

# Chapter Five

## ►► HOUSEHOLDS, WORK AND FLEXIBILITY Country Survey Reports

### CZECH REPUBLIC

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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This report provides an analysis of 1556 randomly sampled respondents aged 18 to 65 surveyed in the Czech Republic in the first half of the year 2001. The survey has inquired into the flexibility of Czech workers in terms of time, place and contract. Besides this, it has also focused on the tension between their work and household roles.

According to the data the Czech workers show quite homogenous pattern with relatively low level of 'non-standard' flexible employment. Most workers, both men and women, are full-timers with regular working schedule and contract for an indefinite period of time. The most flexible workers, according to their share in the atypical employment (part-time, work at home, fixed term and temporary work) are women, the very young up to 25 and the oldest respondents. Men are interested only in flexibility that offers them either greater autonomy such as self-employment or greater salary to meet their role of the breadwinner. They are more willing to work overtime. The survey has shed some light on the atypical work contracts and their distribution among the workers. The most common non-

standard forms are self-employment, fixed term contracts and unofficial work in shadow economy. Other types such as on call work, employment with temporary work agency or employment subject to performance or on a fee basis are so far only marginal in the CR.

Although Czech workers are not keen on atypical work, for a double salary they would retrain for another profession, study a new language or work more than 40 hours per week. Unfortunately, neither the high wage increase makes them move to another settlement. The unemployment is not such a strong incentive a higher salary.

Majority of workers is satisfied with the number of hours they spend at work, however, only one third easily meets both domestic and work commitments. The tension seems to be greater for women who are responsible for most household tasks and who are not accustomed to use the paid services. Instead households rely more on the help of the friends. The informal unpaid work for friends is more common than the voluntary work.

## INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of the transition, the key issue was whether the Czech labour force was flexible enough to adjust to the huge structural changes taking place in the labour market without excessive costs in terms of unemployment. Economic efficiency was a priority and the main task was to make workers move from the old to the new sectors, to support those who decided to become entrepreneurs and to retrain and enhance human capital according to the demand of the competitive firms. The transition into a market economy brought more diversity to the labour market. The number of workers in self-employment and in other less typical forms of work, rather than in full-time permanent jobs, has been increasing since 1989 and now twelve years later, it is time to focus on not just the economic but also on the sociological aspects of work in the CR. The aim of this report is to explore the cross-sectional data collected in the survey as part of the project *Households, Work and Flexibility* (HWF), in which the randomly selected respondents aged 18 to 65 year were asked about various characteristic of their income earning activities in order to find out the extent of workers' flexibility in terms of time, place and legal conditions. In the HWF survey, we asked also about the non-market activities of respondents' and their families, including unpaid voluntary work and work in the household, in order to understand if the Czech workers can easily balance their work and household roles to enhance the quality of their lives. The survey was conducted between January

and June 2001 in the form of face-to-face interviews.

This report provides the basic starting analysis of data collected and is structured into five main sections. The first part of the report, section 1, presents the patterns of flexibility of time, place and contract. It also deals with the labour flows of Czech workers in and out of different kinds of employment after 1989. One part of this chapter focuses on the declared willingness of Czechs to make sacrifices in order to get a job if they are unemployed or to get a better paid job and their autonomy in decision making about work characteristics. The section concludes with a discussion of the workers' satisfaction. Section 2 is devoted to work strategies and analyses whether the multiple job holding is common in the CR and what characteristics are typical for additional jobs. In addition to income earnings activities, this section also considers the voluntary and informal unpaid work outside the household. Section 3 deals with the respondents' family background and sheds some light on the negotiations between the households members. Section 4 describes the ways how the Czech workers integrate domestic and family commitments with their work. It attempts to answer the following questions: do many workers face a conflict between family and work? For whom is the conflict most difficult? Section 5 provides some additional information about the respondents, Section 6 presents some technical details associated with the survey and Appendix 2 provides some additional tables.

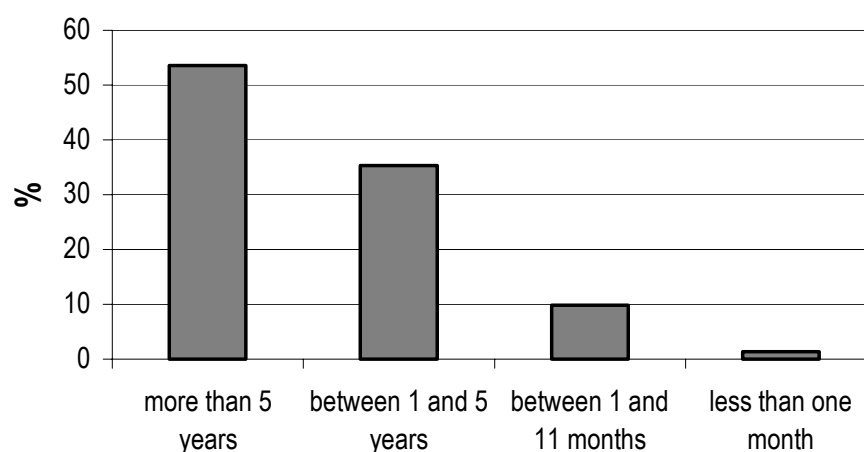
## 1. PATTERNS OF INDIVIDUAL FLEXIBILITY

### 1.1. Patterns of time flexibility

The first dimension of time flexibility is the duration for which workers have had their current job. This can shed some light on fluctuations in labour market. More than half (53.1 per cent) of Czech workers (Figure 1.1) are in their present employment for more than 5 years, 35 per cent are in their job from 1 to 5 years and 9.7 per cent are in this work for more than one month and less than one year. Only 1.3 per cent of workers are in their activity for less than one month. The figures suggest that a life-long job – or at least a long term one – is still common among Czech men and

women. With regard to occupations, the highest share of workers that are doing their job for more than 5 years are among the ISCO groups 1 and 2. On the other hand, the workers in restaurants, shops and market sales have the greatest labour turnover as the most common duration is 1-5 years (47.6 per cent). The workers in ISCO group 5 are the most likely as compared to the average (1.3 per cent) to have been doing their current activity for less than one month (4.9 per cent). This is probably associated with the seasonal character of their jobs.

Figure 1.1. Duration of the activity



Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Like the other transition countries, the Czech Republic has as a rather low incidence of part time jobs and there are two main reasons for this. First, Czech workers cannot afford to work part-time due to the low purchasing power of the full-time wage. Although some women would prefer to work less (Cermakova et al., 2000) their earnings still are an important and necessary source of household income. Second, there are inherited cultural habits that affect for example, the high participation of women. Even in 1997 the em-

ployment rate of Czech women was 10 percent higher than is typical for the EU and it is approaching it EU level only slowly.

The distribution of working hours is depicted in Table 1.1. If we define part-time as less than 35 hours per week, then 13.1 per cent of women and 6.8 per cent of men can be classified as part-timers. The working hours of Czechs change with age, which might indicate that both consumption and marginal productivity are not constant over the life cycle. Furthermore, older workers might

be insiders in their firm due to their work experience, and they might thus have a stronger bargaining position against the employer. Thus, they may be able to bargain about working hours. To examine the effect of age on weekly labour supply we define part-time as hours below 35 hours per week, standard hours range from 35 to 55 and long hours are above 55. Cross-tabulation of these three categories shows some similarity between the youngest and the oldest workers of the workers surveyed (see Figure 1.2).

**Table 1.1. Hours in the first earning activity**

	Men	Women	Total
1-9	1.7	2.0	1.8
10-24	2.0	6.0	3.8
25-34	3.1	5.1	4.0
35-39	4.1	6.0	4.9
40-44	42.3	56.8	48.9
45-54	30.1	17.5	24.4
55-64	10.7	4.0	7.7
65+	5.9	2.7	4.4
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

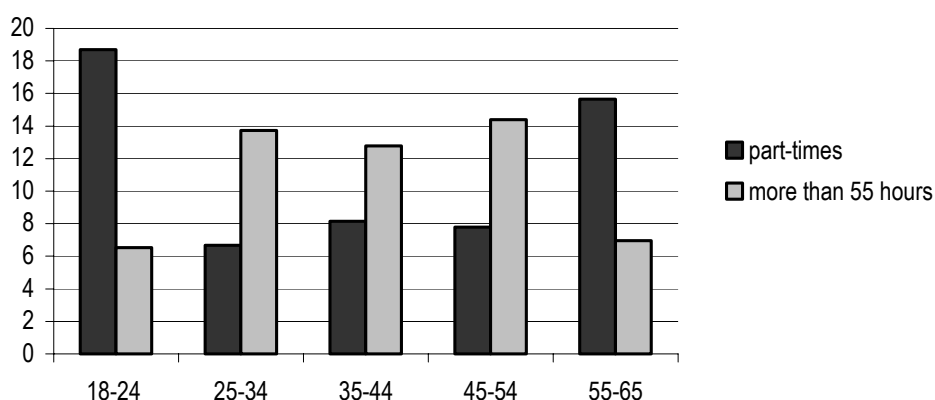
More specifically, 18.7 per cent of the young (18-24) and 15.7 per cent of the old above age 55 work part-time and it seems that part-time jobs facilitate

both the entry and the exit from the labour market. The share of part-timers among the middle age group ranges from 6.7- 8.1 per cent, although this cohort has the highest share of overtime work.

There is a strong relationship between occupation and working times. Occupations requiring more skills are associated with longer working hours. For instance, 15.4 per cent of senior officials and managers (ISCO 1) work more than 65 hours per week and one third work more than 55 hours per week. The standard working hours are typical for clerks as stated by 59.6 per cent of them and only 3.2 per cent of clerks stay at work form more than 55 hours. Also agriculture and fishery workers report rather long working hours. Elementary workers, on the other hand, are most likely to work less than 9 hours per week (6.3 per cent) and less likely to work more than 45 hours per week.

Examining the effect of the size of the locality where the respondent lives (in the appendix), we can observe several similarities between small villages up to 2000 inhabitants and the capital, Prague. Workers in the countryside and in Prague work standard hours less often and in their earning activity they are more often either part-timers or working more than 55 hours per week.

**Figure 1.2. Share of workers working in their first job short and long hours among various age groups**



Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Approximately half of the workers have a standardised working schedule for 8 hours per day from Monday morning to Friday afternoon (Table 1.2). Shift work is typical for women, while flexitime is more common for men. In the sample we find 18.8 per cent of women and only 12.3 per cent of men doing shift work. Most shifts (58.2 per cent) are rotating (sometimes morning, sometimes afternoon). The second most common shifts is evening or twilight shift (14.6 per cent) and a small percentage of women (14.6 per cent) have day shifts, although we find only 1.4 per cent of men with such a working schedule.

**Table 1.2. Working schedule**

	Men	Women	Total
Regular working hours (*)	47.1	53.0	49.8
Shift work	12.3	18.8	15.3
Flexitime	17.9	8.8	13.8
Other regular schedule	7.7	10.6	9.0
Irregular, it varies	14.4	7.9	11.4
DK/NA	0.6	0.9	0.7

Note: (\*) Monday morning to Friday afternoons

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

These differences may to some extent reflect the differences in the occupational distribution between men and women. The analysis of ISCO codes suggests that the flexitime work is typical for more skilled legislators, senior officials, general managers, and professionals – specifically, scientific professionals and teaching professionals. We can find flexitime also among building and trade workers. Shift work, on the other hand, is typical for life science and health associated professionals, teaching associated professionals, models, sales person and demonstrators, extraction, building, machinery and building trades workers, stationary-plant and related operators, sales and services and elementary occupations.

Higher age increases the probability of regular hours. For example, only 39.3 per cent of young Czechs under 24 years had a regular working schedule and 58.1 per cent of the older workers above 55 years worked from Monday morning

to Friday afternoon. Shift work occurs most often among the young 18-24 (30.8 per cent), perhaps because they can more easily accept such working schedules if they do not yet have families and can thus also work nights or weekends. Employers are aware of this and might even force young workers to accept less attractive work of this kind. It is not uncommon, for instance, for the young nurses, sales persons and workers in similar occupations to be made to work during public holidays as well as working late hours. The greatest share of flexitime (15 per cent) was found among the middle aged workers, aged 35-54. This group may have the strongest bargaining position with an employer, because they have already acquired some work experience and have the potential to use it in the future. Hence the employers attempt to keep these employees by using various incentives and flexitime might be one of them.

**Table 1.3. Overtime at least of once per month**

	Men	Women
afternoons	48.8	39.3
evenings	28.5	18.1
nights	15.1	8.8
weekends	27.8	23.2

Note: Other possible answers DK/NA

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Investigating the regular working schedules (N=90) we found out that the most common among them is the annualised hour contract and four- day- week (7.8 per cent). Schemes such as job sharing are not common in the Czech Republic.

With regard to overtime, the survey provides several findings. First, if we ask about overtime work that is done at least once per month (and more often) we see that people work overtime mostly in the afternoon (44.5 per cent), then weekends and then evenings. Night work is the least common form of overtime. Women tend to work less overtime. All forms of overtime work are very rare among clerks. Also large a proportion of elementary workers report that they never work overtime during the weekends. On the other

hand, managers and professionals and other workers from ISCO 1 and ISCO2 often stay at work over their working hours. Agriculture

workers, craft and related workers and plant and machine operators work seasonally at weekends.

## 1.2. Patterns of place flexibility

Table 1.4 illustrates spatial flexibility. Half of women and more than one third of men work within the locality where they live. More men than women also work in different places. The work from home is not very common. Women work at home so that they can spend more time with their family (38.5 per cent), or it suits them because of domestic commitments (17.9 per cent).

**Table 1.4. Place of work**

	Male	Female	Total
At home	4.6	4.9	4.7
Combined at home and elsewhere	4.4	3.5	4.0
Within the locality where you live	37.4	50.8	43.5
Within a different locality to which you commute	42.5	39.1	41.0
Abroad	0.4	0.2	0.3
Always changing	8.7	0.9	5.1
Other situation	1.3	0.4	0.9
DK/NA	0.7	0.2	0.5
N	543	943	966

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Men claim they have different reasons that were not controlled for in our questionnaire. Only 24.5 per cent of men want to work at home to spend more time with family. Yet 13 per cent of men and 10 per cent of women work at home because they could not find any other job (Figure 1.3).

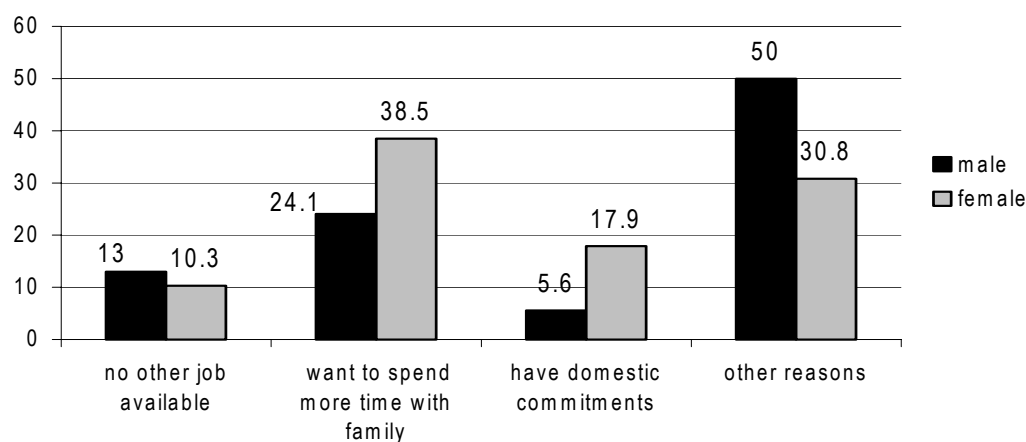
Individuals between 25-34 years commute to work most often (46.9 per cent) and people between 35-44, least often (35.5 per cent). Work at home is a solution to spend more time with family mainly for workers between 25-34 years as 47.8 per cent of them work at home from this reason. Only a few people work abroad, and this is more likely for young cohorts, who are perhaps more

familiar with foreign languages and willing to learn new things. The oldest cohort is more likely to work abroad than the middle age workers, that have more family commitments and children that prevent them from accepting a job abroad.

Work at home is less common in big cities (excluding the capital) above 20 000 inhabitants, where only 2.5 per cent of workers operate at home and 2.2 per cent combine work at home and elsewhere. Workers in large cities are most likely to work within the locality where they live (48.7 per cent). The work places of people in villages are more often (8 per cent) likely to change, which might be associated with work in agriculture. We find therefore that 11.8 per cent of villagers have a different work place every week and 13 per cent have a different work place every day. On the other hand, in big towns 67.7 per cent of workers work in the same place all the time. Surprisingly, the greatest share (2.4 per cent) of workers with jobs abroad are found in Prague, which also has the best labour market perspectives, so work abroad is probably not considered as a solution to unemployment.

With regard to social status, work at home is typical especially for the ISCO 1 group, because 10.8 per cent of the most skilled occupations can accomplish their work completely at home and another 12.3 per cent can work at home at least partially. Moreover, two thirds of these workers report different reasons for work at home other than domestic and family commitments. Professionals and other individuals from the ISCO 2 group work more often in locality where they live (52.6 per cent). Two thirds of elementary workers operate at home only because they cannot find another job.



**Figure 1.3. Reasons for working at home. Men and women.**

Note: N=54 (men), N=30 (women)

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

### 1.3. Patterns of flexibility of conditions

The flexibility of conditions, as we understand it in this report, reflects the legal form of the work contract. To begin with we should say that the diversity of work contracts is quite limited and that most workers are full time employees with permanent contracts. Although the total number of atypical contracts (disregarding the time dimension) comprises 31 per cent of workers, the individual kinds of atypical contracts are quite marginal. The most important non-standard work is self-employment (12 per cent), and work on a fixed contract (10 per cent). Surprisingly, the data reveal that in the CR there are about 5.5 per cent of workers without any contract. This figure is quite high and if we take into account that the survey does not cover the immigrants, homeless people and other social groups that are most likely to work illegally, then the total share of people that are not protected by the labour law must be even higher. Finally, only 3.5 per cent of workers in total have casual jobs, work on call or on a fee basis or have a contract with a temporary work agency.

The majority of workers with limited contracts (13.5 per cent), including fixed term contracts, on call workers, temporary employees working for agencies, workers on a fee basis, subject to performance or on a work experience project, report that the jobs was only available for a short time as the main reason for the limited duration of contract. Only 6 per cent claimed that they did not want a permanent job. This suggests that for the Czechs, the stability of the job and the security associated with a permanent contract still remains a high priority. Nevertheless, for those who did not want a permanent job (or who did not know), there did not to be any special reasons for their behaviour, such as the desire to keep some other income earning activity, to undertake education simultaneously or to change the employer. The most usual length of a limited contract is between 1 and 11 months (33.5 per cent). Almost the same share of contracts (31.5 per cent) is concluded for 1 to 5 years and 12 per cent of workers have contract that does not specify the length of the period.

Table 1.5. Contractual flexibility

		N	No contract	Self-employed	Fixed term	Other
<b>Total HWF Sample</b>		<b>989</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>10.0</b>	<b>3.5</b>
Gender	Men	537	7.1	13.2	8.4	4.3
	Women	452	3.5	10.6	12.2	2.7
Part-time (less than 35) /full time (35 and more)	Full time	891	4.6	11.4	9.7	2.1
	Part-time	94	12.8	16.0	14.9	17.0
Part-time (30 and less) /full time	Full time	896	4.6	11.4	9.7	2.1
	Part-time	89	13.5	16.9	14.6	18.0
Age	18-24	104	6.7	3.8	15.4	11.5
	25-34	256	3.5	10.9	13.3	2.3
	35-44	258	4.7	15.5	7.8	2.3
	45-54	257	5.1	13.6	8.2	2.3
	55-65	114	11.4	10.5	7.9	4.4
Education	Primary	73	9.6	4.1	19.2	6.8
	Vocational secondary	367	3.8	13.4	12.0	3.8
	postsecondary	368	6.5	9.8	7.9	3.5
	Tertiary	31	6.5	12.9	6.5	3.2
Regions NUTS2	Prague	142	2.8	15.5	8.5	4.2
	Middle Bohemia	131	4.6	6.1	9.9	6.9
	Southwest	117	6.0	13.7	7.7	3.4
	Northwest	105	8.6	17.1	12.4	1.0
	Northeast	168	4.8	8.9	10.7	3.0
	Southeast	125	6.4	13.6	13.6	1.6
	Middle Moravia	129	5.4	13.2	11.6	3.9
	Ostrava Region	71	7.0	8.5	4.2	4.2
Settlement size	small village (less than 999 inhabitants)	163	6.1	16.6	9.2	3.0
	big village (1000-1999 inhabitants)	74	10.8	18.9	10.8	5.4
	small town (2000-19999 inhabitants)	277	4.7	10.8	10.1	2.5
	big town (20000-199999 inhabitants)	320	3.1	9.1	10.0	3.8
	big city (over 200000 inhabitants)	149	8.1	12.8	10.7	6.0
Personal Income	less than 5000CZK	80	17.5	5.0	17.5	16.3
	5000-7999CZK	205	4.4	8.8	16.6	4.4
	8000-9999CZK	206	3.9	8.3	10.2	1.0
	10 000-14 999CZK	292	2.1	10.3	8.2	0.7
	15000-19999CZK	106	3.8	23.6	1.9	4.7
	20000 -29999CZK	36	11.1	27.8	2.8	2.8
	more than 30000	22	4.5	45.5	4.5	4.5
ISCO9	legislators, senior officials & managers	63	20.6	34.9	4.8	3.2
	Professionals	114	3.5	14.0	13.2	2.6
	Technicians and associate professionals	200	1.5	7.0	6.0	1.0
	Clerks	92	1.1	5.4	8.7	3.3
	Service, shop and market sales workers	103	5.8	6.8	16.5	1.9
	agriculture and fishery workers	15	13.3	33.3	6.7	6.7
	craft and related workers	193	6.2	15.0	7.8	4.1
	plant and machine operators and assemblers	114	1.8	2.6	13.2	2.6
	elementary workers	65	7.7	6.2	18.5	13.8

Note: other includes: casual jobs, on call workers, temporary work agency, on a fee basis.

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Although the relationship between the gender and the contract is not as strong as between occupation or age and the contract, there are some differences (Table 1.5). First, fewer women work in the shadow economy without any contract (3.5 per cent of women and 7.1 per cent of men). This

might reflect the fact that a man is still perceived as a main breadwinner. When there is no job available women often decide to stay at home where they can undertake household activities, whilst this is not acceptable for a man, so it is understandable that he might decide instead to do a

„shadow job’ that could add to family income. Second, men more often than women run their own business. Third, women more often have a permanent job – stability for them is more important than for men. Fourth, more women (12.2 per cent) than men (8.4 per cent) work on a fixed term contract. Since fixed term jobs are typical especially for young workers between 18 and 34, it seems that employers prefer this sort of contract for young women who may leave to have children in order to avoid the costs associated with maternity leave. Therefore, the fixed term contract might serve as a discrimination device. Indeed, about 6.2 per cent of women had to accept fixed term contracts because they could not find any permanent job. On the other hand, there are women that do not want to have a permanent job, mostly because of domestic duties preventing them from having a long-term term commitment with an employer.

The time dimension as well as gender is related to contractual flexibility. Looking at the Table 1.5 we can see that the part-time jobs are more flexible than full-time ones, because part-timers are often associated with having an atypical contract. For example, 18 per cent of workers with less than 30 hours per week have a casual job, work on call, or work with a temporary work agency. Part-timers also have a greater probability of being self-employed, having a fixed term contract or working without any contract.

The Pearson chi square test indicates a very strong relationship between the age and the contract. The young (18-24) seem to be the worst off in terms of job stability, since they have the highest probability of having a fixed term job (15.4 per cent), the highest probability of work on a fee basis or their contract is subject to performance and they have the lowest probability of permanent job. The young people also work more often without contract, which might indicate that entering the labour market is a difficult task. On the other hand, young beginning workers are often in a searching process, looking for the best match to their interests and changing jobs more frequently so that non-

permanent jobs are in this light are more understandable. There is an extremely low share of young self-employed, suggesting that self-employment status requires the kind of experience that the young workers have not had time to acquire. Moreover the young usually do not have access to the necessary ‘seed corn’ credit and do not know how to start a business. If this is true, than programs aiming at enhancing the entrepreneurial skills of the young could help to combat unemployment among this age cohort. Finally, the young bring into economy also more flexibility stemming from new work forms such as a contract with temporary work agency, work ‘on call’ or subject to the requirement of the employer. These jobs are unusual among workers above 34.

The great majority of middle aged (35-54 years) workers have permanent jobs. By the same token they have also the highest probability of being self-employed. Finally, looking at the contractual arrangements of workers above 55, we find high flexibility among this age cohort. Older workers often prefer a gradual withdrawal from the labour market to an abrupt end of their income earning activity. The flexible types of work, such as work on a fee basis or subject to performance, allows them to adjust their work to their health and possibly lower productivity, to working less and for some of them this means that they are receiving both the earnings from work and the pensions at the same time. Moreover, there are also some advantages for employers. Indeed, some experts (Vecernik, 2001) suggest that employers use ‘subject to performance contract’ to keep their senior employees over the retirement age and save some money on paying a quite high withdrawal tax.

The relation between education and contractual flexibility is not linear. Specifically, the self-employment status is common among individuals with either low vocational training or for highly educated workers. The workers with primary education are often pushed into the shadow economy, so that 9.6 per cent of them work without contract

or often have only temporary jobs and almost 20 per cent of them work on a fixed contract.

Looking across regions in the CR, we can see that the Northwest has much higher flexibility, measured in the share of self-employment, fixed term contracts and work without contract, than the rest of the country. This may be accounted for by the fact that the Northwest includes the region Ustecko with the highest unemployment rate. For example, when the average unemployment rate in CR was 8.8 per cent in 2000, it was 16.5 per cent in Ustecko (CSO:311). The severe labour market conditions in this region, together with its closeness to Germany and German purchasing power would probably push some of the unemployed into self-employment. On the other hand, higher unemployment in CR does not necessarily encourage flexibility. For example, the Ostrava region has the second highest unemployment rate and at the same time it has very low levels of self-employment and fixed term contracts, so there must be also other factors at play. If we focus on the size of locality we see that permanent work is less common in villages with less than 2000 inhabitants and in cities with more than 200 000 inhabitants. In small villages, the capital and the other two biggest towns (Brno, Ostrava) we find the highest share of work without contracts. Nevertheless, in villages, work without contracts is based probably on interpersonal relationships and might be understood as paid help for friends. The reason why we find a high share of such work in big cities is on account of the anonymity that provides scope for the shadow economy to operate. In large cities there is also higher concentration of illegal immigrant workers and more shadow working opportunities.

With regard to economic standards, we can see that the highest share of workers with personal income above CZK 20 000 per months is among the self-employed and in jobs without contract. However the different contractual arrangements are associated with different kinds of income volatility. Nevertheless we still can compare averages and rank the contractual status according

to the average personal income we get the results summed up in Table 1.6.

**Table 1.6. Ranking of the contractual forms according to personal income**

subject to performance	1
self employed	2
permanent contract	3
on a fee only basis	4
no contract	5
'on call' subject to requirements of employment	6
fixed term	7
contract but with reduced or no working time	8
Note:	1 is the highest, 8 the lowest
Source:	HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Contractual flexibility to a great extent reflects the occupational distribution of jobs. There are two extremes associated with skills. At one end there are the most skilled workers from the ISCO 1 group (legislators, senior officials and managers) who exhibit the highest share of self-employment (35 per cent) and, moreover, 20 per cent of them work without contract. One fifth of the workers in this category are managers in small enterprises in construction, in wholesale and retail trade and in small restaurants and hotels. The managers without contract operate in business services, personal care, cleaning and related services. It seems that the 'shadow jobs' are not typical only for the low educated, manual workers but also for the highly educated managers in certain segments of economy. We could probably talk about 'shadow self-employment' rather than shadow employment. Among the less skilled and less educated workers we find illegal contracts especially in agriculture and among elementary workers. Services such as restaurants, and shops and also craft and related workers also, as we might expect, often have no contract.

The characteristics of skilled self-employed and skilled workers without contract are very similar. Both work as managers in small enterprises in service industries. More than 50 per cent in both cases work in wholesale and the retail

trade and both have similar levels of personal income. In the data we find many self-employed among the craft and related workers. This work form is common in construction among builders, for plumbers, painters and other related professions. Not surprisingly, one third of agricultural workers are self-employed. Beside agriculture and craft, the self-employed status is more frequent among more skilled occupations such as professionals, technicians and associate professionals.

Fixed term contracts together with the self-employment status might be the employers' de-

vice to cut down labour costs; and some of the self-employed could be dependent 'pseudo-employees' who are really employees on a different basis. Also, some permanent employees are often offered repeated fixed term contracts rather than a permanent contract. They often work on a fee basis or subject to performance. Self-employment is common for more skilled occupations and fixed time contracts are more typical for lower paid elementary workers. Many fixed term contracts or casual jobs are concentrated in services, shops and restaurants.

#### 1.4. Variability of hours and place of work and workers' autonomy

The variability of working hours and place sheds some light on some dimensions of 'numerical' flexibility in Czech firms. Numerical flexibility means that workers increase their working hours if the demand for a firm's product increases and vice versa. It also means that they could be laid off in downturn and taken back in upswing. Functional flexibility means that the worker can work on different job tasks or places in order to satisfy the consumers' demand.

The HWF survey reveals (Figure 1.4) that our measure of numerical flexibility: varying hours is greater than the simple measure of flexibility of place, since more respondents report that they always work on the same place. Men report more often varying place, but 56.2 per cent of women and only 39 per cent of men always work the same hours. For both groups the working time varies mainly according to the season (21.1 per cent of men and 16.6 per cent of women), but a greater share of men (16 per cent) have working hours which change every day. Women are also more often fixed to the same work place.

Only one fifth of Czech workers can independently decide about hours and even fewer of them about the working schedule or place of work. Workers have greater autonomy in the allocation of overtime, which stems from the labour code supporting workers' rights. The low share of respondents who participate in decision making

about hours, place and schedule together with their employer (Table 1.7), suggests that the negotiation between employers and employees is not very well developed.

Men have greater autonomy than women, as more men decide independently or together with their employer about their hours and place of work and more women are dependent on an employer's decision. Concerning the age of workers and their autonomy, we observe that 25.2 per cent of workers above 50 decide independently about their working hours, 20.8 per cent about their working schedule, 30.8 per cent about overtime and 19.5 per cent about their work place.

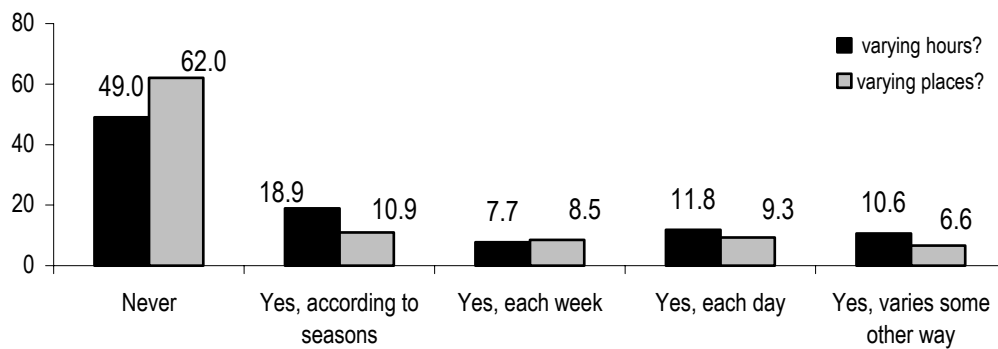
If we look at the youngest surveyed age cohort, the respective share of independent decision makers are only 14 per cent, 10 per cent, 18 per cent and 12.3 per cent. The probability that a middle age worker decides independently about hours, schedule, overtime and place is greater than for a young worker but smaller than for an old worker.

In conclusion, there seem to be two different strategies. First, some employers decide/dictate everything to all employees – both young and inexperienced as well as senior employees. Second, some employers allow their employees from the beginning to participate in decision making about working hours, working schedule, overtime and work place, and when the worker gets more

experienced, the employer gives him even greater autonomy. However, in general Czechs are used to accepting the employer's decision and at work

they do not have too much space to participate in decision making. This attitude might be inherited from the 'centrally planned' past.

**Figure 1.4. Variability of hours and place of work**



Note: N=996 (working respondents). The figure depicts the distribution answers to the question: 'How often do you working hours (place) change?'

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table 1.7. Autonomy of workers in decision making**

	Hours	Schedule	Overtime	Place
I decide	20.5	17.3	26.8	18.7
Employer decides	65.4	67.4	48.4	64.2
Employer and I decide together	9.7	11.9	20.1	11.1
It is outside our control	3.1	1.9	2.9	4.0
DK/NA	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.0
N	1068	1068	1068	1068

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

### 1.5. Career Flexibility

With regard to changes in the career life of Czech workers after 1989, we can see that many workers (excluding those that entered the labour market after 1989) changed employment once (34.4 per cent), 27.1 per cent changed profession once, which was due to the restructuring of Czech industry and the shift of industrial workers towards services. Quite a high proportion of workers changed employment more than once (25.5 per cent), which suggests that frequent job-to-job

flows accompanied the Czech transformation. Many workers started to run private business (26.2 per cent). The share of these workers is quite high given the current level of self-employment and might indicate some outflows from self-employment or/and more probably the fact that many employees are self-employed in their second job. In the CR, about 13.3 per cent of workers started to work in a second job, which served as a strategy to overcome the decline in living stan-



dards of some social groups due to a sharp decrease in output at the beginning of the transition and an overall increase in inequality.

The main reasons for changes in employment are following. Approximately 42 per cent of those who entered the labour market before 1989, went to the new private firms established after 1990, 30 per cent moved to a different company which existed already prior 1990. Only 17 per cent stayed in the same firm that had been reorganised or privatised. According to the respondents, the most common motive for the change in employment came from the side of firm, such as reorganisation

or shut down (20.3 per cent) or because they want to become self-employed (15.5 per cent).

Concerning the vertical changes in the career ladder, promotion (23 per cent) was more frequent than demotion (10.1 per cent) Given the huge structural changes in Czech economy since 1989, it is surprising that a relatively small share of people had to cope with unemployment (25.6 per cent) and only 7.3 per cent repeatedly. However if we also include the young that entered labour market only after the velvet revolution, the share of people that have repeatedly lost their job increases to 8.1 per cent.

**Table 1.8. Career flexibility by gender and age**

% of Yes	Gender		Age				
	Men	Women	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-65
Retired from employment.	4.0	5.7	0.0	0.8	2.6	3.0	17.8
Changed employment only once.	33.3	35.7	0.0	35.6	38.5	36.7	28.7
Changed employment more than once.	29.6	20.4	6.1	32.2	28.9	25.2	17.8
Changed profession only once.	27.4	26.7	3.0	25.4	31.1	28.1	24.0
Changed profession more than once.	14.1	11.4	3.0	16.9	16.7	12.2	5.4
Started private business.	31.6	19.6	12.1	19.5	29.3	27.4	27.1
Promoted to a higher position.	26.0	19.3	0.0	23.7	28.5	23.0	17.1
Demoted to a lower position.	10.8	9.3	0.0	7.6	11.5	11.1	10.1
Started to work in a second job	13.0	13.6	3.0	14.4	13.0	14.1	14.0
Lost employment only once.	17.2	19.6	6.1	20.3	23.3	17.0	11.6
Lost employment more than once.	8.2	6.3	0.0	9.3	8.5	7.4	4.7
N	453	367	33	118	270	270	129

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

## 1.6. Potential flexibility

In this section we investigate the respondents' potential flexibility. Specifically, we are interested in what the Czechs are prepared to sacrifice in order to find a job if they lose one, or to get better paid job, if they are employed. According to the HWF survey, Czech workers are quite flexible in terms of their willingness to retrain for another profession. Almost 57 per cent report they would enter a retraining program in order to find work if they were unemployed; almost 39 per cent claim that they are ready to work more than 10 hours

per day. However, only 16 per cent would accept less attractive working conditions, despite their unemployment. Our survey supports the hypothesis that the willingness of Czechs to commute or move to another settlement for a job is extremely low, which can be accounted for by the bad situation on the housing market and by the increasing price of fares. Only 15.6 per cent of workers would move and great majority of workers (59.4 per cent) say explicitly they would not move at all. Financial incentives – specifically a

100 per cent increase in salary – have a much stronger effect on the potential flexibility of Czechs than the threat of unemployment. Financial reward increases the share of people willing to retrain by 10 per cent, the share of people willing to work longer by 24 per cent, the likelihood that the worker will accept worse working conditions by 15 per cent and willingness to move by 10.1 per cent.

The surveyed women seem to be less flexible regarding time, place and working conditions than men. There are no significant differences associated with gender in the willingness to retrain or in unemployment or in order to get a better

paid salary. Table 1.10 and Table 1.11 provide us with the figures for men and women separately. We can see that 48.4 per cent of men would agree to work more, 18.2 per cent of men would move to another settlement and about 19.2 per cent would accept worse working conditions. The figures for women are much smaller: only 27.4 per cent of women are prepared to work long hours, 12.5 per cent would move and 12.7 per cent would accept a worse job. Learning a foreign language was also more likely for financial incentives, but there was not much difference between men and women in this respect.

**Table 1.9. Subjective flexibility: willingness to get take challenges to get job**

per cent YES	Work more	Move to another	Accept less attractive	Retrain for another	Learn new
would you be willing to	than 40 hours	settlement	work conditions	profession	language
If unemployed	38.8	15.6	16.2	56.6	39.0
If offered double salary	62.8	25.7	31.0	66.2	48.0

Note: other possible answers No, Maybe, Does not know

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table 1.10. Potential flexibility: men**

% YES	Work more	Move to another	Accept less attractive	Retrain for another	Learn new
would you be willing to	Than 40 hours	settlement	work conditions	profession	language
If unemployed	48.4	18.2	19.2	55.7	38.4
If offered double salary	70.8	29.3	34.7	65.4	46.5

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table 1.11. Potential flexibility: women**

% YES	Work more	Move to another	Accept less attractive	Retrain for another	Learn new
would you be willing to	Than 40 hours	settlement	work conditions	profession	language
If unemployed	27.4	12.5	12.7	57.7	39.4
If offered double salary	53.2	21.5	26.6	67.3	49.9

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001



Table 1.12 illustrates flexibility according to age and implies that the young (18-24) are the most willing to work longer hours or to move to another place. Only 20 per cent of the young refuse to work more than 40 hours per week if they are unemployed, which is 10 per cent less than average. Further 32.3 per cent of the young workers are prepared to move to another settlement to get a job. This is not surprising, since the Czechs usually leave their parents' home at the age of 18-24 and their decision about where to live is without doubt often affected by the local labour market perspectives. Nevertheless, higher age decreases the willingness to work longer (42.6 per cent of workers above 55 refuse to work more than 40 hours in order to get job) and willingness to move (70.4 per cent refuse to move for job).

Retraining and learning new languages are investments in human capital and bring higher returns to young workers. HWF survey reveals that Czech workers are aware of this fact and the correlation between the age and willingness to study or change profession is negative (Table 1.12). The higher the age, the lower the probability of willingness to invest in human capital. For example, the likelihood that a worker will retrain for another profession is almost 65 per cent for workers between 28-34 years, 54-58 per cent for workers of the age 35-55 and only 33.3 per cent for workers above 55. The same relation holds true about learning a foreign language. Interestingly, all workers report that retraining for another profession is an

easier task than learning a new language, since fewer people are willing to do the latter.

The financial incentive enhances the flexibility of all age cohorts. Specifically, doubling the salary increases the willingness to migrate by 18.9 per cent for worker below 24, by 15.2 per cent for the age group 25-34, by 5.8 per cent for the age group 35-44 by 9.3 per cent for workers between 45 and 55 and by only 2.4 per cent for workers above 55. Therefore the financial incentives are more effective in case of young workers and are not so attractive for respondents between 35 and 44 years, often with children in school age. For these workers, migration would be a more difficult obstacle, since their family is more fixed to one place due to the school commitments of the children. However, when children get older their parents are again more flexible. Financial reward can compensate workers for worse working conditions: almost 40 per cent of workers younger than 24 would accept a 'bad job' for a double salary. On the other hand, this does not hold true for the oldest workers. Doubling the salary increases also returns for retraining or studying foreign languages. Therefore, the willingness to enhance ones own human capital increases. Moreover, the financial stimuli is again more efficient for younger workers. For example, the proportion of workers willing to learn a new language increase by 15 per cent for the young (18-24), by approximately 9 per cent for workers from 25-55 and by 4 per cent for the oldest above 55.

**Table 1.12. Flexibility in the case of unemployment. (If you had no job would you be willing to ...)**

	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-65
Work more than 40 hours per week	40.16	38.52	40.22	40.37	31.78
Move to another settlement	32.28	15.19	13.41	13.70	8.53
Accept less attractive conditions	18.11	12.22	15.58	19.26	17.83
Retrain for another profession	65.35	64.81	57.61	54.44	33.33
Learn a new foreign language	53.54	48.15	42.03	28.15	21.71

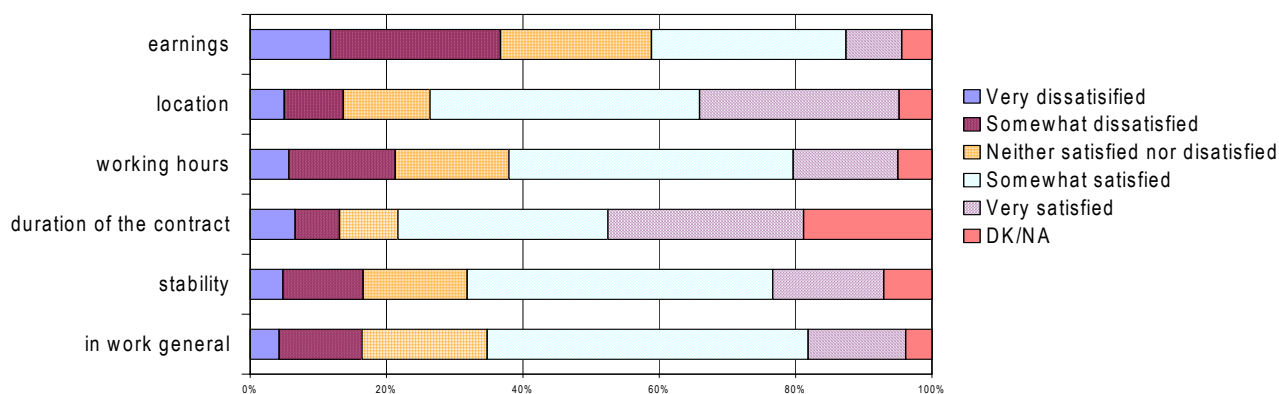
Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

### 1.7. Satisfaction with work

The great majority (61.3 per cent) of Czech workers are satisfied with their work in general. Nevertheless there are still 16.3 per cent of those who are dissatisfied out of which 4.3 per cent are even very dissatisfied, so the discontent with the job is not a marginal problem and deserves our attention. What job characteristics affect the respondents' perception? Figure 1.5 shows that Czechs care first of all about earnings and the share of

discontented workers is 37.7 per cent. The second characteristic that concerns Czech workers is the number of working hours: 21.3 per cent of workers expressed dissatisfaction with these. In addition, 16.6 per cent are dissatisfied with the stability of their workplace, and about 13 per cent with the duration of the work contract and with the workplace.

Figure 1.5 Satisfaction



Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Czech women (38 per cent) complain about the level of their earnings more often than men (35.7 per cent). Women also put greater weight to the duration of their work contract and smaller on the stability of their workplace than men: 15.9 per cent of women and only 10.7 per cent of men do not like the duration of their contract. With regard to age,

young people are generally the least optimistic and the least satisfied in their work. This holds for work in general but also for its stability, duration of the contract, hours and location. The middle aged workers 35-44 years exhibit the greatest dissatisfaction with their earnings (Table 1.13).

Table 1.13. Satisfaction with job by age

per cent of dissatisfied workers	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-65	Total
work general	19.8	16.0	14.0	16.5	18.6	16.4
Stability	22.2	16.4	15.4	16.1	14.7	16.6
duration of the contract	17.5	15.3	11.0	10.5	14.0	13.1
hours of work	27.8	21.6	21.0	19.9	17.8	21.3
Location	17.5	16.4	11.8	12.0	11.6	13.7
Earnings	36.5	35.8	40.8	33.7	36.4	36.7

Note: dissatisfied means somewhat dissatisfied or very dissatisfied

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

## 2. PATTERNS OF WORK

### 2.1. The accumulation of different kinds of work

In this chapter we focus on the accumulation of different jobs both over time (in last twelve months) as well as multiple job holding. The HWF survey shows that approximately 30.1 per cent of people had no job in last year, the majority – 56 per cent – had one job, 10.7 per cent of workers had 2 activities, 2.5 per cent of respondents 3 activities and 0.7 per cent more than 3. As expected more men (16.2 per cent) than women (11.3 per cent) had at least two jobs in the last twelve months.

The accumulation of work is dependent on age, with the young (18-24 years) and the old (55-65 years) being most likely to be without any income earning activity in last 12 months. The high share of inactive young people (37.4 per cent) reflects the high unemployment among this age group and is mainly due to fact that it includes university students whose labour market attachment is lower. University education in the CR is as yet still free and the introduction of tuition could possibly increase the interest of Czech students in casual jobs, part-time jobs and other forms of work, allowing them to earn money and study at the same time. Moreover, work experience acquired during studies might facilitate the entry of young workers onto labour market. The high proportion of older inactive workers (61.7 per cent) supports the hypothesis that the living standards of the retired thanks to pensions and other social benefits are far from being unbearable, so that the majority of them do not need an additional work income.

The highest number of activities in last year were done by workers between 25 and 34 years with 6.2 per cent having more than 2 jobs. This might be the result of a searching process (younger workers do not know precisely which job matches their abilities and skills and change jobs more frequently). Moreover, if they do not have children or other family commitments they are more career oriented and focused on earning money as they need to collect together the financial means neces-

sary to pay for their own flat or a house. This work accumulation is more typical for more educated individuals with university degrees, while the majority of workers (59.4 per cent) with primary education did not work at all in last year.

Looking at the workers who hold several jobs simultaneously, we can see that additional income earning activities are most common for technicians and associated professionals, craft and related workers, professionals and elementary workers<sup>1</sup>. Only one fifth of workers are employed in their second job, 41.5 per cent are self-employed and 35.6 per cent had a different status. In their additional jobs, most individuals work without contract or according to performance (Table 2.1.).

Workers with more jobs work usually 55.9 hours per week – they spend on average 42.5 hours in their main earning activity and approximately 13.4 hours in additional jobs. This suggests that multiple job holding in the CR does not mean holding several part-time jobs but rather having one main full-time job and doing some additional part-time work on the side. It seems that there still are persons in the CR who needs to work more than 42 hours per week to achieve satisfactory living standard.

**Table 2.1. Types of contract**

	Second job	Third job
permanent	7.4	3.1
fixed term	5.3	73.1
according to performance	31.4	25.0
other type of contract	12.8	0.0
no contract	43.1	68.0
N	188	32

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Data in our survey illustrate that the additional jobs are more flexible as only 7 per cent of workers in their second job works regular hours, 27.7

per cent work often or always at home and 59 per cent of respondents claim that their work place varies at least sometimes. Approximately one

third of workers keep their additional second job for more than five years, 39 per cent for 1-5 years and 26 per cent for 1-12 months.

**Table 2.2. Different sources of income over the last year**

	Men	Women	Total	Share of people that had 2 or more jobs
self-employed job	22.2	11.1	16.6	43.0
small-scale agriculture	2.9	1.0	1.0	7.9
seasonal construction or agricultural work for employer	3.5	0.8	2.1	8.9
unskilled casual work	7.3	5.2	6.2	23.8
skilled manual work on short-term contract or without contract	8.3	2.9	5.6	21.5
professional services	5.3	4.2	4.8	18.7
agency and distribution work	2.7	3.7	3.2	15.9

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

## 2.2. Informal and Voluntary Work

In the Communist regime, voluntary work was a way to spread socialist ideology. In order to improve their record in the interest of their own career all workers had to voluntarily at least occasionally. Voluntary work under socialism often had no economic sense and its only aim was to make people to express their loyalty with the regime. Therefore, it is not surprising that the share of volunteers declined rapidly after 1989 from a quite high level of 22 per cent (Pavol Fric, 2001). According to the HWF survey, the share of volunteers among respondents is about 10 per cent, which complies with other researcher's findings and suggests that this segment has been increasing slightly since 1998. The experts claim that volunteers most often work for organisations providing social services, in sport and recreation activities in the health sector and in organisations focused on ecological activity (Fric, 2001).

Women (8 per cent) are less likely to be volunteers than men (12.2 per cent). This might be associated with the fact that a lot of voluntary work is associated with men's hobbies. We can also observe a higher proportion of voluntary

work among more educated workers (Table 2.3) and among those with a higher salary. Fric argues that more educated people are involved in voluntary work because they have greater trust in the organisations providing such activities, they believe that their work makes sense and believe that they can help to spread 'good ideas.'

Very little is known about the nature and extent of informal employment in Eastern and Central Europe in general and in the Czech Republic in particular. According to the HWF survey, in the last 12 months, almost one quarter of the respondents have done regularly at least once per month some unpaid work for relatives or friends. Such unpaid informal work is slightly more common for men (25.9 per cent) than for women (23.3 per cent) and at least according to personal income and educational attainment, it seems that the respondents who tend to do voluntary work also help their friends and relatives more often. We have not found any relationship between the household characteristics (such as household size) and informal work.

**Table 2.3. Informal and Voluntary work of household members**

% Yes	N	Voluntary work	Unpaid Work
Respondent	1305	10.0	24.6
P1	1303	8.9	20.1
P2	814	3.3	7.0
P3	460	1.2	2.9
P4	460	0.1	0.3
P5	88	0.0	0.1

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table 2.4. Educational attainment and voluntary and unpaid work**

	N	voluntary	unpaid
Primary and pre primary education	197	6.6	19.8
vocational school	485	7.4	23.5
secondary school	441	11.6	26.8
postsecondary	31	12.9	35.5
Second stage of tertiary education	139	17.9	25.8

Note: Percentage of YES (other possible answers: No DK/NA)

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table 2.5. Personal income and voluntary and unpaid work**

Personal Income (CZK)	N	voluntary	unpaid
less than 5000	276	9.1	21.1
5000-7999	331	<b>6.0</b>	22.1
8000-9 999	198	10.6	26.3
10 000-14 999	281	<b>13.9</b>	29.5
more than 15 000	142	12.7	26.8

Note: percentage of YES (other possible answers: No DK/NA)

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

### 3. HOUSEHOLD ORGANISATION

#### 3.1. Household typology

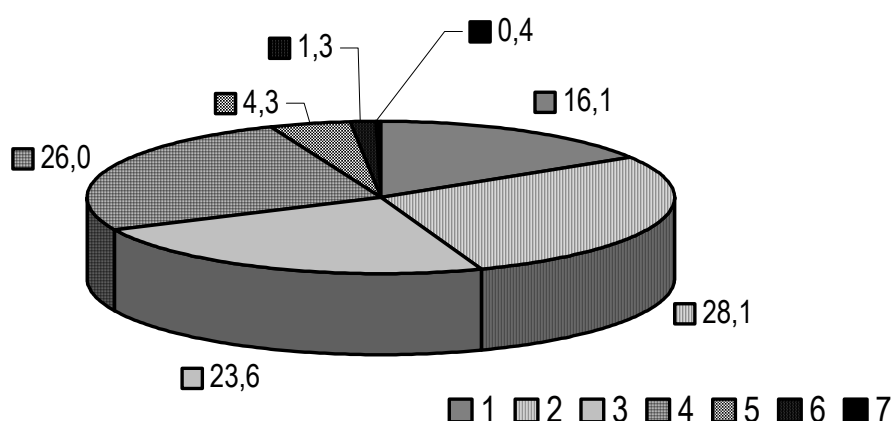
The HWF Survey provides us with valuable information about household structure. When we examine the work/family relationship, the household characteristics with the strongest effect are household size, number of children and their age .

The structure of Czech households according to their size is presented in Figure 3.1. The information gathered in the survey shows that the typical Czech household is rather small with an average size of 2.82, which is higher than figure of

2.49 calculated by the CSO for the whole population and year 2000. Only 6.2 per cent households have more than five members and multigenerational households are not very common. It seems likely that children live with their parents only until they get married and start a family of their own. Table 3.1. indeed illustrates that households without small children (0-14 years) are the more

likely to have more than two adult persons. With one child, the probability of there being at least three adults sharply declines from 24.3 per cent to 10.5 per cent. The higher number of household members also increases the range of possibilities for distributing household tasks and could thus moderate the tension between work and family.

**Figure 3.1. Households according to their size**



Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table 3.1. Household typology**

Adults	Children 0-14years				Total
	0	1	2	3+	
1	26.0	14.6	6.4	9.4	21.1
2	49.5	74.5	88.6	81.3	59.5
3	15.5	7.5	3.0	9.4	12.4
4+	8.8	3.0	1.5	0.0	6.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<b>N</b>	<b>1055</b>	<b>267</b>	<b>202</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>1556</b>

Note: adults =number of family members –number of dependent children receiving child allowances.

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

In the HWF survey, 9 per cent of respondents claimed to have at least one member who temporarily left the family. In the Czech Republic household size is a very important determinant of minimum living standard and via that of the gen-

erosity of social allowances. It is argued that due to this fact low income individuals from large families with children face quite high work disincentives.

With regard to household type, 16.2 per cent of households have only one member, 15.1 per cent of households that have at least one child under six years old and 45 per cent of households have dependent children altogether. The average number of dependent children is 0.745 and the average number of children below six is 0.11. The children affect significantly the economic status of young women who have to either stay at home or find a child care facility. The prices for kindergartens have risen and their number have declined by 14 per cent since 1990 (CZSO, 2000) Nurseries show even greater decline. The higher prices are due to lower birth rates resulting in fewer children in classes, and due to an increase in the quality of services offered. Hiring nannies is not very widespread first of all because most people could not afford it (a female doctor for example, would pay her entire salary for child care) (Cemakova at all, 2000:92). The high costs associated with child care together with the low availability of part-time jobs on the labour market make young

mothers either work full time or not at all. Many Czech women, especially those with children of pre-school age, would prefer to work part-time. In a survey conducted in 1994 the sociologists asked the mother with children below 6 if they want to work full time. Only 6 per cent answered positively, however, the actual share of mothers working full time was 49.9 per (Cemakova at all, 2000).

**Table 3.2. Household typology**

	N	%
single member household	251	16.1
1 adult+children14	55	3.5
2 adults no children 0-14	522	33.5
2 adults +children 0-14	404	26.0
more adults no children 0-14	257	16.5
more adults + children 0-14	40	2.6
other	27	1.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>1556</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table 3.3. Household composition**

	temporarily left household	children under 6	dependent children
0	91.0	84.9	55.0
1	7.5	11.8	20.3
2	0.9	3.2	21.0
3	0.4	0.1	2.7
4	0.2	0.0	0.7
5 and more	0.0	0.0	0.3

Note: dependent children include children of the ages between 0-14 and children above 14 receiving children allowances

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

### 3.2. Domestic roles

The distribution of household tasks in Czech households is rather fixed. If we ask the person selected from the household about the nine probably most common activities the following picture emerged. The respondents claim that they are mostly responsible for a given task in more than 40 per cent of cases – with the exception of garden work. The partners are usually the second most

responsible persons with respect to household work, although they are almost 10 per cent less likely to do the task. This is probably affected by the subjective perception of household duties. The other members of the household, apart from spouses, are seldom responsible for a given task – especially if they are children. With the exception of the maintenance and repairs of dwelling interior



or gardening, girls help in the household more often than boys. From the other household members probably the most important person is the mother/grandmother who does the cooking, cleaning, washing, shopping, caring for children, and a sick person in the family in every tenth household. The responsibility of fathers/grandfathers are much lower and only slightly higher than that of

children. We also found out from the HWF survey that Czech households do not yet outsource household tasks and if they do that they usually rely more on the help of friends or relatives from the outside the household than on paid services (see Table 3.4.). The only exception is washing the laundry and the household task that is most often paid: small repairs inside the dwelling.

**Table 3.4. The distribution of household tasks**

	maintenance and repair of the dwelling interior	Cooking	Cleaning the house	Washing the laundry	daily shopping	taking daily care for the child	taking care of sick child	taking care of sick friend or relative	Garden Work
respondent	46.1	44.2	42.1	43.9	43.1	45.4	46.0	42.0	36.5
partner	29.9	34.7	32.3	36.9	29.9	31.7	34.9	25.7	25.6
father/grandfather	9.2	0.6	0.4	0.6	1.8	1.3	0.2	0.8	5.4
mother grandmother	3.0	14.8	11.3	13.6	10.4	7.6	10.3	12.3	4.2
son/grandson	0.9	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.6
daughter/granddaughter	0.1	0.2	1.0	0.9	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.7
other member	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.1
shared equally	6.4	3.9	10.1	2.3	11.0	12.2	6.9	17.0	26.1
friend/neighbour from outside the household)	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.7	0.6
other situation	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1
we pay someone	1.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2

Note: figures are shares of those households for which the given question is relative.

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Table 3.5 illustrates the gender division of household tasks. Although the employment rates of Czech women during Communism were very high, they still performed most of the household tasks and this has not changed too much since 1989. In the data we can look at the respondents who are responsible for given household tasks and calculate the share of women and men among them. Only small household tasks inside the house or flat and gardening can be deemed as men's work because the great majority of the responsible persons are men. Even then, we still find a significant percentage of female respondents that do their repairs or gardening mostly themselves.

**Table 3.5. The share of respondents responsible for household activities**

The respondent is responsible for the task	Male	Female
maintenance and repair of the dwelling interior	74.3	25.7
Cooking	6.9	93.1
Cleaning the house	7.1	92.9
Washing the laundry	4.7	95.3
daily shopping	18.8	81.2
taking daily care for the child	12.0	88.0
taking care of sick child	4.9	95.1
taking care of sick friend or relative	12.5	87.5
Garden Work	60.1	39.9

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001



However, all the other household tasks seem to be dominantly feminine. The share of men that are the most responsible for cooking, cleaning, washing and taking care of sick children is less than 10 per cent. It seems that more men help with shopping and taking care of children and sick friends or relatives. Although the figures support the hypothesis about the traditional division of household roles between a man, the main breadwinner,

and his wife who takes care of family, and works only to complement the low family income, the obtained results might be rather biased. The problem is that we asked about the person who is the most responsible, and it might be true that the household activities are managed and organised by woman who do not necessarily carry them out all alone.

### 3.3. Patterns of decision making in the household

Looking at the cumulative percentages of households that sometimes or always agree, we observe that amount of time spent in work and together are the issues with the lowest level of agreement (62.3 per cent and 63.3 per cent). This is followed by the distribution of household tasks (68.1). With

respect to the four questions examined in the HWF survey, the households express the highest probability of agreement if they discuss household finance: 72 per cent of households sometimes or even always agree.

**Table 3.6. Bargaining over various things in the family**

	finances	domestic tasks	time spent together	time spent in employment
Always agree	26.7	22.7	20.9	27.8
Sometimes agree	45.4	45.4	42.4	34.5
Neither agree nor disagree	19.2	21.9	25.7	20.2
Sometimes disagree	4.9	6.1	7.1	6.4
Always disagree	2.8	2.7	2.7	6.8
DK/NA	1.1	1.2	1.2	4.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

## 4. WORK/HOUSEHOLD RELATION

### 4.1. The Integration of home and work

Compared to the western countries such as the Netherlands or Sweden, Czech employers have not yet realised the potentially positive outcome of meeting the family needs of their employees (Cermakova at al, 2000: 93) and did not focus until now on the improving family/work arrangements despite the fact that the conflict between family and work is present in Czech society. The majority of respondents claim that their work at least rarely hinders them in doing household

tasks or devoting sufficient time to other family members (Table 4.1.). Family affects performance at work less than work does the performance at home: only 11.3 per cent workers sometimes cannot do their work adequately due to family commitments. An indirect measure of family/work conflict is the share of workers who often have to take their work home to finish, which is 9.3 per cent.

**Table 4.1. Family/ work conflicts and preferences about family/work arrangements.**

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
work makes it difficult to do some household tasks	39.2	24.3	23.6	11.8	1.1
work makes it difficult to fulfil the responsibilities towards family	42.8	26.0	22.3	7.8	1.1
family prevents me from doing the work adequately	65.0	23.7	9.6	1.4	0.3
I have to take work home to finish	68.3	11.4	10.9	6.3	3.0
I preferred to spend more time at work than at home	68.5	16.2	12.4	1.9	1.0

Note: N=996 (respondents who work positive hours per week)

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

If we look separately at the full time employees and the self-employed, we can see that 10 per cent of full-time employees report that their work often prevents them often from fulfilling some of their household tasks. It is interesting to note that among the self-employed, the share of workers facing such tensions was even higher (28 per cent) indicating that that being self-employed does not necessarily enable an escape from the conflicts between family and work (Table 4.2).

The probability that the responsibility toward family always or often negatively affects the productivity and performance of the worker is

lower (1.9 per cent) than the probability that the work always or often negatively affect both the family relationships (9.2 per cent ) and the performance of household tasks (9.8 per cent).

The relationship between the work-family conflict and gender is not very strong. However, examining the sample of employed workers (N=996) we found that the participation in the labour market is more important for men, because in the sample there is 4.4 per cent men and only 1.1 per cent women that often or even always want to spend more time at work rather than at home.

**Table 4.2. The perception of family work arrangements**

		Never or rarely	Sometimes	Often or always
<i>Full-time employees</i>	work makes it difficult to do some household tasks	65.1	24.4	10.6
	work makes it difficult to fulfil the responsibilities towards family	69.9	22.2	8.0
	family prevents me from doing the work adequately	89.4	9.3	1.3
	I have to take work home to finish	82.7	10.8	6.5
	preferred to spend more time at work than at home	86.3	11.2	2.5
<i>Self-employed</i>	work makes it difficult to do some household tasks	42.7	29.4	28.0
	work makes it difficult to fulfil the responsibilities towards family	56.6	25.9	17.5
	family prevents me from doing the work adequately	81.1	14.7	4.2
	I have to take work home to finish	59.4	16.8	23.8
	I preferred to spend more time at work than at home	74.1	18.9	7.0

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

We found a high correlation between age and tensions between work and household commitments, which suggests that the strength of the conflict changes over the life cycle or over the career path.

The age groups most at risk are 25-34 year olds and 35-44 year olds. They both face the greatest pressure of work on their household tasks and family relations and on the other hand, their fami-

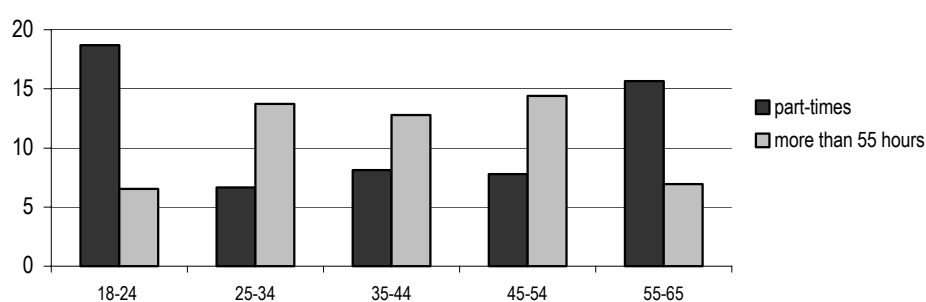
lies most often affect their performance at work. For example, among workers aged 25-34 there are 15.2 per cent for whom it is often difficult to do some household tasks because of work and 10.9 per cent of them who do not devote sufficient time to their families because they work too hard. The same figures for workers above 54 are two times smaller. In 3.1 per cent of cases, the family negatively affects the work performance of age cohort 25-34. Age does not seem to affect the likelihood that the worker brings the work home to finish nor his or her preferences about the time spent at work rather at home. The results probably reflect the fact that young employees more often work hard with longer hours to increase the chance of promotion and at the same time they start families and have to care for small children.

Concerning household structure, it accounts for the differences in perception of tension between family relations and work and the effect of family on work productivity. We can see the following: first, single respondents living alone claim more often than that their work never affects their relationship to close persons. Moreover, they are quite reliable for their employers, because in 76.3 per

cent of cases their work is not affected by family commitments. The sources of the conflict are first of all children: a household with two adults without small children (0-14years) claim in 66 per cent that the responsibility toward their family never reduces their work effort. However, if there are children in a household, this figure declines by almost 10 per cent. Moreover, 3.3 per cent of single parents say that their family permanently prevents them from doing their job adequately.

Most workers (58,3 per cent) wish to work the same hours, 38.4 per cent wish to work less and only 2 per cent wish to work more hours. There are no differences in this respect according to gender, which indicates that difference in men's and women's real working hours. Individuals that would like to work less hours want to spend more time with their family (49 per cent), or they do not like work so much (25.4 per cent). The main reason for wanting longer hours is the bad financial situation (70 per cent) – hence, 34 per cent of people that are satisfied with their working hours claim that it enables them to meet their domestic and family commitments.

**Figure 4.1. The share of workers according to the length of their working hours in their main activity who wishes to work, less, more or the same number of hours**



Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

Overall the picture of the Czech labour market is one with a relatively low level of 'non-standard' employment.

- The most typical working schedule is regular working hours from Monday morning to Friday afternoon. As age rises, so does the probability of having a regular working schedule.
- Shifts are more common for women, flexi-time for men. Only 9.6 per cent of workers, more often women, the very young or the oldest respondents, work part-time
- About half of men and 40 per cent of women work overtime in the afternoon at least once per month.
- Only 8.7 per cent of workers work at home. Women like it because they can spend more time with their families but men have other reasons. About 10 per cent of women and more men work at home because they could not get any other job.
- One third of work contracts are atypical: self-employment (12 per cent) fixed term contracts (10 per cent), no contract (5.5 per cent), other forms such as on call work, employment with temporary work agency or employment subject to performance or on a fee basis is rather limited in the CR and constitutes only 3.5 per cent.
- Part-time jobs exhibit a higher degree of contractual flexibility.
- The young below 24 years are more likely to work without contract or in on of the new form of work (on call, contract with work agency, on a fee basis) and are less likely to be in self-employment.
- On average, the workers with the highest personal income are those whose contract is subject to performance or they are self-employed. Fixed term contracts are, on the other hand, relatively badly paid.
- The highest social class: senior officials and managers tend more often than the others to work without contract or to be in self-employment.
- Fixed term contracts are most common for the elementary workers.
- Employers decide the working hours, place and schedule for two thirds of respondents. The participation of employees on decision making is rather limited. Men and older workers have greater autonomy.
- 14.9 per cent of respondents had more than one job in last year.
- In their second and third job, workers are more often self-employed, work without contract or according to performance.
- Informal unpaid work for friends or relatives outside the household is more common in CR than voluntary work and both types of unpaid work outside the household are more common for men, more educated workers and individuals with higher personal income.
- The majority of Czechs are prepared to re-train for another profession if unemployed. Many of them would also study a new language or work more than 40 hours per week. Czechs are not very willing to accept worse working conditions or to move to another settlement. Financial stimuli (in the form of a double salary) have a greater effect on potential flexibility than the threat of unemployment.
- Half of the respondents who entered labour market before 1989 changed their employment: one quarter once and the other quarter more than once. About 40 per cent of respondents changed their profession, a quarter of workers started their own business; about 13.3 per cent of workers found a job on the side; one quarter experienced unemployment and 7.3 per cent experienced repeated unemployment.
- Czech workers are least satisfied with their earnings, only then do they complain about

working hours, and then they are discontented with the stability of work and the duration of the work contract. The least dissatisfaction is associated with the work place.

- The respondent together with their partner are the most responsible for the basic domestic tasks. Children in the Czech households are assigned only very little responsibility, but daughters help in the household more than sons. In many households, the grandmother/mother helps out. Czechs rely more on friends than on paid services.

- With the exception of small repairs in the dwelling and gardening, the main household activities are usually done by women.
- Czech households argue first of all about the time spent in employment and in the family, rather than about the distribution of domestic tasks and finance.

Most workers (58.3 per cent) wish to work the same hours, only 2 per cent of workers feel underemployed. One third of satisfied workers claim that their work enables them to meet their domestic and family commitments.

## NOTES

1. ISCO groups 3, 7, 9, 2.

## ANNEX

## I. Additional information of respondents

Table A.1. Respondents according to ethnic groups

Ethnic group	per cent
Czech	94.1
Slovak	1.5
Romany	1.5
German	0.3
Polish	0.4
Other	2.1
DK/NA	0.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

## II. Economic standards

Table A.3. Type of dwelling

Type of dwelling	per cent
municipal state housing	18.4
employer owned flat	2.9
Co-operative flat	12.0
Own flat	10.2
Rented flat	7.5
Flat in own rental house	0.6
Family house	44.9
Bigger Family house. villa	3.3
DK/NA	0.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

## III. Technical report on the survey

The Czech module was fielded as an individual survey. The national version of the questionnaire was completed in the preparatory phase during November-December 2000. During this period several pilot interviews were carried out by our field agency STEM (Centre for Empirical Research) and on the basis of these final form of the questionnaire was designed. STEM was responsible for the collection of data and the fieldwork

Table A.2. Respondents according to religion

Religion	per cent
Atheist	64.6
Roman Catholic	29.3
Greek Catholic	0.4
Evangelic	1.8
Czechoslovak Hussite	1.0
Other protestant church	0.3
Jewish	0.1
Other	2.5

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Table A.4. Ownership of durable goods

Kinds of durable goods	per cent
car	69.8
mobile phone	59.0
second dwelling	35.0
Internet	16.8
PC	31.2

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

started in January 3, 2001 and ended in June 10, 2001. Standardised face-to-face interviews carried out by trained interviewers were chosen as the method of the survey. Unfortunately, during the period when the HWF data were collected the Population census was carried out (March 1, 2001), which triggered off the public debate on the protection of the individual information. The hostile public atmosphere probably affected the will-

ingness of sampled respondents to provide voluntarily any further information especially about their additional jobs and income sources, and accounts for the low response rate.

Comparing the sample and population characteristics from other sources we found a slightly higher proportion of the old-age group which is due to lower response rate of younger cohorts. The lower proportion of the single-member households is associated with the design of the sample (household as a sampling unit). Generally the data displayed a sufficient level of representativeness and thus was not weighted.

#### Characteristics of Czech sample

Total number of selected addresses	4222
Addresses which could not be traced	31
Addresses found as apartments empty or demolished	162
No contact at selected addresses	474
No contact with selected person	168
Refusal at selected address	847
Complete refusal by selected persons	413
Partial refusals by selected persons	119
Excluded persons because over 65 years	452
Number of person successfully interviewed 18-65 years	1556
Response rate	55.3%
Weights	NO

#### Comparison of Czech HWF sample with LFS

		LFS 2000 (30-59)	HWF 2001 (30-59)
<b>ECONOMIC STATUS</b>	employed	78.8	73.6
	unemployed	6.1	9.2
	out of the labour force	15.1	17.2
		LFS 2000 (20-64)	HWF 2001 (18-65)
<b>SEX:</b>	men	50.0	49.4
	women	50.0	50.6
		LFS 2000 (20-64)	HWF 2001 (20-65)%
<b>AGE:</b>	20 – 29	26.5	24.0
	30 – 44	31.9	30.0
	45 – 54	24.7	22.4
	55-65	16.8	23.6
		LFS 2000 (15+)	HWF 2001 (18-65)%
<b>EDUCATION:</b>	Elementary	22.2	15.7
	Secondary (no GCE)	37.3	37.1
	Secondary (with GCE)	25.4	25.5
	Secondary general	4.6	7.6
	Tertiary	8.6	10.8
		Population statistics January, 2001 (all)	HWF 2001 (18-65 years)
<b>REGIONS</b>	Prague	11.5	14.1
	Middle Bohemia	11.0	12.1
	South West	11.5	11.4
	North West	11.0	11.2
	North East	14.5	15.6
	South East	16.1	13.7
	South Moravia	12.0	12.9
	North Moravia	12.4	9.0

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001, LFS

#### IV. Additional tables

**Table A.5. Distribution of working hours according to the size of locality**

hours/week	village	small town	big town	Prague	Total
1-34	11.0	9.7	7.0	13.4	9.7
35-54	73.7	80.9	83.8	68.8	78.2
55+	15.3	9.4	9.2	17.8	12.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table A.6. Type of shifts**

	Male	Female	Total
Rotating shifts (e.g. sometimes mornings. sometimes afternoon)	59.4	57.3	58.2
Nights	1.4	0	0.6
Day times	1.4	14.6	8.9
Morning shifts	4.3	1.1	2.5
Evening or twilight shifts	13.0	15.7	14.6
Other types of shift work	14.5	7.9	10.8
DK/NA	5.8	3.4	4.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table A.7. Spatial flexibility according to age**

The place of work is	18-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-65
At home	1.9	5.5	5.0	4.3	6.0
Combined at home and elsewhere	1.9	3.5	5.0	3.9	5.1
Within the locality where you live	37.4	38.3	47.9	44.0	49.6
Within a different locality to which you commute	43.9	46.9	35.5	42.8	33.3
Abroad	0.9	0	0	0.4	0.9
Always changing	6.5	5.1	5.8	4.3	4.3
Other situation	3.7	0.8	0.8	0.4	
DK/NA	3.7	0	0	0	0.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001



**Table A.8. Reasons of the changes**

<b>If your employment changed, which of the following possibilities best describes your present situation?</b>	
You work in the same place, but the firm has been reorganized or privatized	17
You went to a different company which existed already prior to 1990	29
You went to a different company established after 1990	41.7
DK/NA	12.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<b>What was the main reason for your last change in employment?</b>	
The company was closed or reorganized	20.3
Production was cut down /you were made redundant	10.7
You were unsatisfied with the employment	14
You were offered a more interesting position	14
You wanted to become self employed	15.5
Other reason	17
DK/NA	8.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

**Table A.9. Additional jobs**

<b>Working hours arrangements</b>		
	<b>Second job</b>	<b>Third job</b>
regular hours	6.9	12.5
flexible times	19.7	25.0
varies according to seasons	8.5	6.3
irregular hours	64.4	56.3
DK/NA	0.5	0.0
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Do you work at home?</i>		
Always	17.6	12.5
Most often	10.1	6.3
Sometimes	17.6	21.9
Never	54.8	59.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>
<i>Does the place of work vary?</i>		
always the same	41.0	31.3
sometimes varies	23.4	28.1
varies all the time	35.6	40.6
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Table A.10. Family/ Work conflict over the life cycle

age	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	
	Never	Often	Never	Often	Never	Often
18-24	44.9	10.3	47.7	7.5	67.3	0.9
25-34	29.3	15.2	33.6	10.9	59.0	3.1
35-44	32.4	14.3	34.0	8.1	59.1	2.3
45-54	45.1	13.2	49.4	10.1	69.3	0.8
55-65	57.3	6.8	63.2	5.1	79.5	0.0

Note: N=996; includes all working respondents, often means always or often.

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001

Table A.11. Household types and perception of work/family conflict

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
<i>My work makes it difficult to fulfil my responsibilities towards my family and other important persons in my life</i>					
other	62.5	6.3	31.3	0.0	0.0
single member household	62.6	15.3	13.7	6.9	1.5
1 adult children <sup>14</sup>	33.3	36.7	23.3	6.7	0.0
2 adults no children <sup>14</sup>	43.5	25.2	21.9	8.5	1.0
2 adults children <sup>14</sup>	33.9	29.4	26.8	9.4	0.6
more adults no children	43.5	28.8	19.8	5.6	2.3
more adults children <sup>14</sup>	34.6	30.8	26.9	7.7	0.0
<i>My responsibilities towards my family and other important persons in my life prevented me from doing my work adequately</i>					
other	75.0	18.8	0.0	6.3	0.0
single member household	76.3	16.0	6.1	0.8	0.8
1 adult children <sup>14</sup>	43.3	40.0	13.3	0.0	3.3
2 adults no children <sup>14</sup>	66.0	23.5	9.8	0.3	0.3
2 adults children <sup>14</sup>	58.4	27.1	11.6	2.9	0.0
more adults no children	68.9	20.9	9.0	1.1	0.0
more adults children <sup>14</sup>	65.4	26.9	7.7	0.0	0.0

Source: HWF Survey: Czech Republic, 2001