Short name	Commuting time – Share of employed person (3c3-1)
Name	Share of employed persons with long commuting time between work and home (one way)
Dimension and sub-dimension	3. Working hours and work-life balance a. Working hours b. Working time arrangements c. Work-life balance
Measurement objectives	Being employed not only involves the time spent at the workplace, but may also be associated with considerable time spent commuting. The indicator provides an estimate for the share of employed persons with long commuting time (30 minutes or more) to get from home to the place of work.
Formula	Employed persons with fixed place of work and usual one-way commuting time 30 minutes or more, divided by Employed persons with fixed place of work and usual one-way commuting time more than zero.
Concepts and definitions	Employed persons (age 15+): Employment is defined according to the resolution of the 19th ICLS in 2013 (see glossary).
	Usual one way commuting time: Time spent between home and work one way when no productive activity for the job is performed. 'Usual' is defined as the commuting time at least half the days worked in a reference period of four weeks preceding the end of the reference week.
Recommended data source(s)	A household-based Labour Force Survey (LFS) is the recommended data source, as it permits one to estimate the number of employed persons and it allows disaggregation by economic activity and demographic variables such as sex, age group, etc.  In the absence of Labour Force Survey records, data from Social Surveys could be used or through a mobility survey or other household survey. In particular, Time Use Surveys can be a suitable data source, as they usually provide detailed information on commuting time.
Recommended metadata	For this indicator, it is recommended that, as a minimum, metadata on the source (periodicity, breaks in series, etc.), reference period and population coverage are provided. Breakdowns of the indicator by component groups such as sex, industries, occupational group, and status in employment.
Recommended disaggregation	<ul> <li>Region</li> <li>Degree of urbanisation</li> <li>Economic activity (ISIC)</li> <li>Occupation (ISCO)</li> <li>Status in employment according to the ICSE-93 (particularly self-employed workers vs. employees)</li> <li>Full-time vs. part-time workers</li> <li>Sex</li> <li>Mode of transport</li> </ul>
Interpretation guidelines	For people with jobs outside of the home, travel to and from the workplace can extend the working day and shorten leisure and family time.

Short name	Commuting time – Share of employed person (3c3-1)
	Furthermore, commuting time between work and home can also be stressful, tiring and expensive.
	If possible, studying the commuting time of people with changing work addresses (e.g., construction workers, salespeople) would also be valuable, as they face similar issues in their commute as people with a fixed workplace. However, trying to determine a usual commuting time may prove difficult.
	Ideally, questions on what an employed person is doing during their commute will allow for greater assessment of quality of work. For example, is the person performing productive work while commuting (e.g., working on a computer while on a train; making business calls while in a car). However, even if this cannot be identified, the importance of the collecting time spent commuting on assessing work-life balance and overall health remains.
Relation to other indicators	It would be informative to analyse this indicator together with data on GDP, labour force participation rate and unemployment rate.  The indicator should also be analysed together with indicators of the Dimension 3 (Working time and work-life balance).
International comparisons	For each indicator to be comparable across time and countries, it is crucial that countries use similar concepts and methods in their calculation.
Recommended calculation in the EU-LFS or other international surveys	The EU-LFS starting to cover commuting time from 2019. A variable on commuting time is included in the ad-hoc module 2019 on work organization and working time arrangements.  The variables can be calculated also from EWCS.
	ONS, 2014: Commuting and Personal Well-being, 2014. Available at: <a href="http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/well-being/measuring-national-well-being/commuting-and-personal-well-being2014/art-commuting-and-personal-well-being.html">http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/well-being/measuring-national-well-being/commuting-national-well-being/commuting-and-personal-well-being.html</a>
Further readings	Roberts, J, R. Hodgson, and P. Dolan, 2009: It's driving her mad: gender differences in the effects of commuting on psychological well-being. In: Journal of Health Economics 30, pp. 1064-76.
	Stutzer, A and B. Frey, B., 2008: Stress that doesn't pay: the commuting paradox. In. Scandinavian Journal of Economics 110, pp. 339-366.