

▶▶ HOUSEHOLDS, WORK AND FLEXIBILITY
HWF Survey Comparative Report
(Volume 1: Cross-country overview and reference tables)

▶▶ PART ONE

**CROSS-
COUNTRY
OVERVIEW**

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▶ PART ONE

CROSS-COUNTRY OVERVIEW

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Chapter 1.

Introductory notes to the HWF Survey

1.1. METHODOLOGICAL REMARKS

1.1.1. Aims of the study

The aim was to look at how different kinds of work are combined within households and how social and labour market policies in different countries affect this. With debates about flexibility taking place in many European countries, the project considered what effects different policies regarding flexible employment might have for the daily lives of people and families. An important aspect of this is the gendered division of work both inside and outside of the home and the combinations of paid and unpaid work.

The different countries represented in the project provide contrasting examples of different approaches to flexibility and also the possibility of and East/West comparison.

1.1.2. Understanding flexibility

The project is based upon a sample survey of people in each country who are asked about their own experiences of different kinds of employment along with those of other members of their households. The questionnaire considers paid as well as unpaid work and the strategies through which households approach these different kinds of work. In this project we have not made any a

priori assumptions about flexibility (as is often done in comparative studies of flexibilisation) but rather we have looked at the actual tasks and activities that people do in order to understand how flexible they in fact are. That is why there are many questions about sources of income, types of work and so on, assuming that people may have more than one or even several sources of income and additional jobs. The questionnaire therefore asks in considerable detail about these different kinds of work.

However, we should be aware of the fact that flexibility means different things in different countries (see State of the Art Literature Review edited by C. Wallace and A. Chvorostov, 2002). Therefore we have asked respondents whether they work a regular working schedule (assuming that this differs between countries and different kinds of workers) and if so what kind of schedule this is. We then explore variations and deviations from this commonly understood working schedule. Hence, our definition of flexibility is more comprehensive than that usually understood by the term. Asking about income sources, asking about working schedules and asking about differ-

ent additional jobs were all ways of assessing flexibility.

By flexibility, we understand flexibility of time, place and conditions. Flexibility of time means the different hours and days that it is possible to work and here we contrast regular and irregular hours. Flexibility of place means the actual place where the work is carried out, which could be at home, at a work place, abroad or always changing. Flexibility of conditions means the kinds of contracts which people might hold and these could be fixed term, paid by the day, long term or permanent. The project tries to consider the impact of these different kinds of flexibility upon the individual worker and upon the households in which they live.

1.1.3. Combining different kinds of work

In this project, we take a broad view of work. It should include a variety of different kinds of paid work including casual and occasional work, work at home, work abroad and work in the workplace. It should also include unpaid work, such as that done for civil society organisations, for neighbours or friends and as part of the management of daily life in the household. Such varieties of work are important in all European societies and should be considered in combination. However, in Central and Eastern European societies it was common to grow vegetables and keep animals for food or for exchanging with others as part of the self-provisioning informal economy. By considering how all these different kinds of work are combined, we can better understand the implications of different employment regimes for households.

The project considers the role of different household members in getting the work done and how these might interact. Of course, some people will be living alone, but most people in Europe live in some sort of household and therefore we need to consider the gender and generational divisions of labour between them.

1.1.4. Combining Family and Work

We were particularly interested in whether flexibility could help or hinder the integration of family and work. Therefore, there are a number of questions about not just the respondent, but about the various different household members (however, only one person was questioned in each household, therefore the questions about the other family members are necessarily more brief and more vague). In addition, there are a number of questions about how work and family are combined for the respondent and if there are sources of conflict or agreement in this respect. In some countries there were also a range of questions about the decision-making patterns within households.

The research elucidates not only the patterns of work and household but also the attitudes that respondents may hold towards the time, place and conditions of their work on the one hand and towards the combination of household and work on the other. In particular, we are interested in whether flexible work engenders stress or greater opportunities for individuals - is it positive or negative in its outcomes?

1.1.5. Policies, households and work

The research considers the role of labour market and social policies in different countries in order to understand what impact they might have on flexibility, households and work. The countries chosen for this comparative study exhibit different forms of flexibility and a range of different policies associated with it. In particular, we were concerned to compare the new accession countries of Eastern and Central Europe with Western European countries that are more established members of the European Union. The different histories, economies and forms of social organisation in these different contexts may help us to understand factors that could lead to positive forms of flexibility and ones that might lead to more negative outcomes for households and individuals. Thus, the project seeks to combine the

macro-level trends and policies with their impact at a micro level on households and individuals.

1.1.6. Implications

The fragmentation of labour markets has been a feature of all contemporary societies in both Eastern and Western Europe. Flexibility is often seen as a necessary and desirable element of change, especially in the post-communist countries and is even included in packages of reform. Flexibility can mean the opportunity to work different hours in different places but it also associated with declining employment conditions and the erosion of security. In some countries it is associated with developments in the informal economy. But what is the impact of such changes on households and individuals? Are they prepared to change? Do they want to change? What impact does it have on male and female family members, on young and old family members and on the way that household work gets done? Does increasing flexibility lead to less preparedness to do voluntary work as people find themselves with less time and security, so that civil society is actually undermined by such developments? Or is civil society strengthened by such developments as people have more time to devote to other activities? Does flexibility mean that people now have to do three different jobs to earn their living where in the past they might have done only one? Who controls flexible employment and how are terms and conditions negotiated between contractors, employers and employees? These are still open questions and ones that can be investigated by comparing different countries and different groups of workers within countries.

An important theme emerging in contemporary societies is the how households combine work with family life and with their different responsibilities to one another. With large numbers of women working in the formal labour market as well as in the domestic sphere, flexibility offers the possibility of more options for combining roles on the one hand, but also the possibility of more stress as partners run from one job to another and their sense of security is eroded. The

extent to which this can be a positive challenge or a negative outcome of labour market and gender-work changes are explored in the project.

1.1.7. Methods of research

The main research instrument was a representative sample survey, carried out between January and June 2001 in each of the partner countries. From this survey, it was possible to consider the actual behaviour of households in the target countries and how far these are shaped by different policies and regulations. The survey considers the activities of all household members, although that of the main respondent was considered in most detail. It asked about a variety of types of work: domestic, informal, casual and voluntary, as well as about formal employment. The survey also considered the attitudes and values of the respondents with regard to work. This survey was analysed and the results disseminated first at a national level in the respective countries and then the results were analysed in comparative perspective to provide an international overview.

A second research instrument was the collection of labour markets statistics and regulations for each country in order to understand the context within which the survey is set. This included demographic data, labour market trends and labour market regulations and social policies for the family. The results were first collected and analysed at a national level and then on a comparative basis.

The third main research instrument was the collection of data about the flexibilisation debate in each country in order to understand the cultural and political context of the data described above and in order to ascertain the different meanings of flexibilisation. The report can be found under Wallace and Chvorostov 2002.

The whole project is presented in a series of papers at both national level and at a comparative level and in the construction of a database of results, which can be disseminated through national data archives. Results have been posted as they become available on the homepage in the form of working papers, publications and brief summaries of main findings.

1.2. TECHNICAL OVERVIEW OF THE HWF CROSS-COUNTRY SURVEY

Whilst there is considerable information for Western European countries, the information for Eastern European countries is much poorer. Data there have only recently been gathered in such a way as to permit international comparison and are even then are not always available to researchers. Even in Western Europe, there are wide variations in what material is available for different countries. For this reason, we have constructed a questionnaire for a representative sample survey of at least 1000 individuals in each country and this was carried out in Spring 2001.

The survey is based upon a randomly selected sample of people according to standard international conventions. As we can see from the chart below, the response rate varied from between 20 per cent and 93 per cent, but in all cases this was apparently normal for that country. It was not possible to undertake face to face surveys in all countries, so in the Netherlands a telephone interview was carried out instead, while in Sweden we have applied a postal method.

Table 1. Basic data about the HWF Survey

	General sample	Conventional sample (*)	Method of Interview	Response rate	Date of the survey
The United Kingdom	945	941	Personal face-to-face	48%	February 19 – May 8, 2001
The Netherlands	1,007	1,007	Telephone	22%	March 12 – April 9, 2001
Sweden	2,292	1,284	Postal method and telephone	69%	February 19 – May 8, 2001
Slovenia	1,008	839	Personal face-to-face	65%	April 20 – June 12, 2001
Czech Republic	1,556	1,556	Personal face-to-face	50%	January 03–10, 2001
Hungary	1,166	1,166	Personal face-to-face	65%	January 31 – February 07, 2001
Romania	1,864	1,524	Personal face-to-face	85%	February 1 – March 5, 2001
Bulgaria	1,806	1,806	Personal face-to-face	87%	February 20 – March 06, 2001
Total:	11,644	10,123			

Note: (*) Conventional sample includes only persons aged between 18 and 65. For Sweden, the sample does not include IT workers.
Source: HWF Project, 2003

1.3. THE HWF SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

1.3.1. General information

The questionnaire was designed to cover the way in which the activities of different household members combine, including both paid and unpaid work, work in the formal and in the black or grey economy (a very important field in some countries). It was also designed to look at attitudes to flexibility as well as behaviour. For this reason, we have been concerned to look at all forms of work, including domestic work, child care, work in the informal economy, self provisioning and additional casual and occasional jobs in addition to various kinds of regular employ-

ment. Each of these issues has very different connotations in the different parts of Europe.

1.3.2. Section one: Individual respondents

The main respondent was the individual. The first part of the questionnaire related to the individual responses and in order to try to understand the combination of different types of economic activity, we asked in some detail about various sources of income. There were then some more detailed questions about the main economic activity, including the kinds of hours worked, places worked and working conditions. There

were some questions designed to elucidate not just under what conditions a person is working, but also the reasons for that particular set of conditions and whether it is chosen or forced upon them. Finally, respondents were asked about how happy they are with these arrangements and if they would want to change them. Similar, although less detailed questions, were asked about the second, third and fourth economic activity of the respondent. The assumption is that the flexible work would more likely be found in the second, third or fourth activity and that this might be combined with a more stable first activity.

1.3.3. Section two: Households members

The second part of the questionnaire used a series of grids to ask about other members of the household. Here the information collected is less detailed, because it is collected from only one person in the household. The composition of the household formed the topic of one grid. The different kinds of work undertaken by different household members were the subject of the second grid. The third grid looked at a variety of different domestic tasks and asked respondents which household member, or who outside of the household carries out these tasks. The next grid considered voluntary and unpaid work for others outside of the household by different family members, with the intention to get some measure of social capital in different countries. It is assumed that whereas formal social capital in the sense of contribution to voluntary organisations may be low in ECE countries, informal help for others might nevertheless be well developed. The next grid attempted to look at how key household decisions were made and who had the most important decision making role in this respect. Was it the key wage earner?

Or was it the most senior person on the household? In this part of the questionnaire we were able to explore the extent to which different contributions to the household may result in different balances of power within the household.

1.3.4. Section three: Work values

The third section of the questionnaire was devoted to work values. It considered the extent to which people were happy about their various economic activities and the extent to which these might impinge upon or help family life. Finally, we looked at sources of discord and tension in the area of work and household with particular respect to flexibility. This part of the questionnaire enabled us to better understand the extent to which flexibility may be a help or a hindrance to the organisation of family life and the extent to which it lead to conflict.

1.3.5. Section four: Potential for flexibility

The next section of the questionnaire considered the potential for flexibility, by asking under what conditions people would move house, move jobs or retrain. Another table considered job changes since 1989 and this would be particularly relevant in ECE countries. This gave some indication of how flexible the respondent was until now.

1.3.6. Section five: Economic resources of households

The final questions in the questionnaire measured the economic resources of the household, including not only income but also other resources such as consumer goods, land and domestic animals owned, access to telecommunications and so on. Again we have taken a rather comprehensive view of what is meant by household resources.

1.4. EXPLANATORY NOTE TO THE CROSS-COUNTRY OVERVIEW OF THE MAIN OUTCOMES OF THE HWF SURVEY

The overview of the main outcomes of the HWF Survey is organized around 15 main themes and research topics. This analysis is illustrated with a selection of charts and is based mainly on the information derived from the HWF Survey Reference Tables which are published in the second part of this volume. However, not all questions

from the HWF Survey Questionnaire are covered in this volume.

Much more detailed analysis of HWF Survey is undertaken by the consortium who presented their studies in the second volume of this report (HWF Survey comparative reports: Thematic reports).

Themes covered in this overview are:

-
1. Income sources (individuals and households)
 2. Economic situation of the household
 3. Employment status (full- and part-time employment, fixed term contract, self-employment, etc.)
 4. Accumulation of incomes
 5. Job stability
 6. Flexibility of time (desired working time, variations in working hours, etc.)
 7. Place of work (local workplaces, working at home and varying workplaces)
 8. Control over flexibility (working hours, flexible schedule, place of work, etc.)
 9. Contract flexibility (types and duration of contracts)
 10. Potential flexibility (readiness to change jobs and their conditions)
 11. Job changes in the last ten years (dynamics, patterns and reasons of job changes)
 12. Division of labour in households
 13. Family-Work Conflicts
 14. Sources of conflict in the household
-

Chapter 2. Income Sources and Accumulation of Incomes

2.1. INDIVIDUALS: A VARIETY OF INCOME SOURCES

To begin with, we looked at different sources of income that the individual might have had in the last month; assuming that they might have many sources of income, we asked people to identify as many sources as necessary, without any restriction. Looking at income from a wage or salary (**Table 13-1** to **Table 13-13**, summarized in the Figure 1) we can see that this was most important in the Western countries as a source of income. In particular, in Sweden 71 per cent of people gave this as their source and this was followed by the Netherlands (70 per cent) the UK (60 per cent). In ECE countries a wage or salary was not that important as an income source: in Slovenia this was given by 60 per cent of respondents, in the Czech Republic 54 per cent, in Hungary 49 per cent. In the more economically disadvantaged countries of Bulgaria and Romania, a wage or salary constituted less frequent income source with only 46 per cent of respondents in Bulgaria and 38 per cent in Romania. In half of the countries (the Netherlands, Sweden, Slovenia and the Czech Republic) the wage or salary was a more frequent income source for men. In the other half (UK, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria) it was a more frequent choice of female respondents. In each country, the wage

or salary was the more important for people in the younger and middle ages than among older or younger age cohorts and it was also much more important for the people with higher levels of education. Generally speaking, salary from an income was more important for those with higher levels of education and higher incomes. A wage or salary was a more frequent choice in the urban areas in most countries but in the UK and the Netherlands, this was the case in more rural settlements, reflecting different patterns of settlement in those countries, with more affluent people moving to the countryside.

Self employment was much more important in the Czech Republic than it was anywhere else at 14 per cent, followed by the UK (9 per cent) the Netherlands (9 per cent), Sweden (8 per cent), Hungary (8 per cent) and then the other ECE countries: Bulgaria, Slovenia and Romania. This finding is different to the Labour Force Survey, where there are a very high number of self-employed Romanians. This discrepancy can be explained by the problems of how to classify the large number of subsistence farmers in the rural areas of Romania who have no fixed employment. They can be described as self-employed, but in

fact they represent a form of under-employment. Other analysis of Romania shows that the self-employed can be divided between the genuine entrepreneurs and those who just do all sorts of activities to get by and represent more a marginalized group.

Self-employment was generally about twice as high among males as among females, and it was most common in the middle-aged groups. It was more common among those with better education, especially tertiary education. In most countries, self-employment makes a big difference to income: the self-employed had much higher incomes in general and this was especially the case in ECE countries.

Income from additional jobs was most important in Slovenia, where 11 per cent of respondents earned such income and in the Czech Republic, where 10 per cent of people earned such an income. This was followed by Romania, Sweden, Bulgaria, Hungary and the Netherlands. In the UK only 1.8 per cent of respondents had an additional income.

There were important gender differences between countries in this respect. In the UK and the Netherlands, where such income was least important, it was earned mainly by women. In the remaining countries it was mainly men who had additional casual income sources, especially in ECE countries. There were differences according to age as well. In Sweden, Slovenia, the Czech Republic and Romania it was more likely to be young people who had such additional income sources. In other countries it was the group in the middle age band. However, in most countries it was those in the higher levels of the educational hierarchy for whom this source of income was important, except Bulgaria and the Netherlands.

Income from agricultural production was really only important in Romania and Bulgaria (9 per cent and 6 per cent) followed by Slovenia at 4 per cent. In other countries this source was negligible. In Romania and in Bulgaria, the collapse of the formal economy has forced many people to rely more on their own produce to survive. In the

ECE countries, this source of income was more important than in the West.

Reliance on income from pensions was highest in ECE countries in general with Romania having the highest numbers (23 per cent) and Slovenia second with (16 per cent). The high numbers of pensioners in ECE countries reflects hidden unemployment, since this was a response to labour market restructuring but also the tradition of early retirement in those countries.

Unemployment benefits were most important as a source of income for households in Bulgaria and Romania where unemployment was also very high, but this was followed by the Czech Republic and the UK. However, the percentage receiving unemployment benefits in some countries (8 per cent in Bulgaria, 6 per cent in Romania) was lower than the percentage describing themselves as unemployed. Hence we find in these countries that the unregistered unemployed in Romania amounted to 11 per cent and the unregistered unemployed in Bulgaria amounted to 27 per cent (see **Table 13-6**). However, we should note that many of the registered as well as the unregistered unemployed were in fact working in different activities. For example, in Romania, 5 per cent were self-declared unregistered unemployed, but 1 per cent is also declaring work in agriculture or casual work, so of these 4 per cent satisfy the definition of unemployed. Of the registered unemployed, there were 6 per cent, but 2 per cent are also stated that they were working in agriculture or casual work, so only 4 per cent fully satisfy the definition of unemployed. Thus, according to the Romanian calculations, there are actually 8 per cent unemployed who are seeking jobs and do not work.

In Sweden, there were the highest share of people living from grants or loans (9 per cent) and this was followed by Slovenia (4 per cent). In other countries, the numbers having this income sources was negligible (**Table 13-7**). In western EU countries, people were more likely to receive state support whilst in ECE countries support was more likely to come from within the family, re-

flecting the lack of state support on the one hand and traditions of inter-generational solidarity on the other. Other social transfers as an income source (**Table 13-8**) went mostly to women because in most countries they included child allowances (although this is not the case in Romania where child benefit is paid to the family as a whole). In the United Kingdom, 25 per cent of people received such allowances and they were very important for low-income groups and this was the case also the Netherlands, where 19 per cent of people received such allowances. In Sweden, such allowances were concentrated more among the middle and upper income groups and 19 per cent of the sample received such allowances. The Czech Republic was also above the average with about one quarter of the sample receiving such allowances, but they were most spread around the population, with all income groups receiving such allowances. In Bulgaria, Romania and Hungary, where far fewer people received such allowances (only 5 per cent in Bulgaria and 2 per cent in Romania) there was a tendency for this to be important for lower income groups. In those three countries such allowances were more important in rural areas¹. This effect of social transfers seem to reflect the social policy regimes of the countries in question (see Wallace 2003)².

Income from investments were most important in the UK, where 9 per cent of respondents had money from this source, followed by the Czech Republic with 4 per cent and the Netherlands with 4 per cent. Slovenia and Sweden were next with 2 per cent. Such incomes were more important for men and more important for older aged groups. This income was more important for better-educated people and for those with higher incomes. In the UK and the Netherlands it was those in rural areas, which were most likely to have such investments, whilst in other countries it was those in urban areas, revealing the different patterns of urban and rural settlement in this context. The UK and the Netherlands have mainly urbanised populations where wealthier people

can afford to move out to the countryside. In other countries, the rural population is more often poorer and having less choices.

Profit from a business is most important in the Czech Republic (5 per cent) with the very high number of self-employed there and in Slovenia (2 per cent). In Romania and the Netherlands it was also rather important (2 per cent).

Private transfers such as alimony and payments from parents were important in the Czech Republic (6 per cent), Romania (5 per cent) and Slovenia (3 per cent). They were received mainly by the younger age group, implying that these were transfers from parents to children. They were most important among the lower income groups, confirming this assumption. They were also more common in urban areas.

“Other” incomes were received by only 4 per cent of respondents.

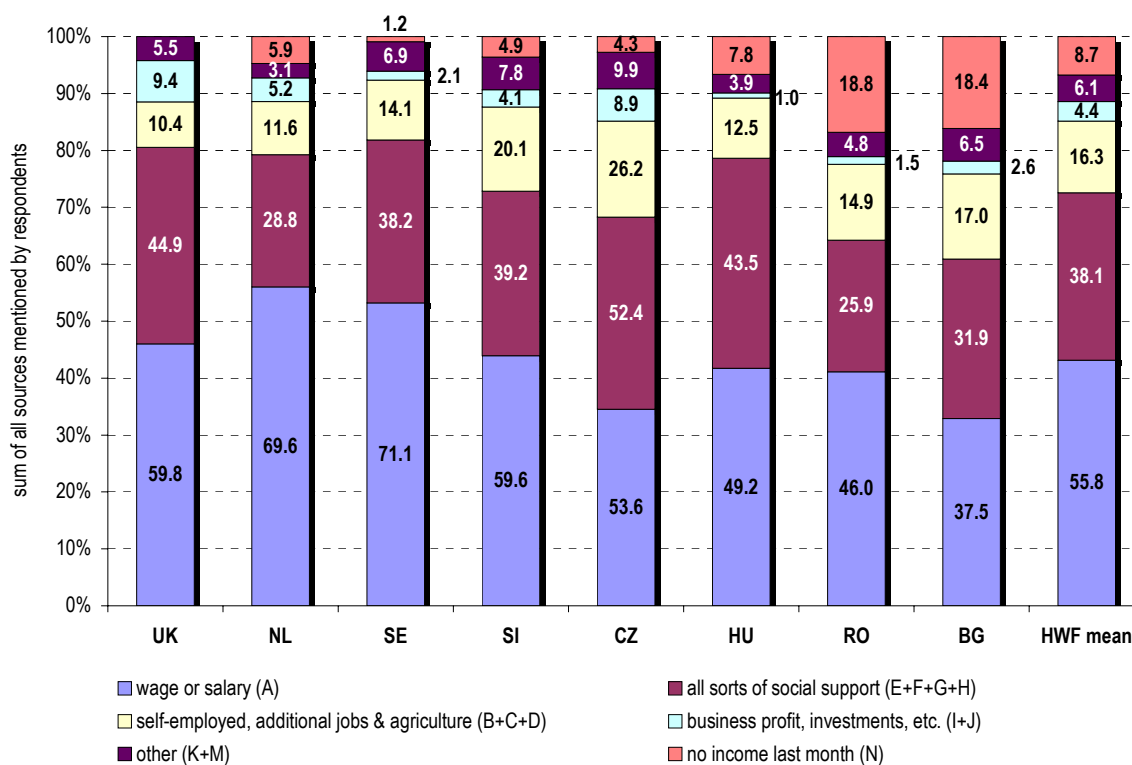
The last table in this section (**Table 13-13**) is revealing. It shows that 18 per cent of respondents in Romania and 19 per cent in Bulgaria had no income at all. This represents about one fifth of the working age respondents in those countries. The numbers are below 10 per cent in all the other countries. In ECE countries it is mostly younger people who are in this position. However, in the Netherlands, where 6 per cent of people were without income, this was mostly older females who we can guess are family dependents. In Bulgaria and Romania, these people are more often female, more often younger and more often found in rural areas, reflecting the chronic under-employment of the post-communist populations in these countries and the disadvantages of some young people in this transition (see Report by Kovatcheva and Pancheva 2003)³. By contrast, almost no one in Sweden was without any income.

The Figure 1 shows the percentage of different forms of income in the last twelve months, grouped according to different categories. In this chart, the percentage reflect the number of choices for each income source per country (rather than the count of individuals), since there could be

multiple income sources and respondents were given no restriction on how many they could choose. From this chart it is evident too that wages or salaries are the most important income source, although this varies greatly from country to country. Both formal and informal means of social support are very important in the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Sweden, whilst self-employment is very important in Czech Republic,

Slovenia and Bulgaria. Asking about multiple income sources gives us different results to the EU EUROSTAT data, as illustrated in the Comparative Context Report. In general, asking people to name all their sources of income means that more are self-employed in all countries apart from the UK and the Netherlands. This reflects the fact that in ECE countries especially, being self-employed might be an additional income or second job.

Figure 1. Variety of income sources of individuals, multiple choice, relative shares within a sum of choices per country.



- Notes:
- (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q 1.05: "Please tell me all the different sources of income that you had in the last month".
 - (2) The chart summarizes data from the HWF Survey Ranking tables (Table 13-14 to Table 13-26).
 - (3) The vertical bars represent sums of all choices made by the respondents of an individual country. Due to the possibility of multiple choices, the sums of series in the bars may exceed 100%; therefore, the indicated values should be interpreted as relative shares within the sum of choices per country.
 - (4) The legend keys refer to the following original options of individual income sources: (A) Wage or salary; (B) Self employed earnings; (C) Income from additional jobs; (D) Income from own farming or agricultural production; (E) Pension; (F) Unemployment benefit; (G) Grant or scholarship for education and training, including loans; (H) Other social transfers (e.g. child allowance, parental leave); (I) Income from investments, savings or rents from properties; (J) Profit from a business; (K) Private transfers (e.g. alimony, or payment from others such as parents); (M) Other income sources; (N) None, the respondent had no income last month.

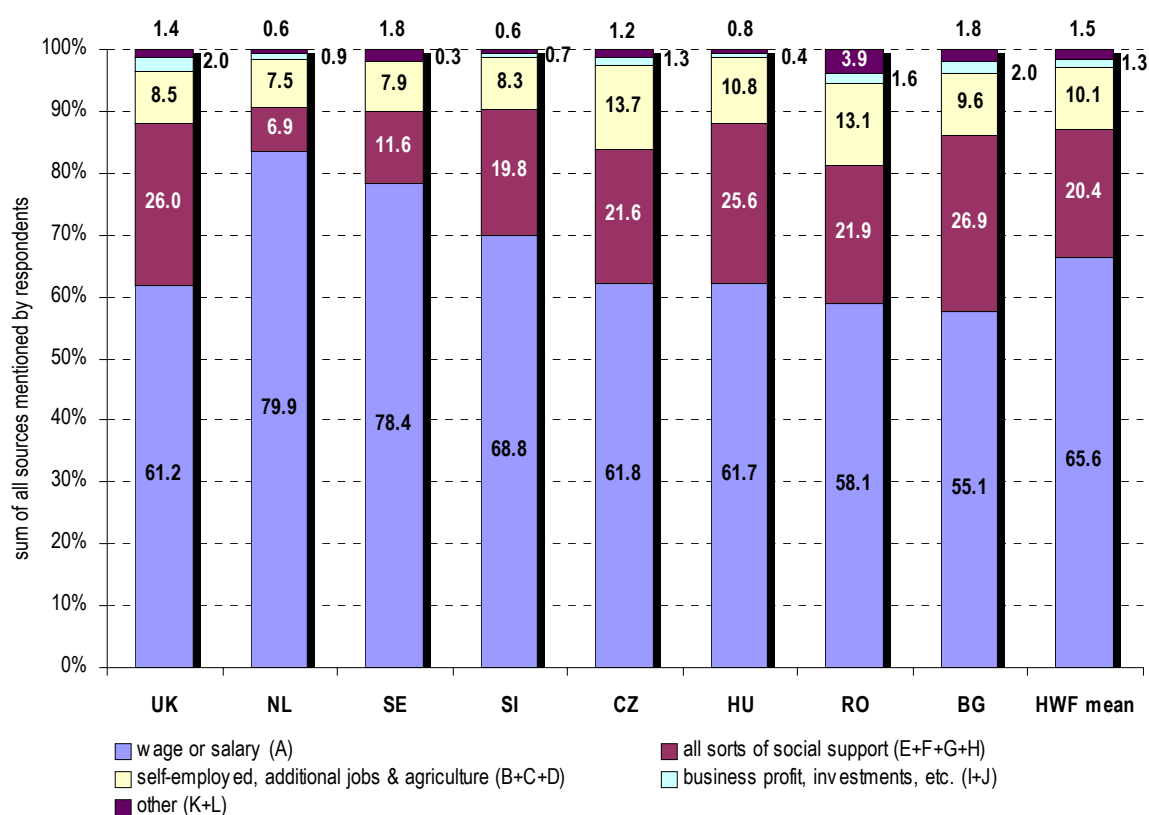
Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

2.2. HOUSEHOLDS: MOST IMPORTANT INCOME SOURCES

Respondents were also asked what was overall the most important source of income for their household in the last 12 months (Table 14-15-Table 14-26 summarized in the Figure 2). In all countries, the most important source of income was from a wage or salary. In the Netherlands, 80 per cent of households lived mainly from this

source, in the Sweden 78 per cent and Slovenia 69 per cent. In the Czech Republic, Hungary and the UK the numbers were between 61 per cent and 62 per cent living from this source, but in Romania and Bulgaria it falls to 55 per cent and 58 per cent, reflecting once more the chronic underemployment of those regions.

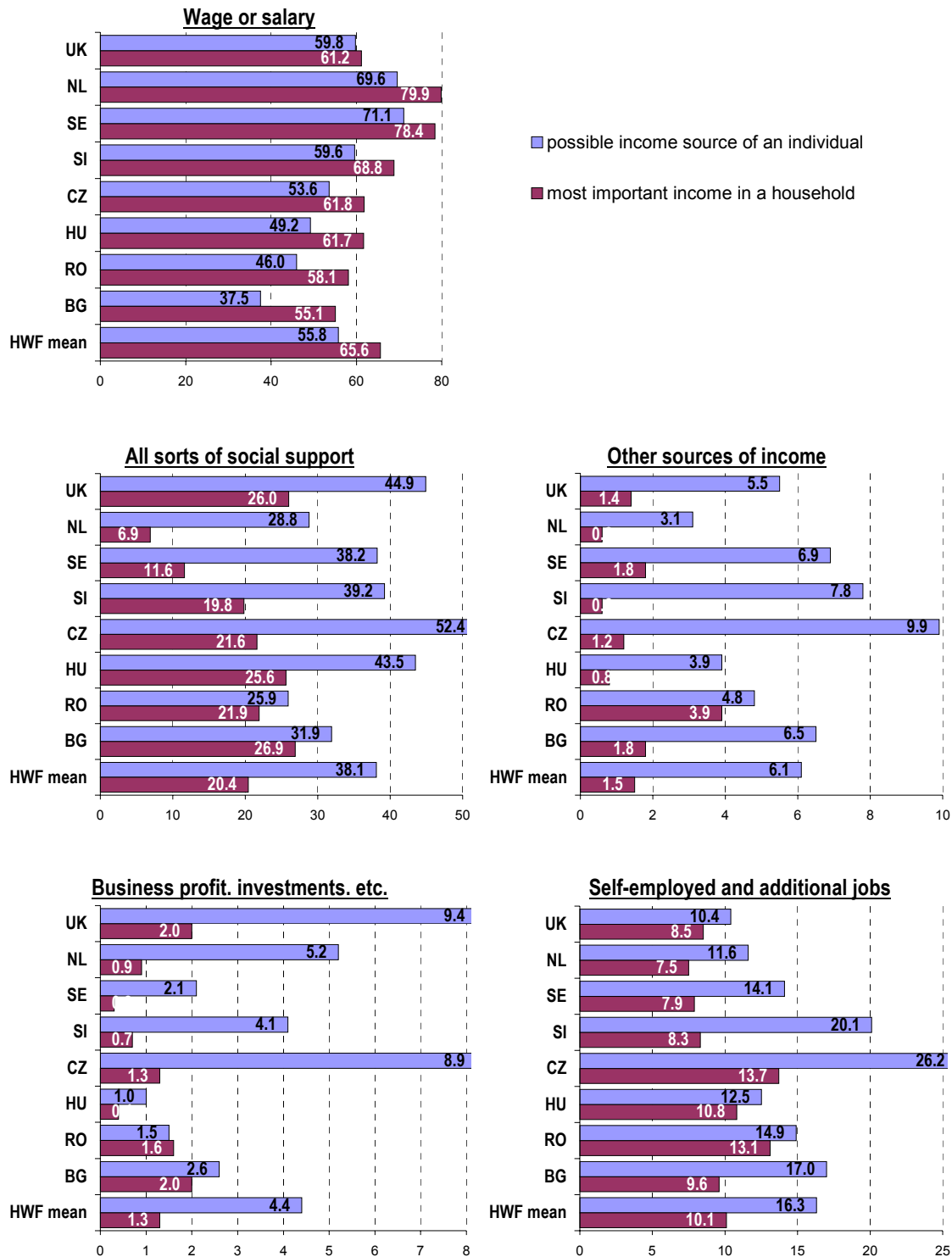
Figure 2. Variety of most important income sources of households, multiple choice, relative shares within a sum of choices per country.



Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q 5.07: "Considering the overall situation of your household, including all its members, which is the most important source of income of your household in the last 12 months?"
 (2) The chart summarizes data from the HWF Survey Ranking tables (Table 14-15 to Table 14-26).
 (3) The vertical bars represent sums of all choices made by the respondents of an individual country. Due to the possibility of multiple choices, the sums of series in the bars may exceed 100%; therefore, the indicated values should be interpreted as relative shares within the sum of choices per country.
 (4) The legend keys refer to the following original options of individual income sources: (A) Wage or salary; (B) Self employed earnings; (C) Income from additional jobs; (D) Income from own farming or agricultural production; (E) Pension; (F) Unemployment benefit; (G) Grant or scholarship for education and training, including loans; (H) Other social transfers (e.g. child allowance, parental leave); (I) Income from investments, savings or rents from properties; (J) Profit from a business; (K) Private transfers (e.g. alimony, or payment from others such as parents); (L) Other income sources.

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

Figure 3. Individual income sources and most important incomes in households



Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, summary of Q 5.07 and Q 1.05
 (2) See detailed comments to the Figure 1 and Figure 2

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

The second most important income source was from pensions. This was most important in Romania (22 per cent), Hungary (21 per cent) Slovenia (17 per cent) and the Czech Republic (17 per cent). Lower numbers were found in the Bulgaria (14 per cent), the UK (10 per cent) and much lower figures in the Netherlands (6 per cent) and Sweden (5 per cent). In Bulgaria, Hungary, Romania and the UK most countries it was households in rural areas that were most dependent upon this source, presumably because people retire to the countryside and in Romania this is to do with the structure of land ownership (see Stanculescu 2003)⁴. This can be partly accounted for by the lower pensionable age in ECE countries. Self-employed earnings were a most important source of household income in the Czech Republic (13 per cent), Hungary (9 per cent), the UK (8 per cent) and Sweden (8 per cent), Slovenia (6 per cent) and Bulgaria (7 per cent). This was rather negligible as a source of household income in Romania (2 per cent).

Income from casual and occasional work as the most important income source was found most often in those countries with severe under-employment: Romania (4 per cent) and Bulgaria (3 per cent). In the more prosperous post-communist and western countries, this was not an important source of household income.

Household incomes from farming and agricultural production were also most important in Romania (4 per cent of households) and Bulgaria (3 per cent of households) and to some extent Slovenia (2 per cent of households). This was part

of a survival strategy for poorer households in rural areas and is encouraged by the policies of land restitution in the early 1990s. Grants and scholarships were important in Sweden (4 per cent of households) and the United Kingdom (2 per cent of households). Everywhere else they were less than 1 per cent. Other social transfers supported almost 12 per cent of households in the UK, but were much less important elsewhere with only 3 per cent or less benefiting from this.

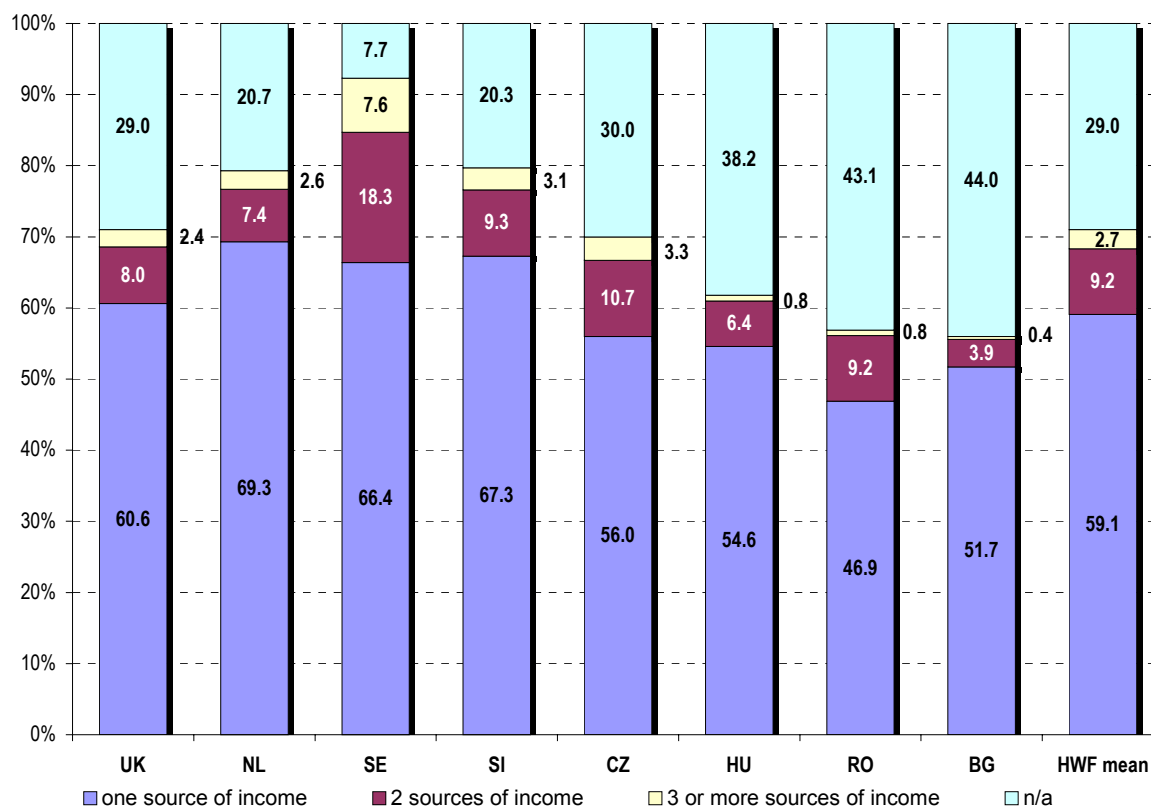
Very few households depended upon income from rents and savings, although this did account for 2 per cent of households in the UK. Elsewhere it was more negligible. Likewise, very few households depended upon profit from a business, but surprisingly, Romania, Bulgaria and the Czech Republic were at the top of the league in this respect. Only a very few households were dependent upon private or other transfers.

We also asked a question about who earned the most important income in the household (**Table 14-14**). In all cases it was the male respondent. However, there were interesting variations from country to country. The male respondent was most important in the Netherlands, with a 51-percentage point difference between male and female respondents. This was followed by the Czech Republic with 41 per cent and Sweden with 35 per cent, Romania with 27 per cent, Bulgaria with 15 per cent, Hungary with 14 per cent and finally the UK with only a 9-percentage point difference between the male and female respondents. In almost half of UK households, women claimed to be the breadwinner.

2.3. ACCUMULATION OF INCOMES

An aspect of flexibility that particularly interested us was how different activities could be combined together. For this reason we asked about the number of income earning activities in the last 12

months rather than jobs in order to leave the possibilities open. (See **Table 16-13** to **Table 16-15**, **Figure 4**).

Figure 4. Number of income earning activities of respondents during the last year.

Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.07: "Could you tell me how many economic income-earning activities you have had in the last 12 months?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

In general, the respondents in the North Western European countries along with Slovenia are most likely to be dependent upon just one main source. This was the case for 69 per cent of people in the Netherlands, 66 per cent of people in Sweden, 67 per cent of people in Slovenia and 61 per cent of people in the UK. The remaining ECE countries all had nearer 50 per cent of the population depending upon just one income source and in Romania this fell to 47 per cent.

In the case of two activities, the rank ordering changed. Sweden had the largest number of people with two activities (18 per cent), followed by the Czech Republic with 11 per cent, Slovenia with 9 per cent, and Romania with 9 per cent. Bulgaria had the lowest numbers with two jobs at 4 per cent. The average overall was 9 per cent. We

might expect the ECE countries, especially the poorer ones, to have citizens with multiple income sources because incomes from any one source are generally low. In the case of Bulgaria, this may be due to under-reporting, since most of such activities are in the informal economy. Men generally fall into this double income earning category more than women and younger or middle-aged people more than older people. Better educated people and those with higher incomes are also more likely to have more than one income source. In Sweden, by contrast, double incomes were more evenly divided between men and women and educational groups.

Turning to those persons with three or more income sources, we find that Sweden is once again by far the leader with 8 per cent, followed

by the Czech Republic (3 per cent), Slovenia (3 per cent), the Netherlands (3 per cent) and the United Kingdom (2 per cent). In Romania, Hungary and Bulgaria, where we might have expected multiple income sources, we find only very few people who do this. In some respects the pattern follows that of the double income people in that these are more likely to be men than women (except in Sweden), more likely to be younger than older and more likely to be better educated and have higher incomes than others. However, unlike the other categories, we find this pattern of behaviour slightly more associated with urban areas than with rural ones. In Sweden we once more find the multiple income earners distributed across all

income categories and they are more likely to be women than men. One reason for the high number of multiple income sources in Sweden could be that many people who are part time employed also have an additional job. This is quite frequent in the public sector and among youngsters. In the middle aged group, an additional explanation might be that the Swedish rules for receiving parental leave benefits, sickness and unemployment benefits as well as a pension can be taken part time. Finally, an increasing number of older workers leave the labour market through doing a combination of part time work and taking pensions. These constructions allow for a great deal of flexibility among Swedish workers.

2.4. CONCLUSIONS

2.4.1. Income sources

Those in the more affluent countries are most dependent upon a salary in the formal economy for their main income. They were also most likely to be in the older age bands. Additional incomes were most important in Slovenia and the Czech Republic, the more affluent transition countries where it seems that it was possible to earn extra by doing additional jobs or a self-employed activity on the side. In Bulgaria and Romania people got by not from main salaries but rather from a variety of activities which included casual and occasional work, agricultural work and self-employment. In other words, these countries were more likely to have a portfolio of economies. In Slovenia this was also to some extent the case.

Social transfers were most important in the more affluent Western countries, but private transfers, mostly from older generations to younger generations were most common in the Czech Republic, Slovenia and Romania where the strong family bonds encourage this kind of support.

Up to one in five people in Bulgaria and Romania had no income and this helps to explain the mixed economy of survival and the strong intra-family bonds in those countries. In these countries

incomes from farming and agricultural production were also important. That is why we need to take into account not only individual sources of income but also household sources of income.

One can observe that among the variety of all possible income sources of individuals, wages and salaries constitute the biggest share (mean value for HWF countries is 56 per cent), ranging from 71 per cent in Sweden to 38 per cent in Romania. The second popular source of individuals' incomes includes all sorts of social support (like pensions, unemployment benefits, grants and stipends, and other social transfers). This social support accumulate a share of 38 per cent of all income sources (mean value for HWF countries), ranging from 52 per cent in the Czech Republic to 26 per cent in Bulgaria. (See Figure 1.)

At the same time, the real economic value of wages and salaries is much higher and the value of social benefits is much lower for household budgets if compared with their for individuals, as discussed in the previous paragraph. (See Figure 2.) Wages were counted among the most important income sources by 66 per cent of all households (mean HWF value), which varies from 80 per cent in the Netherlands to 55 per cent Romania. The unified category "all sorts of social sup-

port" attracts only 20 per cent of choices (mean HWF value), varying from 27 or 26 per cent in Romania and UK respectively to 7 or 12 per cent in the Netherlands or Sweden.

The reverse applies to such as "self-employment and additional jobs" and "business profits". These income categories are mentioned much more frequently as one possible income source (16 per cent for self-employment and additional jobs and 4 per cent for business-related profits). The same types of incomes have been mentioned as the "most important ones" only by 10 and 1 per cent of respondents respectively. (All figures refer to the mean values for HWF countries.)

2.4.2. Accumulation of Incomes

People living on several sources of income were most often found in Sweden, the Netherlands,

Slovenia and the UK. In Eastern and Central Europe a plot of land provided an important income source, but the role of this tended to vary. In Romania and Slovenia, cultivating a plot of land was a form of survival strategy for the poor. In other countries it was just as likely to be undertaken by better off people, leading us to think that this was a "lifestyle" phenomenon. Professional and consultancy work can provide additional income for the better educated and was likely to be undertaken in the UK, Romania and Slovenia whilst agency and distribution work was most common in the Czech Republic, the UK and the Netherlands. In the Czech Republic, the UK and the Netherlands, self-employment was likely to be an additional source of income as well as a main source of income.

NOTES

1. Other social transfers refers to other than pensions and unemployment benefit. This is a very mixed category, which at least in Romania do not refer to children allowance. There is a distinct variable s2_0_4, which shows that almost all households with children do also get children allowances. However, child allowance is not recorded as mother' or as father's income.
2. Wallace, C. 'Comparative Contextual Report' HWF Research Report no. 5.
3. Kovatcheva, S. and Pancheva, T. (2003) Bulgaria in HWF Report no. 3 Survey Report by Countries.
4. Stanculescu, M. (2003) Romania in HWF Report no. 2 Country Context Report

Chapter 3. Economic Situation of the Household

3.1. OVERVIEW

Respondents were asked a range of questions about their economic situation. The first question was satisfaction with the way they live generally and this is shown in **Table 15-5**. Here we can see that those in the Netherlands were most content with the way they live generally, with 93 per cent of people answering affirmatively. In Sweden this was 86 per cent, in the Czech Republic 85 per cent and in the United Kingdom 84 per cent. In Slovenia 78 per cent of households were content with the way they live. However, in Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria we have a very different pattern. In those countries, less than half of people are content with how they live and this falls to only 29 per cent in Bulgaria.

In all countries, it was people with the highest education who were most content and the discrepancy between those with higher and lower education was much higher in ECE countries than in Western Europe. Those countries where people were the most discontented (Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria) also showed the biggest difference between those with higher and lower education. Whilst in the Western EU countries it was mostly the older people who were most content with their living situation, in the ECE countries it was more likely to be the younger people (with the

exception of the Czech Republic). In the ECE countries, income had an important impact on people's satisfaction with the way they lived – those with higher income were more likely to be satisfied.

The next question was about satisfaction with the economic situation of the household (**Table 15-6**). Less people were happy with the economic situation of their household than with the way they live generally. Nevertheless, by far the highest ranking was the Netherlands with 91 per cent, followed by Sweden with 73 per cent and then the UK with 70 per cent and then Slovenia with 59 per cent, The Czech Republic is also above the survey mean with 57 per cent but Romania, Hungary and Bulgaria are all below it. Once again, the Bulgarians were the most discontented: only 19 per cent of Bulgarians are happy with the economic situation of their household.

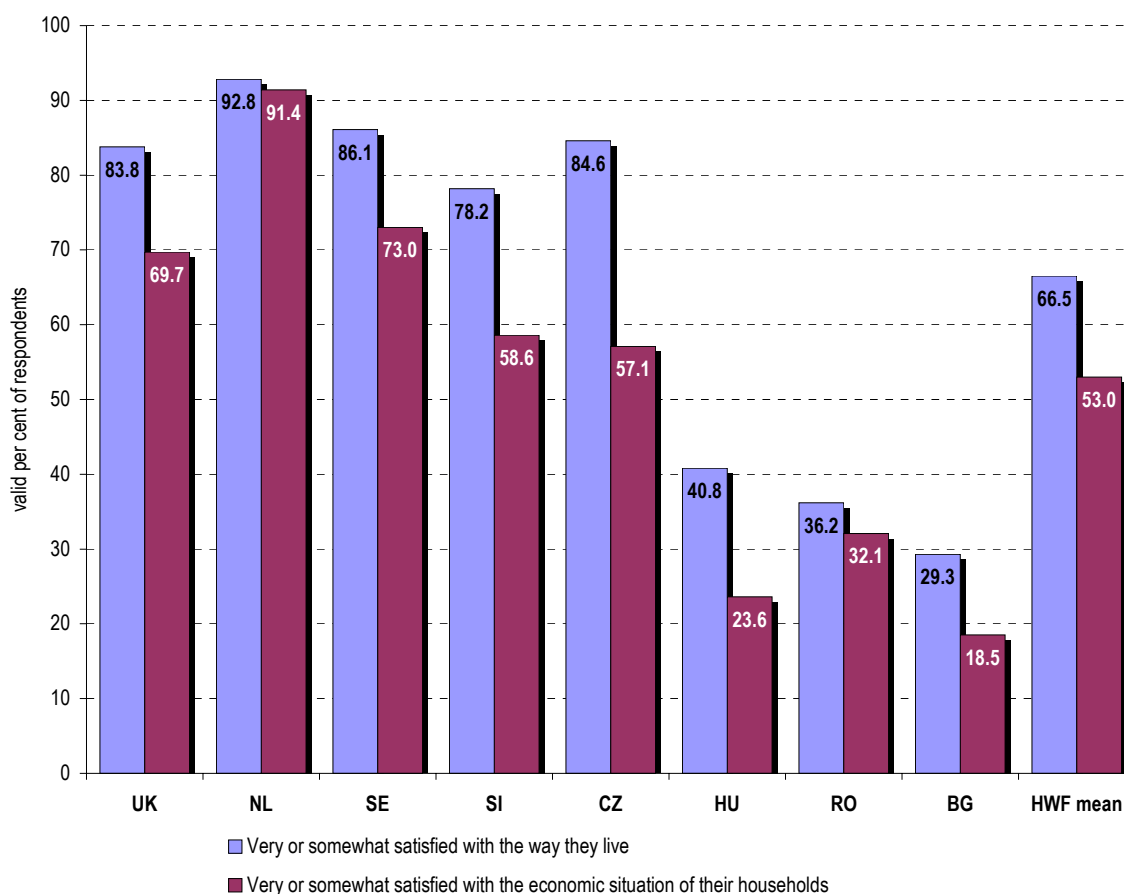
Generally, economic satisfaction rises with income. People with higher education are more materially satisfied than those at the bottom and middle of the educational range. The contrasts were especially strong in the Czech Republic and Slovenia. Once again, it was older people in the EU countries and younger people in the Accession countries who were most content, perhaps reflect-

ing the different labour market opportunities in the two halves of Europe.

Looking at how people compare their present situation with the past, we find a clear East-West distinction. In the Netherlands 62 per cent of people think that the situation has improved in the last five years and Sweden just over half of people think their situation has improved in the last five years and in the United Kingdom, this is just below half. However, most of the people in ECE countries think that their situation has not improved in the last five years. In Bulgaria only 12 per cent of people think that their situation has improved and in Romania only 20 per cent. Even

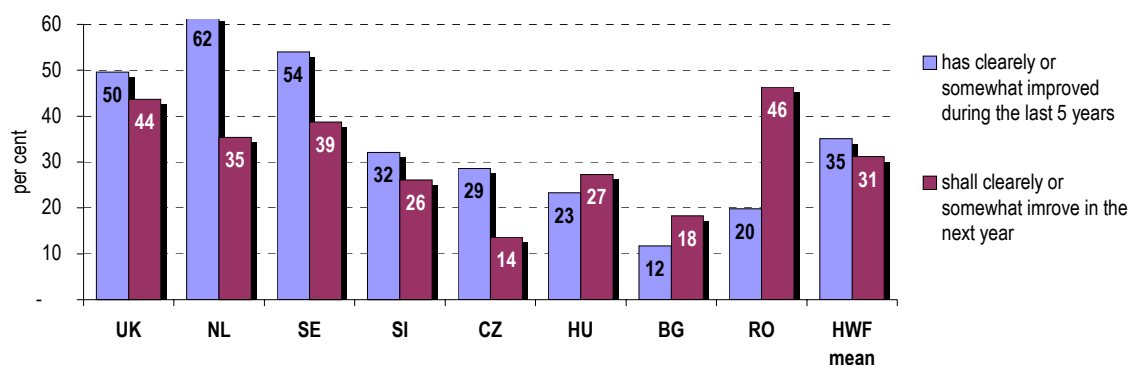
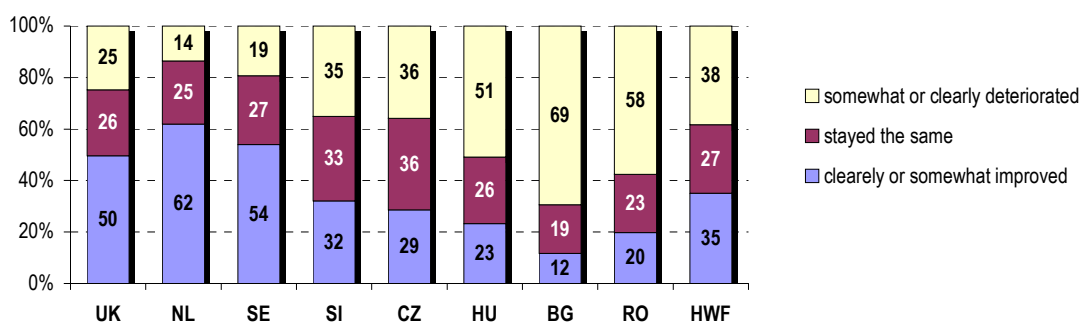
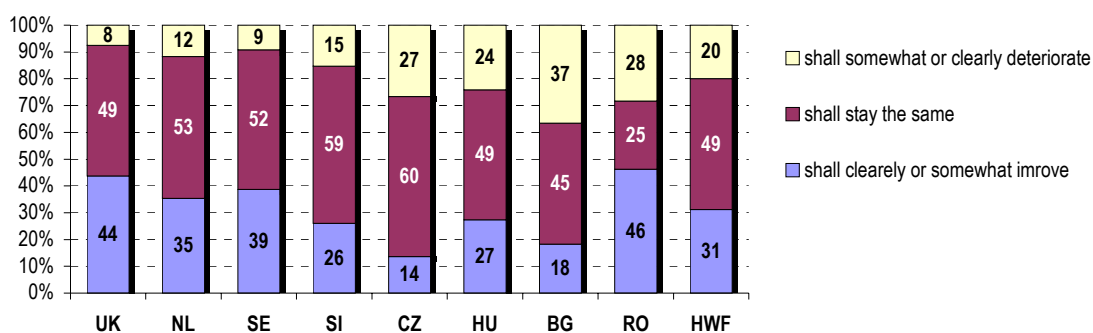
in the more prosperous CEE countries, only one third of people in Slovenia and 29 per cent of people in the Czech Republic think that their situation has improved. In Hungary this falls to under one quarter. In most countries it is the people in urban or semi-urban locations who think that their situation has improved, implying that people in rural areas have lost out in the recent transformations. In almost all countries, those with higher incomes have noticed more improvement than those with lower income. In terms of education, it is those with higher levels of education who have seen their situation improve.

Figure 5. Satisfaction with the way they live now and satisfaction with household economic situation



Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q 5.03: "Generally, how satisfied you are with the way you live?" and Q 5.04: "Generally, how satisfied you are with the economic situation of your household?"
 (2) The chart summarizes data from the HWF Survey Ranking tables (Table 15-5 and Table 15-6).

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

Figure 6. Trends in the economic situation of households.**Economic situation of your household...****During the last 5 years****In the next year**

Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q 5.05: "If you compare your household present economic situation to that of five years ago, what would say the situation today has ...?" and Q 5.06: "Do you believe that the next year the economic situation of your household will ...?"
 (2) The chart summarizes data from the HWF Survey Ranking tables (Table 15-5 and Table 15-6).

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

Looking to the future we find a different pattern. Far fewer people are optimistic about the future than noticed improvements compared to the past. However, Romanians are the most optimistic: 46 per cent think that their situation will improve and in the United Kingdom, this was 44 per cent, in Sweden 39 per cent, in the Netherlands 35 per cent. Other Eastern and Central European countries were even lower. In Hungary 27 per cent thought that their situation would improve, in Slovenia 26 per cent and in Bulgaria only 18 per cent. Surprisingly, the Czech Republic was the

most pessimistic with only 14 per cent believing that things would get better in five years.

Generally speaking it is the higher income groups who think that their economic situation will improve and this difference is stronger in ECE countries. In most countries, men are more optimistic about the future than are women and younger people more than older people. Education plays a part too with the people with higher levels of education being the most optimistic. Those in urban situations were generally more optimistic than those in rural situations.

3.2. CONCLUSION: ECONOMIC SITUATION

Generally, for all HWF countries the principle applies that respondents are more satisfied with “the life they live” than with “the economic situation of their households”. The live satisfaction scores at 66 per cent as the mean HWF value, while economic satisfaction reaches only 53 per cent of respondents (see Figure 5). At the same time one can observe enormous gap between the “most satisfied” people in the Netherlands (93 and 91 per cent for “general” and “economic” satisfaction respectively) and such countries like Bulgaria (29 and 19 per cent), or Romania (36 and 32 per cent).

When asked about their subjective economic situation there was something of an East-West divide. People who are most content with their economic situation and with their living standards generally live in the most affluent countries: Sweden, UK, the Netherlands, Slovenia and the Czech Republic. Those who are most dissatisfied

live in Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria. Indeed there was a large range between those who were content and those who were discontented.

In terms of how things had improved (comparing their situation to five years ago), we find that it is only those in Western Europe who have experienced improvements. In general, those in ECE countries did not think that their situation had improved. Looking forward to improvements in the future, we find once again Western countries where people think things will improve, but here they were joined by extreme optimists from Romania. However, in general, the people of Eastern and Central Europe were not expecting improvements in their economic situation.

People with higher education, people who were younger and people with higher incomes had a more positive evaluation of their economic situation in terms of improvements from the past and future prospects.

Chapter 4.

Employment Status

This analysis is based mainly on the responses to the question where respondents were asked to describe their general employment status (HWF Questionnaire, Q 1.05). The offered options are summarized in the Box 1.

The respondents could choose more than one answer (multiple choice). The paragraphs below comment upon the options that were chosen most frequently.

Box 1

-
- | | |
|--|--|
| • employed full time | • pupil, student / in education or training government training scheme |
| • employed part-time | • unpaid worker in family business |
| • employed on fixed contract | • unemployed |
| • in employment but temporarily laid off | • retired from paid work |
| • self-employed | • housekeeper |
| • casual worker (working from on a day to day arrangement) | • sick or disabled |
| • farmer | • other |
-

4.1. FULL TIME EMPLOYED

Around half of the total sample is employed full time (**Table 16-1**, Figure 7). The highest number of full time employees is in Sweden, where 58 per cent of respondents are thus employed and this was followed by the Netherlands (50 per cent) and Slovenia with 50 per cent, the Czech Republic with 49 per cent, Hungary with 46 per cent, Bulgaria with 41 per cent, the United Kingdom with 41 per cent and Romania with only 35 per cent.

In the old EU countries, it was clear that most of the full time workers were often men and this was the case in Slovenia and the Czech Republic too, although in other ECE countries full time work was more evenly spread between men and

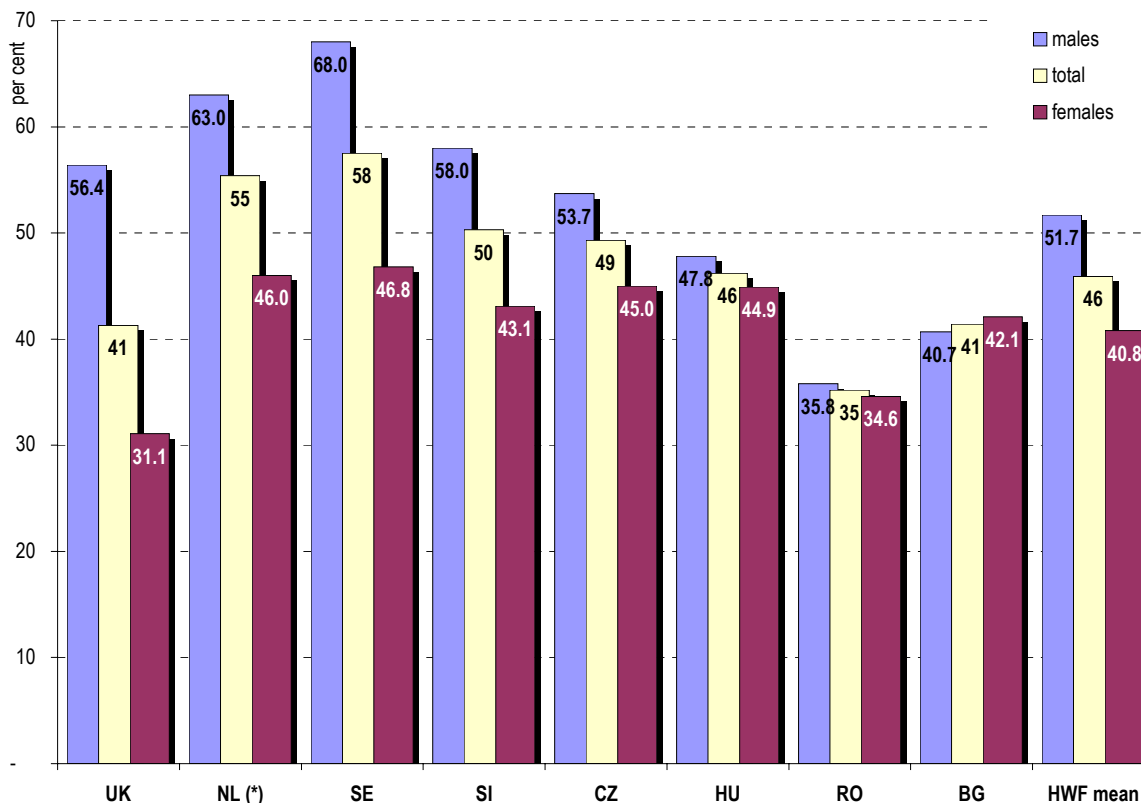
women. The percentage of female full time workers (compared to all full time workers) was highest in the ECE countries, especially Bulgaria, Romania, and Hungary. The share of female full time employees was lowest in the UK with only 31 per cent of all workers because they are more likely to work part time (although we should note that the Netherlands is missing from this table). Older people are the least likely to be employed full time and full time employment is concentrated mainly among the prime aged groups (30-59). Full time employment was also found more often in the better-educated groups and among the higher income groups. Those in urban and

semi-urban areas were most likely to be full time employed.

Another obvious observation is that male respondents are more often in full-time jobs as compared with female respondents. The highest disparity is observed in the United Kingdom with a gender distance being 25 per cent (56 per cent of males on full-time jobs versus 31 per cent of fe-

males), while the mean values for the whole HWF sample are 52 for males and 41 for females. In general, the ECE countries demonstrate more even gender distribution of full-time workers. In such countries as Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria, there is no statistical difference between genders with regard to the acquisition of full-time jobs.

Figure 7. Shares of respondents employed full-time.



Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06; value option "Employed full-time".
 (2) (*) for the Netherlands, data refer to the respondents with "Regular working hours (traditional working week of 5 days, Monday to Friday)".

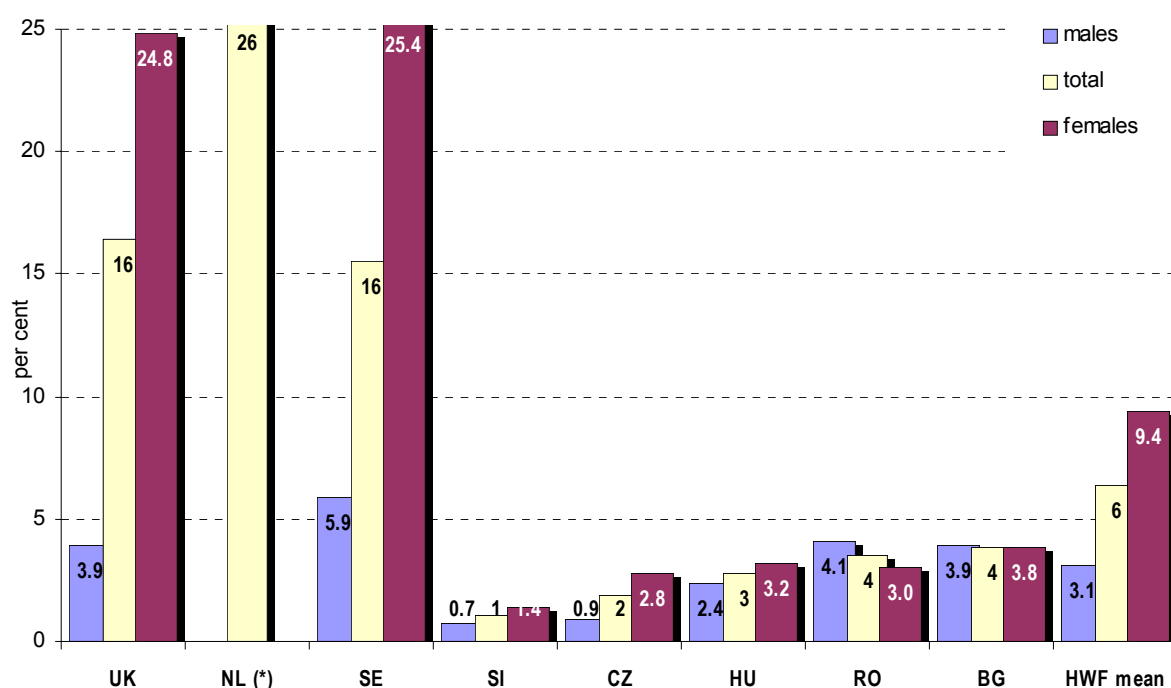
Sources: (1) HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection
 (2) Annet Jager, Country Survey Report // HWF Series of Project Research reports. Research Report #3 "HWF Survey: Country Survey Reports". Ed. C.Wallace. Vienna, 2003 P. 86

4.2. PART-TIME EMPLOYED

Part time employment (Table 16-2, Figure 8) is found most frequently in the Netherlands (26 per cent), UK and Sweden (16 per cent in each) of people working part time. Part time employment in the East European countries was rather negligible (even below the level of statistical confidence) with 4 per cent or less of workers in the CEE countries working part time. Part time employment is found mainly among women, but the extent to which this is the case varies considerably. In the UK women part-timers outnumber men by 9:1. In Sweden and the Czech Republic, the ratio is 4:1. In Slovenia this drops to 3:1 and in Hungary to 2:1. In Romania and Bulgaria there is little difference between the numbers of male and female part timers, with men being even more likely to be in this kind of work than women. Part time work is found among all educational levels in the UK, whilst in Sweden it is mainly concentrated among the lower educated. The higher educated, however, are

more likely to be part time in CEE countries. Part time workers are found among those with low income in the UK and Sweden, although in the New European Countries this is not necessarily the case and in Romania and Bulgaria they are found among the high-income earners. In those countries, this may be because part-time workers are more likely to work in the under-developed private sector or in the under-developed personal services where they can ask higher salaries than those in the state sector. Many part time workers are for example, language teachers, translators, those working the legal, computing or accounting services can ask for high fees. In Romania they are likely to be found among the health and teaching professions and their short working hours are related to their annualised teaching contracts. However, they may also supplement this with additional private tutoring.

Figure 8. Shares of respondents employed part-time.



Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06; value option "Employed part-time".
 (2) (*) In the Netherlands there is the most part time work, done mainly by women, but in the HWF questionnaire this question was asked in a different form in the NL (see Jager 2003).

Sources: (1) HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection
 (2) Annet Jager, Country Survey Report // HWF Series of Project Research reports. Research Report #3 "HWF Survey: Country Survey Reports". Ed. C.Wallace. Vienna, 2003 P. 86

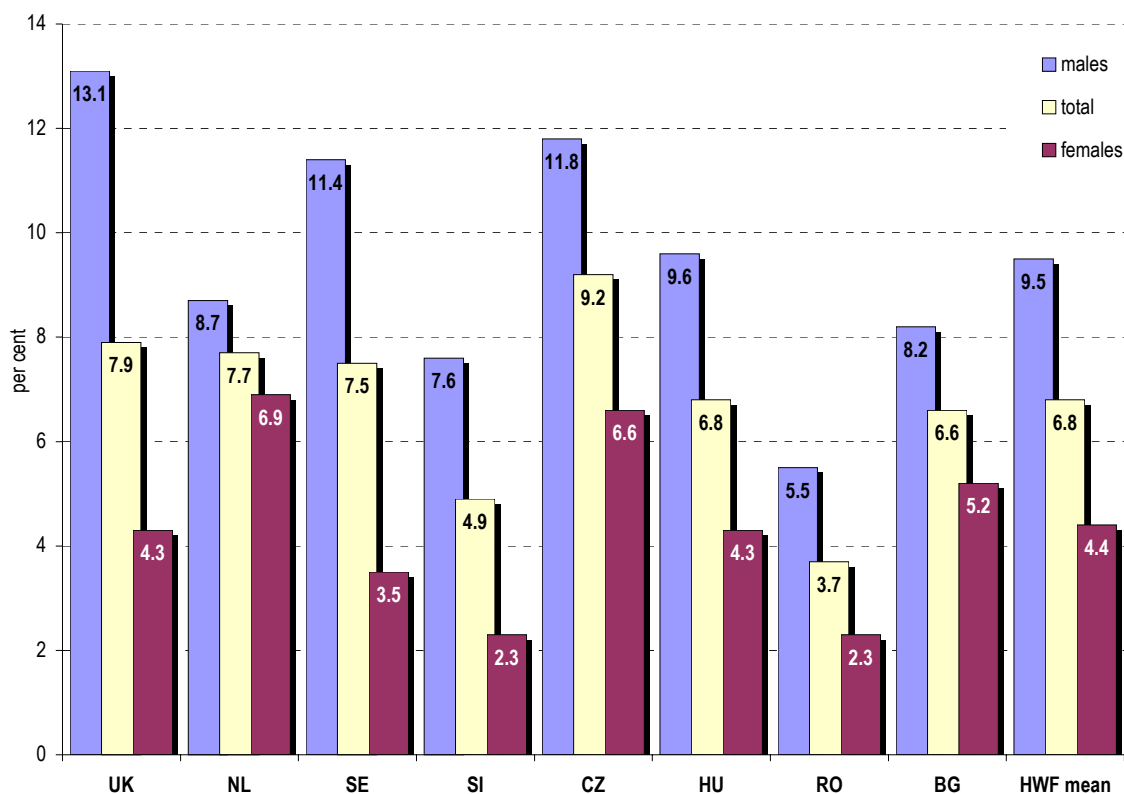
4.3. SELF EMPLOYMENT

Around 7 per cent of the sample were self-employed and the highest numbers could be found in the Czech Republic with 9 per cent followed by the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Sweden, all with 8 per cent (Table 16-4, Figure 9). Hungary is also rather high with 7 per cent and in Bulgaria there is likewise 7 per cent. However, there is generally less self-employment in the ECE countries (with the exception of the Czech Republic). Slovenia had 5 per cent self-employed and finally Romania, 4 per cent. We should note that 13 per cent of Czech Respondents said that their main source of income was

from self-employment, so it may be the case that 4 per cent of them earned more from their second or additional self-employed job than from their main job.

In all countries, men are more likely to be self-employed than are women and older people (especially prime aged) more than younger. The likelihood of being self-employed rises with education and is highest amongst those with tertiary education in all countries. In most countries the self-employed are clearly in the highest income group.

Figure 9. Shares of self employed respondents.



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06, value option "Self employed".

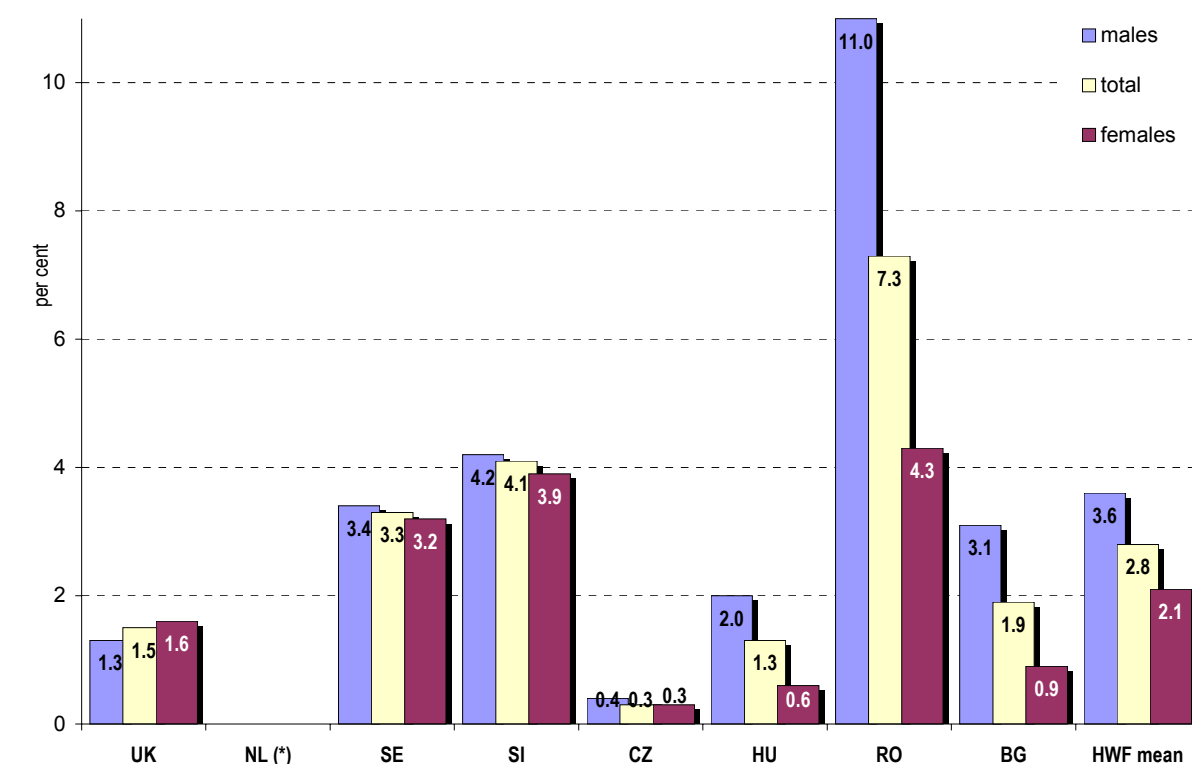
Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

4.4. CASUAL WORK

Casual workers represent about 3 per cent of the sample and there are strong variations between countries (Table 16-5, Figure 10). The highest number of casual workers is to be found in Romania at 7 per cent followed by Slovenia with 4 per cent. Next comes Sweden with 3 per cent and all the other countries have less than 2 per cent of casual workers. Casual workers are most often female in the UK, but are more often male in the East European Countries. In the UK, Slovenia and Sweden, casual workers are most often young people and this is the case in most of the New European Countries too apart from Bulgaria. Cas-

ual workers are not necessarily found among the lower educated, as we might expect, except in Hungary, Bulgaria and Slovenia. In other countries, higher numbers are found also among the better educated. In ECE countries, casual work takes place often in the informal sector of the economy where people do not pay taxes or social security. It might involve “dealing” or a “business” of some kind. However, many casual workers are also very poor and may have declared themselves as “unemployed” in the HWF survey. In Romania, people working on computers or as accountants might do this as casual work.

Figure 10. Casual work: shares of respondents working on day-to-day agreements.



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06, value option “Casual worker (working on a day-to-day agreements)”.

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

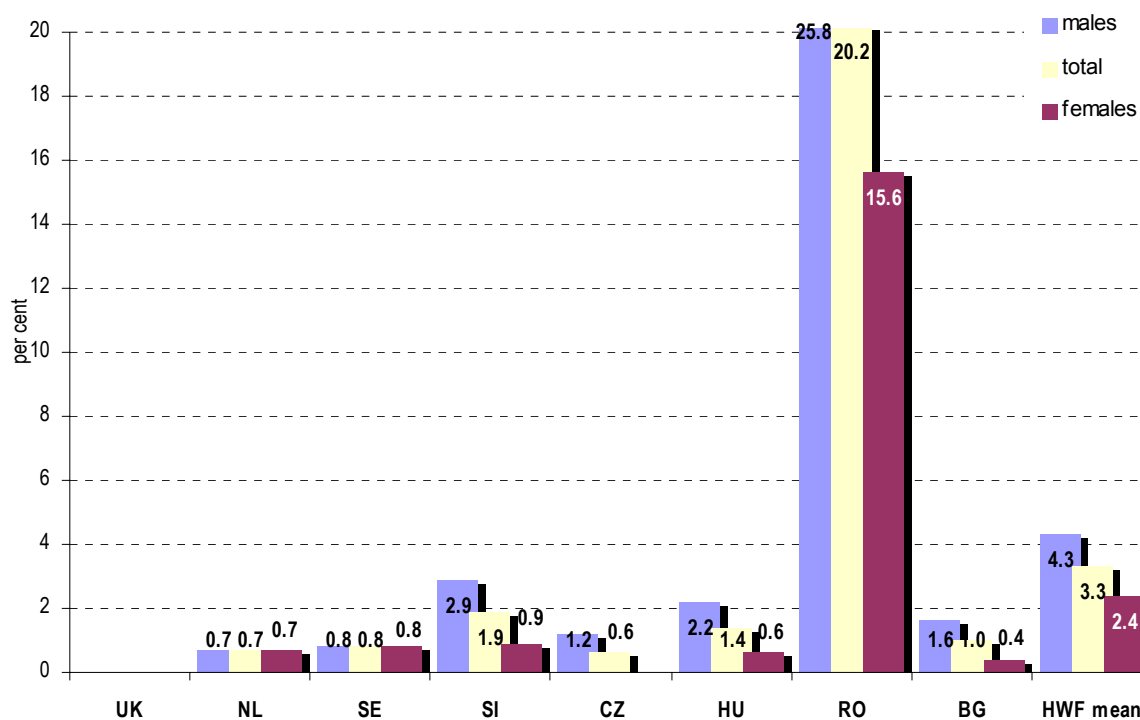
4.5. FARMERS

In most countries the number of farmers was rather negligible (Table 16-6, Figure 11). However, in Romania, 20 per cent of the sample described themselves as farmers, whereas the mean for the whole survey was only 3 per cent. In other countries the numbers of farmers was very small (Slovenia 2 per cent, Hungary 1 per cent, Bulgaria 1 per cent, the Netherlands, Czech Republic and Sweden all below 1 per cent). In Romania, farmers are likely to be older people, to have low education and low incomes. This is because farming

represents a survival strategy for many Romanians who may have no other significant income sources or may use it to supplement their incomes.

Unpaid workers in family businesses represent less than 1 per cent of the sample as a whole but their numbers are largest in Romania, where they are mainly lower educated females from rural areas, probably working on farms and agricultural related businesses.

Figure 11. Farmers: shares of respondents.



Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06, value option "Casual worker (working on a day-to-day agreements)".
(2) Zero-values for the UK

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

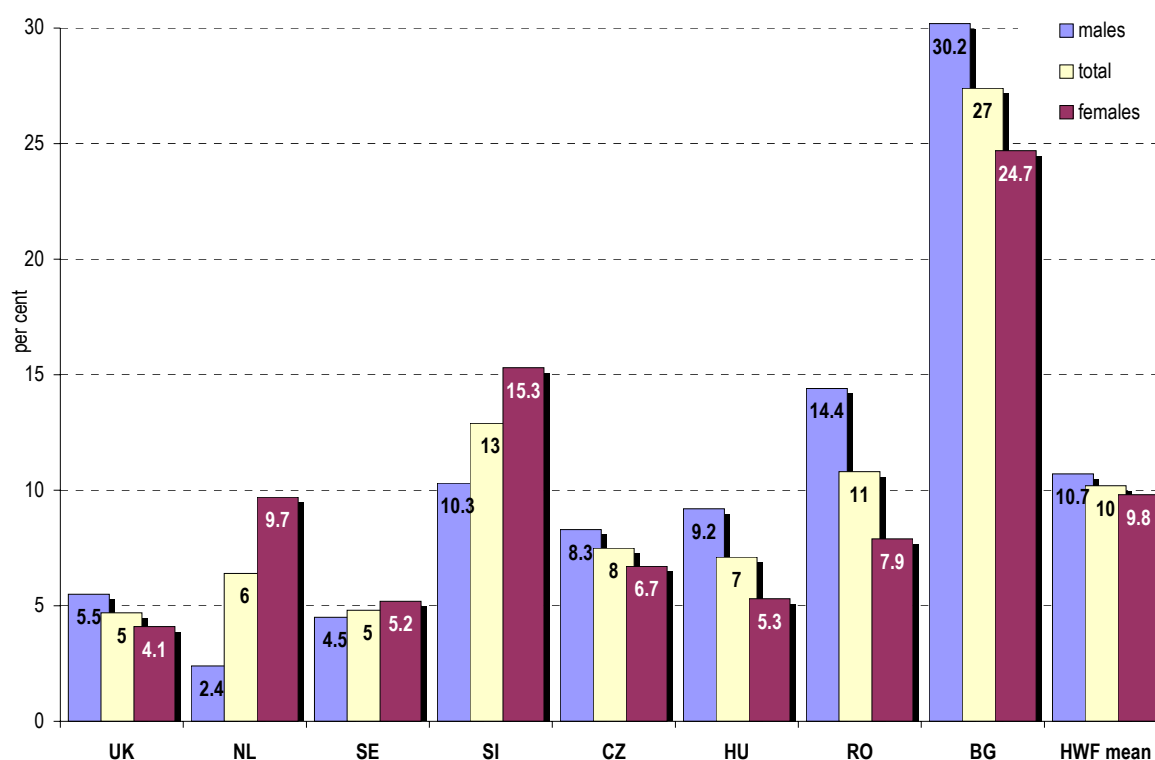
4.6. OUT OF THE WORKFORCE

The conventional category “out of the workforce” embraces the following groups of respondents:

- unemployed;
- retired from paid work;
- housekeepers;
- sick or disabled.

The unemployed represent 10 per cent of the sample and the highest numbers are found in Bulgaria (27 per cent) and Slovenia (13 per cent) (Table 16-7, Figure 12).

Figure 12. Unemployed: shares of respondents.



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06, value option “Unemployed”.

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

In addition Romania has 11 per cent unemployed and the Czech Republic 8 per cent, Hungary 7 per cent, the Netherlands 6 per cent, the United Kingdom 5 per cent and Sweden 5 per cent. The ECE countries have much higher unemployment than do the EU countries on account of the labour market restructuring there. In the Netherlands, Slovenia and Sweden, women are more likely to be unemployed than are men. There are very

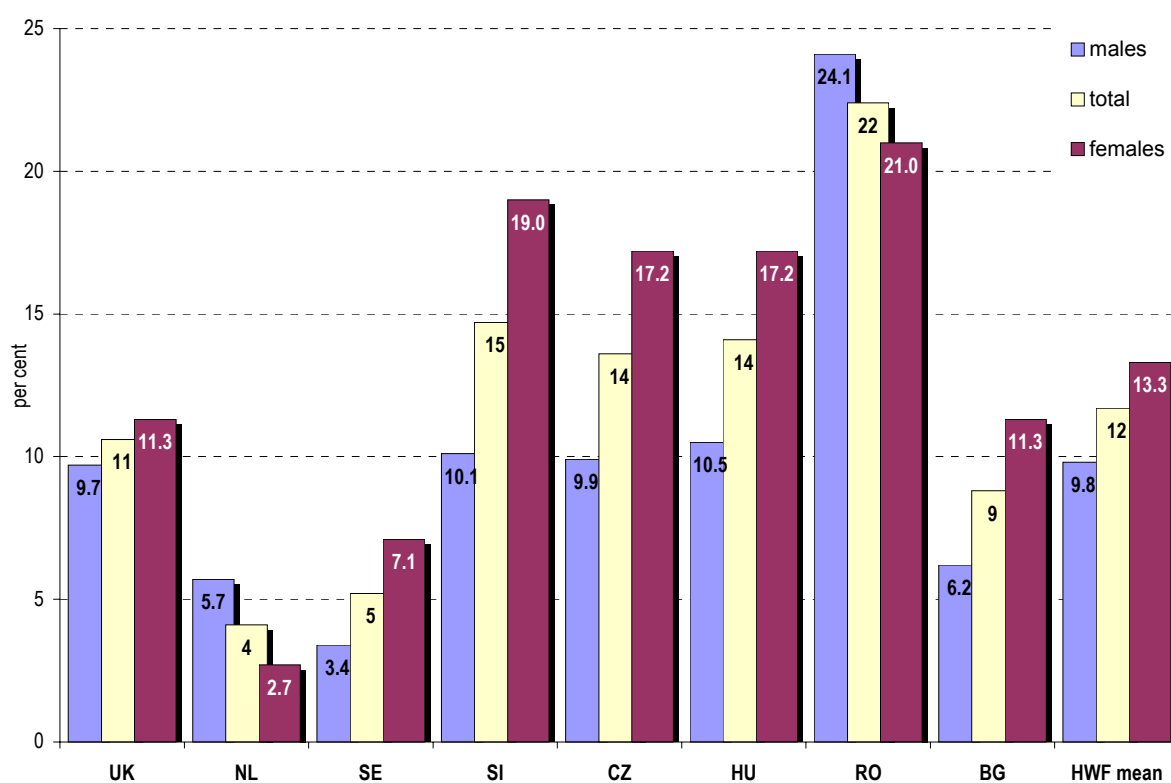
large gender differences especially in the Netherlands and in Slovenia. However, in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria women are less likely to be unemployed than are men. We should remember, however, that many unemployed women are registered as having some other status such as “housewife”. Unemployment is much more common among the less educated and of course they have low incomes.

Whilst in the UK and the Netherlands, unemployment is most often an urban problem, in other countries the unemployed are more likely to be found in rural areas. In Romania, 5 per cent of the population is described as “unregistered unemployed” although in other countries these were negligible or the question was not asked.

In ECE countries, there was also a very high numbers who were retired from paid work, 22 per cent in Romania, 15 per cent in Slovenia, 14 per cent in the Czech Republic, 14 per cent in Hun-

gary, 9 per cent in Bulgaria. By contrast, in the UK there were 11 per cent, but in Sweden and the Netherlands only 5 per cent and 4 per cent respectively. Early retirement is often used as an alternative to unemployment, but in ECE there was a tradition of early retirement for women with families and some categories of workers (Table 16-8, Figure 13). However, some retired people were also working, as is the case for 7 per cent of the retirees in Romania.

Figure 13. Retired from paid work: shares of respondents.



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06, value option “Retired from paid work”.

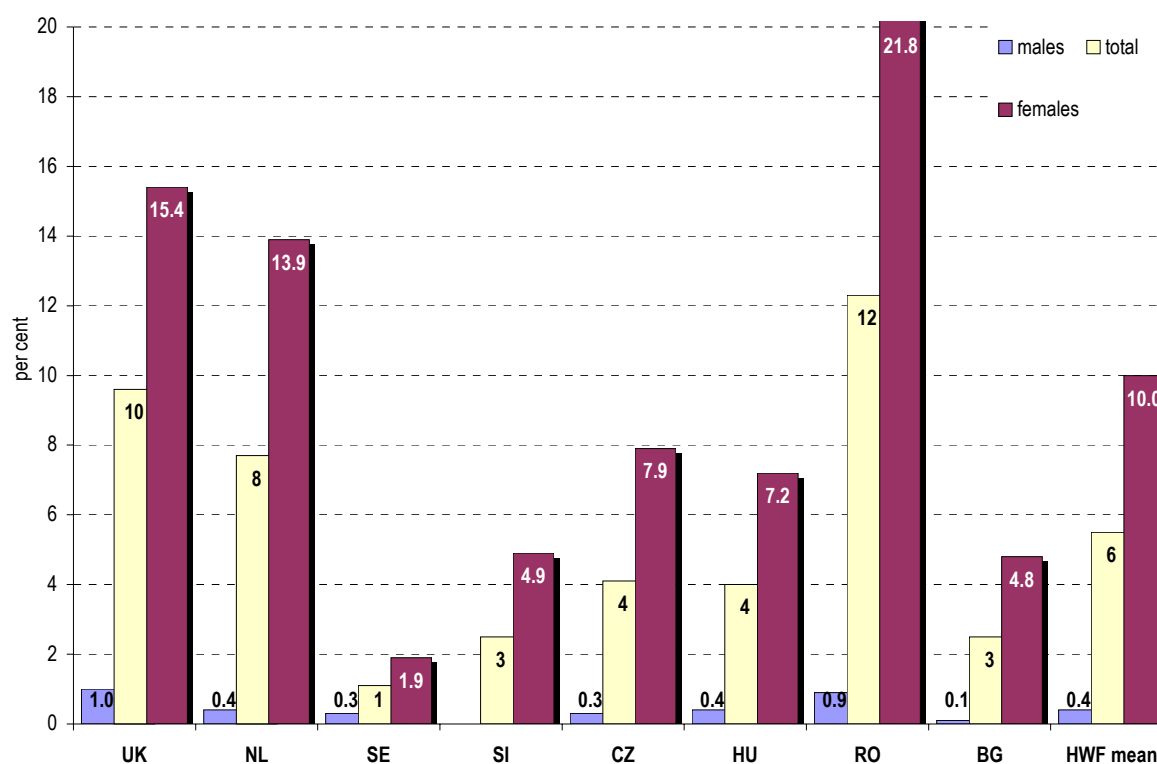
Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

In Romania, the numbers of “housekeepers” was also high (12 per cent). This was followed by the United Kingdom and the Netherlands, countries where women have traditionally stayed at home (10 per cent and 8 per cent respectively). In the East European countries, the numbers of housekeepers is generally low because there was not a tradition for women to take on this role and these countries had only 4 per cent of respondents or less in such a role. However, the country with the lowest number of housekeepers (1 per cent) is Sweden, due to the legislation which enables peo-

ple to take leave from employment to raise children rather than quitting their jobs altogether (Table 16-9, Figure 14)..

“Housekeeping” is a profession with clear domination of women: 10 per cent of HWF female respondents describe themselves as “primary employed” at their households (ranging from 2 per cent of women in Sweden to 22 per cent in Romania). On the contrary, only less than 1 per cent of men could be found as housekeepers in any of the HWF countries.

Figure 14. Housekeepers: shares of respondents.



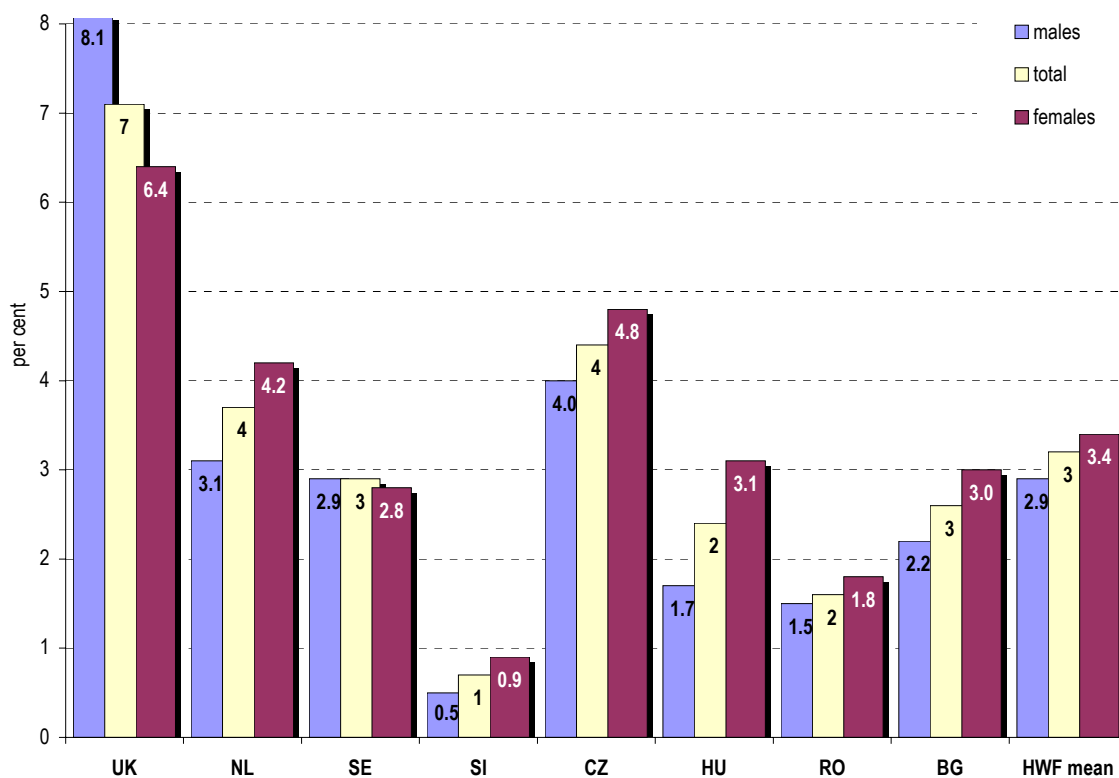
Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06, value option “Housekeeper”.

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection

Another way of being out of the workforce is to be sick or disabled (Table 16-10, Figure 15). The UK had the highest number of such people at 7 per cent followed by the Czech Republic with 4 per cent. The Netherlands and Sweden had 4 per cent and 3 per cent respectively whilst most of the ECE

countries had only between 1 per cent and 3 per cent. This can also be a form of unemployment and the numbers of people registering as sick or disabled probably reflects more the type of legislation available than the number of sick people

Figure 15. Sick or disabled: shares of respondents.



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.06, value option "Sick or disabled".

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

4.7. CONCLUSIONS: EMPLOYMENT

Respondents in Sweden were most likely to be found in full time work, for both sexes. Part time work showed different patterns in different countries. In the Netherlands, the UK and to a lesser extent Sweden, this was a rather common form of employment for women. In the ECE countries, by comparison, there was very little part time work of any kind and it was quite likely to be done by men. This is because with low wages, few can afford to live on part time work. It is most often a pre-retirement strategy. The numbers on fixed term contracts were rather small and were found most often in Slovenia and Bulgaria. However, we should also take into account the numbers with no contracts.

Self-employment was very common in the Czech Republic, but not in the other ECE countries. 7 per cent of the sample were self-employed overall. Otherwise, it was the UK, the Netherlands and Sweden who had the most self-employed.

Casual work was common in Romania and Slovenia, more often found among women in the UK but among males elsewhere. Whilst in Western countries it was most often associated with low incomes, in ECE countries it was often associated with high incomes. Farmers constituted 3 per cent of the workforce overall, but 20 per cent in Romania. They were most likely to be poorly educated people on low incomes living in rural areas.

Unemployment is very high in ECE. However, hidden unemployment in the form of sick and disabled people or housekeepers is more often found in EU countries than in ECE, especially in the UK.

Clear female dominance is observed in such forms of employment as *housekeeping* and *part-time* employment. Masculine professional domains are *full-time employment* and *self-employment*.

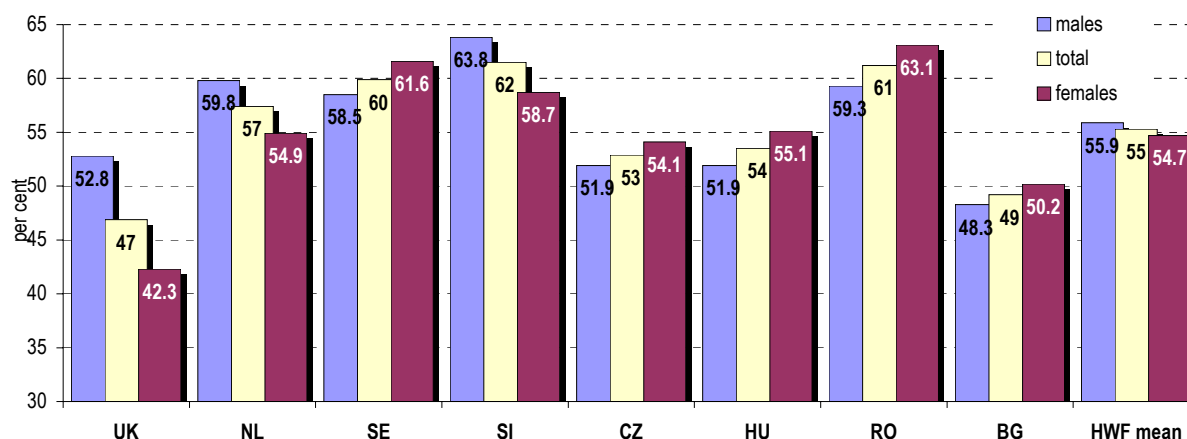
Chapter 5. Stability and Flexibility of Jobs and Contracts

5.1. JOB STABILITY

Another way of looking at flexibility is in terms of job turnover. Comparing countries in terms of those who had held jobs for more than 5 years, we find Slovenia in the first position with 62 per cent, followed by Romania with 61 per cent, then Sweden (60 per cent) and the Netherlands with 57 per cent. After that Hungary (54 per cent), the Czech Republic (53 per cent) and Bulgaria with 49 per cent. The least longevity of jobs was found in the

UK with just 47 per cent of people having held jobs for longer than 5 years. In most countries men had more stable jobs than women, although this was the other way round in Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria. Generally, speaking, it was the better educated in the Czech Republic and Hungary, otherwise the worse educated (Table 16-16, Figure 16).

Figure 16. Shares of respondents who stayed in the same job for more than five years.



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.10: The main income-earning activity. "How long have you been doing this activity?"
// Option: "More than 15 years".

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

5.2. CONTRACT FLEXIBILITY

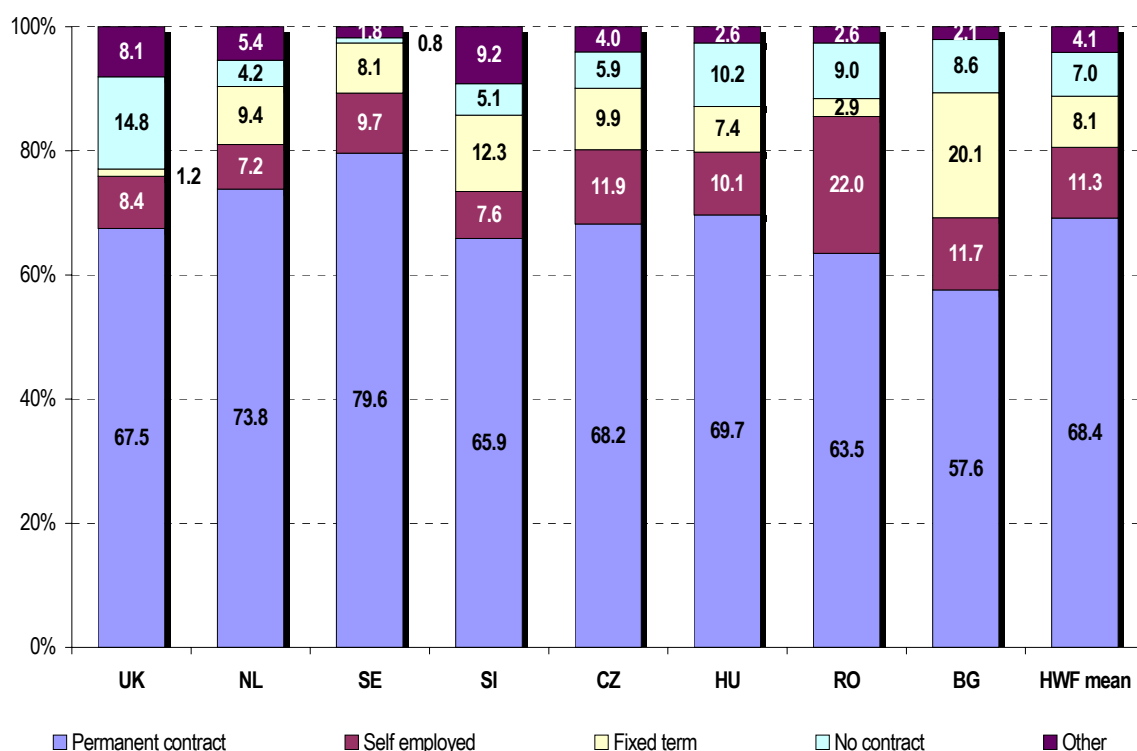
It can be seen from the Chart below (Table 16-57, Table 16-58, Figure 17, Figure 18) that a permanent contract is the most common kind, followed by self-employment and then fixed term contracts and then no contracts. All the other kinds of contract affected only 4 per cent of the population and they included "on call"-contracts, with a temporary work agency, on a fee only basis, subject to performance, zero hours, other. An even smaller number were on work experience programmes. In the Netherlands, fixed term contracts were divided between 2 per cent of respondents with a fixed term contract with no prospect of a permanent contract and 8 per cent fixed term contracts with a perspective on a permanent contract.

Permanent contracts were more common among the middle aged and older groups than among younger workers and among the better

educated than among the less well educated. They were also more common among those with higher incomes groups in most countries (except in Romania and Bulgaria).

Respondents were asked what was the reason for doing contract work? There was a small proportion (9 per cent) that did not want a permanent contract and these were mainly from Western European countries as well as Slovenia. The main reason for doing contract work was because the work was only available as contract work (37 per cent) and 18 per cent could not find a permanent job. In most countries it was women who did not want permanent jobs and the older and younger age cohorts. Lower educated people were more likely to say this than higher educated and those in rural areas more than those in urban areas as well as those with lower incomes.

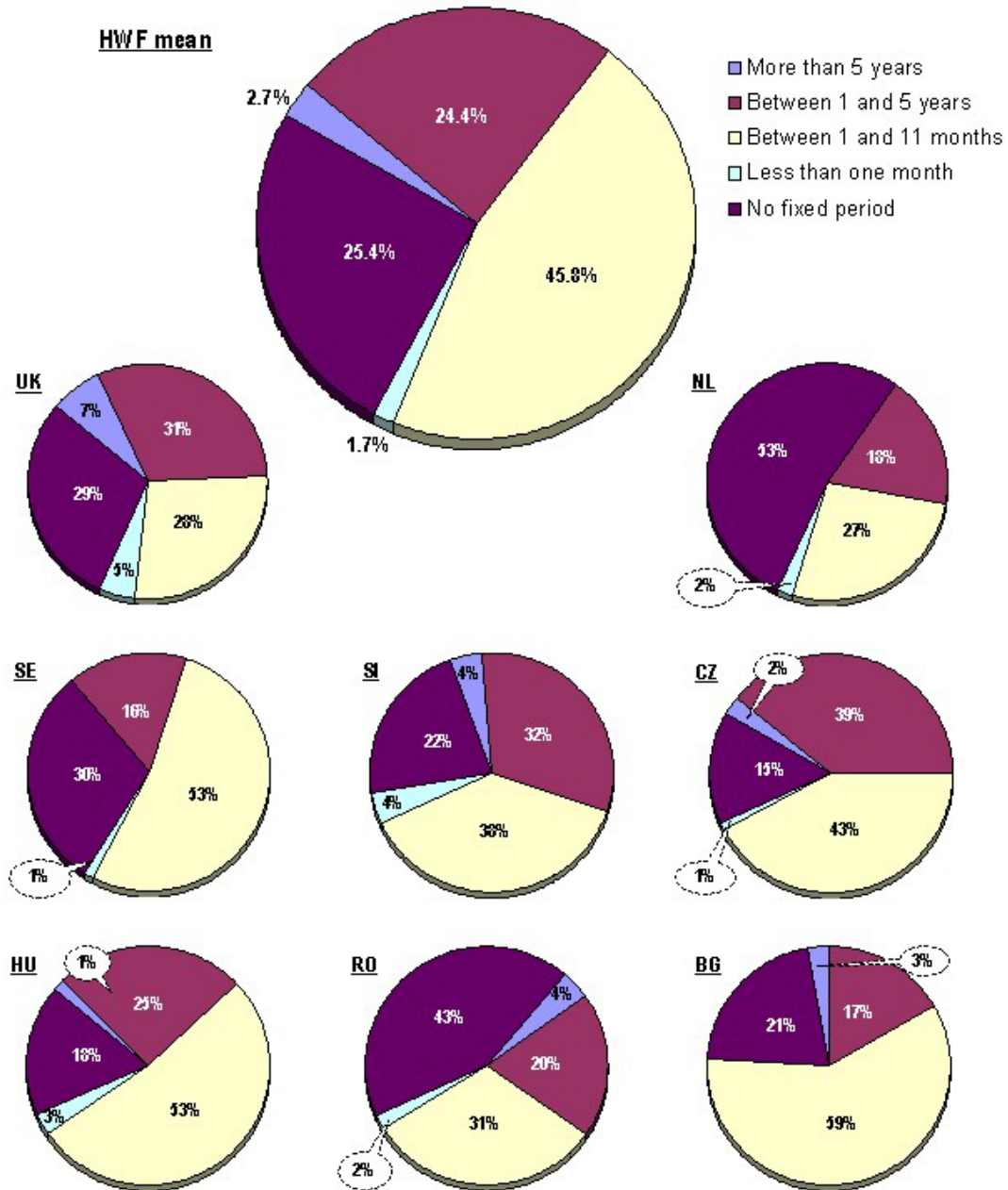
Figure 17. Type of contract (main activity).



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.25: The main income-earning activity: "What sort of contract do you have with you employer?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Figure 18. Duration of fixed contracts (main activity).



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.28: The main income-earning activity / FIXED CONTRACTS: "How long is this contract for?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Fixed contracts constitute on average 8 per cent of all contractual arrangements at main places of works of HWF respondents (variations from 1 per cent in the UK to 20 per cent in Bulgaria).

We can see from the chart above (Figure 18) that the modal duration of fixed-term contracts is up to one year (mean HWF value is 48 per cent, ranging from 27 per cent in the Netherlands to 59 per cent in Bulgaria). “No fixed period” scores 25 per cent as HWF mean value and ranging from 18 per cent in the Czech Republic to 53 per cent in

the Netherlands. Duration between 1 and 5 years is characteristic for another quarter of HWF respondents at fixed-term contracts; this ranges from 17 per cent in Romania to 39 per cent in the Czech Republic.

in the UK especially, fixed term contracts were likely to be longer, more than five years. Most fixed term contracts, however, were for between 1 and 11 months. No fixed term seems to be especially common in the Netherlands and in Romania.

5.3. CONCLUSIONS

5.3.1. Conclusion: job stability

There was no obvious East-West dimension in job stability. The least job stability was in the UK, but Hungary and the Czech Republic have had very dynamic labour markets in the last ten years (as we shall see later) so that there was a lot of movement in those countries. This is not necessarily a sign of instability. In Bulgaria, it represents more the massive shedding of jobs after transition. Slovenia and Romania represent more the “old” pattern of the former regimes whereby people expected to stay in a job for most of their lives. Sweden and the Netherlands have labour market policies, which deliberately foster job stability, and we can see the contrast between those countries and the UK.

5.3.2. Conclusion: Contract flexibility

Most people had permanent contracts. Only 9 per cent of people had fixed term contracts and 7 per cent had no contracts. Those with no contracts were most often found in the UK, Romania, Hungary and Bulgaria. Those with permanent contracts were a privileged group with higher education and higher income. Those without permanent contracts were more often people at the start or at the end of their working careers and they frequently did not want permanent contracts. Most temporary contracts were for less than one year.

Chapter 6.

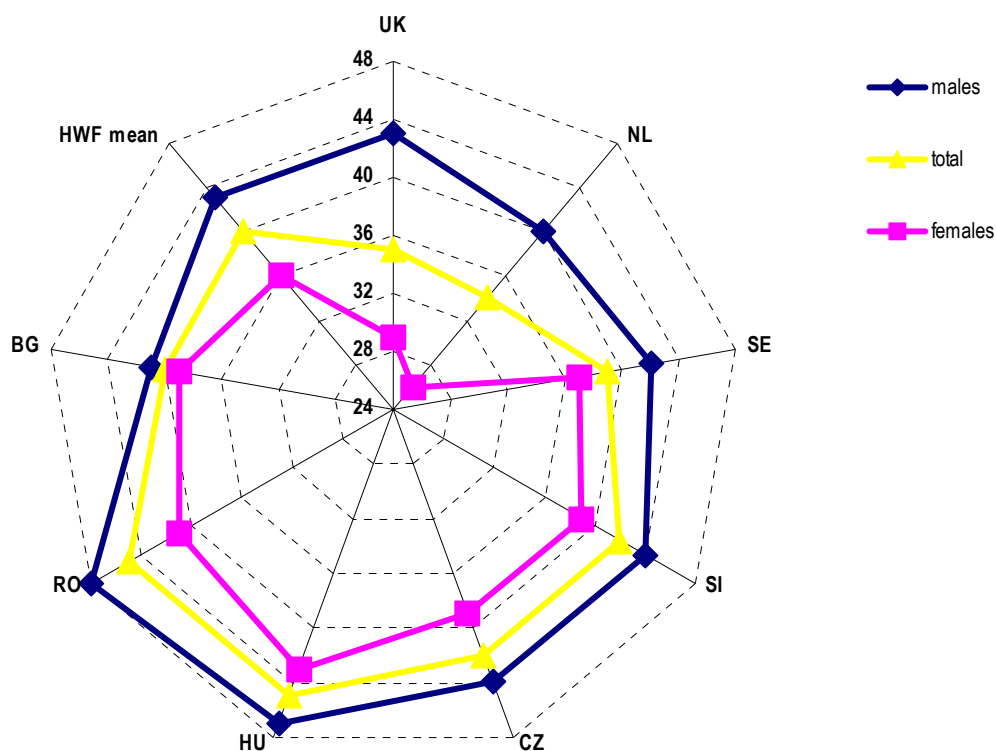
Flexibility of Time

6.1. WORKING HOURS

Table 16-17 and Figure 19, Figure 20 show the mean and the median number of hours worked per week. Since “part time” means something different in every country, this is perhaps a better way to look at the length of the working week. On average, the people in the Accession countries work the longest hours, but that is probably because there is no tradition of part time work in those countries. In the old EU countries, we see clear differences between men and women, reflecting this tradition of the part time option for women. Thus, in the UK, the average working week for men is 43 hours, whilst for women it is 29 hours. In the Netherlands the difference is 40 and 26 and Sweden the gap narrows to between 42 and 37. In the Czech Republic and Slovenia the gap between men’s and women’s working hours is also 5 hours but both men and women work

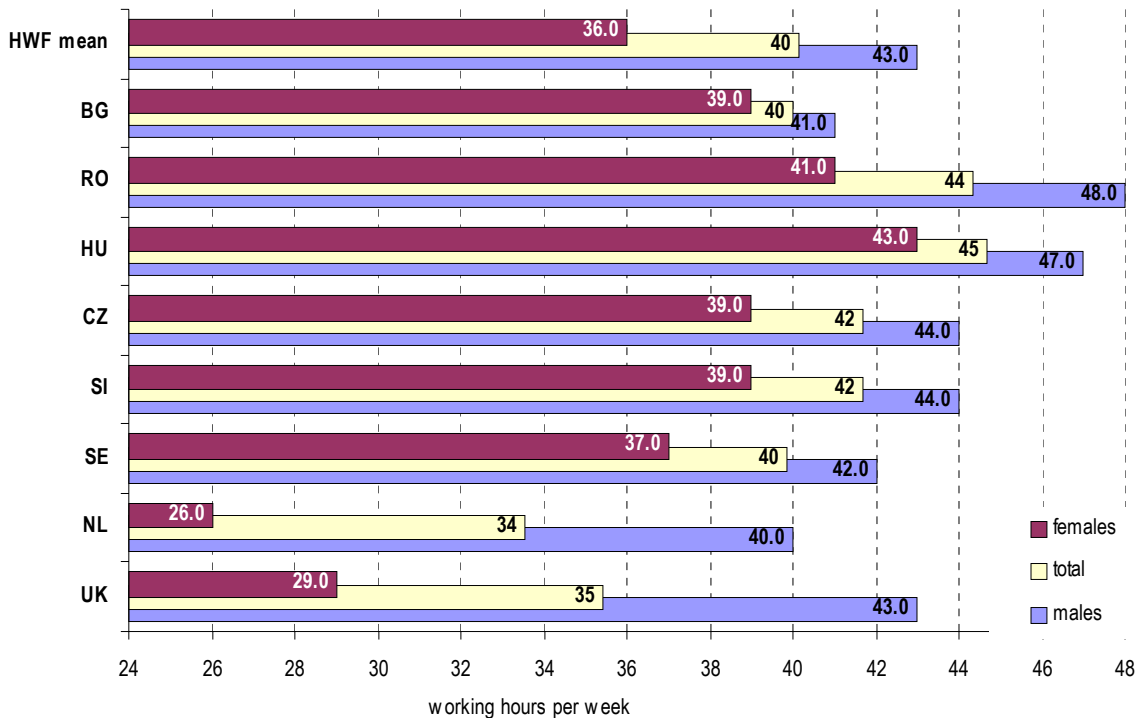
longer hours. This is also the case in Romania where the longest hours are worked on average (although the median is not so different to other countries): 48 for men and 41 for women. In Bulgaria the difference is very small with 39 for women and 41 for men. Thus, only in the Netherlands is the 40-hour week the average for men: everywhere else, men work longer than 40 hours on average. The longest hours are worked by people in the middle (prime) aged groups, who we can assume are often those with family responsibilities. Those with better education are generally working longer hours, although in Romania it is the reverse, reflecting the fact that many of those with long hours would be working on the land. Also reflecting this fact was the finding that longer hours were usually associated with higher income, except in Romania.

Figure 19. Hours of work on the main activity, mean values per gender, per country (radar chart).



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.11: The main income-earning activity. "How many hours do you usually work per week on this activity?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Figure 20. Hours of work on the main activity, mean values per gender, per country (bar chart).

Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.11: The main income-earning activity.
 "How many hours do you usually work per week on this activity?"

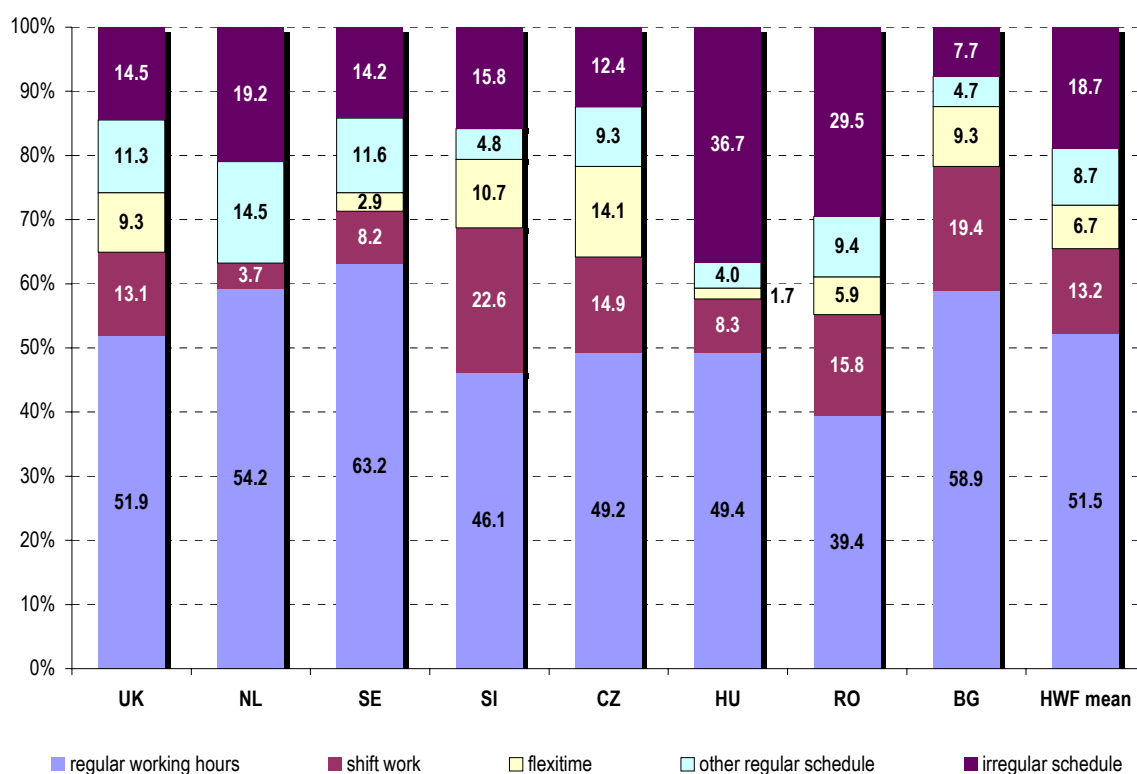
Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

6.2. WORKING SCHEDULE

We asked firstly about the regular working schedule, Monday to Friday and then about deviations from that schedule (assuming that the precise peculiarities of the schedule would differ from country to country) (Table 16-18 - Table 16-22). According to this question, the respondents in Sweden were most likely to have a regular working schedule, with almost two thirds (63 per cent) responding positively to this question. Bulgaria came next with 59 per cent and the Netherlands, 54 per cent. In the UK 52 per cent of

people had a regular working schedule and in Hungary (50 per cent) and the Czech Republic 50 per cent. This fell to 46 per cent in Slovenia and 39 per cent in Romania. The regular Monday to Friday schedule was most often found among those with better educational levels and better incomes. We can assume that having a regular schedule was a privileged situation in most countries, although less so in the UK and the Czech Republic.

Figure 21. Types of working schedule on the main activity.



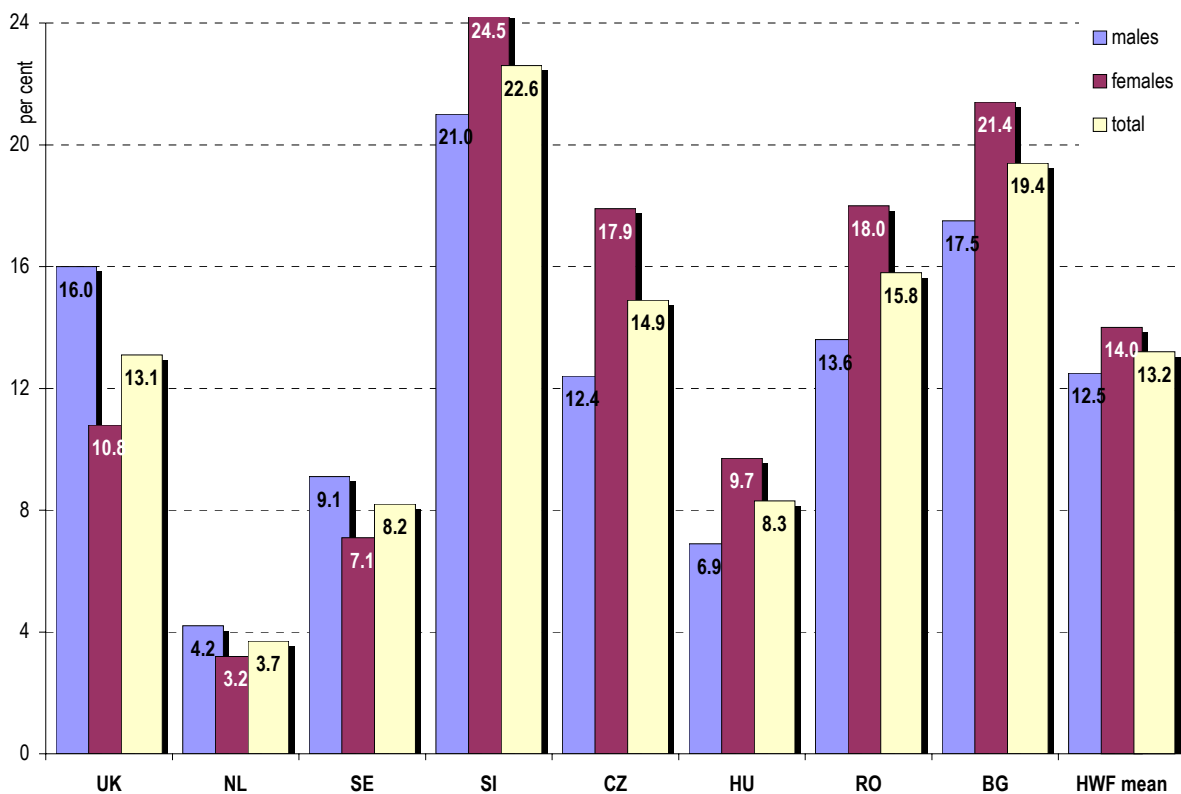
Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.12: The main income-earning activity. "Is your working schedule REGULAR / SHIFT WORK / FLEXTIME / OTHER REGULAR // IRREGULAR ?" "Flexitime" means that you work regular hours but can arrive a little earlier/later or leave a little earlier/later. Usually this is not more than one hour flexibility in the day.

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

The next question was about regular shift work. Slovenia and Bulgaria have the most shift workers with about one fifth of the population doing this kind of work, followed by Romania (16 per cent) and the Czech Republic (15 per cent) and the United Kingdom (13 per cent). Hungary and Sweden all had below 10 per cent and the Netherlands less than 4 per cent. We could say that shift work perhaps reflects the predominance of traditional industrial enterprises as much as a new, flexible labour market in some of these countries. Shift work is most often done by women in the new EU countries and by men in the old EU countries, by younger people and by those with lower levels of education.

Flexitime schedules were most often found in the Czech Republic (14 per cent) and Slovenia (11 per cent) followed by Bulgaria and the UK (about 9 per cent). Hungary had the least number of flexitime people with only 2 per cent. In the Czech Republic it was most often men and those with high incomes who had this kind of freedom, whilst in Slovenia there was not much difference between the sexes, but often those with high income who had flexitime schedules. In Bulgaria it was men and in the UK, women who were likely to have such schedules. In most places flexitime was associated with higher incomes so we could say that it was a privileged kind of working schedule.

Figure 22. Type of working schedule at main income-earning activity: Shift work



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.12: The main income-earning activity. "Is your working schedule REGULAR / SHIFT WORK / FLEXTIME / OTHER REGULAR // IRREGULAR?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Around 9 per cent had an “other regular working schedule”. However, in the Netherlands this went up to 15 per cent, in Sweden 12 per cent, in the United Kingdom, 11 per cent. This probably reflects the prevalence of part time work in those countries. The new EU countries had generally less “other” schedules. Slovenia, Bulgaria and Hungary had the least number of people with these kinds of schedules.

A large number of people had an irregular working schedule (around one fifth) (Table 16-22). The highest numbers were found in the Hungary (37 per cent) and Romania (30 per cent) with substantially above the HWF mean. The lowest numbers with irregular working schedules were found in Bulgaria (8 per cent). The Netherlands, the UK and Sweden were around the same with between 14 per cent and 19 per cent. The

Czech Republic had 12 per cent and Slovenia 16 per cent. In the new European countries it was mainly men who had irregular schedules, in the old EU countries, mainly women. In many countries it was the lower educated group who had such irregular schedules. It seems to be mainly men in the prime aged group who have this kind of schedule, most often low income earners. In some countries (the Netherlands, Czech Republic, Hungary, Bulgaria) these were noticeably in the highest income group, whilst in other countries (Romania, Slovenia, the UK) they were in the lowest income group. It seems therefore, that an irregular working schedule can be either the work of a privileged (perhaps professional) person or a lower income, less privileged member of the workforce.

6.3. DESIRED WORKING TIME

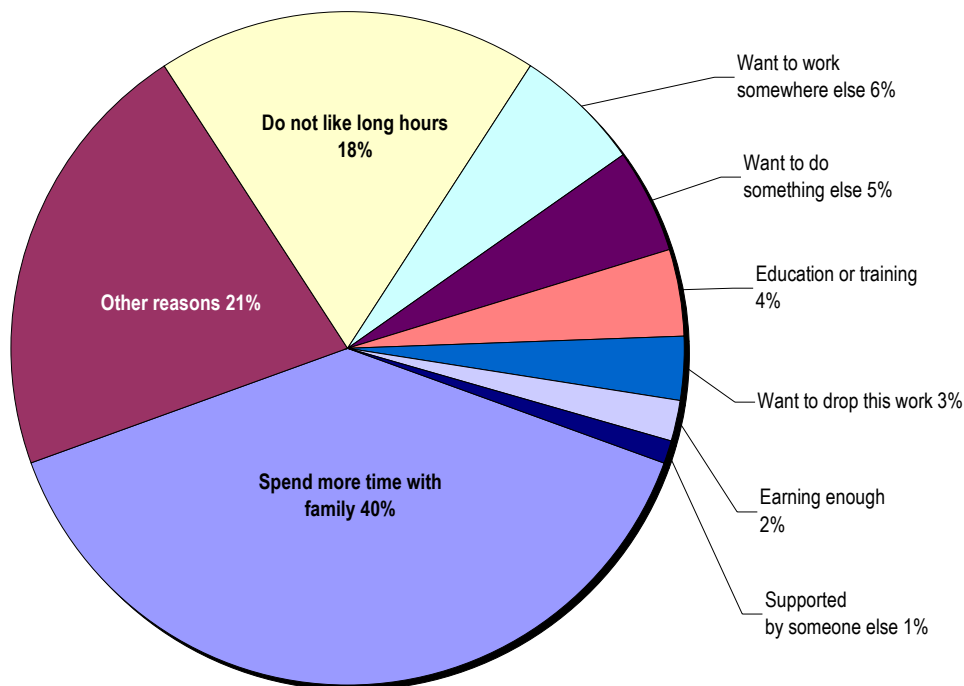
Many people would like to work less hours, altogether 28 per cent of the sample (Table 16-23). This was most often found in Czech Republic 39 per cent and in Sweden 36 per cent followed by the Netherlands (30 per cent). In Hungary there were 29 per cent and in the United Kingdom around one quarter wanted to work less hours. In Bulgaria only 12 per cent of respondents wanted to work less hours and only 22 per cent in Romania.

Even more people wanted to work the same hours: 73 per cent in Bulgaria, 69 per cent in the UK, 60 per cent in the Netherlands, 57 per cent in Sweden, 66 per cent in Slovenia, 59 per cent in Hungary and the Czech Republic and 54 per cent in Romania. Those wanting to work more hours were 10 per cent altogether, 25 per cent in Romania, 15 per cent in Bulgaria and 12 per cent in Hungary.

The people who want to work less hours are most often men, and most often those with higher income except in Bulgaria and Romania.

The overwhelming reason for wanting to work less hours is to spend more time with the family and this is followed by “other reasons” and then not wanting to work long hours.

If we look in more detail at the issue of working less hours in order to spend more time with the family, we find that this is most often the case in Sweden (52 per cent of respondents), followed by the United Kingdom (49 per cent of respondents) and the Czech Republic (49 per cent of respondents). In Bulgaria only an astonishing 4 per cent give this reason, whilst in the Netherlands it is 28 per cent and in Romania 31 per cent. Other data also suggests that in Sweden, the conflict between work and care is felt most acutely (Strandh and Nordenmark 2003, Cousins and Tang 2003a, 2003b¹), whilst in the Netherlands, perhaps the prevalence of part time work is a solution to this conflict. The majority of part timers in the UK also want to work the same hours to fulfil domestic commitments, so conflict is not so high for part-timers.

Figure 23. Reasons for wanting less hours on the main activity.

Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.15: The main income-earning activity "Would you like to work on this activity the same number of hours, more hours, or less hours?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Usually the work-family conflict is seen as a problem for women. But in the UK, the Netherlands, and Sweden it is more often mentioned by men. In ECE countries, where women have traditionally worked full time, it is definitely a women's problem, although even in those countries between 30 per cent and 40 per cent of men mention this issue. The problem of work-family conflict in this respect is seen as an issue amongst mainly high-income groups.

The main reasons for wanting to work the same hours, is once more to spend more time at home with domestic commitments (41 per cent Romania and Hungary, 37 per cent the UK, 35 per cent Czech Republic, 32 per cent Slovenia, 25 per cent Sweden, 22 per cent Bulgaria and 13 per cent the Netherlands), because they do not like working longer hours (25 per cent) and because they are earning enough already, followed by "other"

reasons. It is overwhelmingly women who say that they work these hours in order to spend time with their families and it is the same in every country. In the UK and the Netherlands it is low-income people who say this (presumably part timers), whilst in most other countries it is a value expressed by higher income respondents.

Not so many people wanted to work more hours (10 per cent overall) but there were wide differences between countries. The countries where most people wanted to work more hours were Romania (25 per cent), Bulgaria (15 per cent) and Hungary (12 per cent). 10 per cent of respondents in the Netherlands also wanted to work more hours (mainly women). Very few people wanted to work more hours in the Czech Republic, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Slovenia. The most important reason for wanting to work more hours was because respondents needed

more money. This was most often the case in Hungary and Romania (86 per cent and 85 per cent of workers) followed by Bulgaria (82 per cent) the United Kingdom (72 per cent) and Czech Republic (68 per cent). Those in the Netherlands, Slovenia and Sweden were least likely to report this, and the percentage in the Netherlands was especially low at 22 per cent. This means that the relatively large number of women wanting to work more hours in the Netherlands must have other motives. There is a clear East-West divide in response to this question: in the UK, the Netherlands and Sweden, (and also Slovenia to some extent) it is women who would like to work more hours for money, whilst in the rest of the ECE countries it is men.

In the Netherlands, the UK and Slovenia it is clearly the lower income groups who wanted to work more hours for more money, although in other countries this was more likely to be found among all income groups and in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Romania it was even the higher income groups.

Next, we looked at how work consumes different parts of people's time. Respondents were

asked how often they carry out these activities in the evening, at weekends, or at nights. Here we have only selected those that said "never". 51 per cent of HWF respondents never do any work in the evening and this was highest in Romania (68 per cent), Slovenia (61 per cent) and Bulgaria (55 per cent). In Hungary and in Sweden people were most likely to do their work in the evenings since only 34 per cent and 35 per cent said that they never worked in the evening. Men were more likely to work in the evenings than women.

There was a similar pattern for working at nights. In all countries about three quarters of respondents did not work nights. Men were more likely to work at nights than women in all countries.

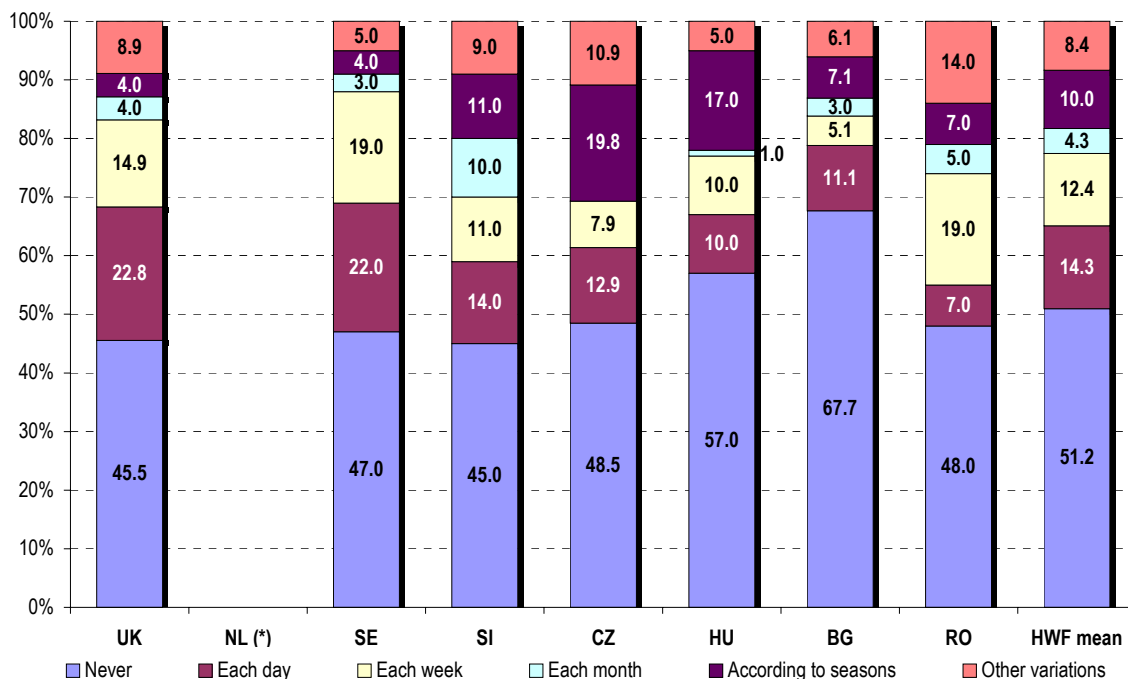
Just under half of respondents worked at weekends. Working at the weekends was most often found in Hungary (42 per cent never) and Bulgaria (42 per cent never) and the Czech Republic (42 per cent never). Those least likely to work at weekends are in Romania, although differences between countries were small. Men are also more likely to work at the weekends than women.

6.4. VARIATIONS IN WORKING HOURS

Respondents were asked if their working hours varied at all. This was another way of asking about flexibility. For the largest share of people, their hours never vary, but in all countries apart from Hungary and Bulgaria, more than half of

people who answered this question had varying hours. Most common were hours that varied by the week or even by the day. Most flexible in this respect were Sweden and the UK.

Figure 24. Patterns of variations in hours on the main activities.



Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, Q1.22: The main income-earning activity "Do you work varying hours?"
 (2) (*) No compatible data for the Netherlands

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

6.5. CONCLUSIONS: WORKING TIMES

An average working week in the HWF countries is 40 hours (in the main employment activity). However, there are considerable variations between the different groups of people. First, men do work more than women (43 and 36 hours per week respectively). Employed respondents from the EU countries report shorter working times as compared with those from East European countries (for instance, 35/35 hours per week as mean values for the UK and the Netherlands versus 44/45 hours in Hungary and Romania).

In Sweden there were the most people with a regular working schedule, with two thirds of respondents having this kind of schedule. This was followed by Bulgaria, the Netherlands and the UK. Those in Romania and Slovenia were least likely to have a regular working schedule. Generally, speaking, those with a regular working schedule were more likely to be the better educated and better paid. In ECE countries there was the most shift work, perhaps reflecting the strong industrial base in those countries. Flexitime was most often found in the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Bulgaria and the UK. Altogether, 9 per cent of all respondents however, had "other" kinds of work-

ing schedules. Those with irregular schedules were found most often in Hungary (37 per cent) and Romania (30 per cent).

Many people wanted to work less hours and this was most often expressed in Sweden, the Czech Republic and Slovenia, all countries with a high prevalence of full time work. In the Netherlands, the UK and the Czech Republic people were also more likely to say that they wanted to work the same hours, perhaps reflecting the more flexible schedules available in those countries. The overwhelming reason for wanting to work less hours or the same hours is to spend more time with the family and surprisingly, this was most often expressed by men, especially high income men.

Not many people wanted to work more hours, but they were found in Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary where people feel themselves to be most economically disadvantaged; and the main motivation was that they wanted to earn more money. They were people mostly with lower income. In the West it was women who expressed this preference and in the East it was men.

NOTES

1. Strandh, M. and Nordenmark, M. (2003) 'Do family friendly policies influence the costs of being flexible?' in Wallace, C. Thematic Papers, HWF Report No. 4 Volume 2

Chapter 7.

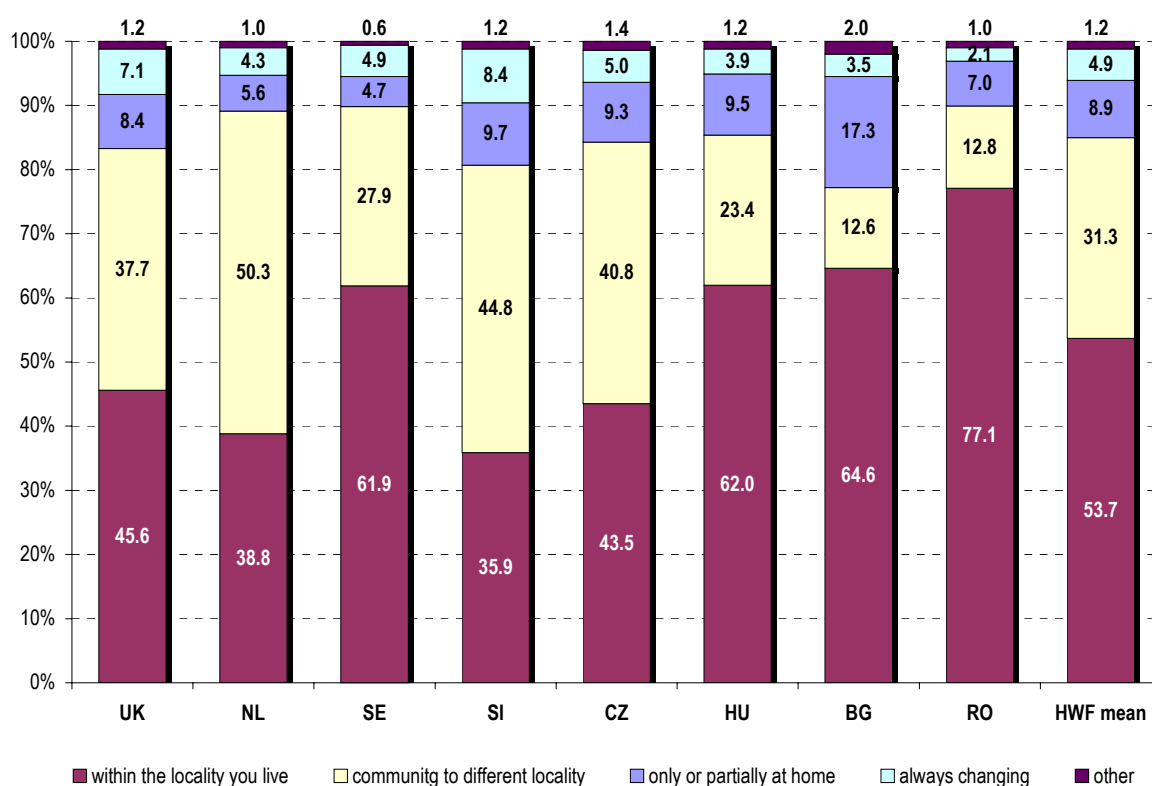
Place of Work

7.1. OVERVIEW

Many people work within the locality where they live (Table 16-36 - Table 16-40, Figure 25). However, commuting is rather common in the Netherlands (50 per cent of people), Slovenia (45 per cent) the Czech Republic (41 per cent) and the UK (38 per cent). A small number of people worked at home or home and elsewhere combined (9 per cent). In Romania and Slovenia this is likely to be people who are working in subsistence agriculture since they are most likely to be

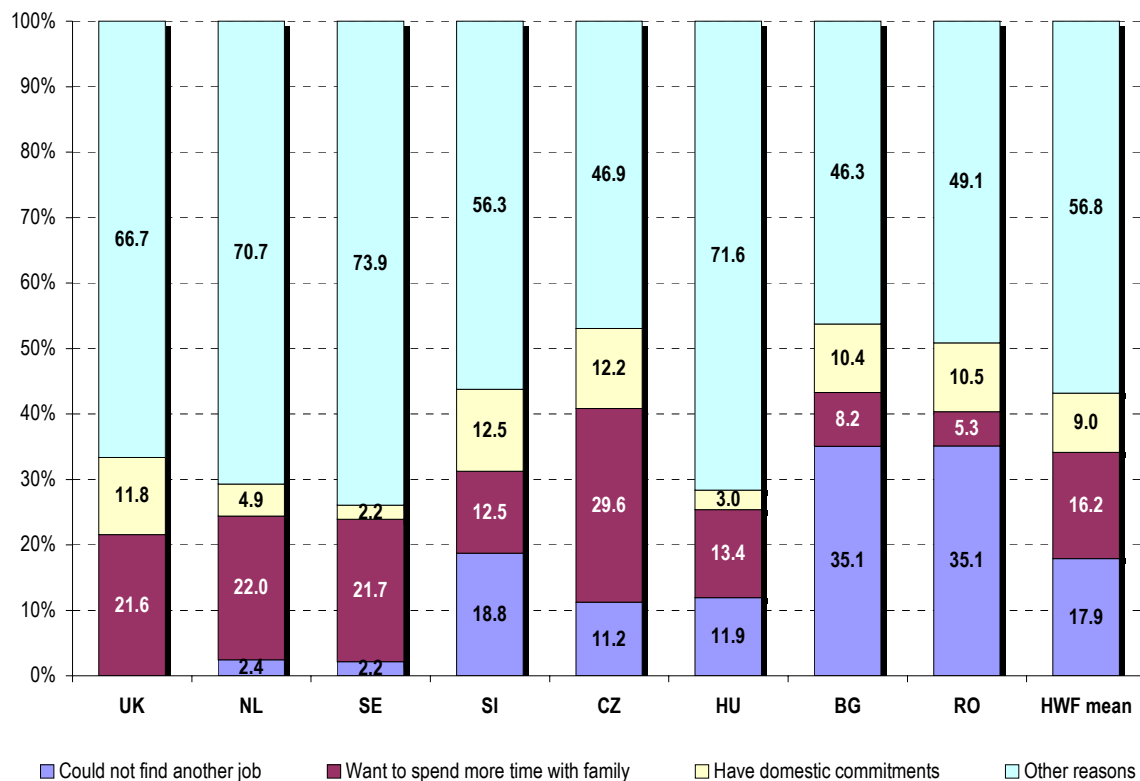
found in rural areas, although this was not the case in the Czech Republic or Hungary. Where people were also likely to work from home. We could hypothesise that these were perhaps self-employed people of various kinds. For 5 per cent of the sample, their place of work was always changing and this was most common in Slovenia (8 per cent) and the UK (7 per cent). Most people therefore still have a traditional pattern of travelling to a workplace.

Figure 25. Place of work on the main activity



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.20: Place of the main income-earning activity

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Figure 26. Reasons for working at home (main activity).

NOTE: HWF QUESTIONNAIRE, Q1.21: THE MAIN INCOME-EARNING ACTIVITY (IF WORKED AT HOME): "WHAT IS THE REASON FOR DOING THIS ACTIVITY AT HOME?"

SOURCE: HWF SURVEY 2001 – UNIFIED INTERNATIONAL DATA COLLECTION.

If we look at the Figure 26, we find that "other reasons" are the most popular reason for working at home and this was most often the case in the old European countries. Not being able to find any other job was most often cited in the East European countries, especially Romania and Bulgaria. Working at home in order to be able to spend more time with the family was most common in the old European countries as well as the Czech Republic and domestic commitments

played a role in the UK, Slovenia, Czech Republic, Romania and Bulgaria.

In most countries, it was women who wanted to spend more time with their families, although in Sweden it was men who answered this and in Slovenia the sexes were 50/50.

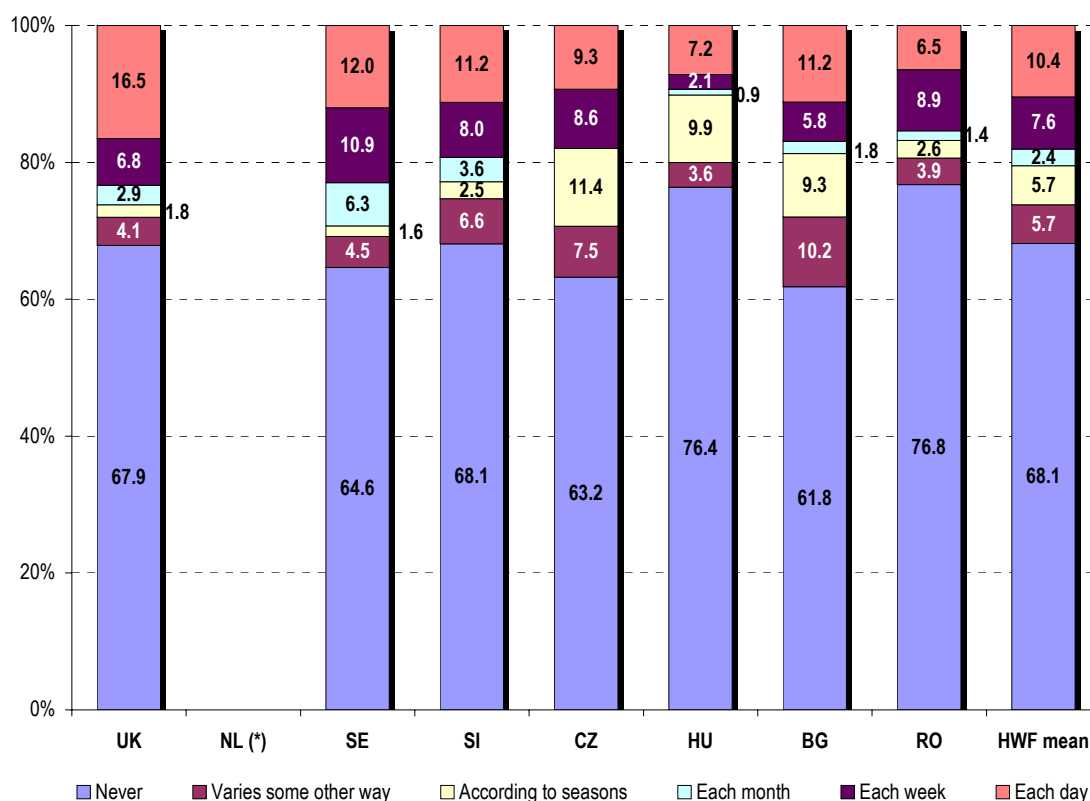
We could say therefore that in some countries, working at home represents a form of chosen flexibility and in other countries it is more a form of forced flexibility.

7.2. VARYING PLACES

Working in varying places was less common. Around 68 per cent of people answered that their place of work never varies, and this was most common in Romania and Hungary and least

common in Sweden and Bulgaria. Variations by the week and the day were most common. The men's place of work was much more likely to vary than the women's.

Figure 27. Variations in places of work (main activity).



NOTES: (1) HWF QUESTIONNAIRE, Q1.23: THE MAIN INCOME-EARNING ACTIVITY: "DO YOU WORK VARYING HOURS?"
 (2) (*) NO COMPATIBLE DATA FOR THE NETHERLANDS

SOURCE: HWF SURVEY 2001 – UNIFIED INTERNATIONAL DATA COLLECTION.

7.3. CONCLUSIONS: PLACE OF WORK

Most people work within the locality they live (the mean HWF value is 54 per cent plus 9 per cent of respondents working only or partially at home) and every third respondent in the HWF total sample commutes to a different locality for work.

At the same time, this proportion is completely reversed in the most urbanized small countries, like the Netherlands and Slovenia. In these countries, there are more people commuting to a different locality to reach their working places than those respondents working within the same locality.

More than 50 per cent of respondents live and work in the same localities in the following

countries: Romania (77 per cent), Bulgaria (65 per cent), Hungary (62 per cent) and Sweden (62 per cent).

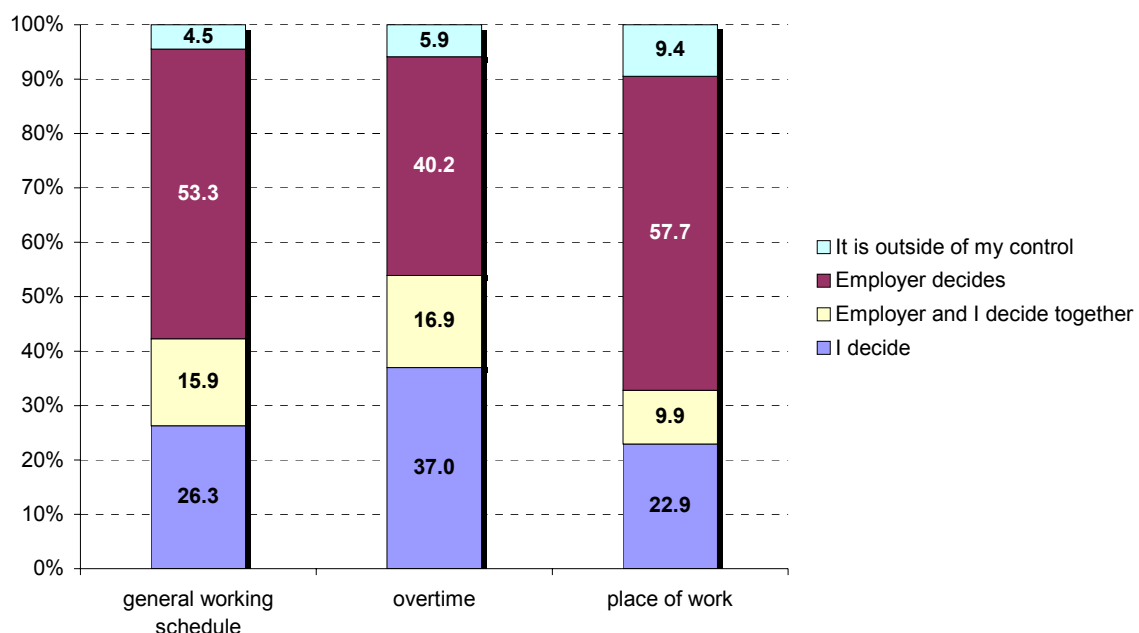
Only 5 per cent of respondents worked at home and 4 per cent at home and elsewhere. These were most often found in Romania, Slovenia, Hungary and the Czech Republic. For women, working at home was a way of combining work and family. For two thirds of people, their place of work never varies. However, for those where it varies, these are mainly men.

Chapter 8. Control over Flexibility

A very important factor to emerge from the literature reviews is the extent to which people have control over the flexibility that they experience, in particular, the general working schedule, overtime hours of work and place of work. Respon-

dents were given the options “I decide” “employer decides” “employer and I decide together” “it is outside of our control”. (Table 16-41 to Table 16-56, Figure 28 to Figure 31.)

Figure 28. Control over main aspects of flexibility, HWF means (main activity)



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.24: The main income-earning activity: “Regarding this activity, do you decide or someone else decide on: WORKING SCHEDULE // OVERTIME HOURS // PLACE OF WORK ?”

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

8.1. CONTROL OVER THE GENERAL SCHEDULE OF WORK

Altogether, 26 per cent of respondents decided for themselves on their hours of work and this was most important in the Netherlands (42 per cent) and the UK (31 per cent) followed by Romania and Sweden (30 per cent in each country). So it seems that negotiated flexibility does seem to have been introduced into those countries to some extent. The countries where the employee had least control were in Bulgaria (18 per cent) and the Czech Republic (18 per cent).

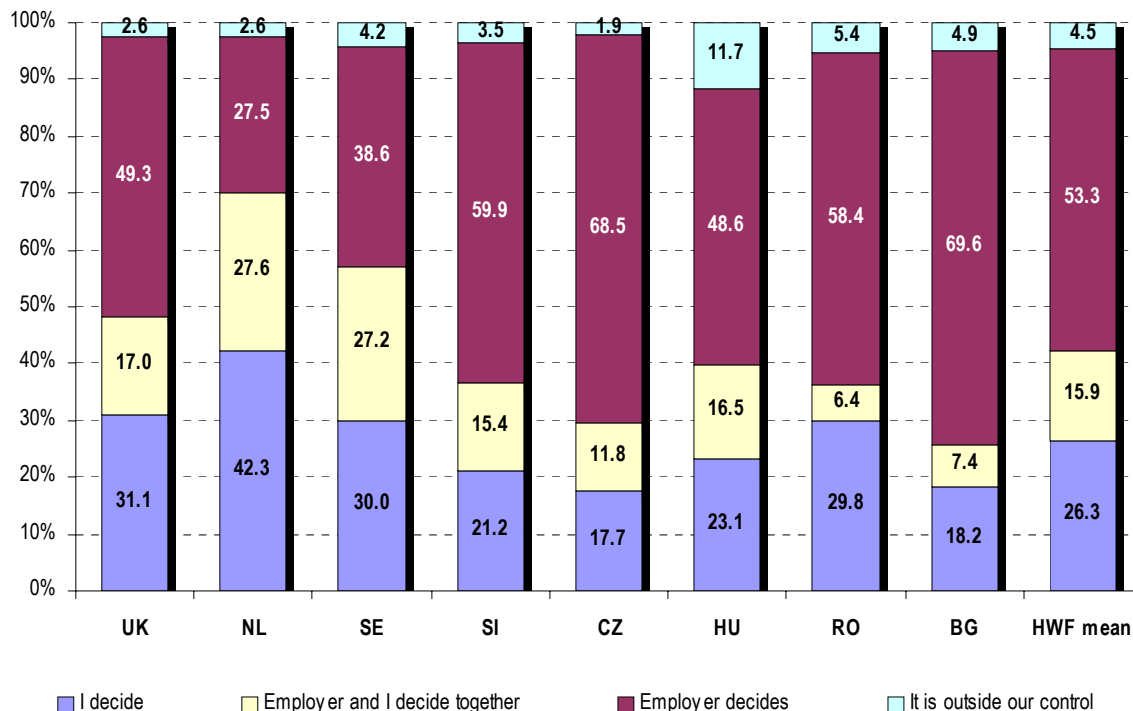
For 53 per cent of respondents, the employer decides. This is most common in Bulgaria (70 per cent) and the Czech Republic (69 per cent) and Romania (58 per cent). The countries, which scored highest on "I decide", scored lowest on "employer decides" (except for Romania where the labour market is bifurcated between traditional type of employment and casual workers/farmers).

For the option "employer and I decide together" the highest scoring countries were more or less that same as for "I decide". However, now the Netherlands is leading with 28 per cent followed by Sweden with 27 per cent and the UK with 17 per cent. Only 6 per cent said that it is "outside of their control" and the highest number were in Hungary with 12 per cent.

The overall score of most favourable (for employees or workers) mechanism of decision making regarding the general schedule of work is observed in the Netherlands and Sweden. In these two countries, there are highest chances that an employee shall define his or her general working schedule him or herself or in cooperation with the employer (70 per cent in the Netherlands and 57 per cent in Sweden).

In all other countries, the chances of full or partial control over the general working schedule by an employee are below 50/50.

Figure 29. Control over the general working schedule (main activity).



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.24: The main income-earning activity: "Regarding this activity, do you decide or someone else decide on: WORKING SCHEDULE?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

8.2. CONTROL OF THE OVERTIME HOURS

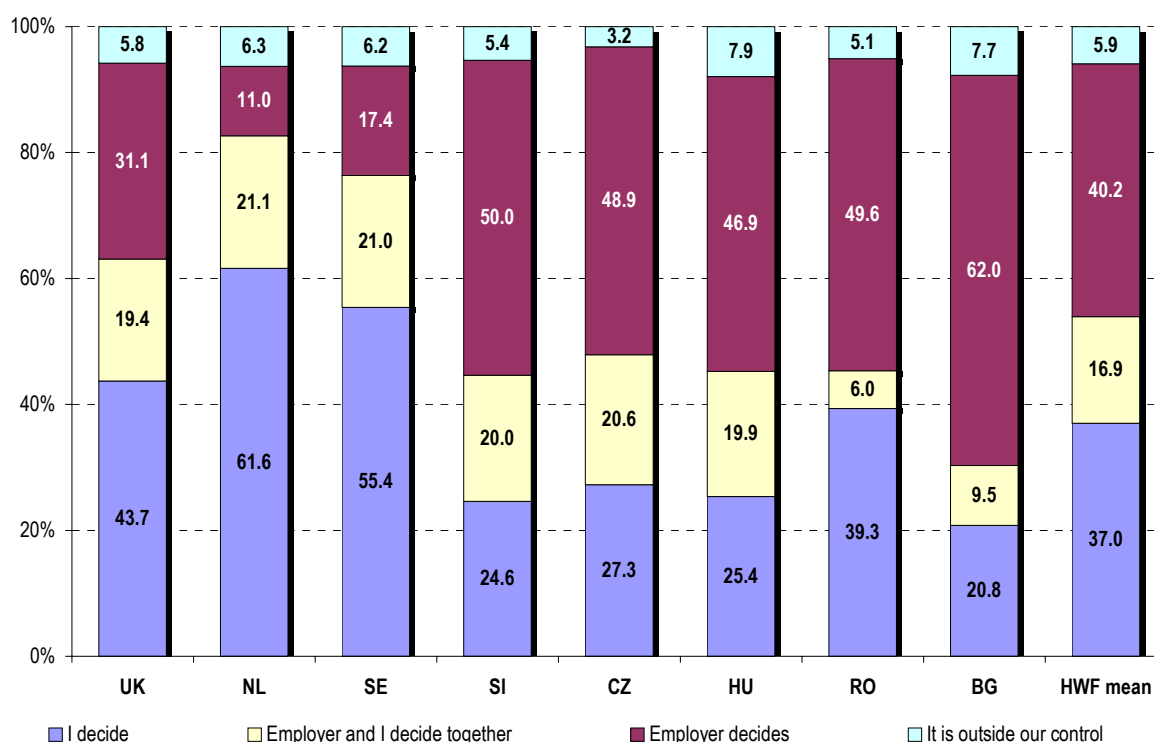
Decisions about the overtime hours followed similar patterns. On average, 37 per cent decided if they would work overtime and the ones most likely to decide were in the Netherlands (62 per cent), Sweden (55 per cent), the UK (43 per cent) and Romania (39 per cent). The employers decided on average in 40 per cent of cases and this was most often the case in Bulgaria (62 per cent), Czech Republic (49 per cent), Slovenia (50 per cent) and Romania (50 per cent). Deciding together is an option chosen by every fifth respondent (19-20 per cent) in all countries except Romania (6 per cent) and Bulgaria (10 per cent).

The general trend is very clear: in the EU countries (the UK, the Netherlands and Sweden),

the is observed a very high probability (63 to 83 per cent) that the decision on working or not overtime hours shall be taken either by a worker or by a worker and the employer together. On the contrary, in the CEE countries there are much less chances that such kind of decision shall be fully or partially taken by an employee (probability varies between 30 and 48 per cent).

We could perhaps see the legacy of the old socialist style pattern of centralism or fordist type of industrial employment in most of the ECE countries and more negotiated flexible patterns in the EU countries.

Figure 30. Control over the overtime hours (main activity).



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.24: The main income-earning activity: "Regarding this activity, do you decide or someone else decide on: OVERTIME HOURS?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

8.3. CONTROL OVER PLACE OF WORK

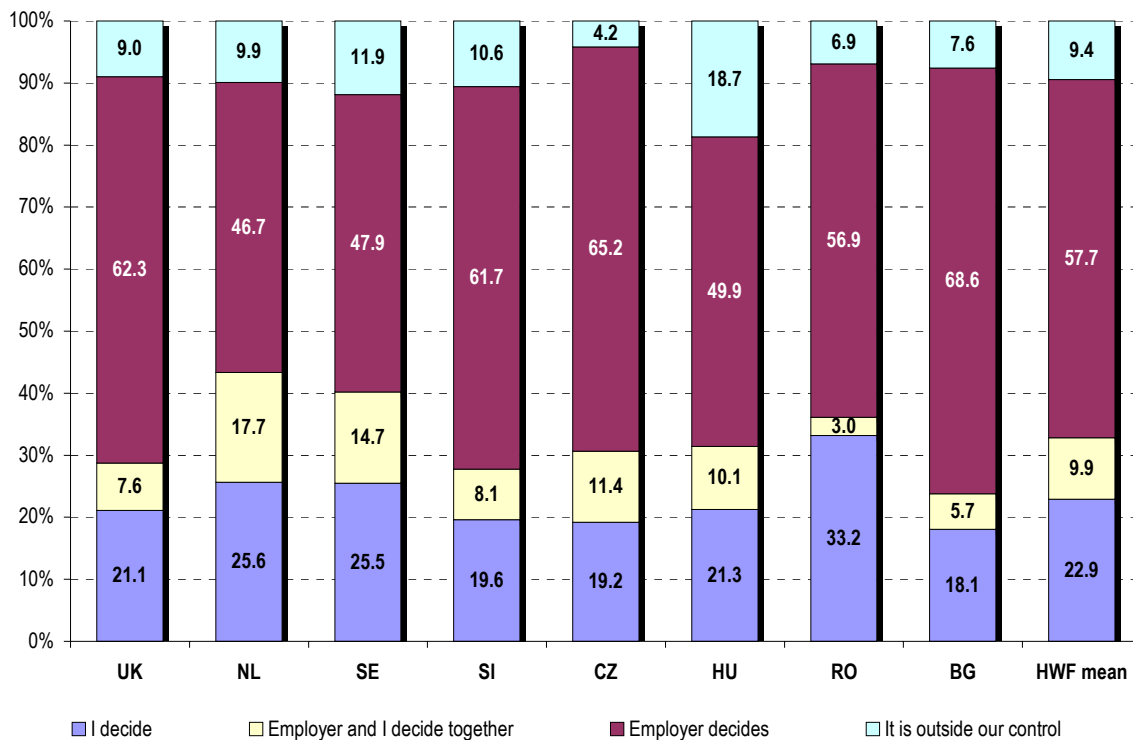
Almost one quarter of respondents controlled their place of work themselves, and these were most likely to be found in Romania (33 per cent), Sweden (26 per cent) and the Netherlands (26 per cent). Employers decided for 57 per cent of respondents and these were most often found in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Slovenia and the United Kingdom. The place of work was negotiated with the employer in around 10 per cent of cases, most often in the Netherlands (18 per cent), Sweden (15 per cent), the Czech Republic (11 per cent) and Hungary (10 per cent). In 10 per cent of cases it was outside of everybody’s control. Swe-

den and the Netherlands therefore, do seem to have negotiated flexibility where the employee has a good deal of control. In Romania the employee also has control, but for different reasons.

Similarly to other aspects of control of the important conditions, the best chances to control places of their work are by Dutch and Swedish respondents (“I decide” + “Employer and I decide together”) with 43 and 40 per cent for those countries respectively.

Those with higher income and higher education control their place of work the most and men control their place of work more than women.

Figure 31. Control over the over place of work (main activity).



Note: HWF Questionnaire, Q1.24: The main income-earning activity: “Regarding this activity, do you decide or someone else decide on: PLACE OF WORK?”

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

8.4. CONCLUSIONS: CONTROL OVER FLEXIBILITY OF CONDITIONS.

The ability to control flexibility is important. One quarter of respondents could control their general working schedule, overtime and place of work. Generally speaking these were better-educated people, older people and people with higher incomes. Men had more control over their flexibility than women. Those in Western countries, espe-

cially Sweden and the Netherlands had the most control. Among the East European countries, Romania was included in those countries with somewhat higher control, this is because the high number of farmers – Romanians were also in the category of people with the least control.

Chapter 9.

Potential Flexibility

9.1. OVERVIEW

This section of the HWF Questionnaire was not asked in every country. The gathered data cover only five countries: United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Czech Republic, Hungary and Bulgaria. (Table 17-1 to Table 17-4, Figure 33, Figure 32).

Respondents were asked about how flexible they would be under certain conditions – if they had not job or if they wanted extra money. One can observe that more than 82 per cent of respondents in Slovenia and Bulgaria would be prepared to work more than 40 hours per week if they had no job and this was the case also for more than 70 per cent of respondents in the Czech Republic. In the UK, 64 per cent of respondents would work more than 40 hours per week and in the Netherlands, this was only 38 per cent.

People in the UK and in Slovenia were the most prepared to move for a job: 61 per cent in the UK and 60 per cent in Slovenia. Half of the respondents were prepared to do this in Bulgaria, and 44 per cent in the Netherlands. In Hungary and the Czech Republic, there was the least will-

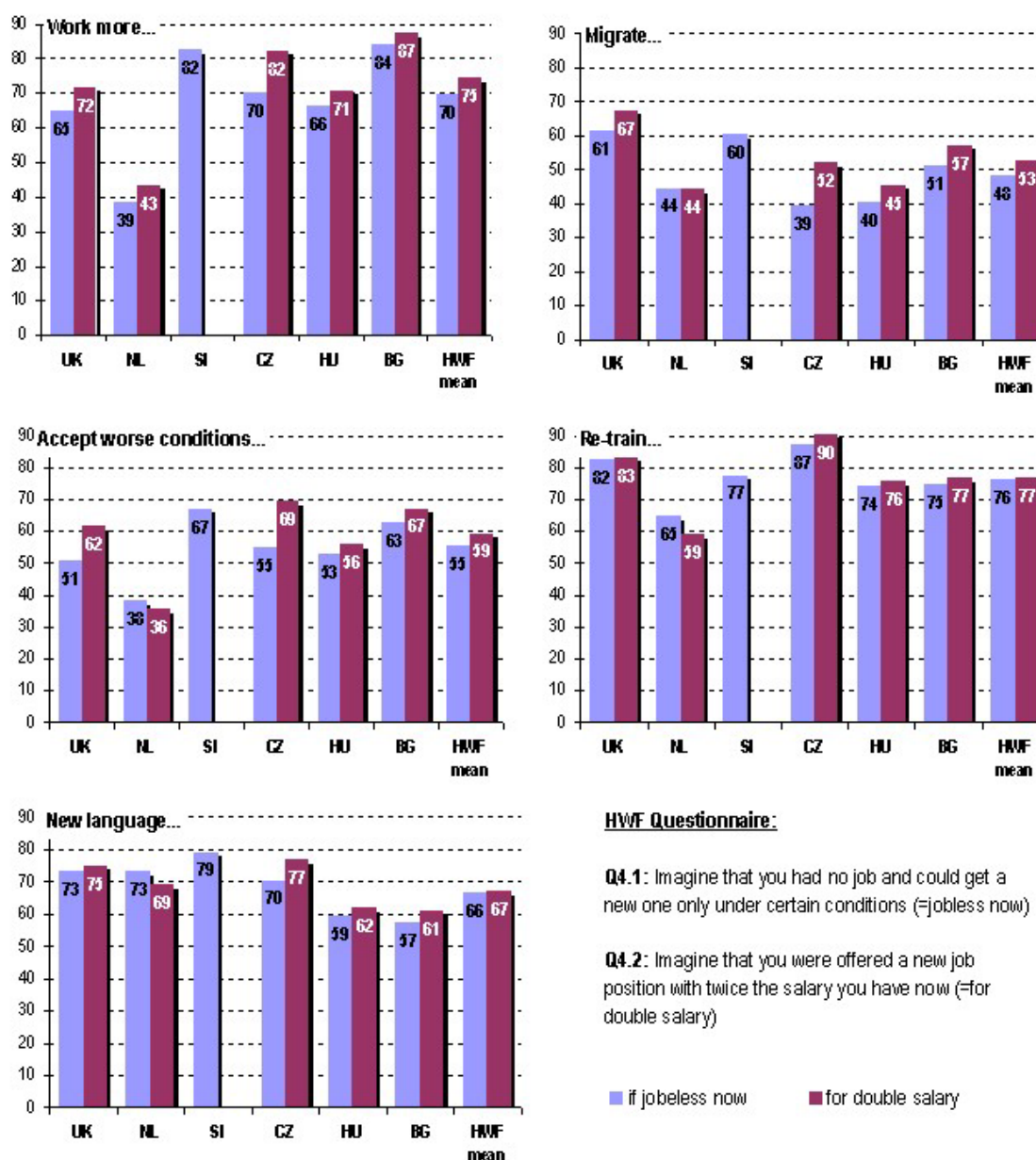
ingness to move for work: only 40 per cent expressed a willingness to do so.

The majority of respondents were also prepared to accept less attractive working conditions rather than be unemployed. This was the case in more than 67 per cent of cases in Slovenia and Bulgaria – 62 per cent. In Hungary, the Czech Republic and the UK, around half were flexible in this respect and in the Netherlands, only 38 per cent.

Many more people were prepared to retrain for another profession. This was the case with almost 87 per cent of Czechs and more than 82 per cent of British people. There were also high numbers (around three quarters) in Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovenia but only 64 per cent in the Netherlands.

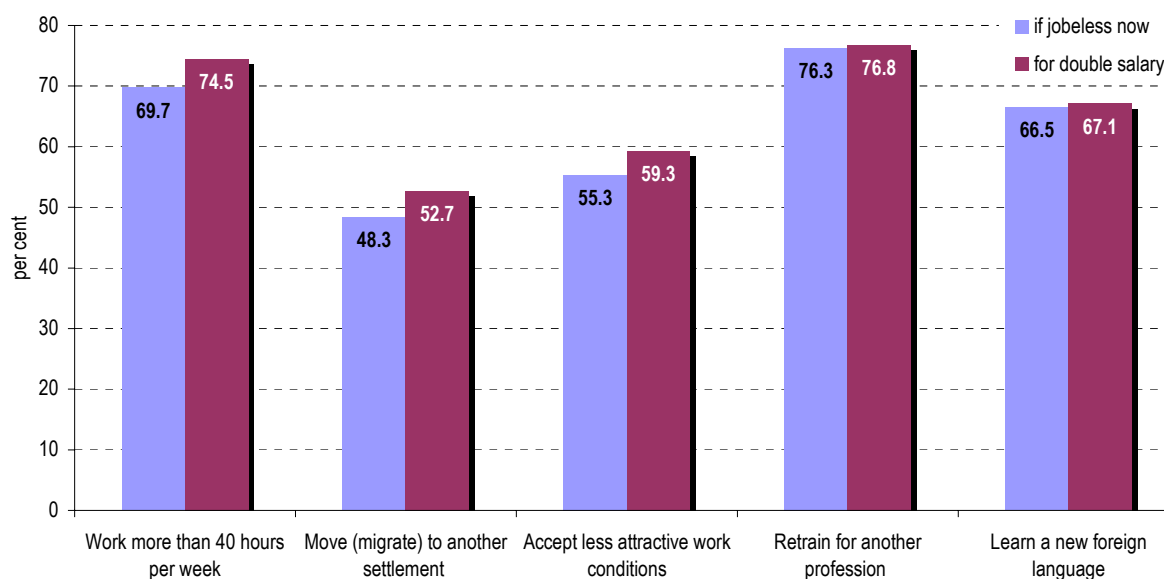
Between 70 per cent and 80 per cent of those in the UK, the Netherlands, Czech Republic and especially Slovenia, were prepared to learn a foreign language in order to get a job, but the numbers were a little lower in Bulgaria and Hungary.

Figure 32. Readiness to accept specific conditions for a new job, per countries (yes+maybe)



Note: HWF Questionnaire, optional questions: Q 4.1 "Imagine that you had no job and get new a new one only under certain conditions. Would you be willing to...?" and Q 4.2 "Imagine that you were offered a new job position with twice the salary you have now. Would you be willing to...?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Figure 33. Readiness to accept specific conditions for a new job, HWF means (yes+maybe)

Note: HWF Questionnaire, optional questions: Q 4.1 "Imagine that you had no job and get new a new one only under certain conditions. Would you be willing to...?" and Q 4.2 "Imagine that you were offered a new job position with twice the salary you have now. Would you be willing to...?"

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

9.2. CONCLUSION: POTENTIAL FLEXIBILITY

The majority of people were prepared to accept flexibility if it meant getting a job rather than being unemployed. Most popular forms of flexibility were working more than 40 hours per week, re-training for another profession or learning a foreign language, which around three quarters of respondents, were prepared to consider. Being prepared to move or accepting less attractive working conditions were possibilities considered by fewer people (but nevertheless around half of respondents). Slovenians were the most likely to be potentially flexible, although Bulgarians often followed. People in the Netherlands were least prepared to work more than 40 hours per week, to move or to accept less attractive working conditions as well as retrain for another profession.

Regardless of possible motivations (job for a jobless or doubling the salary), the hierarchy of

preferred activities of respondents would be the following:

- 1st place: Retrain for another profession (76/77 per cent);
- 2nd place: Work more than 40 hours a week (70/75 per cent)
- 3rd place: Accept less attractive work conditions (55/60 per cent);
- 4th place: Move (migrate) to another settlement (48/53 per cent).

There is no crucial difference in the power of negative social motivation (to stop their joblessness) or positive economic motivation (to double the salary), although the respondents seem to be slightly more pro-active in the case of positive economic motivation.

Chapter 10.

Job Changes in the Last Ten Years

Similarly to the previous one, this question is in the optional section of the HWF Questionnaire. The data cover five countries: United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Czech Republic, Hungary and Bulgaria.

Respondents were asked about the changes in their employment in the last ten years. This

question was not asked in all countries and the expectation was that there would be more job mobility in ECE countries than in Western Europe, on account of the changes that have taken place there. (See **Table 17-5** to **Table 17-11**, Figure 34 to Figure 36).

10.1. ENTERED OR LEFT THE EMPLOYMENT

The survey reveals a picture of very dynamic labour market in the studied countries. One can observe around 20 per cent of people entering the labour market (entered employment) and 15 per cent leaving the active employment (retiring). The clear tendency is that “in-flow” is higher than “out-flow” in most of the considered countries, although with one exception: in Romania, almost

a quarter of respondents reported their retirement during the last ten years, while there were only 15 per cent of respondents who have first entered the employment. The lowest retirement rate is observed in the Czech Republic (only 4 per cent) and this country demonstrated the highest share of new-comers (25 per cent).

10.2. CHANGED EMPLOYMENT IN THE LAST TEN YEARS

In the chart (Figure 34), we can see that respondents from the Czech Republic have experienced most dramatic changes in their employment: every third respondent has changed his or her job at least once and every fourth did it more than once. This country has enjoyed a rather buoyant labour market over the last ten years and where

some 60 per cent of respondents had changed jobs in the last ten years. However, this is followed by the UK, where nearly half (44 per cent) of respondents had also changed jobs in the last ten years. Romania, Bulgaria and Slovenia were rather similar with around one third of people having changed jobs in the last ten years. Changing jobs

was more common among men, among the better educated and among younger people. In the Czech Republic, as in other ECE countries, changing jobs was associated with having a higher income, so we can guess that people did this to im-

prove their labour market situation. In the UK, by contrast, it was associated with having a lower income, so this may be more often some kind of involuntary mobility.

10.3. CHANGING PROFESSIONS IN THE LAST TEN YEARS

However, if we look at how many people changed not just their jobs but also their whole profession in the last ten years, we find many more of them once again, in the Czech Republic, where 40 per cent had undergone such changes. In the UK, by contrast, only 17 per cent had changed their professions. In general, changing profession was more common in the ECE countries. Changing professions was more common among younger

people, among the better educated and among men. In the Czech Republic, as in the other ECE countries, changing profession more than once was associated with better income, whilst in the UK this was associated with having a lower income. Once more, we can see that the incentive to flexibility in the Czech Republic was associated with a person improving their position on the labour market.

10.4. PROMOTION AND DEMOTION

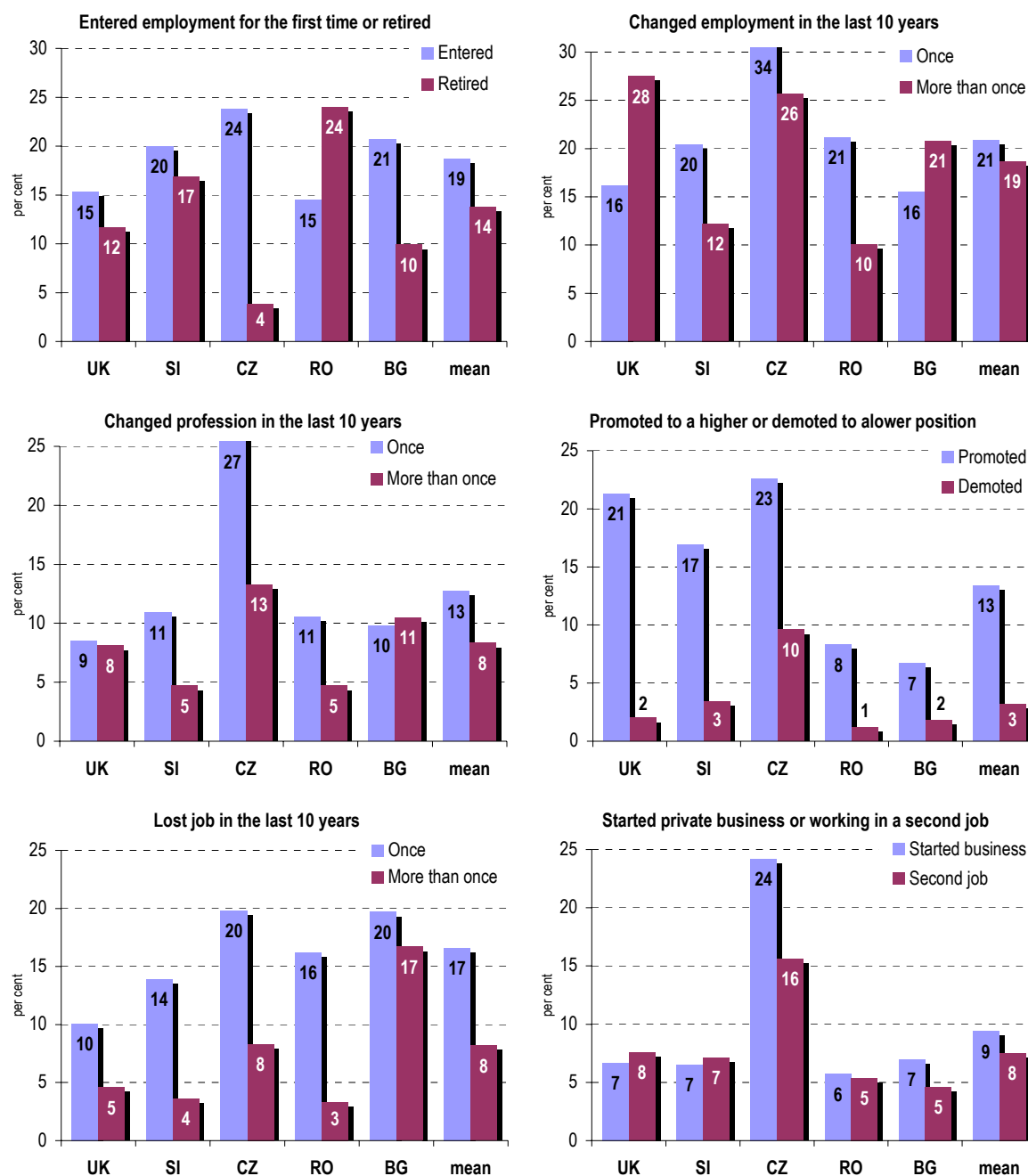
Nearly one quarter of Czechs and one fifth of Slovenians and Britons had been promoted to a higher position in the last ten years. So we can see that the post-communist labour market was rather dynamic in this respect too. Promotion was much less common in Romania and Bulgaria. Promotion was most likely among the young, among the highly educated and among men.

Being demoted to a lower position was much less common, but in the Czech Republic, this still happened to one in ten workers. Demotion was more common in the post-communist countries than in the UK, on account of the massive changes in skills and ownership that have taken place there. It seems however, that such changes mostly offered better job opportunities to workers who were able to take advantage of them.

10.5. LOST JOB

Looking at people who lost employment in the last ten years, this was clearly much more common in ECE countries than in Western Europe. Bulgaria had the highest number of people who lost employment, followed by the Czech Republic.

In Bulgaria large numbers had lost their employment not just once, but even more than once. In all countries, losing a job was most likely associated with men, with lower income people and with less well educated people.

Figure 34. Job changes since 1989 (employment mobility).

Note: HWF Questionnaire, optional question: Q 4.3 "Have any of the following changes occurred in your occupational life since 1989? Register all changes even if it does not correspond to your current status."

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

10.6. SELF-CONFIDENT ADAPTATION: STARTED OWN BUSINESS AND STARTED SECOND JOB

Some people had started their own business in the last ten years. Here, Bulgaria was ahead of the UK by a few per cent, whilst fewer people had started businesses in Romania (interviews with entrepreneurs suggest that this might be partly because of the difficulties of getting permits and partly because of the poor economic situation. Access to credit was another problem). People who had started businesses were more likely to be male, to be in the middle aged group, to have higher incomes and higher education.

A small number of people started working in a second job in the last ten years, but these were mostly found in the Czech Republic. They were mostly younger people with higher education and mostly men. However, once more we find a reverse pattern between East and West with respect to income. Whilst in the UK this was associated with low-income respondents, in the ECE countries, it was mostly associated with high-income respondents – having a second job was a way of boosting income.

10.7. STRUCTURE OF EMPLOYMENT DYNAMICS

Some details of the observed employment dynamics in the selected HWF countries is shown in the Figure 35.

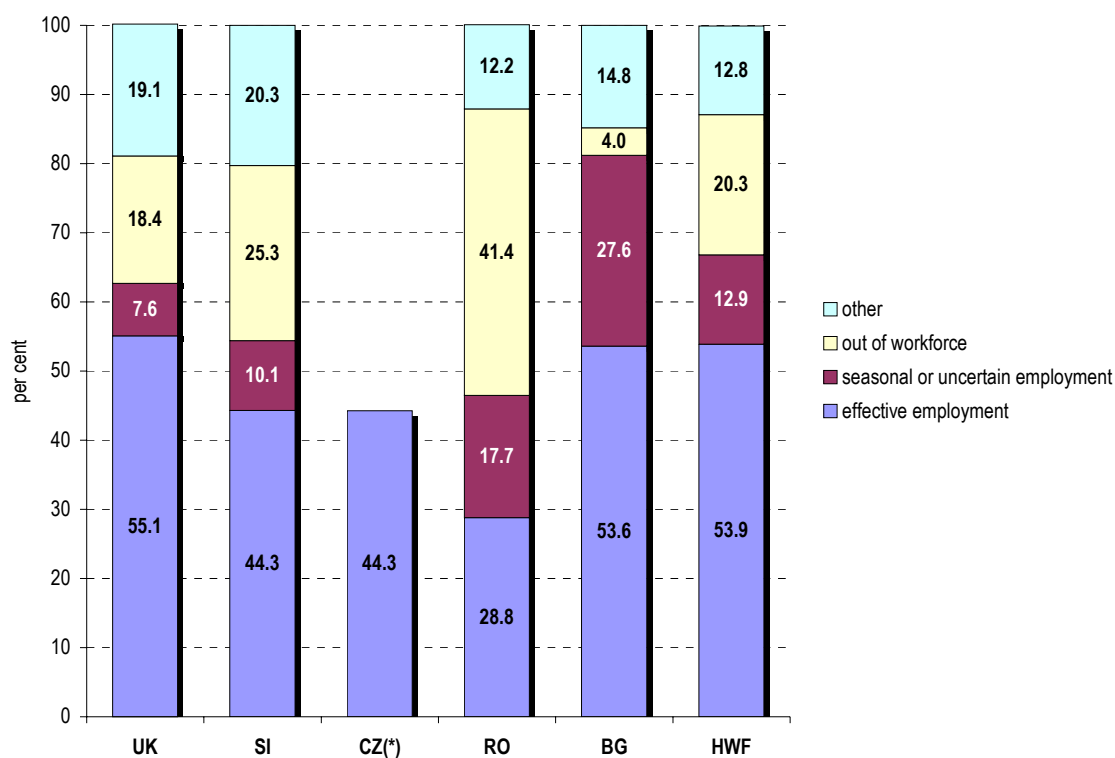
First, one can conclude that one half of HWF respondents do hold their effective employment status: they might continue their work in the same company, or went to a different company or started private business. The highest rates of continued effective employment during the last 10

years is seen in the UK (55 per cent) and Bulgaria (54 per cent); the lowest score is in Romania (29 per cent of respondent did managed to stay in the active employment).

Second, there are big groups of workers on seasonal or uncertain employment (unemployed looking for a job, agricultural workers and casual workers). These bands are rather big in Bulgaria (28 per cent) and in Romania (18 per cent).

Table 2. Coding table to the Figure 35.

HWF Questionnaire, Q 4.4. "If your employment changed, which of the following possibilities best described your present situation?"	
original options	grouped options
1. work basically in the same reorganized or privatised firm	effective employment
2. went to a different company, which existed prior to 1990	
3. went to a different company established in or after 1990	
4. started your own business	
5. unemployed (looking for a job)	seasonal or uncertain employment
6. went to work in agriculture	
7. do casual work (where and when you find it)	
8. stay at home	out of workforce
9. retired	
10. other	other

Figure 35. Job changes since 1989 (effective employment status).

Notes: (1) HWF Questionnaire, optional question: Q 4.04 "If your employment changed, which of the following possibilities best described your present situation?" (grouped options)
 (2) (*) Partial data for the Czech Republic.

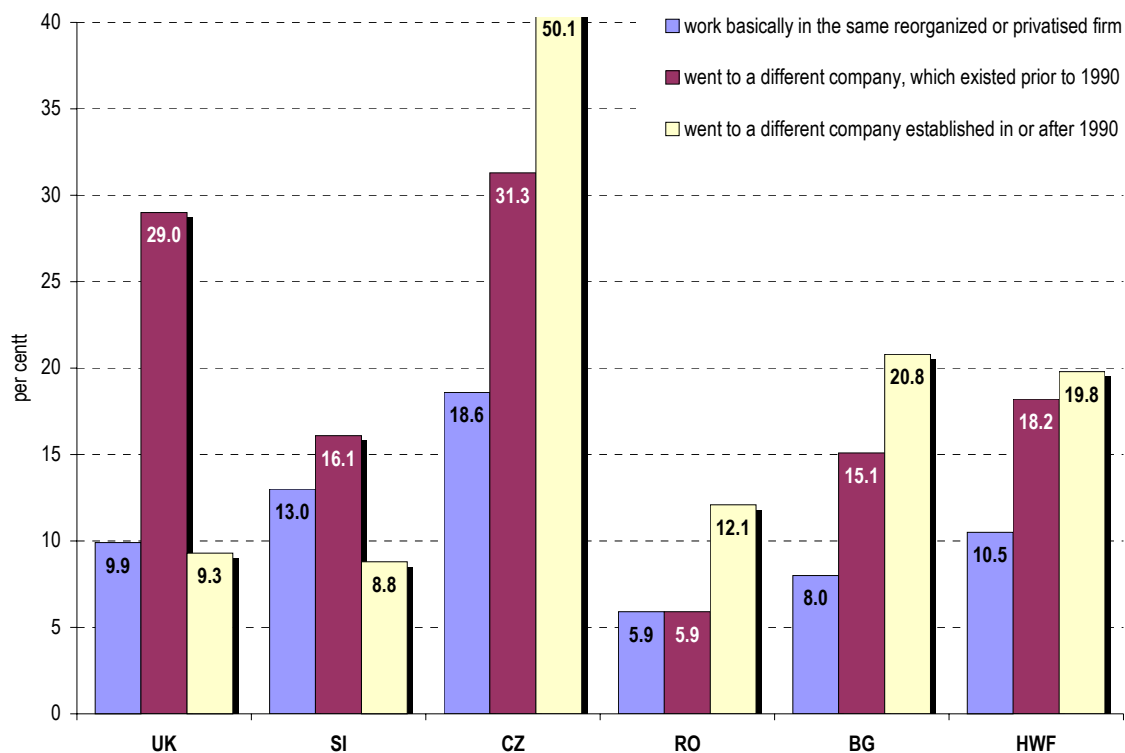
Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

10.8. CHANGED COMPANY

The respondents were asked, if they had changed jobs, what sort of changes had taken place. For example, they could work in the same company, which had been reorganised or privatised. This was quite common. They could go to work in a company that had been established before 1990 or one that had been established after 1990. In the

ECE countries apart from Slovenia, it was most common to work in a new company established after 1990, whilst in the UK and Slovenia people were more likely to work in an older established company. This reflects the new dynamics of the economy in the ECE countries. (See Figure 36)

Figure 36. Job changes since 1989 (institutional mobility).



Note: HWF Questionnaire, optional question: Q 4.04 "If your employment changed, which of the following possibilities best described your present situation?" (only options related to changed company)

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

10.9. REASONS FOR JOB CHANGE

Looking at the reasons for the last job change, we find once again that the “other” reasons were most common. (See Table 17-21 to Table 17-26, Figure 37.)

Negative reasons such as the company closing or laying people off were most common in Bulgaria and Romania and relatively uncommon in the UK. These negative reasons were found most often among older workers, ones with lower education and lower incomes. More positive reasons such as being unsatisfied with the job or being offered a more interesting job somewhere else was most often found in the Czech Republic and the UK and Slovenia. These more positive reasons are more often found among the more educated, younger people and those with higher incomes as well as those in urban areas. In the Czech Republic a relatively large number (15 per cent) had wanted to become self-employed but these were more often middle aged people and the well, but not better educated.

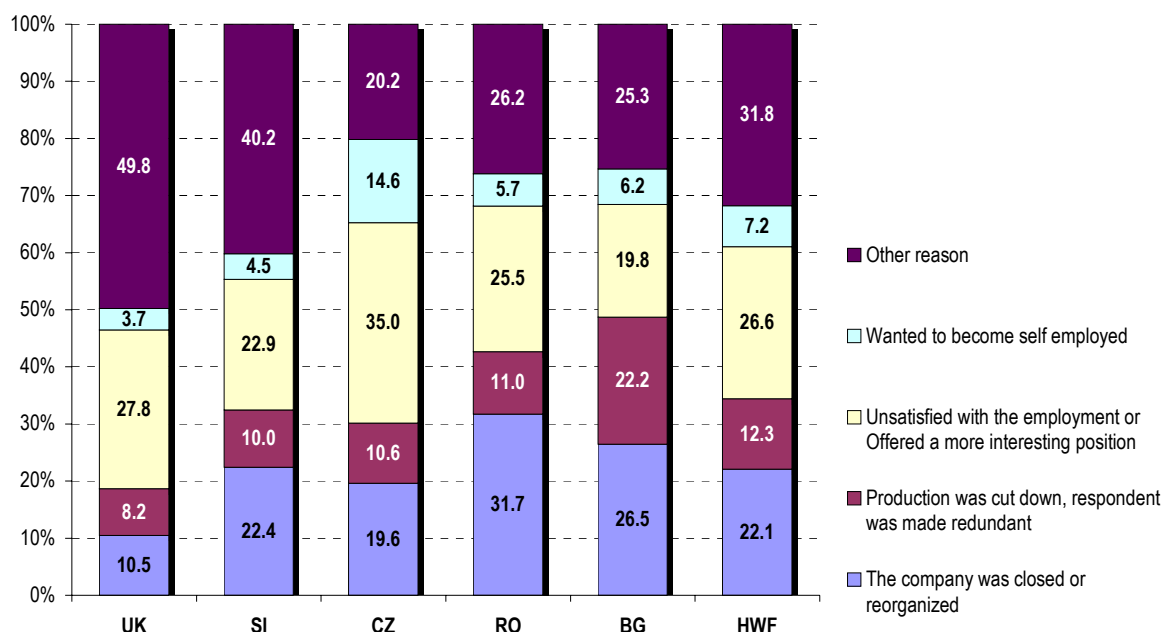
Closing a company or cutting down the production could be considered as “objective” exter-

nal factors that influence the job changes, while a desire to become a self-employed or dissatisfaction with the present employment could be treated as “subjective” or internal factors for such change.

Considering the suggested classification, we can state that the “objective” push-factors are the highest ones in Bulgaria (47 per cents) and Romania (43 per cent) followed by Slovenia (32 per cent) and the Czech Republic (30 per cent). The last country in this list is the UK with the score of external factors for job changes at 19 per cent.

At the same time, the internal motivations of respondents to change their employment were very strong in the Czech Republic (50 per cent) and the United Kingdom (32 per cent). In these two countries, the subjective factors prevail upon the objective situation. In other words, British and Czech respondents seem to be in a position to better control their own employment dynamics, as compared to other three countries at issue.

Figure 37. Reasons for the last job change.



Note: HWF Questionnaire, optional question: Q 4.05 “What was the main reason for your last change in employment?”

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

10.10. CONCLUSIONS: JOB CHANGES

Generally speaking, the most mobile workers were in the Czech Republic and the UK. However, they were different kinds of workers. In the Czech Republic they were mostly younger, better-educated men with higher incomes. We might assume that moving was a way of improving their labour market situation. In the UK by contrast, they were mostly lower educated people with lower incomes. In the Czech Republic, 60 per cent of people had changed jobs in the last ten years and 40 per cent had changed professions. Changing professions was generally more common in the ECE countries than in the UK and was also associated with higher income, younger, better educated people. Promotion was rather common in ECE but so was demotion when we look at the

Czech Republic, where 10 per cent of respondents had obtained worse jobs after changing.

In the Czech Republic 16 per cent of respondents had also started a second job in the last ten years and in ECE many people had lost jobs but many of them were in the poorer ECE countries. Those who had positive reasons for a job change – to get a better job or to become self-employed were mostly younger, better educated people whilst those with negative reasons for a job change – they lost the job or the company closed – were mostly lower educated and older.

In ECE countries it was common to go to a firm that had come into being in the last ten years 10 per cent of people had even started their own business.

Chapter 11.

Family-Work Conflicts

11.1. OVERVIEW

11.1.1. Family and work.

A series of questions were asked to ascertain the extent to which there was tension between the demands of the family or household and work pressures in the last three months. (See **Table 18-1** to **Table 18-5**, Figure 38 and Figure 39.)

The general situation with the HWF countries reveals a certain conflict potential between respondents' work and familial commitments (Figure 38). The highest rate of 12 per cent is for the positive answers ("always" and "often") to the question if the respondent's work makes it difficult to do some of the household tasks that need to be done. This score should be considered together with the options "rarely" and "sometimes", which leads us to the result of 46 per cent of conflict potential, where the suffering party is the household.

On the contrary, the situations when "familial obligations" do prevent a respondent from doing his or her job adequately are twice as rare: the eventual conflict potential scores at 23 per cent, while an "acute" conflict (options "always" and "often") is observed only in 2 per cent of all observations in the HWF sample.

The details per every HWF country are provided in the Figure 39.

The first question asked respondents "My work makes it difficult for me to do some of the household tasks that need to be done". We find

that those in Sweden, the Netherlands, Slovenia and the UK experienced the most amount of family-work conflict in this respect. In Sweden and the Netherlands nearly half of the respondents experienced some conflict. In Bulgaria, Hungary, the Czech Republic and Romania around three quarters of the respondents never had any such conflict, despite the fact that women as well as men traditionally work full time. In the UK and the Netherlands it is mainly men who say that they are likely to experience some conflict as it is in Hungary and Romania. But in Sweden, Slovenia and Bulgaria it is more likely women who experience some cross pressure between home and work on this question. In all countries young people are more likely to experience cross pressure than are older people and the better-educated more than the less educated. Higher income people experience more combination pressure on this question than lower educated people.

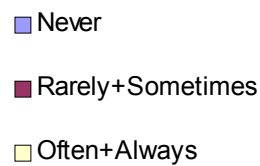
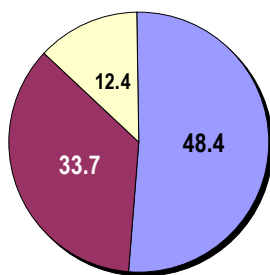
A similar question was asked "My work makes it difficult for me to fulfil my responsibilities to my family and other important persons in my life". Here we see a similar pattern to the previous question but this time with those in Slovenia experiencing the most conflict followed by Sweden, the Netherlands and the UK. In Bulgaria and Hungary there is the least conflict on these issues, whilst Romania and Czech Republic are

rather similar in this question. It is clear that there is more perceived work-family conflict in Western countries than in Eastern ones, even where there are generous welfare state policies to support families, like in Slovenia and in Sweden. Once again the gender results are rather surprising: in the UK and the Netherlands it is men who are

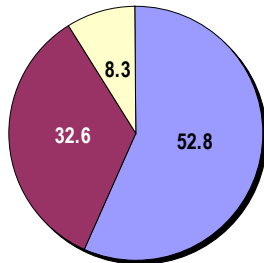
most likely to experience this conflict, as it is in nearly all countries. Middle-aged people (most probably with children) are most likely to experience this conflict and those with better education and incomes. Income differentials did not make so much difference in ECE countries as they did in Western Europe

Figure 38. Problems with combining work and domestic obligations (HWF means), percentages.

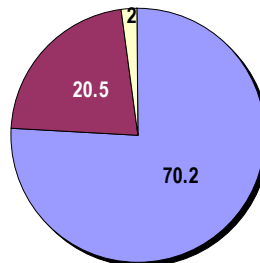
My work makes it difficult for me to do some of the household tasks that need to be done



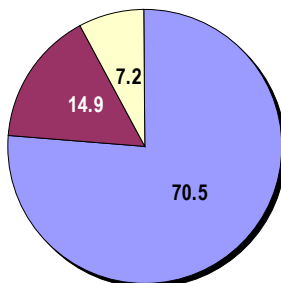
My work makes it difficult to fulfil my responsibilities towards my family and other important persons in my life



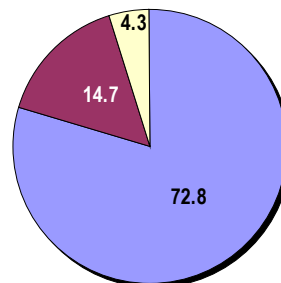
My responsibilities towards my family and other important persons in my life prevented me from doing my work adequately



I have to take work from my employment home to finish

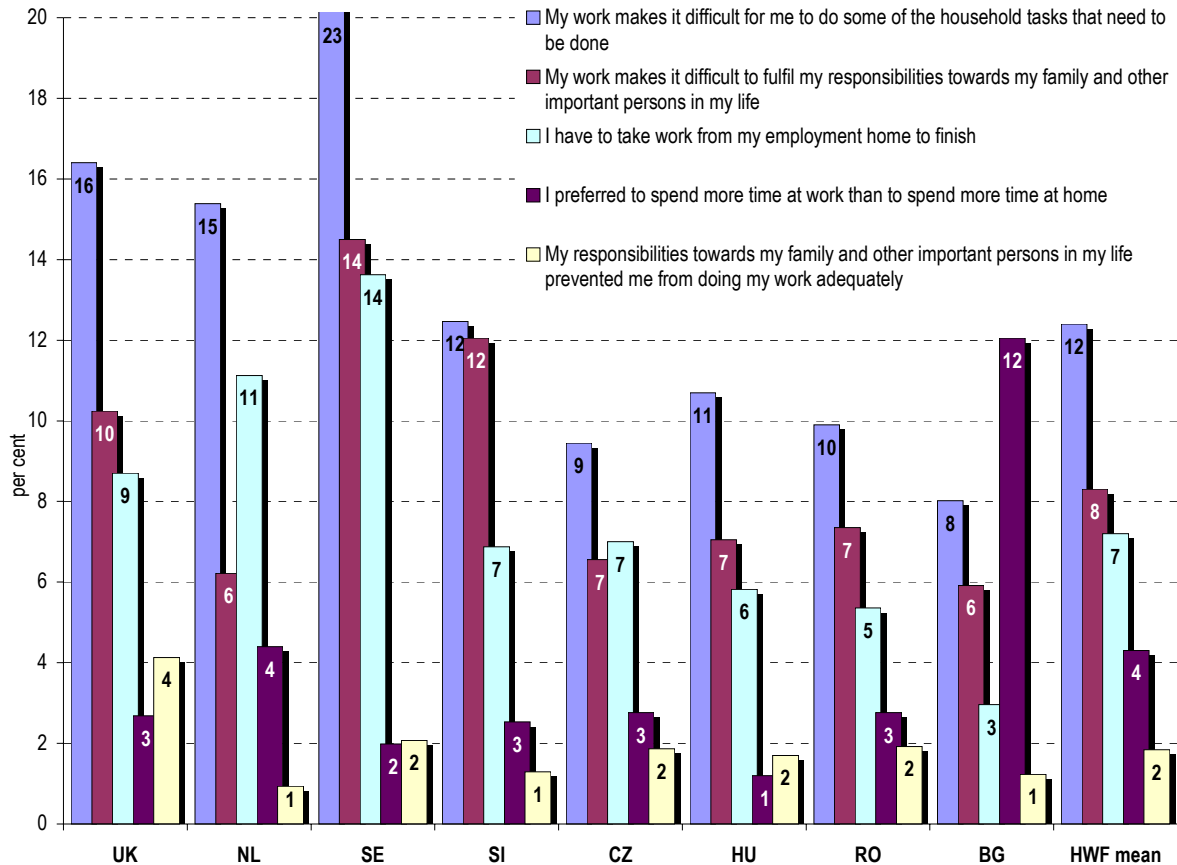


I preferred to spend more time at work than to spend more time at home



Note: HWF Questionnaire: Q 3.01 "How often have you experienced the following in the last three months?" (Five statements, scale of agreement.)

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

Figure 39. Problems with combining work and domestic obligations, percentages per country (always and often).

Note: HWF Questionnaire: Q 3.01 "How often have you experienced the following in the last three months?" (Five statements, scale of agreement, only the highest positive answers "always" and "often").

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.

We also asked the question the other way round: "my responsibilities towards my family and other important persons in my life prevented me from doing my work adequately". Here we see that family encroaches on work much less than the other way round. The most conflict in this respect was found in the UK, Sweden and Slovenia. In Bulgaria, Hungary and the Czech Republic less than 10 per cent of people experienced any such cross pressure. In the UK, Hungary and Romania it was men who were most likely to experience this kind of combination pressure. In Sweden it was women, whilst in other countries this pres-

sure was rather equally divided between the sexes. Those in the middle and younger age groups are more likely to suffer combination pressure in this respect. In the UK it was clearly those with higher incomes who suffered this kind of pressure, although that was not necessarily the case in other countries.

Having to take work home to finish was also a way in which work encroaches into family life. This was much more likely to be the case in the Western European countries. In Sweden and the Netherlands about one quarter of workers took work home to finish it, whilst this was the case in

less than 10 per cent of cases in Bulgaria. In most countries it was men who had to take work home and it was clearly the highest educated and highest paid who were in this position.

In Bulgaria they are most likely to prefer time at work to time with the family. This might be because of the low incomes there. However, in the Netherlands there were also 13 per cent who wanted to spend more time with their work as with 11 per cent in the Czech Republic and in Romania. In Hungary there was a clear preference for time with the family, and to a lesser extent in the UK, Sweden and Romania. Those wanting to spend more time at work were clearly men in the UK, Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria, but were more likely to be women in Sweden. Those with higher education were more work oriented than those with lower education.

11.1.2. Sources of conflict in the household

Respondents were asked the extent to which various topics caused household conflict. (See Table 18-6 to Table 18-9, Figure 40)

The first of these was household finances. The results are shown in the Chart below. Most households in all countries mostly agree on household finances. The most disagreement is found in the Czech Republic, in the UK and in Slovenia. The least disagreement is found in the Netherlands and in Bulgaria and Romania where at least 90 per cent of households claim to agree with each other on topics of household finance. In some countries the men are more likely to claim disagreement, in other countries the women. Younger people generally disagree more in most countries than do older people, but it is not clear if this is an age or a cohort effect. In the ECE countries of Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary and Slovenia it is less educated people who are more likely to disagree, whilst in the UK and Sweden it is more educated people. In general, it was the lower income groups who were likely to disagree about household finances except in Sweden and Roma-

nia. Perhaps where resources are tight, there is more scope for disagreement.

The next question asked if there was usually agreement or disagreement on the allocation of household tasks. Again, most households agree about domestic tasks, but not as much as they agree about finances. The most amount of agreement was found in Bulgaria, Romania and Hungary where 87 per cent or more of households agree on the division of household tasks. The most disagreement was in Sweden where one quarter of respondents usually or always disagree and the UK with about the same number. In the Czech Republic there was also rather low agreement (69 per cent) although a large number of people (22 per cent) neither agree nor disagree and this was also similar in Slovenia. In the Netherlands 15 per cent always or usually disagree about household tasks. What were the characteristics of people who disagree about the allocation of household tasks? In every country it is female respondents who see this as a conflict and this is especially the case in Hungary and the UK where two thirds of female respondents mention disagreement against only one third of males. Younger people are more likely to disagree than older people, as in the previous questions and more educated people more than less educated people (except in the Czech Republic and Romania). Those with higher income are more likely to disagree than those with lower income (except in the UK and the Netherlands).

There is also less agreement on the amount of time spent together. There is least agreement in the Czech Republic and the UK where only two thirds of people agree on the amount of time spent together. In the Czech Republic however, one quarter neither agree nor disagree. In Slovenia, Hungary and Sweden about two thirds agree on the amount of time spent together and this rises to 80 per cent and more in the Netherlands, Bulgaria and Romania. However, respondents in Western countries are more likely to say that they disagree with one another than those in Accession countries. As for the previous question, women

are more likely to record disagreement than men and younger people more than older people. Those with higher education are more likely to disagree than those with lower education (except in the Czech Republic) and those with higher incomes more than those with lower incomes.

There seems to be least of all agreement on the amount of time spent at work (Figure 40 options “always agree” + “sometimes agree”). In the UK only 51 per cent of households agree about this and in the Czech Republic 65 per cent

followed by Slovenia with 71 per cent. Women are more likely to record disagreement than are men (except in Bulgaria and the Czech Republic) but there seems to be no clear divisions according to age on this question. Better-educated people are more likely to disagree than less well educated ones. Similarly, those with higher incomes are more likely to disagree than those with lower incomes. It could be that these groups are under more pressure to spend more time at work.

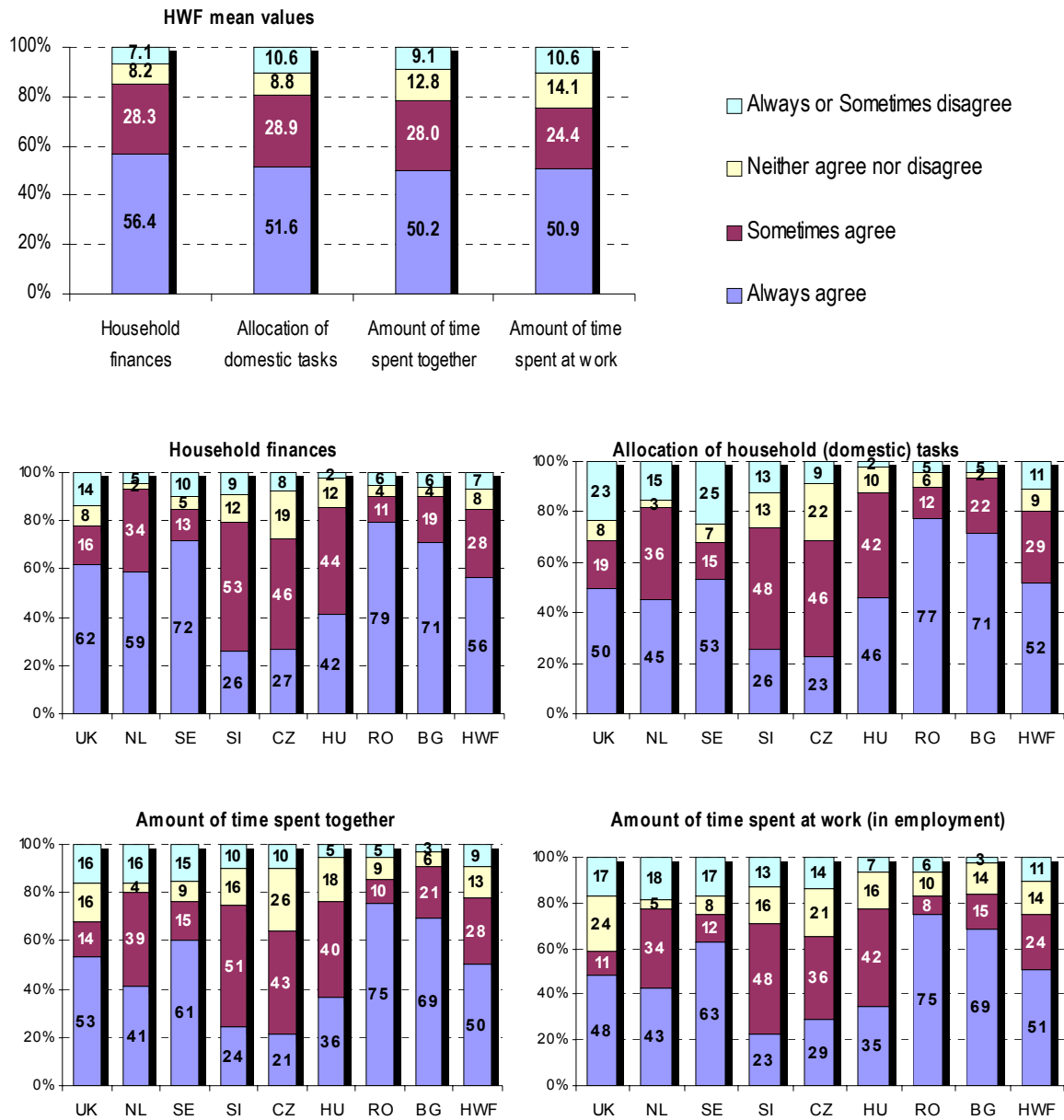
11.2. CONCLUSIONS: FAMILY-WORK CONFLICT

An interesting East-West distinction emerged. In terms of work-family conflicts, those in Western Europe are more likely to experience work-family conflicts than those in ECE countries and Sweden and the Netherlands emerged particularly in this respect followed by Slovenia and the UK. Younger and better-educated people are more likely to feel such conflicts and in the UK and the Netherlands it was men rather than women who expressed this. In the Netherlands and Sweden people are often likely to take work home to finish and in Bulgaria they are most likely to say that they prefer to spend time at work than with their families – probably in order to earn money. We can explain this difference by the fact that those in Western Europe probably had higher expectations of how to reconcile work and family, as have the young and better educated. In ECE countries

there was no such expectation even though women there have traditionally worked full time.

Most people did not express sources of conflict about household finances, the allocation of household tasks, the amount of time spent together, and the amount of time spent at work. At the same time, those in the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Sweden and the UK are most likely to express conflict on a range of issues. The most conflict was regarding the amount of time spent at work and this is related to having higher income and better education. Perhaps these people are under most pressure to spend more time at work. Women were most likely to express conflict about the amount spent together as well as about the amount of time spent on household tasks. Finally, disagreements about financial matters elicited the least conflict.

Figure 40. Sources of conflicts in the households.



Note: HWF Questionnaire: Q.3.02 “Most people in household relationships have disagreements about how things should get done. Do you and your other household members usually agree or disagree about the following things:...”

Source: HWF Survey 2001 – Unified international data collection.