



OECD Labour Market and Social Policy Occasional Papers
No. 48

**Firms' Contribution
to the Reconciliation
between Work and Family
Life**

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<https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/344836028454>

Unclassified

DEELSA/ELSA/WD(2001)1



Organisation de Coopération et de Développement Economiques
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

28-Feb-2001

English text only

**DIRECTORATE FOR EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT, LABOUR AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS
EMPLOYMENT, LABOUR AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS COMMITTEE**

**DEELSA/ELSA/WD(2001)1
Unclassified**

**LABOUR MARKET AND SOCIAL POLICY
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FIRMS' CONTRIBUTION TO THE RECONCILIATION BETWEEN WORK AND FAMILY LIFE

John M. Evans

JT00103532

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**DIRECTORATE FOR EDUCATION,
EMPLOYMENT, LABOUR AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS**

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FOREWORD

An earlier version of this paper was presented to the *Conference on Families, Labour Markets, and The Well Being of Children*, 1-2 June 2000, Vancouver, British Columbia, organised by the Canadian Employment Research Forum and Statistics Canada. Valuable comments were received from the participants at this conference, particularly from the discussant Brian Krauth, as well as from a number of colleagues at the OECD, particularly John Martin, and from Ceridwen Roberts. Stephen Wood provided valuable advice and encouragement at the beginning of the project.

SUMMARY

One of the most striking, long-term trends in the labour market has been the increase in the proportion of parents at work. This has been reflected in the increase in the proportion of dual-earner couple families and of lone-parent families where the parent is working. A growing proportion of the workforces of firms is thus heavily involved in family life and responsibilities, in addition to their jobs. The way in which the working arrangements in firms adapt in response to these changes is of crucial importance for the work/family reconciliation. Whatever government policies are put in place, the detailed aspects of the reconciliation are worked out at the level of the workplace, and the job. This paper provides an international comparison of these “family-friendly” work arrangements voluntarily introduced by firms, and discusses some of the factors which might influence and encourage their development.

Detailed information on family-friendly arrangements in enterprises is currently available for four countries: Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The data show that many firms in these countries go beyond the legal minimum in their provision of family-friendly arrangements. The family-friendly arrangement most commonly cited by employers is changes in working hours, such as flexi-time working or part-time working. Very few firms appear to offer a range of family-friendly arrangements wide enough to include extra family leave and help with child-care. The public sector is more likely to provide family-friendly arrangements. Large firms are somewhat more likely to do so than smaller ones, though the difference depends on the type of family-friendly arrangement concerned. More highly-skilled workers, and those with longer tenures, tend to be offered more family-friendly benefits. There is some evidence that family-friendly arrangements are more common in firms with a written Equal Employment Opportunities statement and where there is a “high commitment” style of management, in which employers adopt a strategy of delegating higher levels of responsibility to employees.

The restricted, but more readily comparable data available for the European Union confirm the differences in provision and use between different types of firm, and different types of employees. A high proportion of firms in many European countries appear to provide extra-statutory family leave benefits, such as sick child leave, extra maternity leave and extra parental leave. Many also offer changes in working hours. However, as with the non-European countries, relatively few provide help with child-care. There is a complex relationship between the extent of extra-statutory maternity benefits provided by European firms and the relevant statutory provisions. Extra-statutory arrangements for maternity leave are relatively rare both in countries where the legislation is relatively weak (such as the United Kingdom) and where it is relatively strong (the Nordic countries). They are most common in some countries where there is a medium level of support (Austria and Germany). Possible reasons for these differences are discussed in terms of the differences in social welfare systems, the role of the family, and the degree of labour force participation of women.

A discussion of four potential “motors” for family-friendly arrangements within firms: the “business case”, trends in human resource management policies, gender equity programmes, and increased possibilities for home work, concludes that none have unambiguously positive implications. This leads into suggestions for ways in which family-friendly arrangements within firms might be fostered, in the context of national legislation and values. The paper also concludes with recommendations for future research.

RÉSUMÉ

L'une des tendances sur longue période les plus marquantes touchant l'évolution du marché du travail est l'augmentation de la proportion de parents qui travaillent. Elle se traduit par le poids croissant des ménages bi-actifs avec enfants et des familles monoparentales dont le parent travaille. Les entreprises comptent donc parmi leur personnel de plus en plus de personnes qui s'investissent beaucoup dans leur vie familiale tout en exerçant une activité professionnelle. La façon dont les entreprises s'organisent face à ces évolutions revêt une importance cruciale pour la conciliation de la vie professionnelle et de la vie familiale. Quels que soient les dispositifs mis en place par les pouvoirs publics, leurs conditions précises de mise en œuvre sont définies au niveau de l'entreprise et du poste de travail. Ce document présente une comparaison internationale des dispositifs "favorables à la famille" volontairement introduits par les entreprises, et s'intéresse à quelques-uns des facteurs susceptibles d'influencer et de favoriser leur développement.

On dispose actuellement d'informations précises sur les dispositifs d'entreprise favorables à la famille pour quatre pays : l'Australie, les États-Unis, le Japon et le Royaume-Uni. Il ressort de ces informations que beaucoup d'entreprises de ces pays ont mis en place des dispositifs en faveur des familles qui vont au-delà du minimum légal. Les dispositifs les plus fréquemment cités par les employeurs sont l'aménagement du temps de travail, avec notamment l'introduction des horaires mobiles ou du travail à temps partiel. Très peu d'entreprises semblent offrir un éventail de dispositifs suffisamment large pour englober aussi des congés parentaux supplémentaires et des services de garde d'enfants. Les entreprises du secteur public sont plus susceptibles d'adopter des mesures en faveur des familles que celles du secteur privé, et les grandes entreprises le sont un peu plus que les petites, encore que cela dépende du type de dispositif concerné. La générosité des prestations en faveur des familles tend à augmenter avec le niveau de qualification et l'ancienneté des salariés. Certaines informations semblent indiquer que les dispositifs favorables aux familles sont plus fréquents dans les entreprises ayant adopté officiellement une charte pour l'égalité des chances dans l'emploi et où prévaut un style de management encourageant une « forte implication », les employeurs ayant pour politique de déléguer des responsabilités importantes à leurs salariés.

Les données limitées mais plus aisément comparables dont on dispose pour les pays de l'Union européenne confirment l'existence de disparités, au niveau de l'étendue des dispositifs et de leur taux d'utilisation, selon les catégories d'entreprises et de salariés. Dans beaucoup de pays européens, une forte proportion d'entreprises accordent des allocations de congé parental supérieures au minimum légal, par exemple des congés pour enfant malade, des congés de maternité ou de paternité supplémentaires. Beaucoup offrent aussi la possibilité de bénéficier d'horaires aménagés. Toutefois, à l'instar de ce que l'on observe en dehors de l'Europe, les services de garde d'enfants proposés par les entreprises sont relativement rares. Il existe une relation complexe entre le niveau des prestations de maternité offertes par les entreprises européennes en sus du minimum légal, et les dispositions légales en la matière. L'octroi de congés de maternité supplémentaires est assez rare aussi bien dans des pays où le niveau des prestations légales est relativement bas (comme le Royaume-Uni) que dans des pays où il est relativement élevé (pays Nordiques). C'est dans les pays ayant un niveau de prestations intermédiaire que ce type d'avantage est le plus répandu (Autriche et Allemagne). Plusieurs pistes sont évoquées dans ce document pour tenter d'expliquer les causes de ces disparités : différences de régimes de protection sociale, de conception du rôle de la famille, de taux d'activité féminins.

Une réflexion sur quatre « moteurs » potentiels de développement des dispositifs en faveur de la famille au sein des entreprises, à savoir les avantages économiques de ces dispositifs pour les entreprises, les nouvelles orientations des politiques de gestion des ressources humaines, les programmes en faveur de l'égalité homme-femme, et l'extension des possibilités de travail à domicile, aboutit à la conclusion qu'aucun d'entre eux n'a des implications purement positives. Ce constat débouche sur des suggestions en vue d'encourager la mise en place par les entreprises de dispositifs favorables aux familles, compte tenu de la législation et de la culture nationales. Le document s'achève par des recommandations concernant les travaux futurs.

**FIRMS' CONTRIBUTION TO THE RECONCILIATION BETWEEN
WORK AND FAMILY LIFE**

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FIRMS' CONTRIBUTION TO THE RECONCILIATION BETWEEN WORK AND FAMILY LIFE

INTRODUCTION

1. The dramatic increase in women's participation in the labour market has brought the issue of the work/family reconciliation into the forefront. The proportion of parents in paid employment has increased considerably. A growing proportion of couple families are dual-earner families and, in most OECD countries, the bulk of the growing number of lone parents are in employment (OECD, 2001, forthcoming). Firms play a crucial role in the work/family reconciliation. Whatever government policies are put in place, the detailed aspects of the reconciliation are worked out at the level of the workplace, and the job.

2. Many firms used to be able to operate on the assumption that most of their workforce had no family responsibilities likely to conflict with their jobs. However, this is now less likely to hold. Most of the growing number of mothers present in the workforce bear the major share of care responsibilities within their families, both for children and the growing number of elderly people. In addition, in some countries, fathers have begun to allocate more time to caring. Unless firms accommodate these trends satisfactorily, many mothers will be unable to fulfil their potential at work, the aspirations of many fathers to take part in family life will be denied, and progress towards gender equity will be impeded (Duxbury *et al.*, 1999; Cooper and Lewis, 1993; Lewis and Lewis, 1996; Blau and Ehrenberg, 1997). In addition, unless they take account of the lives of their employees outside the workplace, firms may suffer losses in efficiency, and be unable to secure the qualified and committed workforces they need (Bond *et al.*, 1998).

3. Most OECD countries have introduced a wide range of policies designed to ease the reconciliation of work and family life, including leave to care for sick children; maternity, paternity, parental, and career interruption leave; child-care facilities; and measures that better match working-time with school hours (see for example, Kalisch *et al.*, 1998; Rostgaard and Fridberg, 1998; MISSOC, 1999). However, even in those countries with extensive legislation, family-friendly attitudes by firms are still of great importance. For example, rigid adherence to fixed working hours, or the imposition of time demands without notice, may deny employees the flexibility that is needed to deal with the day-to-day pressures and emergencies of family life, and lead to considerable stress (WFU/DEWRSB, 1999; Duxbury *et al.*, 1999). In extreme cases firms may be reluctant to grant some or all of their employees rights they are allowed under the law. Here, relatively low-skilled, or easily-replaced employees are likely to be most vulnerable (Kiser, 1996). On the other hand, in some countries, either for business reasons, or because of prevailing national values, many firms not only comply fully with national legislation, but complement it through "family-friendly" arrangements. Failure to take account of the contribution of such firms may vitiate

comparisons of the environment in which work/family reconciliation occurs, both between countries, and over time.

4. For most OECD countries, it is possible to assemble a relatively complete account of public policy interventions (OECD, 2001, forthcoming). However, information about the extent of family-friendly arrangements in different types of enterprises in different countries is sparse, and there is very little information about the relationship between provision by governments and provision by firms. This paper is designed to help to fill these gaps. More precisely, the questions it addresses are as follows:

- What types of firm are most likely to offer voluntary family-friendly arrangements and what types of employees are most likely to be offered them and to make use of them?
- How does the pattern of family-friendly arrangements in firms link with public provision to support the work/family reconciliation? Do firms fill in the gap when national legislation is not well-developed? Does extensive national legislation encourage firms to develop voluntary policies – or does it substitute for efforts that firms would otherwise make themselves?
- Are there any reasons to believe that voluntary family-friendly arrangements by firms are likely to become more common in the future?

5. The structure of the paper is as follows. Section 1 reviews a number of existing studies of family-friendly arrangements in firms in four countries: Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. These appear to be the only countries for which extensive national information is currently available (information for Canada will soon be provided by the Statistics Canada *Work and Employee Survey*, WES). Although the underlying national surveys are similar in many respects, the published analysis is quite varied. This means that the existing studies offer a range of interesting perspectives on the question. However, it also makes for a rather complex discussion, and so a summary of the four-country information is provided at the end of Section 1.

6. Section 2 offers an analysis of family-friendly arrangements using international data sets. These allow an assessment of the extent of a number of family-friendly arrangements in the 15 Member States of the European Union, as well as some limited comparisons with the non-European countries. A comparison of the extent of extra-statutory family-friendly arrangements within firms and corresponding national provision makes use of a classification of countries set out in Box 1. Section 3 discusses the possible effect of four “motors” which might lead to firms becoming more family-friendly in the future. These are: the “business case” for family-friendly arrangements; possible changes in human resource management towards “high-commitment”, or “high-trust” work organisation practices; the thrust towards gender equity; and the greater possibilities for working from at home offered by modern technology. The discussion of the strength of these motors draws both on evidence from the national surveys and on a number of case studies of UK firms carried out when the author was on unpaid sabbatical leave from the OECD at the London School of Economics. Section 4 summarises the main findings, offers some conclusions, and suggests lines for future research.

7. This introduction would not be complete without some technical, scene-setting information, about first, the scope of what are taken to be family-friendly arrangements and, second, the nature of the available statistics. These topics are tackled in the next two sub-sections.

What are family-friendly working arrangements by enterprises?

8. In this paper, family-friendly working arrangements by enterprises are defined to be working arrangements, introduced voluntarily by firms, which facilitate the reconciliation of work and family life. While simply stated, this definition is not always easy to apply in practice, and a number of points need to be borne in mind.

9. The first point is the obvious one that firms are already being family-friendly, in an important sense, when they provide the income needed by families to support themselves, and particularly when they also provide some degree of security of employment. This will be taken for granted in what follows.

10. Second, there are a number of ways in which firms can be positively unfriendly to employees with family responsibilities. For example, they may fail to limit the demands made on the time and energy of employees, leaving them with insufficient resources and flexibility to maintain family relationships and deal with family commitments. They may also be reluctant to grant employees the rights they are entitled to under national legislation, and may discriminate against employees with family-responsibilities. Such working practices might be termed “family-unfriendly”. They can be monitored, to some extent, by surveys which ask about employees’ perceptions of the time demands and stress that they experience in relation to their family lives. This aspect of the issue is beyond the scope of this paper, although reference will be made to the comparatively long average hours of work in some countries.

11. Third, the definition above is not always straightforward to apply in practice, because it is not always obvious, *a priori*, which working arrangements facilitate the reconciliation of work and family life, and which do not. The test of whether or not a practice is family-friendly or not must ultimately depend upon the appreciation of the families concerned. It must also be remembered that family-friendliness can be a continuum. For example, a firm which introduces shift-working might find that a certain number of its employees with children move to a dual-shift system within the family, with the woman working days and the man working nights, each partner looking after the children when they are not at work. This may avoid the need for child-care, and might be considered to be a “family-friendly” development by some of the families concerned. However, many might prefer different arrangements, such as subsidies for child day-care, coupled with arrangements for a temporary transfer to reduced hours working for one or both partners.

12. Table 1 presents a detailed list of “family-friendly” working arrangements, in the sense in which the term is used in this paper, drawn up by the author on the basis of various sources. They are divided into four main groups: leave from work for family reasons; changes to work arrangements for family reasons; practical help with child-care and eldercare; and relevant information and training. It is not claimed that the list is exhaustive. Existing, national analyses of family-friendly working arrangements use elements from this list, but there is considerable variation in the range that is covered, and in the relative importance accorded to them (see, for example, the discussion of Australia below).

13. All four types of family-friendly arrangements can be of considerable assistance in easing the work/family reconciliation, especially where national legislation for family leave is comparatively restricted and public child-care is not well developed. Extra-statutory family leave can be vital when children are ill and not able to benefit from usual child-care arrangements, or when the child-care arrangements break down. Paternity leave, and appropriate forms of parental leave, can encourage fathers to share more fully in family life. Flexibility in working hours is of great importance to deal with everyday emergencies. Shifting some work to the home may also aid the work/family reconciliation. The provision of training may be vital to safeguard parents’ careers.

14. In most OECD countries, lone-parent families are growing in number. Many have special challenges in combining work and family life simply because of the lack of time available to lone-parents as opposed to couples – the members of a couple can take it in turns to look after the children. Special family-friendly policies, on the part of both public authorities and firms, may be needed to allow them to combine work and family life successfully. However, this paper will implicitly concentrate on the more common case of couple families, which still represent the large majority of families in OECD countries. It will also focus on the question of children rather than elderly people. While the problem of elderly people may well become very important in the future, there is comparatively little experience so far as to how firms can help.

Statistical information on family-friendly policies by enterprises

15. Information on family-friendly policies can come either from employers or employees. The information is generally rather different, and complementary.

16. Data from employers tend to be more suitable for linking the different types of family-friendly arrangements with the characteristics of firms – employees often know surprisingly little about the firms they work for. They can also provide valuable insights into the reasons why employers introduce (or abandon) family-friendly arrangements, and into the costs and benefits they believe they provide. However, there are some difficulties. Employer-based data are likely to refer to formal policies (particularly in large firms) and leave out informal arrangements, which may be of considerable importance (Dex and Scheibl, 2000). Some schemes mentioned by employers will be available to only part of their workforces, perhaps at the discretion of supervisors. Some will be only partially implemented, or even unknown to many employees because of insufficient notification. The basic information will tend to refer to provision, although some firms may have information on use.

17. A further reason for caution about employer-based data is that some work hours arrangements, introduced by firms to suit their production needs, may be labelled as family-friendly simply to show the employers in a better light (Simkin and Hillage, 1992). Of course, this is not to deny that there are situations where both firms and families can gain from flexible work arrangements, such as some types of voluntary part-time work. However, *a priori*, there is no reason to suppose that flexibility introduced to meet a firm's needs will coincide with the flexibility that best suits a family.

18. Surveys of employees generally have the advantage of providing detailed information about the characteristics of employees, including information about their family circumstances. Employees can report on their understanding about the level of provision of family-friendly arrangements in the company, their personal entitlement to them, and the use that they have made of them. They can also illustrate the attitudes of employees and their perceived needs. However, there is the difficulty that, unless the survey instructions are particularly clear, employees may not know whether they should respond in terms of provision, personal entitlement, or personal use. For example, a man asked if extra-statutory maternity leave is made available will respond that it is not, if he is thinking about his personal entitlement or use, but may respond that it is, if he is thinking about the employees in the company in general.

19. The two types of data should not be expected to produce completely consistent replies. Employer-based data on provision may be expected to be higher than employee-based data, because employees may not mention all of the benefits that are theoretically available, for the reasons just explained. On the other hand, estimates of the proportion of employees eligible for benefits tend to be biased upwards, relative to estimates of the proportion of employers who provide the same benefits, for a simple mathematical reason. Large firms represent a considerable proportion of employees, but a small proportion of firms. Thus, the firm size of an average employee is larger than the firm size of an average

employer. As shown below, larger firms tend to provide more family-friendly arrangements than smaller ones.

1 FAMILY-FRIENDLY WORK ARRANGEMENTS IN AUSTRALIA, JAPAN, THE UNITED KINGDOM AND THE UNITED STATES

20. It is probably no coincidence that the best statistical information on family-friendly arrangements is available in these four countries (shortly to be joined by Canada). By comparison with many European countries, all have relatively low levels of public provision for child-care and relatively low levels of statutory family leave benefits, stemming partly from the belief that the State should not interfere in family life and in the organisation of enterprises. A good deal of responsibility thus rests upon firms, and there is considerable interest in how they respond. It is notable that all four countries have competitions for the “family-friendly employer of the year”, designed to encourage family-friendly attitudes. A particular target of the United Kingdom competition has been the long-hours culture which is prevalent there. In fact, long work hours are a feature of all these countries, at least compared with continental European countries, and average hours in the United Kingdom and United States have been growing over recent years (OECD, 1998).

21. For Australia and the United Kingdom, information can be drawn from the national workplace surveys, covering both workplaces and employees. For Australia, this is the 1995 *Australian Workplace Industrial Relations Survey* (AWIRS95), reported in Morehead *et al.* (1997), and for the United Kingdom, the 1998 *Workplace Employment Relations Survey* (WERS98), reported in Cully *et al.* (1998 and 1999). For the United Kingdom, there is also a special suite of officially-sponsored surveys on family-friendly arrangements, reported in Forth *et al.* (1997). Japan’s information comes from a special employer survey (Sato, 2000). Finally, for the United States, there are a number of employer surveys, including the 1992 *Survey of American Establishments* (Osterman, 1995). In addition, the two rounds of the *National Study of the Changing Workforce* (NSCW), conducted in 1992 and 1997, contain information on family-friendly arrangements obtained from employees (Bond *et al.*, 1998).

22. The next four sub-sections deal with each country in turn. As already noted, there is a summary in Section 1.5.

1.1 Australia

23. In Australia, there are no statutory arrangements for paid maternity or parental leave. However, provisions for unpaid leave do exist, notably the right to a year’s unpaid parental leave for all workers. According to official statements, publicly-provided child-care arrangements are designed to ensure that child-care is affordable to low and middle income families. In principle, the quality of care arrangements is monitored and parents are offered the choice of a number of different forms of child-care (Kalisch *et al.*, 1998). The government has generally sought to develop family-friendly arrangements within firms by means of negotiation. The 1996 Workplace Relations Act was specifically designed to facilitate agreements which assist employees to balance their work and family lives, for example, by providing greater scope for negotiated flexibility in working hours (reference coming).

24. A detailed analysis of employer-based information on family-friendly arrangements in Australia is provided by the Work and Family Unit of the Department for Employment, Workplace Relations and Small Business (WFU/DEWRSB, 1999) and by Whitehouse and Zetlin (1999). The reports are complementary in terms of the data sources and approaches that they use, and particularly in terms of their perspective on what constitutes family-friendly working arrangements.

25. The Work and Family Unit report stresses the importance of flexible work hours for the reconciliation between work and family life. It points out that family-friendly working hours can help families with all ages of children, not just the ones with the youngest children, and can be shown to have important links with the levels of stress and satisfaction that employees experience. Family-friendly working hours arrangements are defined as those that allow employees some choice, are responsive to their needs and allow flexibility in emergencies, and where changes to meet employers' needs are notified well in advance.

26. Table 2 shows the list of key family-friendly arrangements selected by WFU/DEWRSB (1999) from those covered by the AWIRS95 survey of employers. It puts a strong emphasis on flexibility in work arrangements, and excludes facilities likely to be available only in the largest companies, such as workplace crèches. Almost 60% of establishments with 20 or more employees report that most of their employees were able to make use of special leave, or their own sick leave, to look after family members. Around a third say they could vary their work hours for the same purpose, and roughly the same proportion report the existence of paid maternity leave. Table 3 provides information on the distribution of family-friendly arrangements, derived from the same source. It is based on an index, which is simply the count of the numbers of arrangements available from the list in Table 2. Very large firms (500 and more employees) produce slightly higher scores, and the public sector scores higher than the private. On an industry basis, the highest scores are achieved by Government administration and Communications services, with Finance and insurance, Education, and Personal and other services coming a little behind.

27. A complementary analysis of the same AWIRS95 employer data is provided by Whitehouse and Zetlin (1999). These authors tend to put less emphasis on flexible working hours arrangements introduced by employers, on the grounds (noted above) that their intent and effects are often unclear. Their index of family-friendliness is a composite of the following variables: access to a range of types of family leave, some aspects of hours flexibility for employees, child-care provisions, counselling services, and elder care assistance. The results of a regression model of determinants of this index of family-friendliness are shown in Table 4. Whitehouse and Zetlin also conclude that public sector firms are considerably more likely to be family-friendly than private sector ones. Family-friendly arrangements are again somewhat more likely in larger firms and when there are higher proportions of clerical/sales, or paraprofessional/professional workers. Their incidence increases with average earnings. They are less likely when there is a higher proportion of non-core workers. Structured management and the presence of a written Equal Employment Opportunities statement are found to make a positive impact on the index of family-friendliness, in contrast to unionisation.

28. The Work and Family Unit used the employee data from AWIRS95 to construct Table 5. It has a number of interesting features. Gender differences between carers are marked in a number of domains. Male carers are much less likely to consider that they could obtain permanent part-time work, but are more likely to say they are able to work at home occasionally if they needed to. The proportion of employees indicating decreased satisfaction with work/family issues over the preceding year is much greater than the proportion that were more satisfied. This may be linked to results from the same survey showing that around 60% of employees with caring responsibilities reported that they had been required to put more effort into their jobs over the previous year (under 5% said the opposite). The corresponding figures relating to changes in stress levels were just over 50%, and just under 7%.

29. Regression analyses carried out by the Work and Family Unit suggested that, in general, higher levels of job-related stress were associated with employees working more hours than were preferred, and having no influence over start and finish times of work. Conversely, higher levels of job satisfaction were linked with working the weekly hours employees preferred and having a telephone at work they could use for family reasons. (Job satisfaction was also higher when employees felt their workplace was safe and comfortable, and provided security and opportunities for advancement.) Women part-timers tended to report relatively low levels of stress, and high levels of job satisfaction.

30. In addition to workplace survey data, information on family-friendly arrangements in Australia is to be found in a database managed by the Affirmative Action Agency (AAA). This is restricted to firms with 100 or more employees and is unrepresentative of the whole population of firms. However, it has the advantage of providing some indications of changes over time. Results extracted by WFU/DEWRSB (1999) suggest an increase in the proportion of private sector organisations reporting the provision of paid maternity leave, which was often coupled with arrangements to keep contact with the mothers concerned. At the same time, there was a strong rise in the proportion of mothers returning to work after childbirth. There were also signs of a large increase in the proportion of organisations offering permanent part-time work for employees with family responsibilities. However, there was little evidence of increases in arrangements for firm-provided child-care.

1.2 Japan

31. Until recently, minimum levels of maternity leave in Japan were not particularly high, either in terms of their duration or the proportion of earnings that was paid. However, under successive Child Care and Family Care Leave Laws, employees may now take child-care leave until the child reaches the age of one, and family-care leave for a three-month maximum. Child-care leave became mandatory for enterprises with more than 30 employees in April 1992, and mandatory for all enterprises in April 1995. In July 1996, it became a duty for enterprises to “endeavour to provide” Family Care Leave, and this became mandatory in April 1999. While on child-care and family-care leave, the employee's share of health insurance and welfare pension insurance is waived and he or she receives 25% of previous wages, paid from employment insurance (Sato, 2000). In addition, a wide-ranging programme, the “Angel Plan”, was launched in 1994 to foster day-care programmes, which are to be promoted further through a revision to the Child Welfare Law. These major initiatives reflect dramatic changes in attitudes towards women's involvement in paid work over recent years.

32. Large firms in Japan are well known for providing a wide range of services for their employees, as part of the “life-time employment system” and the high degree of reciprocal commitment between large firms and their employees. Various types of assistance for families have traditionally been part of this (Dore, 1973; Lincoln and Kalleberg, 1990). However, there has been concern that firms have been slow to introduce new measures for parental leave into their company regulations (Sato, 2000).

33. In 1996, the Women's Bureau of the Japanese Ministry of Labour conducted a survey of voluntary family-friendly arrangements in private establishments with 5 or more employees (Table 6). Three out of four large firms have at least one family-friendly arrangement in place, most frequently reduced or rearranged working hours. The incidence of family-friendly arrangements in large firms is roughly three times the overall average. Despite the laws mentioned above, under which firms were encouraged to set up systems of leave to allow employees to take care of family members, relatively few firms report that such schemes were available. The relatively strong, long-term attachment between firms and their workers is reflected in the proportions of firms re-employing workers who have left the company to look after children or family members.

34. According to Sato (2000), the Electricity, gas, thermal supply and water, and Financing and insurance industries show high levels of family-friendly arrangements, while Construction, Mining, and Manufacturing lag behind. Very few men take advantage of family-friendly arrangements. Managers see few advantages in adopting them and do not think them appropriate for managers themselves. Some family-friendly arrangements available in other countries, such as job-sharing and term-time working, have not yet been introduced in Japan.

1.3 United Kingdom

35. The United Kingdom has traditionally had relatively restricted maternity benefits and public child-care policies compared with many other countries of the European Union. In contrast to Australia, there is no unpaid parental leave, and there has been little government support for child-care. However, there have been recent moves by the UK government to increase entitlement to maternity and parental leave, in part to bring the country into line with European Union legislation, and plans are being laid for a national system of child-care.

36. Employer-based, summary information on family-friendly arrangements in the United Kingdom is provided in Table 7. Both of the surveys quoted found more extensive provision among large and unionised employers, and in the public sector. Forth *et al.* (1997) found that nine out of ten employers reported the presence of at least one family-friendly arrangement. The most common was flexible, or non-standard work, particularly part-time work. However, only 5% of employers reported provision (over and above statutory requirements) of all four categories of family-friendly arrangements: maternity benefits, paternity leave, child-care arrangements and non-standard work hours. Cully *et al.* (1999) found that 60% of employers reported that one or more of the following family-friendly working arrangements was available for non-managerial employees: work at home in normal working hours; work only during school term times; switch from full-time to part-time employment; and a job-share with another employee. However, only 4% of workplaces reported the presence of all four.

37. Forth *et al.* (1997) found that employers reported mixed feelings towards family-friendly arrangements. While 54% said that there was some benefit to be gained by management from providing family-friendly arrangements, 61% indicated disadvantages of one kind or another. Overall, 16% of all employers considered family-friendly arrangements simply as beneficial, 22% as purely problematical, and 36% a mixture of the two. One major advantage of extended leave and child-care benefits was said to be increased rates of return by mothers (who often came back to work part-time). Another was improvements in morale.

38. Cully *et al.* (1999), approaching the issue in a slightly different way, concluded that approximately three-quarters of managers reporting the presence of family-friendly working arrangements in their workplaces said that no, or minimal costs were involved, regardless of the number of arrangements that were mentioned. The most commonly mentioned benefits were, once again, happier staff (50%) and an increase in the retention of employees (36%). Other gains were thought to include a reduction in absence levels (24%).

39. Turning to employee-based data, Table 8, derived from the PSI/BMRB *Survey of Mothers*, reported in Forth *et al.* (1997), shows information for a number of family-friendly working arrangements, including the existence of such arrangements within the establishment concerned, the degree to which the mothers interviewed felt they were personally entitled to use them, and the proportion saying that they had actually done so. The table demonstrates the considerable discrepancies between existence, entitlement and use, especially for career breaks. Hakim (2000) suggests that senior and professional staff are most likely to be entitled to career breaks, because employers most wish to retain them. However, such staff

rarely take advantage of career breaks because of their concern over the effects on their career progression. About a fifth of the mothers in the sample made use of arrangements providing special leave in the case of a family emergency. Practical help in the form of crèches or financial assistance was used by only 3% of mothers, and only a tiny proportion used employer-provided care for school children after school hours or during school holidays.

40. From the same survey, Forth *et al.* (1997) found that the proportion of employees able to work at home if child-care arrangements broke down was small. Only a very small proportion of mothers were found to be job-sharing. Few employees of either gender reported having taken a career break. Part-time work was generally offered only to mothers, not to fathers. However, overall, a high proportion of mothers reported that they changed employers when moving from full-time to part-time status, presumably in circumstances when satisfactory part-time work arrangements were not available in the original firm. Paternity leave was available in around 30% of establishments employing men, and was generally taken up, at least to some extent. Overall, a quarter of men reported changing their work arrangements in some way, at least on a temporary basis, upon becoming fathers.

41. Mothers' entitlements to family-friendly arrangements were found to depend upon their occupation. Women working in professional, managerial and associate professional occupations were found most likely to enjoy a broad range of entitlement to family-friendly arrangements. In contrast, women in sales occupations were considerably less likely to do so. Overlaid on the differences by occupation were differences by the type of sector – family-friendly arrangements were considerably more common in the public sector and in larger firms. In addition, entitlement was associated with union representation.

42. Results from the WERS98 employee data, taken from Cully *et al.* (1999), are shown in Table 9. They are consistent with the results from Forth *et al.* (1997) reported above. All five family-friendly working arrangements were more commonly reported by employees in the public sector and in larger, private sector firms. In addition, a more detailed analysis of the data suggested that where the schemes operated, they were more likely to be available to women and to higher skilled employees.

1.4 United States

43. Until 1993, which saw the passage of the Family and Medical Leave Act (FLMA) by the Federal Government, provisions for family leave in the United States were at a particularly low level by comparison with the majority of OECD countries. The only Federal law addressing family leave was the Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978, which required firms with temporary disability programmes to treat pregnancy as they would disabilities in general. The FLMA requires public employers, and private employers with 50 or more workers, to offer job-protected family or medical leave of up to 12 weeks to qualifying employees (those who worked at least 1,250 hours for the employer in the previous year). There is no requirement to provide pay, other than a requirement to continue health insurance coverage, and no extra provision for child-care benefits. (Under previous Federal legislation, tax deductions for child-care are allowed as a business expense and accelerated depreciation is accorded for business-provided child-care centres, Kiser, 1996.)

44. Waldfogel (1999) reports that, in 1991, prior to the FLMA, only 39% of full-time employees in large- and medium-sized establishments (100 employees and over) were entitled to maternity leave. This rose to 93% by 1997. However, the proportion entitled to pay remained at only 2%. Entitlement to child-care provisions remained in the 7-10% range. Part-time workers (who are ineligible for the benefits) saw a much smaller rise in family leave entitlement. On the basis of this and other evidence, Waldfogel (1999) concludes that the FLMA did have an effect, and notes that, in addition, for most groups, family leave

coverage was higher in the late 1990s than in the period just after the passage of the Act. This might suggest that the Act encouraged a more positive appreciation of family leave by employers.

45. National survey evidence from the United States comes from a number of employer-based surveys, including the 1992 Survey of American Establishments, initiated and analysed by Osterman (1995). The incidence of a range of family-friendly arrangements (which Osterman refers to as “work/family activities”) is shown in Table 10. The most common was “flexible hours”.

46. Investigating the correlates of the degree of family-friendliness, on the basis of the number of selected family-friendly arrangements that were offered, Osterman found that:

- The size of the establishment and the size of any larger organisation to which the establishment belongs both had a significant positive correlation with family-friendliness.
- The union variable was not significant.
- A variable designed to capture the effects of other employee benefits was not significant, suggesting that work/family benefits formed a distinctive package.
- Whether or not the establishment displayed “high-commitment management” was a more important explanatory variable than whether or not it paid above-market wages. (The presence of “high-commitment management” was evaluated in terms of four components: the extent to which the establishment emphasised the objective of securing a committed and co-operative workforce; the degree of discretion accorded to its employees; the existence of problem-solving groups; and the presence of a total quality management system).
- Establishments whose core employees were professional and technical workers were significantly more likely to provide work/family programmes than establishments whose core employees were service workers, clerical or blue-collar employees.

47. Wood (1999) provides a useful review of a number of other employer-based survey analyses for the United States, including Morgan and Milliken (1992), Goodstein (1994) and Ingram and Simons (1995). They use a variety of measures of family-friendly management. Their findings are generally consistent with Osterman’s. Goodstein (1994) and Ingram and Simons (1995) find a higher incidence of family-friendly arrangements in the public compared with the private sector (Osterman’s survey covers only the private sector), and both studies conclude that, within industries, there is no evidence of differences across geographical regions of the United States. Wood (1999) bases his own analysis of Osterman’s data on a family-friendly variable derived by latent class analysis of the range of family-friendly policies within enterprises. He also finds that firms which have more highly educated workforces are more likely to have family-friendly management.

48. It is not clear to what extent family-friendly working arrangements have become more or less common in the US. On the one hand, Osterman (1995) concludes that the evidence, albeit limited, is strongly suggestive of an overall growth in the provision of family-friendly benefits over recent years. This conclusion is based on a review of a small number of repeated surveys of the incidence of some family-friendly arrangements in the United States, notably the US Bureau of Labor Statistics *Survey of Benefits in Medium and Large Firms*, which found a figure of 5% of employees receiving child-care support from their employers in 1989 as opposed to 1% in 1985 (Hyland, 1990). Golden (2000) finds a strong increase in the proportion of workers reporting that they are able to vary their working schedules to at least some extent. Overall, the proportion rose from 15% in 1991 to 28% in 1997. By contrast, Bond *et al.* (1998), reporting the results of the employee-based 1997 NSCW, organised by the Families and Work

Institute, find no evidence of any increase in child-care benefits (provision, financial support and referral services) between 1992 and 1997, though there did appear to be some increases in the area of elder care.

49. On the other hand, there are also grounds for thinking that families feel that business methods have recently become more “family-unfriendly” in the United States. Bond *et al.* (1998) report that, according to the NSCW, total average weekly hours (including unpaid overtime and moonlighting) rose from 47 in 1977 to 50 in 1997, for men, and from 39 to 44 for women (this calculation excludes short-hours part-time workers on under 20 hours a week). Many workers reported having to work overtime with no notice (50% saying this occurred at least once a month). While in 1977, 40% of workers agreed with the statement, “I never have enough time to get everything done in my job”, by 1997 the figure had risen to 60%.

1.5 Summary of survey results for Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States

50. In all four countries, the information available from employer surveys shows that family-friendly arrangements are most common in the public sector. This is perhaps to be expected as the public sector both employs a relatively high proportion of women, and is less subject to market pressures. Family-friendly arrangements are also more likely to be reported by large firms, especially in the case of Japan (Sato, 2000). However, when attention is focussed on changes in working arrangements, the differences may be quite small, as argued by WFU/DEWRSB (1999) for Australia, and Dex and Scheibl (2000) for the United Kingdom. Family-friendly arrangements tend to be more common in firms with higher proportions of professional and technical workers. For Australia, Whitehouse and Zetlin (1999) also find that family-friendly arrangements are more common where there is a written Equal Employment Opportunities statement and a structured hierarchical management system. For the United States, Osterman (1995) finds a link between family-friendly arrangements and a “high commitment” style of management, in which, *inter alia*, employers adopt a strategy of delegating higher levels of responsibility to employees (OECD, 1999, Chapter 5).

51. Employers in these four countries are more likely to mention changes in working hours, such as part-time working and flexi-time, than extra family leave benefits, help with child-care or other forms of family-friendly arrangements. It is very rare for employers to provide benefits from each of the four categories shown in Table 1. Few firms appear to have work-place crèche arrangements in any of these countries. The most commonly cited reasons for introducing family-friendly arrangements (obtained from surveys in the United Kingdom) are better retention rates of valued staff with family responsibilities, and improvements in staff morale (Forth *et al.*, 1997; Cully *et al.*, 1999).

52. The employee-based data paints a similar picture. Flexible working hours, followed by various types of short-duration family leave schemes (such as sick-child leave) tend to be mentioned most often – work-place crèches and longer breaks much more rarely. Detailed analysis of Australian data shows that such non-standard working arrangements are appreciated by many employees. Job satisfaction is increased, and stress reduced, when employees are able to work no more hours than they desire to work and have some control over their starting and stopping times (Whitehouse and Zetlin, 1999). Higher-skilled employees are more likely to report that they have access to a range of family-friendly working arrangements, as are employees in larger firms and in the public sector. However, employee data from the United Kingdom show that some forms of family-friendly arrangements are seldom used even when they are available. In particular, career breaks are a fairly common entitlement for “fast-track” women employees, but are hardly ever used (Forth *et al.*, 1997).

53. There is little clear evidence of significant growth in family-friendly arrangements in any of these four countries. Data are both sparse and inconsistent. For the United States, a comparison of the 1992 and

1997 rounds of the *National Study of the Changing Workforce* shows little overall change in child-care benefits. However, Golden (2000), reports a substantial increase in “flexi-time” over the same period. For Australia, affirmative action reports cited by WFU/DEWRSB (1999) suggest some increase in the provision of paid maternity leave and in the provision of permanent part-time work for employees with family responsibilities. In Australia and the United States, however, these changes have not stopped employees from becoming less content, overall, with the reconciliation between their work and family lives (WFU/DEWRSB, 1999; Bond *et al.*, 1998). It is plausible that this reflects the longer working hours and increased work pressure reported by employees in these two countries.

54. Owing to differences in the surveys, comparisons of the incidence of family-friendly arrangements reported by employees are only possible, on the basis of published sources, for the important category of flexi-time working. Flexi-time working appears to be relatively common in the United States and Australia, applying to around 45% of employees in 1997 and 50% of employees in 1995, according to Bond *et al.* (1998) and WFU/DEWRSB (1999) (see Table 5), respectively. The United Kingdom figure, shown in Table 9 is somewhat lower, at just over 30% (this relates to employees in firms with 25 or more employees). Finally, flexi-time working appears to be relatively uncommon in Japan, available to under 12% of employees (see Table 6). (This can be deduced from the fact that the figure of 12% refers to large firms – figures for small firms are much lower.) However, it should be noted that this information is obtained from questions which ask specifically about flexi-time introduced for child-care reasons, which will not always be the case in the other countries.

55. While precise comparisons are impossible, it may be noted that voluntary part-time working is fairly common for women in the age range 25-54 years in Australia, Japan and the United Kingdom, but less so in the United States. According to estimates published in OECD (1993), involuntary part-time working, in the narrow sense of part-time workers saying they worked part-time because of inability to find a full-time job, represented 29%, 5%, 7% and 20% of total part-time working for women in this age range, respectively. Applying these ratios to figures for part-time working in 1999 (as published in the Statistical Annex of OECD, 2000), rough upper bounds for voluntary part-time working, as a proportion of total employment of women in the age range 25-54 years in Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States are 26%, 37%, 35% and 10%, respectively. (The figures are upper bounds because there are other reasons for not being a voluntary part-time worker, including disablement, illness and education, and inability to find suitable child-care arrangements – the United Kingdom figure is slightly above that shown in Table 11 below.)

2 ANALYSES USING INTERNATIONAL DATA SETS

56. This section presents information from a number of international data sets for Europe, combining it with the national surveys where possible. Previous work documenting the extent of firm-based family-friendly arrangements in Europe has generally been confined to listing examples of selected, exemplary firms, for example, Hogg and Harker (1992). Some information on the extent of family-friendly arrangements put into place by European firms is, however, available from two surveys managed by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions.

57. The *Second European Survey of Working Conditions* (SESWC), carried out in 1995/96, and described in European Foundation (1997), was a survey of employed individuals, designed to investigate

their impressions of their working conditions. It contains questions relating to four types of family-friendly arrangements:

- Sick-child leave (time the employee can stay at home to take care of his or her sick child).
- Maternity leave.
- Parental leave (time a mother or a father can stay at home to take care of a very young child).
- Child day care (provision or subsidy of day care for the employee's child).

58. The caveats mentioned in the Introduction relating to employee-based data apply to these data. In particular, there is the ambiguity as to whether the data refer to arrangements to which the employees concerned are personally entitled or to all those which exist in their establishments. However, as well as the category, "don't know", the survey designers included a category, "non-applicable" in order to assess the possible effect of this ambiguity. Annex 1 discusses the results obtained and justifies the use of the set of women employees with a child in the household as the basis for the international comparisons presented here. It also notes the consistency between the results for the United Kingdom national surveys and from the SESWC.

59. In addition, the SESWC contains a question designed to assess whether or not the employee works flexi-time. More precisely, it asks if the employee has fixed starting and finishing times each day. Flexi-time time is taken to be the opposite. This information also has to be treated with caution. As explained above, flexibility in working hours need not be family-friendly. It should also be noted that the data for flexi-time shown here are for all employees, to allow comparisons with published data for non-European countries.

60. In addition, the 1998 *Employment Options of the Future* (EOF) survey contains questions about voluntary part-time working, an important form of family-friendly arrangement in Australia, Japan and the United Kingdom as discussed above. The EOF questionnaire investigates the reasons why employees do not work full-time. The interviewer reads out a list of possible reasons, and enters only the first positive response that is received. These reasons are: being a student/at school; being ill or disabled; unable to find a full-time job; not wanting to work full-time. The figures for "voluntary" part-time working reported here relate only to those respondents saying that they did not want to work full-time, after rejecting the earlier reasons proposed to them. It should be noted that such figures cannot reveal the extent to which firms have introduced part-time working in order to be "family-friendly" – in many cases the part-time working arrangement will exist simply because it is cost-effective for the firms (Bielenski, 1994).

61. The precise questions used in the two surveys are to be found in Annex 1. Consistency of the questionnaires was assured, to the extent possible, by an international expert group. The SESWC applied separate samples for the western and eastern Länder of Germany, and this distinction is maintained in the presentation of the results in this section.

2.1 Extra-statutory family leave and child day care arrangements

62. Table 11 shows the incidence of extra-statutory sick-child leave, maternity leave and parental leave, as reported by women employees with a child under 15 in their household. Across countries, there is a strong correlation between the incidence of the three types of extra-statutory leave, though the correlations with child day care are lower (Table 12). From the point of view of individual employees, the two most frequent combinations of working arrangements are none at all and the first three policies

together. For the European Union as a whole, these account for 34% and 24% of employees with at least one child in the household, respectively. It is comparatively rare to have all four arrangements in place (6% only for the European Union).

63. Owing to the strong correlations between the three different leave measures, it seems legitimate to summarise them by taking an average, as shown in Chart 1. Overall, in terms of the country groupings proposed in Box 1, the highest figures are seen for the Central Europe countries of Austria and western Germany, followed by three of the Southern Europe countries (Greece, Italy and Spain). The fifth group, France, Belgium and Luxembourg, occupy a middle position, together with the Netherlands and Portugal. The Nordic and Insular groups are at the bottom.

64. Child-day provision by employers, as reported by women employees with a child under 15 in the household, is illustrated in Chart 2. The pattern of country grouping is roughly similar to that for extra-statutory family leave, though the figures are much lower. The Netherlands and Portugal stand out for having particularly high levels of firm-provided day-care relative to the amount of extra-statutory leave that their firms provide. The figures for the Netherlands reflect its system of partnership between parents, firms and the government. A growing share of child-care is provided by private, formal day-care centres, in which places are bought by local communities, firms and private individuals. In 1996, 43% of these places were bought by firms, who provided them to employees at a reduced rate (Dobbelsteen *et al.*, 2000). In Germany, where the figures are also above average, child-care allowances have been tax deductible since 1992.

65. The relationship between the incidence of these four family-friendly arrangements and the characteristics of firms and their employees was investigated using a simple logit model, described in Annex 2. The sample was the 5300 employees with at least one child in their household. The results are consistent with those found in corresponding analyses for Australia and the United Kingdom, mentioned above. In particular, public sector firms seem to provide the most advantages. There is some tendency for the incidence of maternity and parental leave to increase gradually with the size of the company. Permanent and long-tenure employees were more likely to report family leave benefits, as were professional workers (though this group did not do as well for sick child leave). Employees who classed their occupation within Elementary occupations, Craft or related trades, or Plant and machine workers, tended to report comparatively few family-friendly arrangements available in their companies. Employees were more likely to report extra family leave benefits when they said that they regarded their workplaces as providing equal opportunities for men and women. Finally, standardising for a wide range of variables makes very little difference to the national patterns shown in the simple averages in Table 11 and Charts 1 and 2.

2.2 Flexible working arrangements relevant to the work/family reconciliation

66. This sub-section discusses the evidence available for three forms of flexible working: flexi-time, voluntary part-time working and working from home. The main data sources are the SESWC and the EOF, as mentioned above, and in Annex 1. In addition reference is made to the results of the *European Labour Force Survey*.

67. The last-but-one column of Table 11 shows the incidence of flexi-time working, according to the measure available from the SESWC (see Annex 2 for further details). The figures are shown for all employees, to allow comparison with the figures for the United States, Australia and Japan, mentioned above, which were 50%, 45% and under 6%, respectively. The figure for the United Kingdom is, fortuitously, identical in the WERS98 survey and in the SESWC (although it should be noted that they

refer to different populations of establishments). The European figures show much less variation than the extra-statutory leave data. The highest figures are seen outside Europe, in Australia and the United States.

68. The figures for voluntary part-time working by women employees, in the last column of Table 11, show this is likely to be an important part of the work/family reconciliation in a number of European countries. In the Netherlands, over 40% of women employees say that they work part-time on a voluntary basis. (Figures for mothers, not shown in the table, are over 50% for many EU Member States.) Countries in the Central Europe group are well represented among those with higher proportions of voluntary part-time working. The Southern Europe countries lie towards the bottom. The relatively low incidence of voluntary part-time working in the Nordic countries is explained by the relatively high proportion of part-time workers who say that they would prefer to work full-time. The low incidence in the Southern Europe group is due mainly to the relatively low incidence of part-time working in those countries, though the proportion of part-timers wishing to work full-time is also quite high. The high proportion of part-time working in the United Kingdom and Germany is partly a legacy of the exemption of short-hours part-time working from employers' social security contributions.

69. Finally, it appears that there is, as yet, little evidence of much increase in new forms of homeworking in Europe. In 1992, 4.9% of employed men and women in the European Union said they worked in their homes on a regular basis. In 1997, the figure had fallen to just over 4.4% (results of the *European Labour Force Survey*, 1992 and 1997).

Box 1: European country groupings

The analysis of the data for the European Union uses a classification of countries based on that proposed by Fouquet *et al.* (1999), who draw on the seminal work of Esping-Andersen (1990, 1997) and his critics. According to these authors, this classification is based on three dimensions: the form of the social protection regime; the importance given to the family as a social institution; and the work patterns of women. There are five groups in the classification.

The "Nordic" model covers Sweden, Denmark, and Finland, as well as Norway. In these countries there are well-developed public systems relevant to the work/family reconciliation, including extensive public child-care systems, particularly generous parental leave and family leave benefits, and rules to allow rearrangements of work time for parents of small children. The justification for public intervention is not the protection of the family, which is regarded primarily as a living arrangement, but the development of the well-being of citizens, and of children, in particular. Female participation in these countries has been the highest in OECD countries, for many years. Many mothers work part-time (except in Finland) but this tends to be of relatively long hours.

The "Southern Europe" model covers Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain. Here, the extended family is still an important part of social life, and young people tend to live with their families for a relatively long time. Women's participation rates remain relatively low, with the exception of Portugal. Overall public provision to support the work/family reconciliation is relatively low, reflecting the fact that women are still often regarded more as home-makers than paid workers.

The "Central Europe" model covers Austria, Germany and the Netherlands. Here the family is accorded considerable importance as a social institution, and the worker is seen in his/her family context. The social protection systems are founded on paid work: the large-scale social security and pension systems are financed by employee and, especially, employer contributions. State arrangements for child-care are less prevalent than in the Nordic countries but higher than in the Southern Europe countries. Female participation rates have traditionally been relatively low, especially in the Netherlands.

The “Insular” model covers Ireland and the United Kingdom. In these countries, there is a strong emphasis on market forces and individual freedom, with relatively little interference by the State in the economic arrangements of the family. Until recently, there were no systems for parental leave, although this is changing as European Union legislation has been introduced. Women have traditionally been expected to place high priority on the home. Female participation rates in the United Kingdom have been high for some time, although a relatively high proportion of women work part-time or short hours.

The fifth group covers the three remaining EU Member States: Belgium, France and Luxembourg. They are not assigned a category by Fouquet *et al.* (1999). However, Hakim (2000) picks them out as countries which have put a relatively high emphasis on pro-natalist policies. Belgium has been one of the pioneers of measures to allow career breaks for parents. France has traditionally sought to assist women both as mothers and as full-time paid workers, and has a plethora of public measures in consequence. Female participation rates Belgium and France are around the average for the European countries, those for Luxembourg somewhat lower.

2.3 The relationship with national institutional arrangements

70. This sub-section explores the relationship between the provision of extra-statutory family-friendly arrangements by firms with that embodied in national legislation. The analysis is confined to maternity leave. This is because it is difficult to obtain information about national systems for care of sick children; national parental leave systems are difficult to characterise simply (OECD, 1995); and there are substantial systems of private child-care, in addition to those provided by firms and national authorities.

71. Chart 3 shows the pattern of voluntary provision of extra maternity leave by firms, derived from the SESWC, against an index of national maternity leave in 1995 calculated by the Secretariat, following Gauthier (1996). The index consists of the duration of maternity leave in weeks, multiplied by the level of the benefits as a percentage of regular wages. It can be seen that there is no simple relationship. The lowest values for extra-statutory provision by firms are seen for the highest values of the maternity index. The highest values for extra-statutory provision, as well as the greatest spread of values, are seen for countries in the middle range of the national maternity index. When the index is lowest, the figures for extra-statutory provision are roughly in the middle of the range.

72. The country groupings shown in Box 1 appear to be pertinent. The Nordic countries are all to the right of the chart, with high national provision and low firm-based provision. In these countries, responsibility for the work/family reconciliation is seen mainly as the responsibility of the States, rather than firms. The Central European countries tend to be at the top of the chart, with high values for firm-based provision, and above average values for national provision. These are countries in which the family is regarded as an important social institution. Support is provided both by the State, albeit at a lower level than in the Nordic countries, and by individual firms. The level for national provision in the Southern European countries varies considerably but three out of the four countries show above average figures for firm-based provision, again reflecting the importance accorded to the family as a social institution. Finally, in Ireland and the United Kingdom, economic support for the family has traditionally been considered to be both outside the public domain and also not the responsibility of firms.

73. Some relevant information is also available for Australia and the United States, although it is not strictly comparable with that shown above. As neither country has legislation in favour of paid maternity leave, they would both be at the extreme left of the chart, with a zero value for the index. However, for Australia, 42% of female employees with permanent status were considered likely to be eligible for paid maternity leave in 1995 (Morehead *et al.*, 1997). For the United States, the index is again zero because of the absence of any statutory requirement for payment during periods of maternity leave. In addition, the

period of maternity leave itself is only statutory for private-sector firms with 50 or more employees (Waldfogel, 1999), and for employees who have fulfilled certain employment conditions, and thus for roughly 46% of the employed population of the United States. However, Bond *et al.* (1998) find that 94% of employees in both large and small firms report that women at their places of employment are able to take time of work, without endangering their jobs, to recuperate from childbirth. It thus seems likely that many employers of small firms go beyond their legal obligation as regards time off from work. However, even for larger firms, this leave is paid in only 2% of cases.

3 FOUR MOTORS FOR FAMILY-FRIENDLY ARRANGEMENTS?

74. This section discusses a number of factors which might encourage firms to adopt more family-friendly working arrangements: the “business case”, relevant trends in human resource management, gender equity, and the enhanced possibilities for working from home. It draws on the evidence presented above, as well case studies carried out by the author in 1997, when on unpaid sabbatical leave from the OECD. This research covered ten medium and large firms, in different industries, all of whom were known to be interested in “family-friendly” issues. A report is available from the author. Further case study evidence for the United Kingdom is to be found in Dex and Scheibl (1999 and 2000).

3.1 The business case

75. A number of authors (including Opportunity 2000, undated) have suggested that family-friendly arrangements are often justified by direct financial considerations – the so-called “business case”. There are a large number of elements to take into account, including the following (drawn from a number of studies).

76. On the positive side:

- Lower staff turnover, with the benefits of retention of experienced staff, reduction in time and money spent on recruitment, induction and training of replacement staff. Turnover costs often represent a high proportion of staff costs [a television company surveyed by the author said their rule of thumb was that replacing a staff member leaving permanently for family reasons cost the equivalent of a year’s pay].
- Reduction in the stress caused by overlaps between work/family roles. This stress can come not just from time demands (which in turn can come from excessive hours and demands for inconvenient, or unannounced flexibility from the employee) but also from the extra emotional demands associated with work-intensification (Duxbury *et al.*, 1999).
- Better recruitment possibilities, through the attraction of a wider range of employees – offering better skills and/or lower costs.
- Greater range of diversity, interests and experience among staff.
- Greater overall flexibility in deploying staff.

- Company staff profile kept closer to that of customers, leading to greater understanding of their needs.
- Possibly increased sales through improved public image of the company.
- Possible higher levels of investment in the company owing to the spread of “ethical investment”.

77. The evidence from the employer surveys mentioned above suggests that firms are most conscious of the first two of these reasons.

78. The benefits have to be weighed against the costs, which may include:

- Direct costs, due to factors such as the extra work-space caused by an increase in the total number of people working in the enterprise; space within the enterprise for breast-feeding facilities or a day-care centre; retraining or refresher courses for staff members upon re-entry into the workforce; equipment needed to facilitate work at home.
- Supervision costs, for example, arranging for continuous cover when staff are working reduced hours; coping with disruptions caused by temporary absences; overcoming demotivation of those not receiving benefits.
- Administrative costs, including framing the policies; informing staff about the existence of the benefits, and advising on how to claim them; making decisions about who is eligible for benefits; dealing with issues of pension rights, holiday leave, overtime rights and health and safety issues.

79. The way that the benefits and costs balance out in practice is complex, and will depend upon the characteristics of the business and the job. Large firms are often able to re-organise work more easily than small ones [for example, a large retail trade firm surveyed by the author said that the size of their operation permitted them to offer an extensive choice of working hours]. Financial sector firms [such as one surveyed by the author] may have particularly strong incentives to retain the relatively small number of gifted people on whom their business depends, as well as the resources to pay for the family-friendly arrangements which best suit them.

80. For a given firm, the case is likely to vary with the vagaries of the economic cycle. It is likely to be weaker in times of recession and/or downsizing (Dickens, 1994). In times of financial difficulty, family-friendly benefits may be targeted for cuts relatively early on, especially if they are visible costs, such as a day care centre. There is also the danger that, in times of financial stringency, a generous set of family-friendly policies may provide an economic rationale for discrimination against people with, or likely to have, family responsibilities.

81. In addition, there are likely to be differences according to the skills and rank of the employee. For a “model” company in the United States, Kiser (1996) found that some ethnic minority groups were less likely to know about policies for flexi-time, compressed work week and work at home arrangements, and more likely to be turned down by supervisors when they asked to take advantage of them. In general, the business case for policies designed to facilitate recruitment and retention rates, such as extensions to maternity leave and career breaks, can be expected to be particularly cogent for employees with more valuable skills (and this pattern is evident in the empirical analysis above). High-value skills will generally mean higher level, or scarce skills, but may also stem from long tenure with the company, again a pattern

observed above. (A financial services company surveyed by the author said they would try hard to retain experienced, competent secretaries through family-friendly arrangements.)

82. On the other hand, the case for short-hours and part-time work is likely to be perceived as weaker for more highly skilled and specialised staff, and also for managers and those in direct contact with customers. Bielenski (1994) has shown that European employers tend to prefer many of their part-time workers to be matched with low-skilled jobs. Managers and professional workers are, for the most part, effectively paid by the year, and employers are likely to see it as beneficial if they work for as much of the year as possible undermining efforts by staff to reduce their working hours. A number of authors have challenged the view that part-time managers are ineffective (Boyer, 1993) and case study evidence shows that many of the perceived problems can be overcome (for example, a retail trade human resources manager surveyed by the author said that she felt she was able to keep good contact with her company on the telephone when at home from her reduced-hours job). Nevertheless the perceptions remain, and may be hard to change.

83. Analyses of the costs and advantages of family-friendly working arrangements also need to be informed by a consideration of the likely preferences of different categories of staff, as pointed out by Hakim (2000). Based on extensive analysis, she suggests that women tend to fall into three groups: the “home-centred”, whose main preference is for fulfilment *via* home-based activities; the “work-centred”, who seek fulfilment primarily from their careers (each of these two categories being perhaps a fifth of women in most OECD countries); and those who are “adaptive”, choosing the combination that suits them best, given the prevailing circumstances. On this basis, work-centred women will evaluate career break schemes, for example, on the basis of their likely effects on their careers. Judiesch and Lyness (1999) conclude that in the United States there could be an appreciable, negative effect, although Datta Gutta and Smith (2000) reach a more optimistic conclusion for Denmark. Thus, in at least some countries, as noted above for the United Kingdom, women may be unwilling to accept such benefits even if employers offer them. (This was the case in an accountancy company surveyed by the author, where the two-year career break scheme offered to highly-promotable women employees had received no takers.) The same may be true for part-time work, which also tends to imply lower hourly wages and training, and so reduced career prospects (OECD, 1999, Chapter 1). Kiser (1996) found that women with supervisory status in her “model” US company were generally reluctant to use flexible work arrangements, and this was also found in the Japanese survey, for managers in general.

84. Overall, it seems difficult to reach a general judgement about the salience of the business case on the basis of current knowledge. There is clear agreement on the importance of retaining qualified and experienced staff, and some means of quantifying the advantage (Business in the Community, 1993). However, it is difficult to measure the economic advantages of improved morale. In addition, many of the costs are very difficult to quantify, such as the costs of the absence of experienced staff and the costs of moving staff from full- to part-time jobs (Holterman, 1995). If the business case is unclear, or indecisive, values are likely to play an important part. [Some of the companies interviewed by the author said that decisions about family-friendly arrangements would be taken primarily for reasons of values – for example a belief in the value of family life, or the desire to treat employees in a “holistic” way (as one HR manager put it). They said the attitudes of top managers were likely to be of great importance. Decisions might often be taken on the ground of values. In such cases, costings might be foregone, or prepared mainly for presentational reasons.]

3.2 Trends in human resource practices

85. Over recent years, there has been considerable discussion over the extent to which human resource management has been moving towards what is sometimes called “high-commitment” or “high-

trust” management, involving greater mutual commitment between employers and employees (OECD, 1999, Chapter 5). The argument is that the complexity of modern business methods requires practices such as more complex jobs, more team-work, and increased delegation, and that these practices require higher levels of trust between managers and workers to make them work properly. There is some evidence, in particular from repeated surveys in Australia, France and the United States, that such practices are becoming more common in larger firms. The primary motivation is economic, and in that sense this potential “motor” might be considered to be an offshoot of the business case.

86. Moves towards high-commitment management might well be expected to have a positive effect on the incidence of family-friendly arrangements. Employees will only provide the necessary levels of commitment, and be willing to share their knowledge with management, if they are treated with sufficient consideration in return. One of the ways in which this might well be done is through the provision of family benefits. For the United States, as noted above, Osterman (1995) finds “considerable support” for a link between family-friendly arrangements and high-commitment work systems. Wood (1999), in a re-examination of the same data set, questions this result, in some respects. Nevertheless, he finds that family-friendly policies tend to be introduced by firms whose management places a high value on employees’ welfare in respect to their family situation, perceives a bottom-line benefit from providing family-related benefits, is careful to consult with the workforce, and gives a high priority to the achievement of employee commitment.

87. However, at the same time as any moves towards high commitment management, there are other trends in human resource management that are not likely to be so favourable for the development of family-friendly arrangements. First, there is the “notable” decrease in the importance of personnel rules and practices reported by Storey (1995, p. 7), for the United Kingdom. In general, personnel rules and practices have been found to be important for the development of development of family-friendly arrangements (Whitehouse and Zetlin, 1999, discussed above). Second, there is the increased importance of economic and accounting criteria in the management of companies [for companies in the United Kingdom, Armstrong, (1995, p. 144) notes a “spectacular increase in the sophistication and prominence of accounting control” over the last two decades]. Such practices tend to take a short-term view, while some of the arguments for family-friendly working arrangements, such as the retention of staff after child-bearing, work best in a longer term perspective. Third, there is the trend away from structured hierarchies, another factor found to be positively linked to family-friendly policies by Whitehouse and Zetlin (1999). Fourth, there is a trend towards temporary employment contracts in a few countries, and these, too, are less frequently associated with family-friendly policies (Whitehouse and Zetlin, 1999; analysis of SESWC data, above). Finally, in many countries, a “long-hours culture” has been allowed to develop in professional and managerial jobs (OECD, 1998, Ch. 5; Cooper and Lewis, 1993). Indeed, as noted above, for the United States, Bond *et al.* (1998) find evidence for increasing work hours at the same time as they judge that there has been an increased incidence of work/life policies.

88. One relatively clear trend in human resource management is a demand for higher levels of more up-to-date skills. This has ambiguous implications for the development of family-friendly policies. For example, as training is a relatively more important part of the total work time of a part-time, or reduced-hours worker, employers have less reason to offer training to them (OECD, 1999, Ch. 1). People on extended leave will tend to find that their skills become out-of-date faster [this was a reason why two firms surveyed by the author said they did not offer career breaks]. On the other hand, if family-friendly policies could promote longer overall tenures, this might encourage the development of human capital within an organisation. Relatively long tenures should result in more of an incentive for individual staff members to acquire training, and more incentive for the firm to provide it, as both will reap the benefits over a longer period (OECD, 1999, Ch. 3).

89. The impact of team work, often cited as a key component of “high commitment” human resource management, is also unclear. When this involves autonomous or semi-autonomous teams, with the responsibility of covering for each other’s absences, there is the possibility that team members may be able to take joint responsibility for part of their family-care arrangements. Such family-friendly team working has been noted in a number of studies, including Holt and Thaulow (1996) for Denmark, Erler (1993) for Germany, and Fletcher and Rapoport (1996) for the United States. On the other hand, Conti and Warner (1994) argue that teams are often introduced simply to increase motivation and commitment, or to cope with the highly interdependent nature of Just-In-Time production. In such cases they are less likely to be family-friendly.

3.3 Gender equity programmes

90. In many ways it is natural to link family-friendly policies with gender equity policies. According to Duxbury *et al.* (1999), women tend to suffer more than men from the tensions between work and home. This may well affect their performance at work, giving employers an economic incentive to promote men ahead of more highly-talented women. Policies which alleviate these tensions are thus likely to improve the access of women with family responsibilities to senior jobs. Another possible link between the two sets of policies lies in the fact that both are concerned with increasing the diversity of the workforce.

91. However, family-friendly policies have been under attack precisely because they are generally taken up by women (Cooper and Lewis, 1995). At present, men and women continue to share home responsibilities unequally and may be little sign of major change (Baxter, 1998). Women using family-friendly benefits risk being placed on the “mommy-track”, with lower career prospects (Lommerud and Vagstad, 2000). As noted above, in at least some countries, long breaks from work appear to have negative effects on career progression. In addition, if granting family-friendly policies to women with children is perceived to increase the costs of employing such women, it will also increase the potential costs represented by other women of child-bearing age, even if they have no intention of having children. Family-friendly policies may thus lead to gender discrimination, a point argued forcefully by Bergmann (1997).

92. Again, too strong a link between family-friendly arrangements and gender equity considerations may mean that men find it harder to support family-friendly arrangements. This is both because the link will tend to cause family-friendly arrangements to be seen as a “women’s issue” and because, in some situations, men feel threatened by gender equity policies.

93. However, at present there may be insufficient empirical evidence to evaluate these concerns. For Australia, the evidence presented above shows that family-friendly arrangements are more common in firms which have also introduced a written Equal Employment Opportunities statement (Whitehouse and Zetlin, 1999). For the European Union, the Secretariat analysis of the SESWC data indicates that family-friendly arrangements are more common in firms where employees thought that men and women had equal opportunities. For the United States, Waldfogel (1997) concluded that women able to obtain maternity leave from their companies suffered comparatively less wage loss from motherhood, partly because they gained from continuing in employment with the same company.

3.4 Increased possibilities for home work

94. Modern communications technology, including the mobile telephone and the Internet, allows easier and faster communications between off-site employees and their enterprises. This may allow more work to be shifted back to the home, potentially aiding the work/family reconciliation. Brannen *et al.* (1994) provide a review of studies of the question for the United Kingdom. An instructive comparison of

views is to be found in Check (1996) and Wallis (1996). The former author argues that this technology will strengthen the family, and the latter emphasises the danger that work will intrude into family relationships within the home. At present, it seems hard to evaluate the potential of these developments, if only because of the fact that working from home is still uncommon, and may not be growing, as argued above for the European Union.

4 CONCLUSIONS

95. One of the most striking, long-term trends in the labour market has been the increase in the proportions of couple families where both parents are in paid employment, and lone-parent families where the parent is working. A growing proportion of the workforces of firms is thus heavily involved in family life and responsibilities, in addition to their jobs. Many firms have begun to find ways of adapting their human resources policies to these changes, in the context of national culture and policies. This paper has sought to provide an international comparison of these “family-friendly” work arrangements voluntarily introduced by firms, and has discussed some of the factors which might influence and encourage their development.

96. Detailed information on family-friendly arrangements in enterprises is available for four countries: Australia, Japan, the United Kingdom the United States. In these countries, national legislation provides comparatively little infra-structure to support people combining their work and family obligations, and working hours are relatively long (and have been increasing recently in the United States and the United Kingdom). The data show that many firms in these countries go beyond the legal minimum in their provision of family-friendly arrangements. However, those that do appear to implement these arrangements in a patchy way. The family-friendly arrangement most commonly cited by employers is changes in working hours, such as flexi-time working or part-time working. Very few firms appear to offer a range of family-friendly arrangements wide enough to include extra family leave and help with child-care. The public sector is more likely to provide family-friendly arrangements. Large firms are somewhat more likely to do so than smaller ones, though the difference depends on the type of family-friendly working arrangement concerned. More highly skilled workers, and those with longer tenures, tend to be offered more family-friendly benefits. There is some evidence that family-friendly arrangements are more common in firms with a written Equal Employment Opportunities statement and where there is a “high commitment” style of management, in which employers adopt a strategy of delegating responsibility to employees.

97. The restricted, but more readily comparable data available for the European Union confirm the differences in provision and use between different types of firm, and different types of employees. Once again, relatively few firms have a wide range of different types of family-friendly arrangements in place. A high proportion firms in many European countries, headed by Austria and Germany, appear to provide extra-statutory family leave benefits, such as sick child leave, extra maternity leave and extra parental leave. However, as with the non-European countries, relatively few provide help with child-care. The country with the highest incidence of firm provision for child-care appears to be the Netherlands, where the public authorities have deliberately involved firms in the provision of subsidised child-care to their employees. The European data also demonstrate the importance of voluntary part-time leave, a working arrangement used by over half of mothers in paid employment in the large majority of EU Member States.

While flexi-time is available to many employees, the coverage in Europe is not as high as in Australia and the United States.

98. A cross-country comparison of the extent of extra-statutory maternity benefits provided by European firms, on the one hand, with the relevant statutory provisions, on the other, shows that the relationship is very complex. Extra-statutory arrangements for maternity leave are least common in countries where the legislation is strongest (the Nordic countries). They are most common in some countries where there is a medium level of support (Austria and Germany). One explanation for this could be that national legislation tends to encourage private provision up to a point, and then tends to displace it. However, it must also be remembered that both public provision and the behaviour of firms are conditioned by cultural attitudes towards the family. In the United Kingdom, for example, there is a tradition of non-interference in the family, which is regarded as outside the public domain. This could explain the comparatively low level of both public and private provision. In Sweden, the State has deliberately taken over a good deal of the child-care role of the family. This could explain why there is a high degree of public support, but a low degree of support by firms. In Germany, the family is accorded high importance as a social institution, and cultural values in favour of supporting families may account for the relatively high levels of extra-statutory maternity leave arrangements within private firms.

99. Overall, the results confirm the importance of taking into account voluntary family-friendly arrangements introduced by firms both when assessing the work/family situation in a particular country, and also when attempting to make international comparisons. In many countries there is a need to develop better data sources to facilitate this. For international comparisons, it seems important to deepen the analysis through the use of micro-data, rather than published reports. A co-ordinated effort between researchers in different countries should be the best way to proceed here.

100. The paper has discussed four factors, common to all OECD countries, which might encourage the development of voluntary family-friendly arrangements in firms, aside from public policy intervention. These comprise an increased awareness of the “business case”, that family-friendly policies bring financial benefits to firms which outweigh any costs; shifts in human resource management; the drive for greater gender equity in the workplace; and the increased possibilities for home working offered by the new communications technologies.

101. None of these factors appear to have unambiguously positive implications for families. The business case is not always clear, and its force varies from firm to firm. In addition, it is likely to lead to differentiation within the workforce, with more valued employees being offered more, or more valuable, family-friendly arrangements. While modern “high-commitment” management styles may be associated with a greater consideration of family life, their underlying motivation is that of securing greater commitment by employees to the company. Other trends in human resource management practices, such as decentralisation of the HR function, may be less conducive to the spread of family-friendly arrangements. Gender equity policies might not always fit well with family-friendly policies, because of the enduring asymmetry between the sexes in family involvement, even in dual earner couples. Family-friendly arrangements tend to be used to a disproportionate extent by women, and it has been argued that this will lead to discrimination against them. However, while the argument may be strong in theory, it is less evident that there is a clash between gender equity policies and family-friendly arrangements in practice. Finally, while modern communications systems may be developed to allow an easier combination of work and home activities, they might also extend the reach of the company into the home in unhelpful ways. In any event, there seems to be little evidence that they have yet encouraged working from home by parents to any great extent.

102. The results presented may offer some pointers to ways in which governments might encourage firms to adopt family-friendly arrangements. At the macro level, there are many examples of successful

national legislation to control economic behaviour that is harmful to family life, and to encourage firms to support families. Many countries have been able to reduce the proportion of the workforce working very long hours through policy action – for example, average hours of work in Japan and Portugal have fallen significantly as legislation in favour of the 40-hour week has taken effect. The United States Family and Medical Leave Act was effective in introducing maternity leave for employees in larger firms, and may have made such practices more accepted in all firms. Tax benefits in Germany for firms offering child-care arrangements, and public-private partnerships for day care in the Netherlands, are no doubt an important part of the reasons for the relatively high levels of such arrangements in those countries. The Swedish legislation in favour of movements from full-time to part-time working, with the right of return to full-time working, helps to explain why these transitions are a distinctive feature of the employment patterns of mothers in Sweden.

103. At the same time, the survey and case study evidence in this paper point to the importance of values. This applies both to societies as a whole and to enterprises. At the national level, it is plausible that the relatively high levels of extra-statutory family leave in Austria and Germany can be ascribed partly to value systems that encourage firms to help families. It may also be noted that recent legislative initiatives to encourage Japanese firms to introduce family leave policies appear to have run into difficulties precisely because they were not in line with what firms saw as appropriate behaviour. The case studies for the United Kingdom have also pointed to the importance of values. Governments may be able to promote changes in values through the introduction of national policies to support families. The international comparisons suggest that, at least when statutory provision is not at a very high level, extensions to it need not displace efforts by firms. In addition, a number of countries have tried to influence the values of firms through methods such as “family-friendly employer of the year” awards. Sometimes these have been done privately, sometimes with government support. It should be useful to investigate these initiatives on a comparative basis, in order to assess the impact of different approaches. These competitions are justified by, and feed upon, case-study material showing that family-friendly attitudes can indeed be economically justified in many situations.

104. At the micro level, research suggests that many firms are unaware of the business benefits that can be reaped by adopting a more family-friendly stance. Small firms may be unduly concerned that the take-up of family-friendly arrangements could be so high as to cause unacceptable operating difficulties. Governments may thus be able to play a role by disseminating information about the potential advantages, as well as offering technical advice on how to introduce family-friendly arrangements successfully. Part of this work might investigate the relationship between family-friendly arrangements and gender equity policies, in order to clarify the possible synergies and conflicts between them that may occur in practice, and find ways in which both objectives can best be met. Research into the new possibilities for home working might reveal ways in which it can be used as part of a package of measures, in different working contexts.

105. Where governments decide to take action to help the reconciliation of work and family life, this need not be restricted to increased public provisions for child-care and increased rights to maternity, paternity and parental leave. Rather, there is a need to put the accent on helping women and men enjoy the most fulfilling life courses they can, through both work and family life. One element of this may be through a redefinition of careers, loosening the link between age and career progression, and valuing a wider range of career patterns for both men and women. Here a considerable amount of work may be needed to persuade firms that such developments can be in their interests as well.

ANNEX 1: INTERNATIONAL DATA SETS ON FAMILY-FRIENDLY ARRANGEMENTS

The Second European Survey on Working Conditions

This survey, described in European Foundation (1997), was conducted in the fifteen countries of the European Union (Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom) between 27 November 1995 and 19 January 1996, in close collaboration with Eurostat and National Statistical Institutes, many of which conduct similar surveys on a national basis. The survey was specifically designed to monitor working conditions as perceived by respondents, and did not attempt to define them objectively.

The multi-stage random sampling design was designed to be representative of the employed population (employed and self-employed, including people with jobs from which they were temporarily absent). All people aged 15 and over were included in the sampled population, with the exception of retired people, unemployed people and housewives. The target number of interviews was 1 000 cases per country, with the exceptions of 500 for Luxembourg, 1 000 for the former western Germany and 1 000 for the former eastern Germany. The figures achieved were close to these targets, giving a total of just under 16 000 interviews for Europe as a whole. The samples were found to over-represent Services and Public Administration, while under-representing Agriculture, and some Industry sub-sectors, causing the grouping of NACE categories "Mining and quarrying" and "Manufacturing".

Questions on family-friendly arrangements

The precise questions used to investigate the incidence of family-friendly policies by enterprises were as follows:

Q30. Over and above and statutory requirements, does your company/employer additionally provide for? (yes, no, not applicable, don't know)

- Sick child leave that is, amount of time you can stay at home to take care of a sick child
- Maternity leave that is, the amount of time a woman can stay at home before and [after] the birth of a child
- Parental leave that is, the amount of time a mother or a father can stay at home to take care of a very young child
- Child Day Care that is, your company/employer provides or subsidises day care for your child.

The caveats mentioned in the Introduction relating to employee-based data on family-friendly policies apply to these data. In particular, there is the ambiguity as to whether the data refer to working arrangements to which the employees concerned are personally entitled, or to ones which exist in their establishments. However, as well as the category, "don't know", the survey designers included a category, "non-applicable" in order to assess the possible effect of this ambiguity.

Table A.1.1 shows the basic results for the four types of family leave arrangements covered in the SESWC. The first panel concerns women with a child in their household and the second, men with a child in their household. The numbers replying “don’t know” are fairly small for both men and women. For men, the “non-applicable” responses are often quite large – rising to 19% on average for the European Union for maternity leave – though only 11% for lower for parental leave. However, for women, the “non-applicable” response is generally much smaller. This is to be expected, as women employees with a child in the household would be expected to see more kinds of family-friendly working arrangements as applying to them. This provides some justification for using the figures for women employees with a child in the household for basic international comparisons of the incidence of family-friendly working arrangements. Of course, by doing this, the implicit sample of establishments is restricted to those employing women with a child in the household.

Table A.1.2 presents the same results for a number of sub-populations of women, for the European Union as a whole. Those for all women at work (which includes those on apprenticeship and training schemes, as well as self-employed women) are lower than those for employees. Those for full-time employees are similar to those for all employees. Excluding the smaller firms increases the incidence, but only very slightly. There is a larger increase when the sample is restricted to the public sector. These patterns are explored further in the logit analysis described in Annex 2.

As the United Kingdom was included in this European survey, it was possible to make some consistency checks between the levels of family-friendly arrangements indicated here and the levels indicated by the UK surveys of employees, shown in Tables 8 and 9. Bearing in mind the differences in the questions, and in the coverage of the surveys, the results are not inconsistent. The European results for child day care and sick child leave are roughly in line with the figures for personal entitlement for time off work for family reasons and the various measure of entitlement to help with child-care shown in Table 8. The European figure for parental leave reported by women employees is, fortuitously, exactly the same as that shown in Table 9. It is not possible to make comparisons of extra-statutory maternity leave. This was not covered in WERS98. While it was covered in their employee survey, Forth *et al.* (1997, fn.16) report that the design of that survey precluded calculations of the corresponding estimates.

Questions on flexi-time

The question designed to obtain information on flexi-time, and used for this purpose above, was as follows:

Q20. For each of the following statements please answer Yes or No:

- ...
- You have fixed starting and finishing times every day.

Flexi-time working was taken to occur when a negative response was given to this question. This is likely to be an over-estimate, as the figure might include people on variable amounts of overtime, or subject to on-call working.

The figure obtained in this way for the United Kingdom was found to be the same as that for flexi-time working given by the employee questionnaire built into WERS98. However, the SESWC was a survey of employees in all types of establishments while the WERS98 employee survey covered only employees in establishments with 25 or more employees.

The Employment Options for the Future Survey

The *Employment Options for the Future Survey* was sponsored by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions in Dublin (for the 15 EU member states) and by the Norwegian Royal Ministry of Labour and Government Administration (for Norway). It was carried out in summer 1998 by Infratest Burke Sozialforschung and a consortium of field research institutes. The survey carried out a large scale representative survey about “work options of the future” in all 15 member states of the EU and in Norway. The survey covered over 30 000 people aged between 16 and 64. It was primarily designed to find out who wants to work and who does not, and to investigate preferences for different working arrangements both at the time of the survey and in five years time.

The survey questions used to measure voluntary part-time working were as follows. Part-time workers were first identified by a question asking employees to describe their status as part- or full-time. Those assessing themselves as part-time were then asked to name a reason why they worked part-time. They were first invited to respond positively to one of the following, possible reasons, which were presented in turn:

- You are a student/at school
- You are ill or disabled
- You have been unable to find a full-time job

The next possible reason presented was:

- You do not want to work full-time.

Respondents were also allowed not to give a reason for working part-time. The figures for “voluntary” part-time working reported here relate only to those respondents saying that they did not want to work full-time, after rejecting the earlier reasons proposed to them.

For further discussion of trends in part-time working, and of transitions from part-time to full-time working, see OECD (1999, Chapter 1) and Evans *et al.* (2001, forthcoming).

ANNEX 2: A LOGIT MODEL FOR FAMILY-FRIENDLY ARRANGEMENTS IN THE EU, 1995/96

Table A.2.1 shows the main results for the logit model, whose dependent variables were the reported incidence of extra-statutory family leave policies, and child day-care provision by firms. The sample was the 5 300 employees reporting the presence of a child aged under 15 in their household. Omitted categories are shown in square brackets. All coefficients shown are significant at the 1% level.

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Table 1. A list of “family-friendly” working arrangements by firms

Leave from work for family reasons

Emergency leave (e.g. to deal with a sick child, or when there has been a problem with child care, at short notice), counted as:

- paid special leave
- unpaid special leave
- sick leave, or
- time to be made up later.

Extension to maternity leave beyond statutory period either paid, or unpaid.

Paternity leave, paid or unpaid

Parental leave (extension to maternity or paternity leave to look after children), paid or unpaid

Career break

Leave to care for elderly relative

Other extended leave for family reasons

Changes in work arrangements introduced for family reasons

Reduced work week for full-time workers, of 4.5 days or fewer

Flexi-time weekly hours

Term-time only contracts

Switching from full-time to part-time, on permanent or temporary basis, on initiative of employee.

Job-sharing schemes

Work at home for family reasons

Practical help with child-care and elder care

Workplace or linked nursery

Financial help/subsidy to parents for child care (child-care allowance or voucher)

Child-care provisions in holidays (e.g. play scheme)

Breast-feeding facilities

Workplace parent support group

Assistance with costs of looking after elderly relatives

Having a telephone at work to use for family reasons

Relevant information and training

Maternity packs—information on maternity pay and leave

Policy of actively informing staff of the benefits available and encouraging their use

Additional supportive information, e.g. on local childcare

Contact during maternity leave

Contact during career breaks

Refresher courses, retraining, workshops on, or as preparation for, re-entering work

Source: Compiled by the author from various sources.

**Table 2. Workplaces with family-friendly arrangements, Australia, 1995
(Percentages)**

Employees in the largest occupational group have some or a lot of influence over the time they can start and stop work each day	32
Employees in the largest occupational group could make and receive a personal family call during work time	93
Most employees could use family, carer's and/or special leave if they needed time off work to look after family or household members	58
Most employees could use flexi-time or make the time up later if they needed time off work to look after family or household members	37
Most employees could use sick leave, if they needed time off work to look after family or household members	59
Paid maternity leave available	34
Paid paternity leave available	18

Source: WFU/DEWRSB (1999), derived from AWIRS95 employee relations management questionnaire. Population is all workplaces with 20 or more employees, excluding those in agriculture, forestry and defence.

Table 3. Distribution of workplaces according to a family-friendly index, Australia, 1995

		Mean scores on WFU family flexible index ^a
Sector	All workplaces	3.2
	Private	3.0
	Public	3.8
Employment size	20-49	3.2
	50-99	3.3
	100-199	3.4
	200-499	3.4
	500+	3.7
Industry	Mining	3.2
	Manufacturing	3.0
	Electricity, gas and water supply	3.5
	Construction	2.8
	Wholesale trade	3.2
	Retail trade	2.7
	Accommodation, cafes and restaurants	2.5
	Transport and storage	2.9
	Communication services	4.4
	Finance and insurance	3.9
	Property and business services	3.4
	Government administration	4.4
	Education	3.8
	Health and community services	3.4
	Cultural and recreational services	3.1
Personal and other services	3.7	

Note:

a) The highest possible score on the WFU family flexible index is 7. The family-friendly arrangements counted by the index are shown in Table 2.

Source: WFU/DEWRSB (1999, p. 97), taken from the AWIRS 95 employee relations management questionnaire, main survey. Population is all workplaces with 20 or more employees, excluding those in agriculture, forestry and defence.

Table 4. **Determinants of workplace family-friendliness, Australia, 1995**

	OLS Regression Coefficients (standardised ^a)
Independent variables	
Average workplace weekly earnings	0.121***
Paraprofessional/professional	0.178***
Clerical/sales	0.195***
Plant/labourers	0.094*
Percentage of non-core workers	-0.083**
Structured management	0.126***
Number of employees	0.104***
Active union	0.020
Written EEO policy	0.131***
Public sector	0.251***
<i>Adjusted R²</i>	<i>0.267</i>
<i>Number of observations</i>	<i>1177</i>

Notes: ***p<0.001; **p<0.01; *p<0.05

a) The regression is based on variables standardised to have mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

Source: Whitehouse and Zetlin (1999), based on an analysis of the AWIRS95 employee relations management questionnaire.

Table 5. Employee responses relevant to the work/family reconciliation, all employees and carers, Australia, 1995

	Employees			
	% of all employees	% of all carers ^a	% of male carers	% of female carers
Use of telephone at work for family reasons	74	74	75	73
Satisfaction with work/family has decreased in the last year	27	32	33	31
Satisfaction with work/family has increased in the last year	14	15	13	17
Could get permanent part-time work at this workplace if wanted it	61	57	43	74
Have the chance to work at home sometimes if needed to	19	21	25	16
Have a lot or some control over start and finish times	50	52	53	49
Have no control over start and finish times	34	33	32	35
Happy with hours worked	75	73	71	75
Would prefer more hours	9	8	8	9
Would prefer less hours	16	19	21	16

Note:

a). Carers are defined as those who had children and/or had responsibility for sick, disabled or aged members of their family.

Source: WFU/DEWRB (1999), on basis of AWIRS95 employee survey, covering employees at workplaces with 20 or more employees, excluding those in agriculture, forestry and defence.

Table 6. Family-friendly arrangements in Japan, 1996

	All establishments ^a	Establishments with 500 or more employees
	%	%
Measures to help workers handle both childcare and work		
1. Shorter working hours	17.5	48.6
1. Flexi-time	5.6	12.1
2. Starting or finishing work at a later or earlier time	14.1	23.6
3. Exemption from work in non-scheduled working hours	14.5	37.9
4. Installation of a crèche at the workplace	0.3	5.7
5. Financial assistance for expenditure on child care	0.9	3.9
6. More than one measure out of 1-6 above	28.2	75.1
Measures to help workers handle both family care and work		
7. Shorter working hours	5.2	31.9
8. Flexi-time	1.0	6.0
9. Starting or finishing work at a later or earlier time	2.2	7.2
10. Subsidies for costs on family care	0.8	3.0
11. More than one measure out of 8-11 above	5.9	37.0
Other measures		
12. Care leave for dependent family members ^b	7.6	15.2
13. Re-employment ^c	16.4	25.7

Notes:

- a) The survey covered private establishments with five or more employees.
b) A scheme for care leave for family members is a system to enable employees to take leave to look after a family member. Types of leave in this scheme include paid holidays, leaves of absence, and various other forms.
c) Under a re-employment scheme, a company re-employs workers who have left the company due to child or family care, either in their own company or in another company in the same group.

Source: Sato (2000), extracted from a 1997 publication of the Women's Bureau, Japanese Ministry of Labour.

Table 7. UK establishments with family-friendly working arrangements

	WERS 1998 (Non-managerial employees)		PSI/BMRB Survey of Employers, 1996
	All firms with 10 employees and over (1)	Firms with 10-499 employees (2)	(3)
	%	%	%
Special, short-term child-care leave	63
Parental Leave	55	23	..
Extra-statutory maternity leave benefits, or paternity leave	27
Career breaks	17
Working at/or from home	14	11	23
Flexi-time	18	7	36 ^a
Job-sharing	45	21	..
Term-time working	19	5	7
Change from full-time to part-time	52	37	22 ^b
Workplace nursery	5	4	2
Financial help with childcare	6	4	2

Notes:

a) Full-timers only.

b) Refers to temporary change – figures for permanent change were 24%.

Sources:

Adapted from Dex (1999):

(1) Cully et al. (1998).

(2) Dex and Schiebl (2000).

(3) Forth et al. (1997).

**Table 8. Child-care related arrangements in UK establishments:
existence, entitlement and use among mothers, 1996**

(percentage of employed mothers)

	Existence	Personal entitlement	Personal use
Time off work for family reasons	77	53	20
Telephone at work to use for family reasons	68	50	30
Career breaks for family reasons	33	16	1
Workplace nursery or crèche	13	9	3
Help in finding childcare facilities away from the workplace	6	3	1
Financial help for the cost of childcare	5	4	3
Other nurseries supported by the employer	5	3	0
Care for school children after school hours or during school holidays	5	2	1

Source: Forth *et al.* (1997, Table 5.8), based on PSI/BMRB Survey, covering 1219 mothers who had returned to employment after childbirth.

Table 9. Family-friendly arrangements in UK establishments by gender and sector, 1998

	Sector				All employees % of employees
	Private		Public		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
	% of employees	% of employees	% of employees	% of employees	
Flexi-time	24	36	37	39	32
Parental leave	21	30	35	33	28
Job sharing scheme	6	15	23	34	16
Working at or from home	10	6	13	9	9
Workplace nursery/child-care subsidy	2	3	6	9	4
None of these	57	42	40	34	46

Note: Base is all employees in workplaces with 25 or more employees; figures are weighted and based on responses from 25 457 employees.

Source: Table 7.3 of Cully *et al.* (1999).

Table 10. **Family-friendly work arrangements in the United States, 1992**

(% of all establishments covered by the survey)

	Offer now	Definite plans to offer within 2 years	May offer	Have decided not to offer
On-site day care paid or subsidised by employer	2.0	4.1	5.1	88.6
Off-site day care paid or subsidised by employer	4.6	3.1	8.4	83.7
Day-care subsidies paid by employer to employees	4.1	5.3	9.0	81.4
Day-care referrals	13.6	6.7	10.9	68.5
A full-time work/family staff employee	14.6	2.0	3.6	79.6
Workshops on work/family issues	24.3	5.1	6.9	63.5
Elder-care referral	9.4	5.9	8.7	75.8
Flexible hours	40.2	7.3	7.4	44.9

Source: Table 1 of Osterman (1995), based on the Survey of American Establishments, covering only the private sector.

Table 11. Indicators of family-friendly and relevant flexible working arrangements, EU, 1995/96

	% of women employees with child under 15 in the family reporting existence of extra statutory arrangements for:			% of women employees with child under 15 in the family reporting child day-care provision by firm	% of employees with flexi-time working arrangement	Percentage of women in employment working part-time on a voluntary basis, 1998 ^a
	Sick child leave	Maternity leave	Parental leave			
<i>Nordic</i>						
Denmark	38.0	40.1	37.7	7.3	24.9	17.9
Finland	36.9	35.8	33.8	7.9	22.3	5.5
Sweden	6.2	6.6	7.1	0.7	32.3	20.3
<i>Southern</i>						
Greece	64.8	81.1	68.7	18.1	22.7	1.9
Italy	72.2	81.4	68.7	5.4	19.2	11.0
Portugal	47.6	48.9	43.0	21.9	19.1	4.7
Spain	62.5	68.9	54.7	7.5	20.4	7.6
<i>Insular</i>						
Ireland	23.8	67.5	22.3	7.1	19.4	16.8
United Kingdom	40.6	61.4	27.8	10.4	31.8	30.1
<i>Central</i>						
Austria	73.5	84.7	86.5	19.1	22.3	21.1
western Germany ^a	65.0	92.3	86.6	15.7	33.2	27.2
Netherlands	39.6	75.0	53.4	25.2	35.8	44.8
<i>Other</i>						
Belgium	62.3	65.1	43.1	14.1	26.2	21.0
France	47.1	57.9	50.5	11.6	25.6	15.4
Luxembourg	35.4	82.4	41.3	10.6	18.0	25.1

a) Voluntary part-time includes only those women who did not say they worked part-time because of education, sickness/disability or because they could not find a full-time job, but did say they did not want to work full-time.

b) Germany for last column

Sources: Author's calculations on the basis of the *Second European Survey on Working Conditions* and the *Employment Options of the Future Survey*.

Table 12. Cross-country correlations for 4 family-friendly arrangements, employees, EU, 1995/96.

	Sick child leave	Maternity leave	Parental leave
Sick child leave			
Maternity leave	0.72		
Parental leave	0.88	0.77	
Child day care	0.42	0.53	0.53

Source: Author's analysis of the Second European Survey on Working Conditions.

Table A1.1. **Extra-statutory family leave and child day-care provision: perceptions of employees, EU, 1995/6**
(sample restricted to employees with child under 15 in household, row percentages)

	Sick child leave				Maternity leave				Parental leave				Child day care			
	yes	no	<i>n.a.</i>	<i>d.k.</i>	yes	no	<i>n.a.</i>	<i>d.k.</i>	yes	no	<i>n.a.</i>	<i>d.k.</i>	yes	no	<i>n.a.</i>	<i>d.k.</i>
Women																
Austria	74	13	2	12	85	6	5	5	87	7	3	4	19	67	8	6
Belgium	62	28	4	5	65	23	8	4	43	35	7	15	14	70	11	5
Denmark	38	52	5	6	40	52	4	5	38	54	3	5	7	85	6	2
w. Germany ^a	65	22	3	10	92	3	2	3	87	7	3	4	16	70	6	8
e. Germany ^a	45	38	7	10	61	16	14	9	57	17	15	11	12	62	18	8
Finland	37	49	1	13	36	50	2	11	34	51	1	13	8	82	2	9
France	47	44	3	6	58	38	2	3	51	39	2	8	12	80	3	5
Greece	65	26	6	3	81	11	7	1	69	21	6	4	18	67	11	5
Ireland	24	51	11	14	68	15	9	9	22	46	10	21	7	74	11	9
Italy	72	17	10		81	11	8		69	18	13		5	88	7	
Luxembourg	35	45	12	7	82	7	3	7	41	42	6	11	11	67	11	12
Netherlands	40	43	6	12	75	15	7	3	53	24	10	12	25	66	5	4
Portugal	48	31	17	5	49	25	23	3	43	33	17	7	22	63	12	3
Spain	62	25	3	10	69	19	5	8	55	26	5	14	7	81	5	7
Sweden	6	80	8	6	7	76	11	6	7	77	10	6	1	85	11	3
United Kingdom	41	48	4	8	61	20	5	14	28	53	4	15	10	82	4	4
EU	51	37	5	7	66	22	5	6	53	33	6	9	12	77	6	5
Men																
Austria	66	16	12	6	50	15	27	8	57	18	17	8	6	65	18	11
Belgium	44	36	9	12	35	21	37	6	33	40	13	14	7	73	13	7
Denmark	40	52	5	4	37	50	5	7	32	55	4	8	6	88	6	1
w. Germany ^a	50	24	16	11	56	16	17	11	57	21	15	7	9	62	16	13
e. Germany ^a	24	29	24	24	24	15	34	26	28	19	26	26	6	43	31	20
Finland	31	61	2	6	26	53	15	6	33	60	1	6	5	87	4	4
France	42	44	11	4	35	29	26	10	36	41	11	11	8	71	14	7
Greece	52	33	9	6	57	13	24	6	53	31	9	7	15	69	10	6
Ireland	23	47	22	8	42	20	34	3	23	49	20	8	4	67	22	7
Italy	48	39	13		41	44	15		44	37	19		5	84	11	
Luxembourg	30	36	9	25	47	18	20	16	27	48	5	20	7	64	9	20
Netherlands	47	37	4	12	51	20	26	3	50	31	8	12	23	63	8	6
Portugal	50	24	12	15	34	30	13	23	44	27	11	18	21	41	18	20
Spain	56	33	1	10	39	39	3	19	39	42	1	18	4	85	3	8
Sweden	11	72	9	8	7	59	25	9	12	72	10	6	1	82	12	5
United Kingdom	28	54	5	13	51	28	14	7	32	49	4	15	5	85	4	6
EU	42	39	10	9	43	28	19	10	41	37	11	11	8	72	12	8

Notes: *n.a.* = "not applicable", *d.k.* = "don't know".

a) western and eastern Länder of Germany, respectively.

Source: Author's calculations from Second European Survey of Working Conditions.

Table A1.2. **Extra-statutory family leave and child day-care provision: perceptions of selected categories of women, EU totals, 1995/96**

(sample restricted to women with child under 15 in household, row percentages)

	Sick child leave				Maternity leave				Parental leave				Child day care			
	yes	no	n.a.	d.k.	yes	no	n.a.	d.k.	yes	no	n.a.	d.k.	yes	no	n.a.	d.k.
All women at work	45	34	12	9	58	21	13	8	46	30	13	10	10	69	13	7
Women employees	51	37	5	7	66	22	5	6	53	33	6	9	12	77	6	5
Women full-time employees	49	38	6	7	65	25	5	5	53	34	6	8	13	74	7	6
Women employees in the public sector	57	33	4	6	69	21	5	5	53	34	5	8	16	74	5	5
Women employes in firms with at least 10 employees	52	38	4	7	69	22	4	6	53	34	4	9	12	78	4	6

Notes: n.a. = "not applicable", d.k. = "don't know".

Source: Author's calculations from Second European Survey of Working Conditions.

Table A2.1 . Summary of results of logit model for family-friendliness, EU, 1995/96,
(all employees with a child under 15 in household)

Variable	Topic	Categories	Logit coefficients for questions on:			
			Sick child leave	Maternity leave	Parental leave	Child day care
Constant			0.19	0.10	0.01	-0.60
Q1(1)	Sex	male [female]	-0.21	-1.15	-0.61	-0.52
Q7	Employment status	[temp agency]				
Q7(1)		permanent	0.08	0.33	0.30	-0.39
Q7(2)		fixed term	-0.20	0.16	-0.06	-0.53
FULLTIME(1)	Part-/full-time	part-time [full-time]	0.15	-0.06	-0.03	-0.73
D19A(1)	Home responsibility	responsible [not resp.]	0.30	0.03	-0.05	0.28
Q5_JE	Size of company	[500 employees and over]				
Q5_JE(1)		works alone	-1.02	-0.40	-0.76	0.61
Q5_JE(2)		1 to 9 employees	-0.34	-0.58	-0.45	-0.65
Q5_JE(3)		10 to 49 employees	-0.27	-0.36	-0.49	-0.37
Q5_JE(4)		50 to 99 employees	-0.02	-0.23	-0.26	-0.31
Q5_JE(5)		100 to 499 employees	-0.42	-0.10	-0.19	-0.81
Q6	Public/private	[don't know]				
Q6(1)		public sector	0.17	0.02	-0.22	-0.85
Q6(2)		private sector	-0.19	-0.15	-0.36	-1.43
Q8RRR	Industry	[other services]				
Q8RRR(1)		agriculture and fishing	-0.45	0.40	-0.20	0.56
Q8RRR(2)		mining and quarrying	-0.11	0.09	0.02	-0.20
Q8RRR(3)		electricity, gas and water	0.58	0.34	0.23	-0.11
Q8RRR(4)		construction	-0.28	-0.10	-0.50	-0.10
Q8RRR(5)		wholesale and retail trade	-0.42	-0.11	-0.22	-1.18
Q8RRR(6)		hotels and restaurants	-0.15	-0.33	-0.13	-0.35
Q8RRR(7)		transportation and communication	-0.05	0.36	0.20	-0.45
Q8RRR(8)		financial intermediation	0.64	0.44	0.68	0.32
Q8RRR(9)		real estate and business activities	0.20	0.30	0.31	-0.61
Q8RRR(10)		public administration	0.19	0.01	0.27	0.24
Q28_ISY	Equal opportunities	[other/no response]				
Q28_ISY(1)		equal opportunities	-0.29	0.13	0.64	1.87
Q28_ISY(2)		more opportunities for men	-0.33	-0.40	0.45	1.85
Q28_ISY(3)		more opportunities for women	-0.80	0.10	0.54	1.36
Q9	Numbers supervised	[don't know]				
Q9(1)		none supervised	1.14	0.87	0.78	-1.40
Q9(2)		1 to 5 supervised	1.03	0.81	0.57	-1.49
Q9(3)		6 to 9 supervised	1.02	0.80	0.88	-1.03
Q9(4)		10 and over supervised	0.87	0.98	0.76	-1.20
COUNTRYL	Country	[Austria]				
COUNTRYL(1)		Belgium	-0.87	-0.70	-1.38	-0.16
COUNTRYL(2)		Denmark	-1.54	-1.41	-1.65	-0.74
COUNTRYL(3)		West Germany	-0.61	0.36	0.02	0.50
COUNTRYL(4)		Greece	-0.51	0.26	-0.27	0.57
COUNTRYL(5)		Italy	-0.55	-0.33	-0.66	-1.03
COUNTRYL(6)		Spain	-0.33	-0.38	-0.87	-0.62
COUNTRYL(7)		France	-1.11	-0.92	-1.14	-0.08
COUNTRYL(8)		Ireland	-2.11	-0.50	-2.26	-1.04
COUNTRYL(9)		Luxembourg	-1.65	-0.20	-1.66	-0.42
COUNTRYL(10)		Netherlands	-1.17	-0.27	-0.90	1.33
COUNTRYL(11)		Portugal	-0.86	-1.11	-1.04	0.99
COUNTRYL(12)		United Kingdom	-1.76	-0.50	-1.85	-0.38
COUNTRYL(13)		East Germany	-1.66	-1.07	-1.14	-0.35
COUNTRYL(14)		Finland	-1.89	-1.86	-1.87	-1.04
COUNTRYL(15)		Sweden	-3.64	-3.79	-3.49	-3.01
Q4RR	Occupation	[elementary occupations]				
Q4RR(1)		legislators and managers	0.59	0.41	0.43	-0.03
Q4RR(2)		professionals	0.16	0.81	0.43	0.05
Q4RR(3)		technicians	0.53	0.73	0.57	0.18
Q4RR(4)		clerks	0.25	0.39	0.35	0.45
Q4RR(5)		service and sales workers	0.32	0.48	0.24	0.20
Q4RR(6)		agricultural and fishery workers	0.77	0.40	0.34	-0.73
Q4RR(7)		craft and related trades workers	0.01	0.28	-0.02	0.33
Q4RR(8)		plant and machine operators	0.20	0.12	0.00	0.09
ANCIENNT	Tenure	[don't know]				
ANCIENNT(1)		under 1 year	-0.74	-0.64	-0.86	0.29
ANCIENNT(2)		1 year or over	-0.06	-0.37	-0.20	0.45

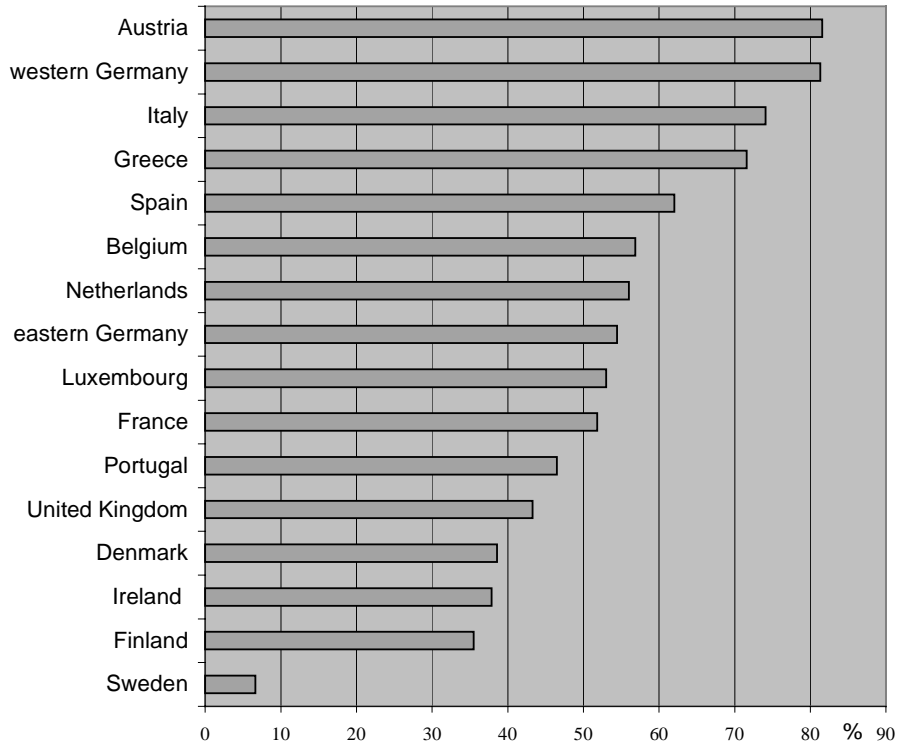
Notes:

See the text for a discussion of the model. Categories in square brackets are omitted categories.

Source:

Author's calculations on microdata from the *Second European Survey of Working Conditions*.

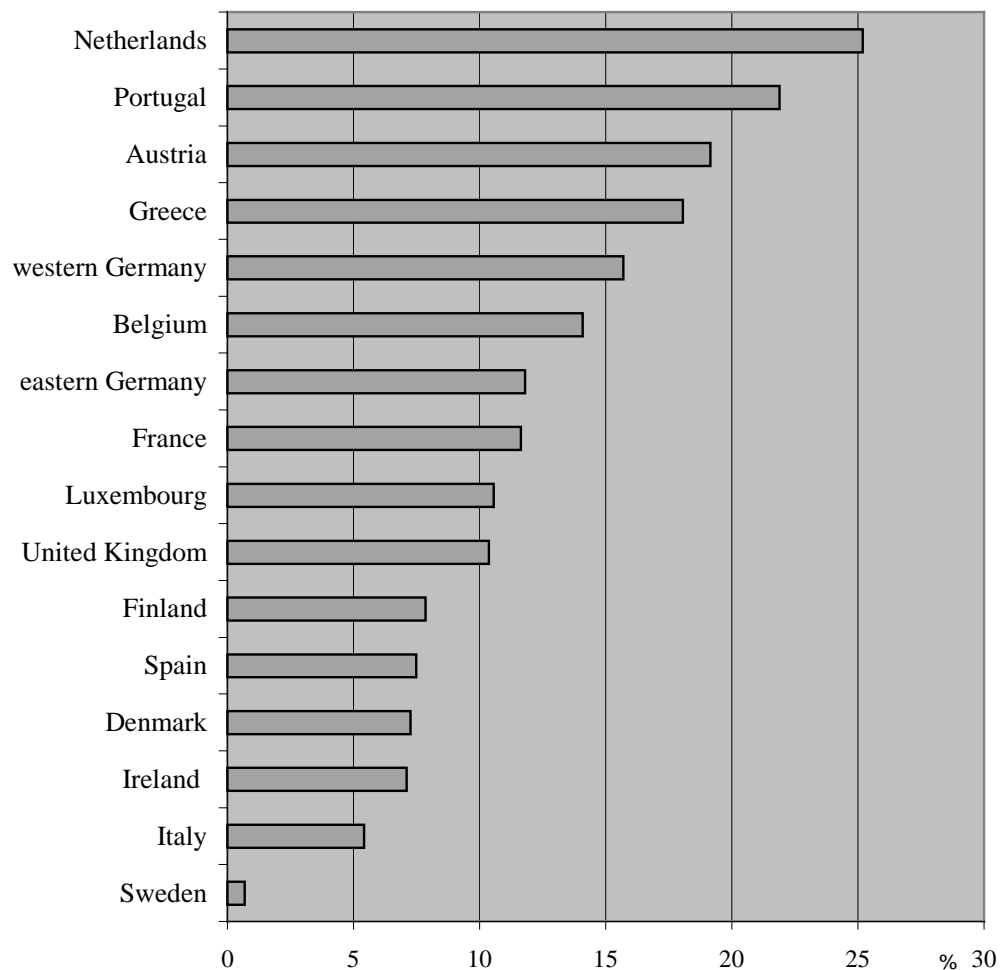
**Chart 1. Extra-statutory employer-provided family leave,
European Union, 1995/96**



Source: Author's calculations using the Second European Survey on Working Conditions, referring to women employees with a child under 15 in household.

Notes: Figures are the average, for the country concerned, of the proportions of these employees reporting extra-statutory sick child leave, maternity leave and parental leave. The terms, "western" and "eastern" Germany, refer to the western and eastern Länder.

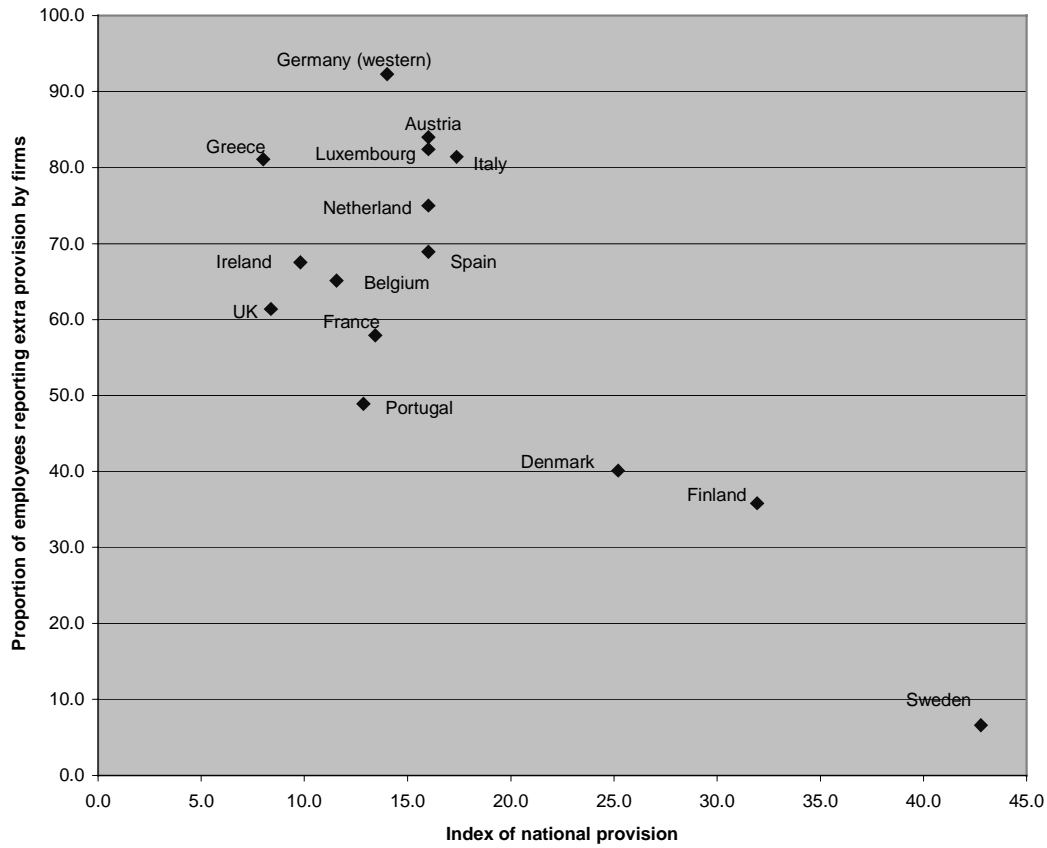
Chart 2 . Women employees reporting employer provided or subsidised day-care, European Union, 1995/96



Source: Author's calculations using the Second European Survey on Working Conditions, referring to women employees with a child under 15 in household.

Notes: The terms, "western" and "eastern" Germany, refer to the western and eastern Länder.

Chart 3. Comparison of indicators of firms' provision of extra-statutory maternity leave and national provisions, EU, 1995/96



Sources: Index of national provision derived from information in MISSOC, as product of number of weeks of maternity leave and rate of pay during those weeks.
 Proportion of employees reporting extra-statutory maternity pay refers to women employees with child under 15 in household, author's calculations from the SESWC.

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