 19.034 | 20.039 |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 6.259 | 11.917 | 4.148 | 7.391 |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 1.161 | 1.115 | 595 | 722 |
| Total | 122.202 | 91.249 | 80.874 | 58.305 |

TABLE 21 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Educational Attainment, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

9th March - 4th May

| Educational Attainment | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|-------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NO TITLE | 28,56% | 22,56% | 31,23% | 26,46% |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 37,47% | 23,37% | 39,37% | 25,25% |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 27,89% | 39,79% | 23,54% | 34,37% |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 5,12% | 13,06% | 5,13% | 12,68% |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 0,95% | 1,22% | 0,74% | 1,24% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 22 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Educational Attainment, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

9th March - 4th May

| Reason for termination | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|-------------------------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| RESIGNATION | 23.009 | 14.194 | 9.261 | 7.423 |
| DISMISSAL | 11.098 | 7.695 | 4.747 | 5.439 |
| CONTRACT TRANSFORMATION | 5.207 | 2.200 | 6.679 | 4.126 |
| TERMINATION AT THE TERM | 73.394 | 60.569 | 53.214 | 35.250 |
| OTHERS | 9.494 | 6.591 | 6.973 | 6.067 |
| Total | 122.202 | 91.249 | 80.874 | 58.305 |

TABLE 23 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Reason for Termination, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| <i>Reason for termination</i> | 9th March - 4th May | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| RESIGNATION | 18,83% | 15,56% | 11,45% | 12,73% |
| DISMISSAL | 9,08% | 8,43% | 5,87% | 9,33% |
| CONTRACT TRANSFORMATION | 4,26% | 2,41% | 8,26% | 7,08% |
| TERMINATION AT THE TERM | 60,06% | 66,38% | 65,80% | 60,46% |
| OTHERS | 7,77% | 7,22% | 8,62% | 10,41% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 24 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Reason for Termination, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| | 9th March - 4th May | | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| Average wage | 1.377,30 € | 1.119,98 € | 1.298,23 € | 1.041,80 € |

TABLE 25 Average wage of Contract Terminations, during the crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020

| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| PERMANENT WORK | 39.744 | 36.828 | 35.831 | 35.041 |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 28.800 | 19.975 | 129.275 | 96.693 |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 11.178 | 7.905 | 8.694 | 5.984 |
| OTHERS | 1.307 | 1.478 | 4.250 | 5.479 |
| Total | 81.029 | 66.186 | 178.050 | 143.197 |

TABLE 26 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Contract Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 5th May - 31st October | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| PERMANENT WORK | 49,05% | 55,64% | 20,12% | 24,47% |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 35,54% | 30,18% | 72,61% | 67,52% |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 13,80% | 11,94% | 4,88% | 4,18% |
| OTHERS | 1,61% | 2,23% | 2,39% | 3,83% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 27 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Contract Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| 5th May - 31st October | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|
| <i>Working hours typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| FULL TIME | 54.270 | 28.456 | 123.001 | 71.727 |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 20.180 | 29.863 | 37.744 | 50.854 |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 1.136 | 1.267 | 2.934 | 4.042 |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 2.189 | 3.242 | 4.242 | 5.236 |
| NOT DEFINED | 3.253 | 3.358 | 10.129 | 11.338 |
| Total | 81.028 | 66.186 | 178.050 | 143.197 |

TABLE 28 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Working hours Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 5th May - 31st October | | | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| <i>Working hours typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| FULL TIME | 66,98% | 42,99% | 69,08% | 50,09% |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 24,90% | 45,12% | 21,20% | 35,51% |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 1,40% | 1,91% | 1,65% | 2,82% |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 2,70% | 4,90% | 2,38% | 3,66% |
| NOT DEFINED | 4,01% | 5,07% | 5,69% | 7,92% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 29 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Working hours Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

5th May - 31st October

| <i>Territorial area</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NORTH | 42.479 | 34.977 | 80.016 | 67.174 |
| CENTRE | 17.046 | 15.091 | 33.127 | 28.883 |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 21.463 | 16.114 | 64.865 | 47.120 |
| ABROAD | 40 | 4 | 42 | 20 |
| <i>Total</i> | 81.028 | 66.186 | 178.050 | 143.197 |

TABLE 30 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Territorial Area, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

5th May - 31st October

| <i>Territorial area</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NORTH | 52,43% | 52,85% | 44,94% | 46,91% |
| CENTRE | 21,04% | 22,80% | 18,61% | 20,17% |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 26,49% | 24,35% | 36,43% | 32,91% |
| ABROAD | 0,05% | 0,01% | 0,02% | 0,01% |
| <i>Total</i> | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 31 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Territorial Area, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

5th May - 31st October

| <i>Educational Attainment</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NO TITLE | 19.037 | 16.010 | 58.266 | 34.396 |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 26.594 | 12.441 | 64.156 | 32.766 |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 25.639 | 23.508 | 41.543 | 47.240 |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 9.105 | 13.489 | 13.001 | 27.535 |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 653 | 738 | 1.084 | 1.260 |
| <i>Total</i> | 81.028 | 66.186 | 178.050 | 143.197 |

TABLE 32 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Educational Attainment, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| 5th May - 31st October | | | | |
|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Educational Attainment | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| NO TITLE | 23,49% | 24,19% | 32,72% | 24,02% |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 32,82% | 18,80% | 36,03% | 22,88% |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 31,64% | 35,52% | 23,33% | 32,99% |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 11,24% | 20,38% | 7,30% | 19,23% |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 0,81% | 1,12% | 0,61% | 0,88% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 33 Distribution of Contract Initiations by Educational Attainment, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| 5th May - 31st October | | | | |
|------------------------|------------|----------|------------|----------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| Average wage | 1.284,40 € | 983,43 € | 1.230,71 € | 976,81 € |

TABLE 34 Average wage of Contract Initiations, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020

| 5th May - 31st October | | | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| PERMANENT WORK | 161.054 | 138.557 | 41.339 | 41.689 |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 605.223 | 443.926 | 252.024 | 180.285 |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 23.150 | 16.010 | 7.048 | 4.538 |
| OTHERS | 27.936 | 33.612 | 17.690 | 17.737 |
| Total | 817.363 | 632.105 | 318.101 | 244.249 |

TABLE 35 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Contract Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

5th May - 31st October

| <i>Contract Typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| PERMANENT WORK | 19,70% | 21,92% | 13,00% | 17,07% |
| TEMPORARY WORK | 74,05% | 70,23% | 79,23% | 73,81% |
| PLACEMENT CONTRACTS | 2,83% | 2,53% | 2,22% | 1,86% |
| OTHERS | 3,42% | 5,32% | 5,56% | 7,26% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 36 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Contract Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

5th May - 31st October

| <i>Working hours typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| FULL TIME | 553.122 | 287.982 | 209.067 | 111.634 |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 164.946 | 222.979 | 64.724 | 83.745 |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 14.748 | 22.948 | 6.556 | 9.887 |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 22.911 | 28.213 | 9.100 | 10.681 |
| NOT DEFINED | 61.636 | 69.983 | 28.654 | 28.302 |
| Total | 817.363 | 632.105 | 318.101 | 244.249 |

TABLE 37 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Working Hours Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

5th May - 31st October

| <i>Working hours typology</i> | 2019 | | 2020 | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| FULL TIME | 67,67% | 45,56% | 65,72% | 45,70% |
| HORIZONTAL PART-TIME | 20,18% | 35,28% | 20,35% | 34,29% |
| VERTICAL PART-TIME | 1,80% | 3,63% | 2,06% | 4,05% |
| MIXED PART-TIME | 2,80% | 4,46% | 2,86% | 4,37% |
| NOT DEFINED | 7,54% | 11,07% | 9,01% | 11,59% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 38 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Working Hours Typology, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| <i>Territorial area</i> | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NORTH | 355.253 | 296.232 | 126.737 | 106.895 |
| CENTRE | 158.242 | 136.574 | 65.323 | 54.707 |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 303.485 | 199.192 | 125.936 | 82.607 |
| ABROAD | 383 | 107 | 105 | 40 |
| Total | 817.363 | 632.105 | 318.101 | 244.249 |

TABLE 39 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Territorial Area, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| <i>Territorial area</i> | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NORTH | 43,46% | 46,86% | 39,84% | 43,76% |
| CENTRE | 19,36% | 21,61% | 20,54% | 22,40% |
| SOUTH AND ISLES | 37,13% | 31,51% | 39,59% | 33,82% |
| ABROAD | 0,05% | 0,02% | 0,03% | 0,02% |
| Total | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 40 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Territorial Area, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| <i>Educational Attainment</i> | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| NO TITLE | 256.463 | 149.250 | 97.483 | 57.139 |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 304.651 | 157.952 | 115.381 | 60.367 |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 196.267 | 215.132 | 80.699 | 81.130 |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 54.752 | 104.205 | 21.422 | 42.229 |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 5.230 | 5.566 | 3.116 | 3.384 |
| Total | 817.363 | 632.105 | 318.101 | 244.249 |

TABLE 41 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Educational Attainment, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| Educational Attainment | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| NO TITLE | 31,38% | 23,61% | 30,65% | 23,39% |
| MIDDLE SCHOOL DIPLOMA | 37,27% | 24,99% | 36,27% | 24,72% |
| HIGH SCHOOL LICENSE | 24,01% | 34,03% | 25,37% | 33,22% |
| UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 6,70% | 16,49% | 6,73% | 17,29% |
| POST UNIVERSITY DEGREE | 0,64% | 0,88% | 0,98% | 1,39% |
| <i>Total</i> | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 42 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Educational Attainment, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| <i>Reason for termination</i> | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| RESIGNATION | 159.455 | 109.799 | 50.961 | 34.496 |
| DISMISSAL | 74.862 | 59.760 | 14.686 | 15.940 |
| CONTRACT TRANSFORMATION | 39.501 | 17.200 | 17.044 | 7.362 |
| TERMINATION AT THE TERM | 474.164 | 388.374 | 210.623 | 166.957 |
| OTHERS | 69.381 | 56.972 | 24.787 | 19.494 |
| <i>Total</i> | 817.363 | 632.105 | 318.101 | 244.249 |

TABLE 43 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Reason of Termination, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, absolute values

| <i>Reason for termination</i> | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | male | female | male | female |
| RESIGNATION | 19,51% | 17,37% | 16,02% | 14,12% |
| DISMISSAL | 9,16% | 9,45% | 4,62% | 6,53% |
| CONTRACT TRANSFORMATION | 4,83% | 2,72% | 5,36% | 3,01% |
| TERMINATION AT THE TERM | 58,01% | 61,44% | 66,21% | 68,36% |
| OTHERS | 8,49% | 9,01% | 7,79% | 7,98% |
| <i>Total</i> | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% | 100,00% |

TABLE 44 Distribution of Contract Terminations by Reason of Termination, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020, relative values

| | 5th May - 31st October | | | |
|---------------------|------------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|
| | 2019 | | 2020 | |
| | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> | <i>male</i> | <i>female</i> |
| Average wage | 1.330,26 € | 1.096,23 € | 1.316,69 € | 1.064,62 € |

TABLE 45 Average wage of Contract Terminations, during the post-crisis period, comparison between 2019 and 2020