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Trends in Working Hours
in OECD Countries

**John M. Evans,
Douglas C. Lippoldt,
Pascal Marianna**

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TRENDS IN WORKING HOURS IN OECD COUNTRIES

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**DIRECTORATE FOR EDUCATION,
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FOREWORD

This paper updates and extends material presented in various issues of the OECD *Employment Outlook*, particularly the 1998 and 1999 editions. A shorter version of the paper has been published, in French, as “Réduction du temps du travail : état des lieux — comparaison statistique internationale”, *Économie Internationale*, No.85, 3rd quarter, 2000.

The comments of colleagues are gratefully acknowledged, as well as those of M. Gilbert Cette, of the Banque de France, co-ordinator of the special issue of *Économie Internationale* in which the above-mentioned article has appeared. Statistical assistance was provided by Ms. Dana Blumin. Mistakes are the responsibility of the authors.

SUMMARY

In recent years, the decline in average annual hours of work per person in employment, which can be traced back for over a century, has slowed. In some countries, there has even been an increase in the average annual hours per person employed. In countries where continuing falls can be observed, this can be traced to legal action (for example, France, Japan and Portugal) or to particularly vigorous negotiation between the social partners (for example, Germany and the Netherlands). The United States and Sweden both show an increase in average annual hours, in the first case due partly to an increase in overtime hours, in the second to an increase in the hours worked by part-time workers. For the European countries, the paper shows how the pattern of change in weekly working hours can be linked, *inter alia*, to the institutional arrangements applying in the different countries.

Part-time working has both exerted downward pressure on average working hours and been an important source of job growth in most European countries and Japan, though not in the United States. It is shown to be generally less-well-paid than full-time working, even on an hourly basis. In addition, even after taking account of the type of work and jobs that are involved, part-time working tends to receive relatively little career-oriented training, compared with full-time working. Moreover, in most countries, transitions out of part-time working to full-time working are comparatively rare. Only in Sweden are they at all common -- this is one of the few countries in which the right to make temporary transitions from full-time to part-time working is supported by law. (Legislation embodying rights of this kind has recently been passed in the Netherlands.)

Despite these disadvantages, there appears to be a substantial latent demand for part-time jobs among women and, to a considerably lesser extent, among men. Most women currently working part-time report that this is done voluntarily. Were people's expressed preferences to be realised, there would be a large increase in part-time working and in the proportion of European couples where one, or both partners, work part-time. At the same time, women working part-time tend to express somewhat higher levels of job satisfaction than women working full-time (the reverse is true for men).

The paper shows that, over recent years there is evidence of increased incidence of a number of forms of flexible work arrangements. Apart from part-time working, which often, but not always, provides more flexibility for employers, these include shift-working (particularly in the manufacturing sector), unsocial hours working (evening, night and weekend working) and the annualisation of working time (where weekly working hours vary over the year, with the average, and sometimes the overall pattern of hours, fixed in advance). However, the paper concludes that there is no evidence that such working arrangements are as yet very widespread.

RÉSUMÉ

Entamée depuis plus d'un siècle, la baisse du temps de travail annuel par personne disposant d'un emploi s'est ralentie depuis quelques années, et s'est même inversée dans certains pays. Dans ceux où elle se poursuit, c'est suite à une action du législateur (France, Japon, Portugal) ou à des négociations vigoureuses entre les partenaires sociaux (Allemagne et Pays-Bas). Les États-Unis et la Suède enregistrent l'un comme l'autre une augmentation de la durée annuelle moyenne du travail. Dans le premier cas, c'est en partie dû à une progression des heures supplémentaires, dans le second, à un accroissement de la durée moyenne du travail à temps partiel. Pour les pays européens, cet article montre que l'évolution de la durée de travail hebdomadaire peut être reliée aux dispositifs institutionnels applicables à l'échelon national.

Le temps partiel est responsable d'une baisse de la durée moyenne du travail et constitue une source majeure de création d'emplois dans la plupart des pays européens et au Japon, mais pas aux États-Unis. Il se révèle généralement moins bien rémunéré que le travail à temps complet, y compris sur une base horaire. En outre, même si l'on tient compte de la nature du travail et des emplois concernés, le temps partiel a tendance à s'accompagner d'une formation professionnelle moindre que le temps complet. A cela, il faut ajouter que le passage du temps partiel au temps plein est relativement rare dans la plupart des pays. La seule exception est la Suède, qui est aussi l'un des rares pays où il est juridiquement possible de faire des allers et retours temporaires entre temps plein et temps partiel. (Une loi allant dans le même sens vient toutefois d'être votée aux Pays-Bas.)

Malgré ces inconvénients, il semble exister une substantielle demande latente d'emplois à temps partiel chez les femmes et, à un degré nettement moindre, chez les hommes. La majorité des femmes travaillant actuellement à temps partiel affirment le faire volontairement. Si les préférences exprimées par les individus se concrétisaient, on assisterait à une forte augmentation du travail à temps partiel et du pourcentage des couples européens dont un voire les deux membres travaille de cette manière. Dans le même temps, les femmes employées à temps partiel expriment un niveau de satisfaction professionnelle plus élevé que celles travaillant à temps plein (chez les hommes, c'est l'inverse).

De nombreux éléments montrent par ailleurs que la flexibilité du temps de travail gagne du terrain sous différentes formes. A part le travail à temps partiel, qui fournit souvent, mais pas toujours, plus de flexibilité aux employeurs, c'est le cas du travail posté (en particulier dans le secteur secondaire), des horaires décalés ou atypiques (le soir, la nuit et le week-end) et de l'annualisation du temps de travail (variation de la durée hebdomadaire du travail sur l'année, avec fixation initiale du nombre moyen d'heures et parfois du tableau global des horaires). Cependant, cet article conclut qu'il n'existe pas encore de preuves que ces pratiques soient d'ores et déjà très répandues.

TRENDS IN WORKING HOURS IN OECD COUNTRIES

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INTRODUCTION

1. In a large number of OECD countries, issues concerning both the duration of working hours and their arrangement are high on the current political agenda. Hours of work are an important economic variable. Reductions in the duration of hours directly affect the volume of labour input into the economy, and may reduce output. Unless compensated by reductions in hourly wage costs, they may entail increases in labour costs and reduced competitiveness. However, in several countries, particularly France, there has been intense debate over ways in which reductions in hours of work might both feed back into higher levels of hourly labour productivity and serve to stimulate employment growth. Part of this debate links changes in working hours to the modernisation of work organisation, and to greater use of “non-standard” work arrangements, such as shift working, weekend working, and the annualisation of working hours.

2. Both the duration and arrangement of working hours have important social dimensions. In turn, these have implications for economic performance over the longer term. In some countries, where working hours are particularly high, there has been concern about the “time crunch” experienced by dual-earner families. In some, a rise in part-time working has helped to give employment to more people, and has provided a way to combine work and family life. However, there are concerns that part-time jobs offer poor career and training prospects, disadvantaging part-time workers, who are mainly women. In addition, if the relatively low incidence of training among part-time workers continues, a very high proportion of part-time working might weaken the drive to endow OECD countries with the well-qualified and well-trained workforces they need to compete in global markets.

3. In order to assess the implications of current trends in working time, the first step is to document them, and this is the aim of this paper. The first section discusses recent trends in the duration of work, comparing them with the preferences expressed by employees. In view of its importance, the second section is devoted to a discussion of part-time work. The final section presents evidence about trends in a number of other forms of “non-standard” working hours associated with greater “flexibility” in working arrangements. For information on definitions and data sources, the reader is referred to the Annex.

I. TRENDS IN THE DURATION OF WORK

A. Annual hours

4. The most striking fact about recent trends in average annual hours of work is that the long-term decline in average annual hours has slowed down in almost all OECD countries, and occasionally reversed itself. Maddison (1995) has shown that average hours of work in advanced OECD countries fell from

around 3 000 hours a year in 1870 to between 1 500 and 2 000 hours a year by 1990. Apart from increases in a few countries before and during WW2, the reduction continued over the whole period. However, as shown in Chart 1, the situation has recently changed. As shown in the first part of Chart 1, for most of the 1990s, hours of work have been on an increasing trend in Hungary, Sweden and the United States, and there has been little recent change in the levels for Australia, Canada, Finland, New Zealand, Spain and the United Kingdom. The long-term trend for declining working hours continued, albeit at a generally slower pace, in France,¹ Germany Italy, the Netherlands and Norway. Japan and Korea stand out as the only countries to have experienced a downward shift in trend over recent years (although Korea showed an increase over the most recent period shown).^{2,3}

5. Table 1 provides a more precise indication of recent trends by showing the average change experienced over three recent, broad economic cycles (of which the most recent is not, of course, yet over). The country coverage is restricted to those for which the OECD currently produces estimates of peak and trough years. The figures show the change in the number of hours worked per year, averaged over the periods shown. The slackening (or reversal) of the rate of decline in the most recent cycle, compared with the rates seen in one or other of the earlier cycles, is clear for all countries, with the exception of Japan.

6. In order to explore the influence of growing levels of part-time working, Table 2 presents a decomposition of the changes in average annual hours by employees over the 1990s into three components: the changes in the average annual hours of full-time workers and part-time workers, respectively, and the change in the share of part-time workers in employment (the small interaction terms are not shown).⁴ These preliminary estimates, which cover the twelve countries of the former European Community, have been made by the authors using unpublished data from the European Union Labour Force Survey (EULFS). As in Table 1, they relate to changes in the number of hours worked per year, averaged over the period shown.

7. Table 2 shows that changes in annual hours of work in Europe have been dominated by changes in the annual hours worked by full-timers and in the proportion of part-time workers in employment: the influence of changes in the hours worked by part-timers has generally been quite small. On average, the

1. The figures in the Chart for France end at 1998 and show few effects of the legislation on the 35-hour week. Between September 1999 and 2000, average actual hours in France are officially estimated to have declined by 1.9%, or around 30 hours a year (figures communicated by the *Ministère de l'emploi et de la solidarité*).

2. No estimates of annual average hours of work are yet available for Portugal, which has experienced a strong decrease in weekly working hours over the 1990s (see below).

3. The database on which the chart is based is not suitable for precise international comparisons – see the Annex for further information.

4. For purposes of international comparisons of the level of part-time work, the OECD generally uses a common definition: a part-time job is one for which usual hours of work are under 30 per week. This circumvents the considerable differences between national definitions of part-time working (Van Bastelaer *et al.*, 1997). However, for tracking changes over time, the under-30 hours definition has two disadvantages. First, a general reduction in hours of work may cause sizeable groups of employees to move abruptly from one side of the cut-off to the other. Second, no account will be taken of changes in the numbers of people working just over 30 hours, even if they are “part-time” workers in the usual sense that their conditions of employment are different from otherwise similar workers working longer, “full-time” hours. For these reasons, national definitions are used in Table 2.

influence of changes in the proportion of part-time working is substantially greater than that of changes in the annual hours of full-time workers, but there are substantial differences from country to country.⁵

8. Information about the relative importance of part-time and full-time working hours for explaining the overall change in hours is available for a number of other countries, from other sources. For Japan, part of the decrease in hours of work is due to the substantial increase in the proportion of part-time working in total employment in the 1990s. However, the major influence has been the progress realised in achieving the 40-hour statutory work-week, legislated to come into operation in 1997 with a two-year grace period for smaller firms (Japan Institute of Labour, 2000). Part-time working is relatively undeveloped in Korea, and explains little of the fall in hours of work — from very high levels — between 1986 and 1991 (Yoon, 1999). In Sweden part of the increase in hours has been due to a reduction in the proportion of part-time workers, as women tended to move to full-time working. In addition, (as in Denmark) there was an increase in the average hours worked by part-timers. Finally, Anxo and Storrie (forthcoming) report a sharp increase in average hours of work of full-time employees at the beginning of the 1990s, owing to reductions in absences from work in the recession, and growing overtime hours in the manufacturing sector. For the United States, part-time working has played little role. The increase in average hours of work is linked to an increase in the average annual hours of work of women, and to a marked increase in overtime hours, both paid and unpaid (BLS, 1999, Hetrick, 2000).

9. Average annual hours can also be decomposed into weekly hours of work and the average number of weeks worked per year — in turn a function of the number of days of public holidays and vacations, and other absences from work. While the number of days of holidays grew quite quickly in Europe up to the beginning of the 1980s, a period which also saw small increases in entitlements in the United States, there has been less change since the mid-1980s. Recently there have been increases in annual holiday entitlements in a number of countries, including Denmark and the Netherlands under collective agreements, and France, as part of the negotiations associated with the introduction of the 35-hour week. However, in general, over recent years, the variation in annual hours has been mainly due to the variation in weekly hours, and this is the topic of the next section.

B. Changes in the distribution of weekly hours of work

10. Chart 2 shows the change in the distribution of usual weekly hours of work for a number of European countries in 1987 and 1999 (these two years occupy roughly similar positions in the cycle — both are years of strong expansion, but neither are “peak” years). Only the figures for men are shown. Those for women display roughly similar patterns, although the numbers working long hours are lower, and there tends to be a bulge in the lower part of the distribution, corresponding to part-time working. It is important to note that these figures are intended to include “usual” overtime working, but to exclude irregular absences from work, such as holidays, temporary short-time working or sickness. The different patterns shown in the chart can be linked, *inter alia*, to differences in the national systems for regulating working time (Anxo and O’Reilly, 1999).

11. In all countries, hours of work are determined by a combination of regulations and collective bargaining. However, it is possible to distinguish three groups of countries, according to whether one or other influence is dominant. France, Portugal and Spain are three countries in which the influence of legislation is particularly strong; in Denmark, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom collective

5. The same general pattern was reported for the 1980s in OECD (1998). The differences in the figures for overall employment growth shown in Tables 1 and 2 are due to three reasons: the fact that Table 1 refers to all in employment while Table 2 refers to employees; the differences in the periods used; and the differences in the sources (see the Annex).

bargaining is considerably more important; in Belgium, Greece, Ireland and the Netherlands, the system is best described as mixed.

12. France shows little change in the distribution of usual hours of work between 1987 and 1999. For both years there is a strong spike at 39 hours. (Similar figures over a longer period show the gradual change in peak hours from 40 hours to 39 hours, following the 1982 legislation.) Prior to the introduction of the 35-hour week legislation, there was little negotiated change in hours of work (Freyssinet, 1997). The spike in Chart 2 corresponds to the legal hours applying to most jobs throughout the economy. The first effects of the 35-hour week are just visible in the chart. More recent data would show a substantial decline in average weekly working hours.⁶ Figures higher than 39 hours correspond to overtime hours, including the substantial number of unpaid overtime hours worked by some professionals and managers (*cadres*).

13. In Portugal, the model of working time organisation and limitation has been until recently highly regulated and undiversified. The duration of working time and the reduction of the working week were defined by legislation. In 1990 the Economic and Social Agreement reduced the legal working hours to 44, as from 1991. The 40-hour week was introduced by law in 1996, to be applied gradually by the end of in 1997, in order to bring the country into line with the 1993 European Council Directive on the organisation of working time (Cristóvam, 1997). The chart shows a sharp peak at 40 hours resulting from the removal of the previous peak in the 45-49 range.

14. In Spain, the tradition of central control is still strong (Martínez Lucio, 1992). However, over recent years increasing numbers of sectoral and company agreements have included provisions for a moderate reduction in working hours. Despite these agreements, changes over recent years in usual hours of work have been very slight, as shown in the chart — there has been merely a small net transfer from work of 40 hours to 38 hours. Part of the reason for this relatively small change is the increase in overtime working in the current recovery (Caprile, 1999)

15. In Germany, by contrast, the law plays a relatively small role in the setting of working hours. The legal hours of work are set far higher than actual hours, which are determined by collective bargaining (Bosch and Stille, 2000). This has led to a reduction in the proportion of employees working 40 hours (though this is still the mode) and an increase in the proportion of employees usually working 38 hours and 35 hours.

16. In Denmark, the regulation of working time is also mainly the responsibility of the social partners. The few legal regulations on working time include minimum regulations on paid vacations (currently 5 weeks per year), rules for maternal leave and schemes designed to redistribute working hours over the life-time, while easing unemployment. These last schemes, which currently comprise leave arrangements for education and parenting, are a particular feature of Danish legislation on working time. The 39-hour week was introduced in Denmark by Parliament in 1985. A 1987 agreement in the metal-working industry, rapidly extended to other sectors, began the process of reduction of working hours to 37 per week. As can be seen in Chart 2, this is now standard in Denmark (Madsen, 1999).

17. In Italy, it is also traditional for collective agreements to take precedence over legislation — the 40-hour threshold was reached between 1972 and 1973 in practice while legislation imposing it was only introduced in 1997. While the government has suggested introducing a law reducing weekly working hours to 35, little progress has been made towards this, in the face of some hostility from both social partners (Trentini, 1998). Usual working hours were virtually unchanged between 1987 and 1999.

6. Regular updates on the effect of the 35-hours legislation in France are provided at <http://www.35h.travail.gouv.fr/>.

18. The United Kingdom is also a country where working hours are not generally determined by legislation. However, in that country, collective bargaining is relatively un-coordinated and Chart 2 shows a distinctive pattern. There is little sign of any peak in the distribution and a substantial proportion of employees reporting usual hours of work of 50 or more per week — despite European legislation, introduced into the United Kingdom in 1998, which limits average weekly working hours to 48 (Fagan, 1999).

19. In Belgium, working hours and work organisation have mainly been negotiated between the social partners, but the government has an important role in confirming, and extending the results. In addition, a wide range of measures for re-arranging and redistributing working hours were introduced by the *Arrête Royal* of 1993. One feature of this has been the career break schemes, which Belgium has pioneered together with Denmark (Meulders *et al.*, 1999). Chart 2 shows little change in the duration of working time over the period. However, following a government proposal, the 35-hour working week is now on the agenda for discussion.

20. Historically, working time has generally been regulated by law in Greece. However, over the last twenty-five years, regulation by collective agreement and arbitration procedures has become widespread. In 1984, the National General Collective Agreement extended the 40-hour week to all employees in the private sector. Since then, there has been little change, though a reduction to 35 hours has been proposed by the trade unions (Soumeli, 1997). Chart 2 shows a relatively strong concentration around 40 hours a week, at both the beginning and the end of the period.

21. The Irish industrial relations system bears some resemblances to the UK system, from which it inherited a number of features. However, there is, by contrast, a well established tradition of seeking corporatist solutions to economic and social problems (von Prondzynski, 1992). The reduction in usual hours of work from 40 to 39 for a substantial part of the working population, evident in Chart 2, is largely a consequence of the Programme for National Recovery of 1987, which was followed by a further national agreement, the Programme for Economic and Social Progress, in 1991.

22. Finally, working hours in the Netherlands are regulated by the “double regulation” system. The “standard rules” laid down by the Working Time Act of 1996 may be modified by “consultation rules”, providing for shorter hours, agreed between the social partners (de Lange, 1999). Between 1987 and 1993, there were few changes in weekly hours, which were 38 hours in many branches and 40 in others, as reflected in the chart. However, between 1994 and 1996, a reduction in working hours to 36 hours took place in a number of branch and enterprise agreements. Higher levels of overtime, in the recent period of strong growth, were the primary reason for the increase in the proportion of workers reporting usual working hours of 40 per week that can be seen in the chart.

23. In summary, it can be seen that it is important to take account of the institutional framework when analysing patterns in working hours, but that the framework is by no means determinant of the patterns. Countries with uniform legal norms tend to show a strong spike in usual hours of work, as might be expected. However, some countries with relatively well-developed and coordinated industrial relations systems also show pronounced spikes. While reductions in hours of work have been seen in all three types of system, one also can find examples of very little change in all three types. Partly owing to the increase in overtime hours in the current recovery, 40 hours a week was still the modal value for usual hours of work reported by men in most European countries in 1999.

C. Preferences for working hours

24. Two key questions for the future development of working hours are the extent to which current and future employed people would prefer reduced hours of work, or part-time working, and the extent to which they might be prepared to trade off part of their earnings (or increases in earnings) in order to reduce their hours.

25. Some indication of the preferences of employees can be obtained from cautious use of opinion poll-type surveys (it must always be remembered that the responses will depend strongly on the exact form of the question that is used). An international survey carried out in 1994 and reported in European Commission (1995), showed that, on average for the 12 countries of the then European Community, 38% of employees said they would prefer a reduction in working hours to an increase in pay (56% indicated a preference for more pay, while 6% gave no opinion).⁷ A comparison of this survey with an earlier survey of the same type showed a small movement in favour of a reduction in working hours in most countries between 1985 and 1994. Overall, these results are in marked contrast to the United States, where the proportion opting for lower hours as opposed to higher pay is much smaller, and appears to have fallen over recent years (Bell and Freeman, 1994).⁸

26. The same set of European surveys indicated a substantial interest in part-time working. On average for the same 12 countries, 31% of part-time workers said they would prefer full-time work, while 12% of full-time workers indicated a preference for part-time working. Bearing in mind that part-time workers represent only about 15% of total employment, the number of full-time workers saying that they would prefer to work part-time was thus around twice as many as the number of part-time workers wishing to work full-time. Part-time working was preferred by women to a much greater degree than men (only 9% of male full-timers said they would prefer part-time work) and there was a strong tendency for it to be more popular in countries where it is relatively well-developed (notably the Netherlands).

27. For the European Union, the 1998 *Employment Options of the Future* survey, organised by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, confirms the impression of substantial interest both in shorter hours of work and in increased levels of part-time working. It also indicates that, within part-time working, the main interest is in part-time working of fairly substantial numbers of hours — in the 20-25 hours a week range. The effect of employment patterns moving to the expressed preferences would be that both very long, and very short working hours would be less common (Atkinson, 1999). Many currently non-employed women express a preference for paid work, and the number of women working would increase considerably if their preferences were to be realised. Their entry into the labour market would mainly increase the numbers of couples with one or both partners working part-time, for two reasons. First, the bulk of labour market re-entrants prefer part-time working and, second, some full-time workers also prefer part-time. If preferences were realised, the number of couples with both partners working full-time would remain roughly at current levels (Bielenski and Kappinen, 1999).

7. The question used was as follows, "If the choice were offered in the next pay round between an increase in pay for the same hours of work and shorter working time for the same pay you get now, which would you prefer?" Respondents were asked to respond, "increase in pay", or "shorter working time".

8. This does not mean that US workers are happy to work long hours. When no reference is made to the trade-off with earnings, ISSP data indicate that a somewhat higher percentage of US workers than European workers wished to reduce their hours of work (Clarke, 1998).

II. KEY CHARACTERISTICS OF PART-TIME WORKING

28. While the preferences expressed in opinion surveys may not be realised in practice, it is certainly true that half the new jobs created in Europe over the decade from 1987 to 1997 were part-time jobs. They also represented the bulk of the increase in employment growth in Japan (in the United States, however, the share in part-time employment fell slightly). For the OECD area as a whole, part-time employment increased its share of total employment by around two percentage points — three percentage points in the European Union. The highest proportion of part-time employment in total civilian employment is now seen in the Netherlands, at just over 30% in 1999 (see Table 3, which is based on a definition of part-time workers as those who usually work under 30 hours a week in their main job). This section reviews evidence about the stability, earnings, training and job satisfaction of part-time workers.

29. Part-time workers tend to have lower average levels of **tenure** than full-timers. In most OECD countries in Europe, the bulk of part-time workers have been in their jobs for under 5 years, while the reverse is true for full-time workers. In addition, part-time workers are more likely to say that their jobs are temporary. On average, in EU Member States in 1997, 34% of male and 18% of female part-time workers said they were in temporary positions, as against 7 and 10% for full-time workers, respectively.⁹

30. Estimates of **hourly earnings** of part- and full-time workers, taken from the European Structure of Earnings Survey, are shown in Table 4.¹⁰ The median hourly earnings for part-time workers lie between 54 and 89% of those of full-time workers, according to the country. The shortfall is almost always larger for men than for women.

31. For both men and women, a substantial portion of this pay gap can be attributed to the types of jobs that part- and full-time workers tend to do, as opposed to being simply due to part-time workers being paid less than full-timers for each hour of the same type of work. For example, a disproportionately high share of part-time workers work in the wholesale and retail trade sector, where earnings tend to be relatively low for both full-time and part-time workers. Part-time workers also tend to be concentrated in relatively low-paid occupational groups, such as service and sales occupations, clerical occupations and elementary occupations.

32. However, even after controlling for sector and occupation, significant differences in hourly earnings remain. For example, in the European Union there is a notable gap between part- and full-time working in the real estate, renting and business activities sector. In that sector, part-time women workers tend to earn under three-quarters of the hourly pay of their full-time counterparts, and part-time men workers two-thirds less than their counterparts.

33. Progress has been made in upgrading the **non-wage benefits** of part-time workers. In Europe they are now generally equal to those of full-timers, on a pro-rata basis. However, there are exceptions. In some European countries, work under specific hours thresholds is much less well covered. For example, public health, old-age pension, and unemployment benefits in Germany, Ireland and Sweden have hours or earnings minima for eligibility. The same applies to Japan (Kezuka, 2000). In the United States, where part-time work is less common than in most European countries, comparatively few benefits are offered.

9. This average excludes Greece, Luxembourg, Spain and Portugal.

10. The Structure of Earnings Survey has the advantage that it was carried out on a roughly similar basis for a number of European countries. However, it excludes establishments with under 10 employees, and this may bias the results.

34. In general, part-time workers might be expected to receive less **training** than full-timers. Training tends to be positively associated with tenure, with firm size and with the educational qualifications of the individual — all of which are lower, on average, for part-timers. In addition, from the employer's point of view, training a part-time worker takes just as long as training a full-time worker, but fewer hours are left from which the investment can be recouped. Ideally, the difference needs to be measured using data for specific age ranges and types of training. Young people often work part-time to free up time to use in further education and training outside the workplace, but this training may not be related to advancement in the person's current field of employment. Focussing on adult workers avoids this effect. In order to be more relevant for analyses of the quality of the job, the training concerned should be only that paid for or provided by the employer, rather than by the employee. Finally, it is logical to exclude initial training, which is more likely to be received by less stable workers, including part-time workers, but may have little long-term job content.

35. Data on the incidence of training can be drawn from the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS), co-ordinated by the OECD and Statistics Canada (1995), and the EULFS (European Union Labour Force Survey). Both provide data disaggregated by age group. In addition, the IALS allows the identification of career and job-related training, as opposed to initial training. It uses a broad definition that covers adult education and training delivered through courses, private lessons, workshops, on-the-job training and other forms of structured learning taken during the 12 months preceding the survey. The EULFS measures "specific vocational training in a working environment" paid for or provided by the person's employer, received during the four weeks preceding the survey, and relevant for the current or possible future job of the respondent (see EUROSTAT, 1996). Courses for personal interests, hobbies or general application (*e.g.* driving lessons) and "dual system" and apprenticeship-type training are excluded.

36. The IALS data show that part-time workers tend to experience a lower incidence of career or job-related training (excluding initial training) provided by employers than full-timers in virtually all of the countries and regions covered, including six European countries (Table 5).¹¹ A detailed examination of the results with respect to educational attainment (not shown) reveals little tendency for the gap between the incidence of for part- and full-time workers to be narrower for those with higher levels of education attainment.

37. A similar pattern can be found in the EULFS data, covering 11 countries.¹² In nine of them, women part-timers were found to experience training incidences that were more than 25% lower than those for women full-timers. These data also allow an analysis controlling for the effects of a number of relevant variables: age, education, job tenure, establishment size and broad industrial sector. However, even when this was done, the differences remained substantial.

38. The lower earnings and training of part-time working would be a less significant handicap were they to represent only a temporary phase in working life. However, in most countries this seldom appears to be the case, on the basis of the available information about **transitions from part-time to full-time working**.

- For the Netherlands and Germany, there appears to be little flow out of part-time working to full-time working. For women in the Netherlands, Dekker *et al.* (1999) find part-time employment is almost as stable as full-time employment. For Germany, Bothfeld and

11. Canada is the sole exception. However, the result for Canadian part timers is associated with a high level of error and is contradicted by national studies.

12. The countries covered are Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

O'Reilly (1999) also find little movement out of part-time working, with almost no movement into full-time working.

- For Spain, Smith *et al.* (1999) find evidence for high rates of movement into and out of part-time working, but longer part-time job tenure seemed to decrease the probability of entering a full-time job. Part-time working thus seems to be largely associated with marginal work.
- In the United States, a particularly high proportion of the part-time workforce are younger and older workers. Part-time working is mainly used as a source of short-term jobs during education and the transition to retirement and movements from part-time working into full-time working are rare (Blank, 1994).
- For France and the United Kingdom, there is evidence of a small amount of movement out of involuntary part-time working into full-time employment and voluntary part-time working. For France, Galtier (1998) follows women part-timers who, in 1994, said they would prefer longer hours. Two years later just under a quarter had moved into full-time work and slightly under another quarter were still working part-time but were now satisfied with their hours. For the United Kingdom, Smith *et al.* (1999) find that only 16 percent of those part-time women workers who said they would prefer full-time working when surveyed in 1995 had moved into full-time working a year later.
- For Sweden, the use of part-time working as an interlude in a full-time career, involving transitions first from full-time working to part-time and then back again to full-time, is a common way for women to combine market work with family responsibilities (Anxo *et al.*, 1999).

39. For these countries, it appears that only in Sweden are transitions from part-time to full-time working at all common. This is no doubt linked to the fact that, in Sweden such transitions are facilitated by legal provisions and collective agreements covering mothers of young children. Similar, but more extensive legislation has just been passed in the Netherlands, allowing all employees in establishments with more than 10 workers to request a reduction or increase in working hours, provided this possibility is not ruled out by a collective agreement. The employer's right to refuse such a request is limited (Wierink, 2000). Roughly similar legislation is currently under discussion in Germany (EIRR, 2000). It would allow full-time employees the right to move to part-time work, unless the employer showed this would result in severe operating difficulties, and ease transitions from part-time to full-time working. The possibility of making such changes in working hours may be allowed for in the legislation of other countries, for example, France, though in practice employers may be free to refuse, or even ignore, an employee's request (Cette, 1999).

40. Finally, regarding the **job satisfaction** of part-time employees, Table 6, derived by the authors from an analysis of the Second European Survey on Working Conditions (European Foundation, 1997) shows that a great deal depends on gender. On average, women tend to be more satisfied with part-time jobs, and jobs of shorter hours, while for men the reverse tends to be true. Of course, these simple averages hide many cases of male employees who are highly satisfied with short hours of work and women with longer hours. However, they are consistent with the preferences data set out above.

III. “FLEXIBLE WORKING ARRANGEMENTS”

41. Increases in part-time working cannot be taken to be synonymous with an increase in “flexible working”, in the sense of working hours arrangements which allow employers to match labour input more closely with production needs. It is true that part-time jobs may be fitted together with other part-time jobs and with full-time jobs to produce a wide variety of combinations of working hours. However, some forms of part-time working most highly valued by employees, such as part-time working designed to fit in with schooling arrangements, are inherently inflexible.

42. Over recent years, there have been widespread moves to increase the flexibility of full-time working, often in the context of reductions in hours of work. While recourse to overtime working continues to be an important source of flexibility in some countries, as noted above, there has been a stronger emphasis on other arrangements, which allow a more flexible matching of labour inputs and requirements over the day, the week, and the year. For example, shift working, in which workers follow each other in the same job, allows better matching of labour over the day and the week, as does evening work, night work and weekend work. By this means, capital operating time may be increased well beyond weekly working hours. The “modulation” of working hours, which involves scheduling different working time regimes over different weeks, helps working hours to be adjusted over longer periods than a week, often a year (indeed some recent agreements effectively allow working hours to be varied from year to year). This has the advantage, for employers, of reducing average hourly labour costs by the elimination of some or all overtime payments. Whether or not these flexible working arrangements are likely to be attractive to employees is a difficult question (see Evans, 2001, for a discussion of flexible working arrangements from the point of view of families).

43. There is only limited statistical evidence about the extent to which these forms of flexible working have been developing over recent years. However, where evidence is available, it tends to confirm that there have been increases — though their magnitude should not be exaggerated.

44. For **shift-working**, indicators for a number of countries suggest some growth after the end of the 1980s, particularly in the manufacturing sector (OECD, 1998). This finding is corroborated by the results of two international employer surveys carried out in Europe; the 1994 *ad hoc* labour market survey carried out for Member States of the European Union by the European Commission (1995), and the Cranet-E survey carried out by the Cranfield School of Management (1996). In particular, the Cranet-E study suggests that around 20% of large firms had intensified their use of shift-working in the three years up to 1995, while only 6% used it less.

45. In addition, data on shift working are now provided by the annual EULFS (Table 7). They show some increase in shift working since 1992. On average, for the 9 countries for which data are available, there was an increase from 9% to 12% in the proportion of the employed population saying that they “usually” engaged in shift-working over the period 1992 to 1998. However, as this period was often one of economic recovery, part of this may be due to cyclical effects.

46. Shift working is often linked to what is sometimes called “**unsocial hours working**”, *i.e.* evening, night, Saturday and Sunday working. Data from the EULFS suggest a noticeable increase in the incidence of evening working, comparable to that in shift-working, over the 1990s. There was also a widespread increase in the proportion of employed people saying that they worked nights and at weekends, but its magnitude was very small.

47. The **annualisation** of working time is nothing new for managerial and professional workers, who are effectively paid by the year, and often expected to vary their working time in line with the demands

placed upon them. However, over recent years there is evidence of an increased use of annualisation among hourly paid workers as well. The Cranet-E survey of employers mentioned above suggests that, in 1995, among large European enterprises, 10% had made greater use of annualisation in the three years up to the survey, as opposed to only 3% who had made less use. Around 60% of the firms surveyed said they did not use it. Relatively large increases in the incidence of annualisation were seen in firms in Finland, Germany, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

48. Finally, in some countries there has been interest in the spread of what is variously called “**on-call**” working, or “**zero-hours contracts**”, in which employees work only when called upon to do so by the employer, and are paid only when they are working. While this clearly offers a very high degree of flexibility, no statistical information on its prevalence appears to be available, at least at the international level.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

49. In recent years, the decline in average annual hours of work per person in employment has slowed, in most countries. What continuing decreases have occurred have been mainly due to three factors: negotiated reductions in hours of work of full-timers (particularly in countries where collective bargaining has been relatively vigorous); changes in the legal working week, and increases in the share of part-time working. The change to a 40-hour week in Japan and Portugal has produced substantial falls in average working hours. The change to the 35-hour week in France seems well set to do the same. The situations in these countries are not equivalent. Japan had, and still has, among the longest average hours in the OECD area and those in Portugal have traditionally been relatively long. On the other hand, those in France were roughly at the average before the introduction of the 35-hour week (Evans and Marianna, 1999). The reductions in Japan and Portugal, unlike that in France were not accompanied by government grants, and there was no explicit expectation that they would raise the numbers of people in employment.

50. Part-time working has been both a source of reduction in average working hours and also an important source of job growth in Japan and many European countries — though not in the United States. Attitude data suggest that, were employees to have a free choice, and were these choices to be realised, the net effect would be that part-time working would be more common in the future — though very short hours part-time working is not favoured. However, the other side of the coin is that part-time jobs are associated with lower earnings and training levels than full-time jobs. A high proportion of part-time jobs might thus lead to lower levels of human capital over the longer term, especially as, in most countries, transitions from part-time to full-time jobs are comparatively uncommon.

51. The flexibility of working hours, in the sense of working hours arrangements which allow employers to match labour input more easily with the needs of production, is increased by some, though not all forms of part-time working. In addition, there has been an increase in the flexibility of full-time working, over and above that represented by overtime working, through a number of arrangements, including shift-working, evening, night and weekend working, and the modulation and annualisation of working time. However, while there is good evidence that these arrangements have become more common in most OECD countries, there is little that would suggest that they are, as yet, very widespread.

ANNEX

DEFINITIONS AND DATA SOURCES FOR HOURS OF WORK

For economic analyses, the most suitable definition of hours of work is **actual hours** of work in productive activities, whether paid or unpaid (it thus includes unpaid overtime hours worked by professionals). Economy-wide data, on this basis, is generally built up from a number of sources, using either an establishment survey or a household survey as the basic source, and adding information from other sources to make up for its deficiencies (for example, establishment surveys are unable to account for the fact that an increasing number of people are working in more than one job, and are also unable to capture unpaid overtime).

The data on actual hours used in Chart 1, and in Table A.1 below, have been taken from national sources generally designed to provide an input into estimates of trends in hourly productivity. As they are based on different primary sources, they are unsuitable for precise international comparisons of levels. For example, where unpaid overtime is important, figures obtained from household surveys may tend to provide higher estimates than figures from establishment surveys, which are generally unable to capture unpaid overtime. (While there have been some suggestions that household surveys might overstate actual hours of work, Jacobs, 1998, reports that recent investigations in the United States have shown support for estimates based on the main household survey, the Current Population Survey.) As the primary source used for the Japanese data is an establishment survey, while that for the United States is a household survey, this implies that we cannot be sure that the level of hours for Japan is now lower than that for the United States. Indeed, calculations by the authors (available on request) on the basis of the Japanese household survey suggest that the level of average annual hours in Japan is still slightly above that in the United States. Both appear to be much lower than average hours in Korea, which are around 2 400 hours on the basis of the household survey (see Yoon, 1999 for a discussion of these figures).

For many analyses, it is more convenient to use **usual hours** of work, obtained by household survey questions asking people to state their usual hours. This is important so that statistics are not unduly influenced by unusual or irregular events — such as a short period of overtime working, or short-hours working, holidays and sicknesses. This type of data comes only from household surveys. The figures presented here are derived from the European Labour Force Survey, which is a collection of national surveys harmonised over the years through the efforts of Eurostat, who process the results centrally.

These concepts are to be distinguished from a number of others that are often found in the literature. For example, in France, there is the concept of **legal hours**, fixed by the law, which fixes the level of hours beyond which overtime premia become payable. A related concept, used in countries where hours of work are generally the subject of collective agreements, is that of **normal hours**, laid down in the work contract, beyond which overtime premia are generally payable. Statistics on this basis come from employers and from records of agreements between the social partners.

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Table 1. Trends in average annual hours worked per person in employment

Average change, in numbers of hours, from year to year

| | Cycle ^a | Average change per year | Cycle ^a | Average change per year | Cycle ^a | Average change per year |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| Canada | 1975-82 | -12.2 | 1982-91 | -1.8 | 1991-97 | 1.2 |
| France | 1975-85 | -17.5 | 1985-93 | -5.4 | 1993-98 | -7.6 |
| Italy ^b | 1975-83 | -9.3 | 1983-93 | -3.7 | 1993-99 | .. |
| Japan | 1975-83 | -2.1 | 1983-94 | -17.9 | 1994-98 | -14.0 |
| Netherlands ^b | 1975-83 | -12.1 | 1983-94 | -12.9 | 1994-99 | -9.0 |
| Norway | 1978-83 | -10.4 | 1983-91 | -7.2 | 1991-99 | -4.0 |
| Spain | 1975-84 | .. | 1984-93 | -5.6 | 1993-99 | 1.9 |
| Sweden | 1978-83 | -1.9 | 1983-93 | 5.0 | 1993-99 | 11.1 |
| United Kingdom | 1975-82 | -21.8 | 1982-92 | 0.2 | 1992-99 | -1.3 |
| United States | 1975-82 | -3.9 | 1982-91 | 8.2 | 1991-99 | 5.0 |
| western Germany | 1975-82 | -10.0 | 1982-93 | -13.9 | 1993-99 | -3.9 |

.. Data not available

a) The cycles shown run from one major trough to the next.

The interpretation of the table is as follows: in France, the annual duration of work dropped by $(17.5 \times 10) = 175$ hours between 1975 and 1985, while it dropped by $(5.4 \times 8) = 43.2$ hours between 1985 and 1993.

b) The data are for employees only.

Source : OECD database on annual hours of work.

Table 2. Contribution of part-time employment to recent changes in average annual hours of employees, 1989-1999

Average change in hours from year to year, over the ten-year period

| | Overall change in hours | Change attributable to: | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| | | Change in hours of full-timers | Change in hours of part-timers | Change in the share of part-timers |
| Belgium (1989-1998) ^a | -6.5 | -1.4 | 0.4 | -5.1 |
| Denmark | 5.3 | 2.2 | 0.8 | 2.3 |
| France | -7.8 | -3.4 | 0.2 | -4.4 |
| Germany (1991-1999) | -8.7 | -2.7 | -1.7 | -4.4 |
| Greece | 5.3 | 6.3 | 0.1 | -1.0 |
| Ireland | -11.0 | -0.8 | 0.0 | -9.7 |
| Italy | -3.0 | -1.3 | 0.3 | -2.1 |
| Luxembourg | -5.7 | -1.7 | -0.7 | -2.9 |
| Netherlands | -14.5 | -6.9 | -0.2 | -7.7 |
| Portugal | -6.5 | -5.3 | 0.3 | -1.6 |
| Spain | -3.6 | 0.3 | 0.1 | -4.0 |
| United Kingdom | -2.3 | -0.2 | 0.8 | -2.8 |

Notes: The estimates of annual hours of work in this table are based mainly on the European Labour Force Survey (EULFS). This is the primary source for a number of components of annual working time: weekly hours usually worked in the main job; extra hours worked in the main job; weekly hours actually worked in an additional job; and hours lost due to total and partial absences during the survey reference week, for reasons other than annual leave and public holidays. Based on comparisons with other sources of information, a special adjustment was made in respect of time lost due to illness and maternity, by doubling the relevant estimates given by the EULFS. The survey results were supplemented by data on hours not worked due to annual vacations and public holidays. For years up to 1992, this information was that supplied by EU Member States to Eurostat. For the years 1992 onwards, the data have been adjusted for any changes in holidays for Belgium, Germany and Spain.

As it has not yet been possible to incorporate information for the other countries, the data should be regarded as provisional. However, on the assumption that vacation trends are similar for part-time and full-time workers, the relative contribution of the two types of working should be unaffected.

The overall change in hours is decomposed into the sum of the values in the right three columns, plus an interaction term, which is always small and not reported here, using a simple shift-share analysis, explained in Table 5.2 of OECD Employment Outlook, 1998.

a) Data refer to 1989-1998, owing to a break in series between 1998 and 1999.

Source: Calculations by the authors on the basis of the OECD database on hours worked.

Table 3. **Part-time employment as a proportion of total employment^a, 1990-1999**
Percentages

| | 1990 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 |
|-----------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Australia ^{b,c} | 22.6 | 25.2 | 26.0 | 25.9 | 26.1 |
| Canada | 17.0 | 18.9 | 19.1 | 18.9 | 18.5 |
| Czech Republic | .. | 3.4 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 3.4 |
| Finland ^b | 7.5 | 8.4 | 9.4 | 9.6 | 9.9 |
| France | 12.2 | 14.3 | 14.9 | 14.8 | 14.7 |
| Germany | 13.4 | 14.9 | 15.8 | 16.6 | 17.1 |
| Iceland ^d | 22.2 | 20.9 | 22.4 | 23.2 | 21.2 |
| Ireland | 9.8 | 14.1 | 15.2 | 18.0 | 18.3 |
| Italy | 8.8 | 10.5 | 11.3 | 11.2 | 11.8 |
| Japan ^{b,e} | 19.2 | 21.8 | 23.3 | 23.6 | 24.1 |
| Korea ^b | 4.5 | 4.4 | 5.1 | 6.8 | 7.8 |
| Mexico | .. | 14.9 | 15.9 | 15.0 | 13.8 |
| Netherlands | 28.2 | 29.3 | 29.1 | 30.0 | 30.4 |
| New Zealand | 19.6 | 22.0 | 22.4 | 22.8 | 23.0 |
| Norway | 21.8 | 21.6 | 21.0 | 20.8 | 20.7 |
| Portugal | 6.8 | 9.2 | 10.2 | 9.9 | 9.3 |
| Spain | 4.6 | 7.5 | 7.9 | 7.7 | 7.9 |
| Sweden | 14.5 | 14.8 | 14.2 | 13.5 | 14.5 |
| Switzerland ^c | 22.1 | 23.7 | 24.0 | 24.2 | 24.8 |
| United Kingdom | 20.1 | 22.9 | 22.9 | 23.0 | 23.0 |
| United States ^f | 13.8 | 14.0 | 13.6 | 13.4 | 13.3 |
| European Union ^g | 13.3 | 15.2 | 15.7 | 15.9 | 16.4 |
| OECD Europe ^g | 13.2 | 13.8 | 14.1 | 14.3 | 15.0 |
| Total OECD ^g | 14.3 | 15.1 | 15.4 | 15.5 | 15.8 |

a) Part-time employment refers to persons who usually work less than 30 hours a week in their main job. Data include only persons declaring usual hours.

b) Data are based on actual hours worked.

c) Part-time employment based on hours worked in all jobs.

d) 1991 instead of 1990.

e) Less than 35 hours per week.

f) Estimates are for wage and salary workers only.

g) For above countries only.

Source: Table E, Statistical Annex, OECD *Employment Outlook*, 2000.

Table 4. Median hourly earnings of part-time workers, by gender, 1995
 Percentage of median hourly earnings of full-time workers

| | Men | Women | Both sexes |
|----------------------------|------|-------|------------|
| Australia ^a | .. | .. | 89.4 |
| Belgium | 74.7 | 86.8 | 78.4 |
| Canada ^a | 46.9 | 69.8 | 55.9 |
| France ^b | 73.2 | 81.7 | 73.0 |
| Germany | 78.4 | 87.5 | 82.5 |
| Italy | 83.1 | 103.0 | 87.4 |
| Netherlands | 69.8 | 93.1 | 73.2 |
| Spain | 66.4 | 84.0 | 67.8 |
| Sweden | 88.7 | 92.3 | 87.2 |
| United Kingdom | 54.2 | 69.6 | 58.0 |
| United States ^c | 44.0 | 62.5 | 54.3 |
| Unweighted average | 67.9 | 83.0 | 73.4 |

.. Data not available.

a) 1997.

b) 1994.

c) 1996.

Sources: *Australia:* ABS, *Weekly Earnings of Employees*, August 1997;
Canada: Statistics Canada, *Labour Force Survey*, 1997;
European Union: EUROSTAT, *Structure of Earnings Survey, 1995*;
United States: OECD Secretariat calculations using the 1996 US Bureau of Labor
 Statistics Current Population Survey annual earnings file (outgoing rotation groups).

Table 5. Incidence of career or job-related training for part-time and full-time workers, by gender, 1994

(Percentage of wage earners and salaried employees aged 25 to 54 years)

| | Men | | Women | | Both sexes | |
|---------------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| | Part-time | Full-time | Part-time | Full-time | Part-time | Full-time |
| Belgium (Flanders) | - | 22 | 14 | 20 | 13 | 22 |
| Canada | - | 39 | 43 * | 34 | 42 * | 37 |
| Germany | - | 19 | 17 * | 25 | 17 * | 21 |
| Ireland | - | 22 | 16 * | 34 | 18 * | 26 |
| Netherlands | 33 * | 39 | 23 | 36 | 24 | 38 |
| New Zealand | 46 * | 48 | 36 | 59 | 37 | 52 |
| Switzerland (French) | - | 32 | 28 | 25 | 28 | 30 |
| Switzerland (German) | - | 35 | 31 * | 36 | 30 * | 35 |
| United Kingdom | - | 58 | 46 | 69 | 45 | 62 |
| United States | - | 49 | 41 | 51 | 41 | 50 |
| Unweighted average ^a | 40 | 44 | 29 | 39 | 30 | 37 |

.. Data not available.

- Not significant: sample size less than 30, or very high levels of error associated with the estimate (coefficient of variation in excess of 33.3 per cent).

* High levels of error associated with the estimate (coefficient of variation in the range 16.6 to 33.3 per cent).

a) Includes only countries where data are available for both part-time and full-time.

Source: *International Adult Literacy Survey*, 1994-95.

Table 6. Job satisfaction by hours of work, employees, European Union, 1995/6
(percentages)

| | | Usual hours of work per week in main job | | | | |
|-------|----------------------|--|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | | 10 - 19 hours | 20 - 29 hours | 30 - 39 hours | 40 - 44 hours | 45 - 59 hours |
| Men | Very satisfied | (29) | 26 | 27 | 28 | 35 |
| | Fairly satisfied | (51) | 47 | 57 | 58 | 50 |
| | Not very satisfied | (11) | 24 | 12 | 11 | 11 |
| | Not at all satisfied | (9) | 3 | 4 | 2 | 3 |
| Women | Very satisfied | 36 | 36 | 32 | 29 | (28) |
| | Fairly satisfied | 52 | 52 | 51 | 54 | (62) |
| | Not very satisfied | 8 | 10 | 11 | 12 | (7) |
| | Not at all satisfied | 3 | 2 | 5 | 4 | (2) |

Notes: The question used was, "One the whole are you satisfied, fairly satisfied, not very satisfied, or not at all satisfied with your main job?"
 Figures in brackets are based on small sample sizes.
 Columns do not always add to 100% because of the small proportion of employees responding, "don't know".
 The figures exclude the agricultural sector.

Source: Authors' calculations, based on the *Second European Survey on Working Conditions*

Table 7. Shift and "unsocial hours" working, European Union, 1992 and 1998

(percentages of persons in employment)

| | Persons reporting "usually working": | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------|---------|------|-------|------|----------|------|--------|------|
| | Shift | | Evening | | Night | | Saturday | | Sunday | |
| | 1992 | 1998 | 1992 | 1998 | 1992 | 1998 | 1992 | 1998 | 1992 | 1998 |
| Austria | .. | 15.3 | .. | 14.1 | .. | 8.7 | .. | 26.1 | .. | 15.1 |
| Belgium | 13.1 | 16.5 | 11.7 | 12.6 | 4.9 | 5.2 | 16.9 | 18.8 | 8.7 | 9.6 |
| Denmark | 7.7 | 7.9 | 17.7 | 19.9 | 7.9 | 8.0 | 26.1 | 26.4 | 19.4 | 20.0 |
| Finland | .. | 24.5 | .. | 26.8 | .. | 9.8 | .. | 27.1 | .. | 18.6 |
| France | 7.3 | 9.0 | .. | 8.4 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 26.2 | 23.9 | 8.8 | 8.4 |
| Germany | 10.0 | .. | 14.9 | .. | 7.2 | .. | 20.4 | .. | 10.0 | .. |
| Greece | 7.3 | 13.3 | 29.2 | 29.0 | 4.4 | 4.1 | 41.9 | 43.0 | 13.8 | 14.3 |
| Ireland | 9.5 | .. | 11.0 | .. | 5.2 | .. | 32.0 | .. | 18.4 | .. |
| Italy | 13.3 | 18.6 | 10.7 | 13.2 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 39.2 | 39.6 | 7.7 | 8.4 |
| Netherlands | 7.6 | 9.0 | 7.8 | 17.4 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 26.5 | 28.3 | 14.0 | 15.5 |
| Portugal | 6.5 | 7.9 | 0.7 | .. | .. | 9.3 | 28.1 | 29.5 | 12.3 | 12.0 |
| Spain | 4.7 | 7.4 | .. | .. | 4.3 | 4.4 | 39.5 | 36.3 | 14.1 | 14.8 |
| Sweden | .. | 25.2 | .. | 22.1 | .. | 7.5 | .. | 19.5 | .. | 17.1 |
| United Kingdom | 11.8 | 16.1 | 14.9 | 17.6 | 5.7 | 6.3 | 24.2 | 25.2 | 11.5 | 13.3 |
| Unweighted average ^a | 8.8 | 11.7 | 15.4 | 17.5 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 28.7 | 29.0 | 12.3 | 12.9 |

a) Calculated only for countries with data for both 1992 and 1998.

.. Data not available

Source: *European Labour Force Survey Results*: Tables 61 and 63 of 1992 edition and Table 42 of 1998 edition.

Table A.1. Average annual hours actually worked per person in employment ^a

| | 1979 | 1983 | 1990 | 1995 | 1996 | 1997 | 1998 | 1999 |
|-----------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Total employment | | | | | | | | |
| Australia | 1904 | 1852 | 1869 | 1876 | 1867 | 1866 | 1860 | 1864 |
| Canada | 1836 | 1783 | 1790 | 1780 | 1787 | 1777 | .. | .. |
| Czech Republic | .. | .. | .. | 2064 | 2066 | 2067 | 2075 | 2088 |
| Finland ^b | .. | 1809 | 1763 | 1772 | 1789 | 1780 | 1761 | 1765 |
| Finland ^c | 1837 | 1787 | 1728 | 1730 | 1737 | 1730 | 1727 | .. |
| France | 1806 | 1712 | 1637 | 1614 | 1608 | 1605 | 1604 | .. |
| Germany | .. | .. | 1616 | 1557 | 1545 | 1546 | 1554 | 1556 |
| Western Germany | 1745 | 1705 | 1593 | 1534 | 1523 | 1524 | 1531 | 1535 |
| Iceland | .. | .. | .. | 1832 | 1860 | 1839 | 1817 | 1873 |
| Italy | 1722 | 1699 | 1674 | 1635 | 1636 | 1640 | 1648 | .. |
| Japan | 2126 | 2095 | 2031 | 1884 | 1892 | 1864 | 1842 | .. |
| Korea | .. | 2734 | 2514 | 2484 | 2467 | 2436 | 2390 | 2497 |
| Mexico | .. | .. | .. | 1883 | 1901 | 1927 | 1878 | 1921 |
| New Zealand | .. | .. | 1820 | 1843 | 1838 | 1823 | 1825 | 1842 |
| Norway | 1514 | 1485 | 1432 | 1414 | 1407 | 1399 | 1399 | 1395 |
| Spain | 2022 | 1912 | 1824 | 1814 | 1810 | 1812 | 1833 | 1827 |
| Sweden | 1516 | 1518 | 1546 | 1613 | 1623 | 1625 | 1628 | 1634 |
| Switzerland | .. | .. | .. | 1636 | 1585 | 1579 | 1579 | .. |
| United Kingdom | 1815 | 1713 | 1767 | 1740 | 1738 | 1736 | 1731 | 1720 |
| United States | 1905 | 1882 | 1943 | 1952 | 1951 | 1966 | 1955 | 1976 |
| Dependent employment | | | | | | | | |
| Canada | 1803 | 1763 | 1774 | 1773 | 1781 | 1777 | 1767 | .. |
| Czech Republic | .. | .. | .. | 1987 | 1987 | 1989 | 1995 | 2014 |
| Finland ^b | .. | .. | 1666 | 1672 | 1690 | 1687 | 1672 | 1673 |
| France | 1669 | 1570 | 1543 | 1510 | 1502 | 1502 | 1500 | .. |
| Germany | .. | .. | 1555 | 1485 | 1469 | 1467 | 1475 | 1478 |
| Western Germany | 1657 | 1644 | 1519 | 1457 | 1442 | 1441 | 1450 | 1454 |
| Hungary | .. | 1829 | 1710 | 1765 | 1777 | 1786 | 1788 | 1795 |
| Iceland | .. | .. | .. | 1776 | 1799 | 1790 | 1762 | 1810 |
| Italy | .. | 1626 | 1599 | 1579 | 1577 | 1577 | 1575 | .. |
| Japan ^d | 2114 | 2098 | 2052 | 1909 | 1919 | 1900 | 1879 | 1842 |
| Japan ^e | .. | .. | 2064 | 1910 | 1919 | 1891 | 1871 | 1840 |
| Mexico | .. | .. | .. | 1933 | 2006 | 1978 | 1942 | 1976 |
| Netherlands | 1591 | 1530 | 1433 | 1384 | 1374 | 1365 | .. | .. |
| Spain | 1936 | 1837 | 1762 | 1749 | 1747 | 1748 | 1765 | 1761 |
| United Kingdom | 1730 | 1652 | 1704 | 1698 | 1699 | 1701 | 1703 | 1696 |
| United States | 1884 | 1866 | 1936 | 1953 | 1949 | 1966 | 1957 | 1974 |

.. Indicates break in series.

- a) The concept used is the total number of hours worked over the year divided by the average numbers of people in employment. The data are intended for comparisons of trends over time; they are unsuitable for comparisons of the level of average annual hours of work for a given year, because of differences in their sources. Part-time workers are covered as well as full-time.
- b) Data estimated from the Labour Force Survey.
- c) Data estimated from national accounts.
- d) Data refer to establishments with 30 or more regular employees.
- e) Data refer to establishments with 5 or more regular employees.

Sources and definitions:

This is a reproduction of Table F of the Statistical Annex of the OECD *Employment Outlook*, 2000.

Australia: Data supplied by the Australian Bureau of Statistics from the Labour Force Survey. Annual hours are adjusted to take account of public holidays occurring during the reporting period. The method of estimation is consistent with the national accounts.

Canada: Data series supplied by Statistics Canada, based mainly on the monthly Labour Force Survey supplemented by the Survey of Employment Payrolls and Hours, the annual Survey of Manufacturers and the Census of Mining.

Czech Republic: Data supplied by the Czech Statistical Office and based on the quarterly Labour Force Sample Survey. Main meal breaks (one half hour a day) are included.

Finland: Data supplied by Statistics Finland. National accounts series based on an establishment survey for manufacturing, and the Labour Force Survey for other sectors and for the self-employed. Alternative series based solely on the Labour Force Survey.

France: New data series supplied by the Institut National de la Statistique et des Études Économiques (INSEE), produced within the framework

of the national accounts.

Germany and western Germany: New data series from 1991 are supplied by the Institut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung, calculated within a comprehensive accounting structure, based on establishment survey estimates of weekly hours worked by full-time workers whose hours are not affected by absence, and extended to annual estimates of actual hours by adjusting for a wide range of factors, including public holidays, sickness absence, overtime working, short-time working, bad weather, strikes, part-time working and parental leave. Data prior to 1991 are estimated by applying new to old annual hours of work estimates for 1991 to the old series.

Iceland: Data are provided by Statistics Iceland and are based on the Icelandic Labor Force Survey. Annual actual hours worked per person in employment are computed by multiplying daily actual hours worked by annual actual working days net of public holidays and annual vacations. The latter are for a typical work contract by sector of activity.

Italy: Data are Secretariat estimates based on the European Labour Force Survey for 1983 to 1998. From 1960 to 1982, trend in data is taken from the series provided by ISTAT and based on a special establishment survey total employment discontinued in 1985.

Japan: Data for total employment are Secretariat estimates based on data from the Monthly Labour Survey of Establishments, extended to agricultural and government sectors and to the self-employed by means of the Labour Force Survey. Data for dependent employment supplied by Statistics Bureau, Management and Coordination Agency, from the Monthly Labour Survey, referring to all industries excluding agriculture, forest, fisheries and government services.

Korea: Data supplied by the Ministry of Labour from the Report on monthly labour survey.

Mexico: Data supplied by STPS-INEGI from the bi-annual National Survey of Employment, based on the assumption of 44 working weeks per year.

Netherlands: From 1977 onwards, figures are "Annual Contractual Hours", supplied by Statistics Netherlands, compiled within the framework of the Labour Accounts. Overtime hours are excluded. For 1970 to 1976, the trend has been derived from data supplied by the Economisch Instituut voor het Midden en Kleinbedrijf, referring to persons employed in the private sector, excluding agriculture and fishing.

New Zealand: Data supplied by Statistics New Zealand and derived from the quarterly Labour Force Survey, whose continuous sample design avoids the need for adjustments for public holidays and other days lost. Total employment figures revised slightly.

Norway: Data supplied by Statistics Norway, based on national accounts and estimated from a number of different data sources, the most important being establishment surveys, the Labour Force Surveys and the public sector accounts.

Spain: New series supplied by Instituto Nacional de Estadística and derived from the quarterly Labour Force Survey. Series break at 1986/87 due to changes in the survey.

Sweden: New series from 1996 are supplied by Statistics Sweden derived from national accounts data, based on both the Labour Force Survey and establishment surveys. Data prior to 1996 are estimated by applying new to old annual hours of work estimates for 1995 to the old series.

Switzerland: Data supplied by Office fédéral de la statistique. The basis of the calculation is the Swiss Labour Force Survey which provides information on weekly hours of work during one quarter of the year. The estimates of annual hours are based also on supplementary, annual information on vacations, public holidays and overtime working and have been extended to correspond to national accounts concepts.

United Kingdom: Since 1994, data refer to the United Kingdom (including Northern Ireland). Break in series 1994/95 due to small change in the way estimates of employment are derived. For 1992 to 1995, the levels are derived directly from the continuous Labour Force Survey. For 1984 to 1991, the trend in the data is taken from the annual Labour Force Survey. From 1970 to 1983, the trend corresponds to estimates by Professor Angus Maddison.

United States: Data supplied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and based on the Current Population Survey. Series breaks at 1975/76 and 1989/90 are due to changes in population controls and at 1993/94 due to redesigned CPS questionnaire.

Chart 1. Average annual hours actually worked per person in employment, 1970-1999

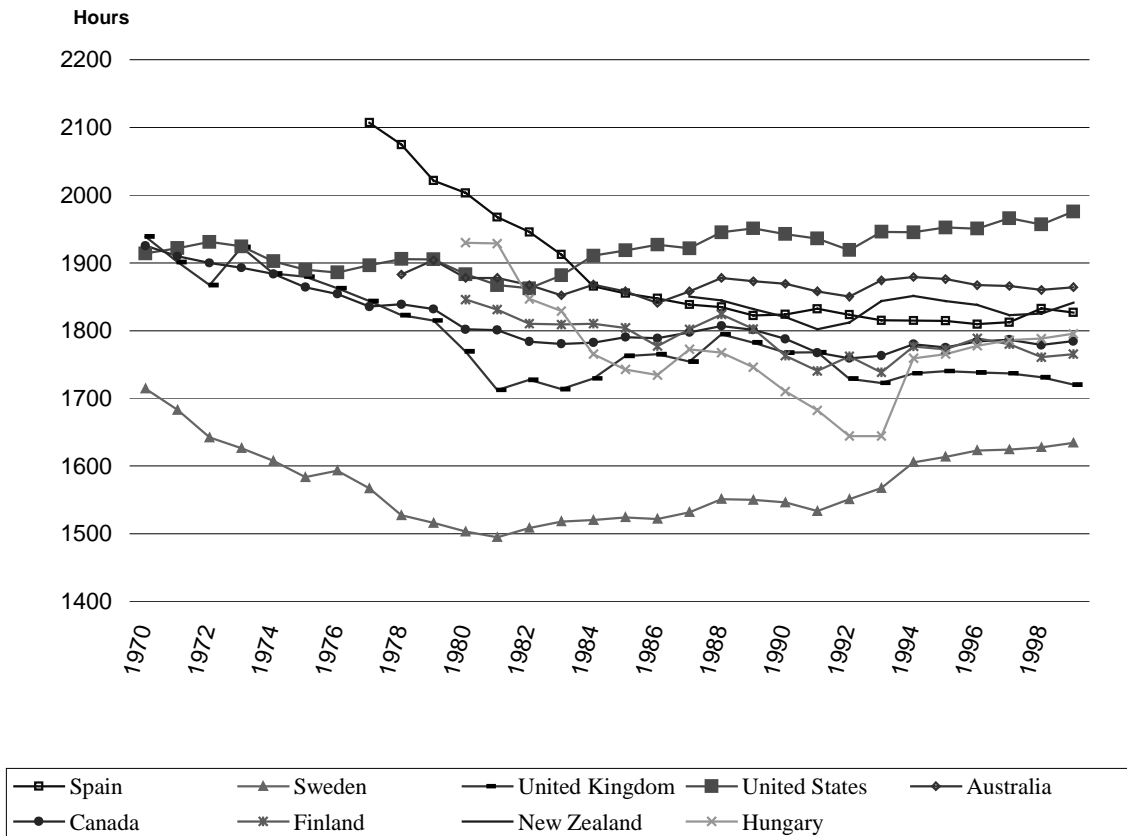


Chart 1. Average annual hours actually worked per person in employment, 1970-1999 (cont.)

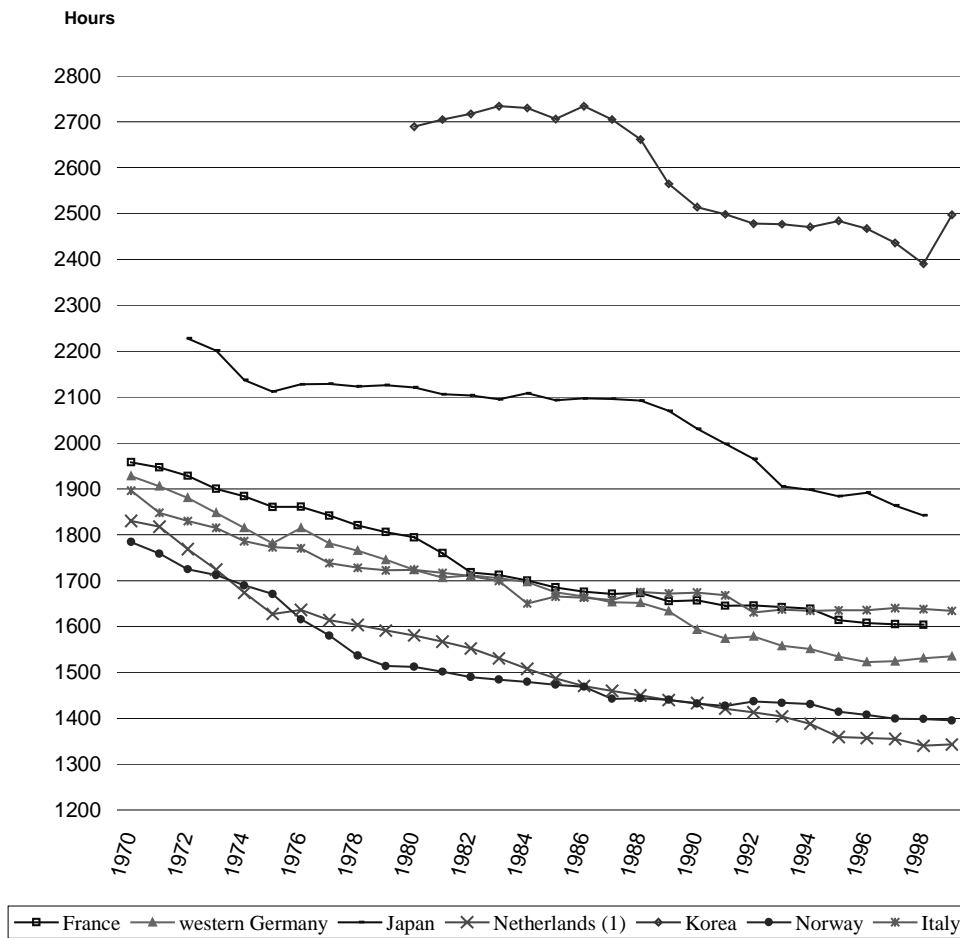


Chart 2. Distribution of usual hours worked, male employees aged 25 to 54 years, 1987 and 1999

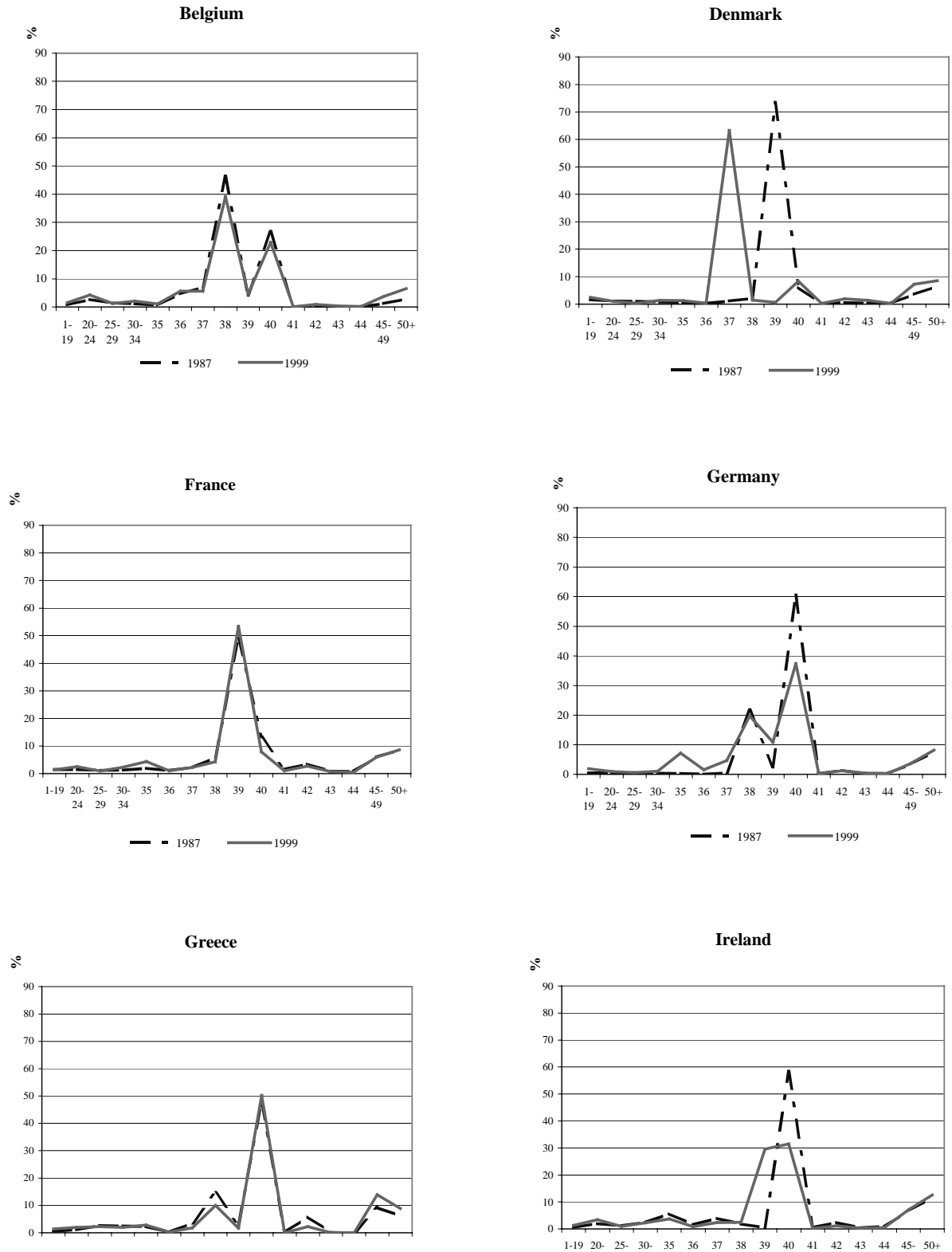
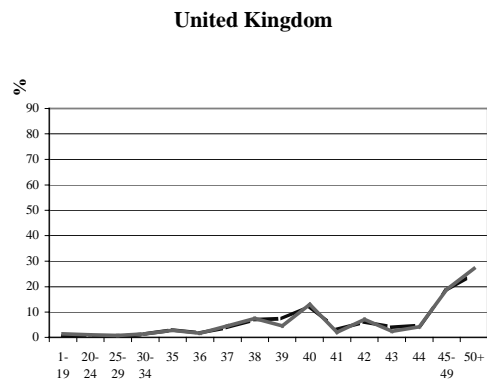
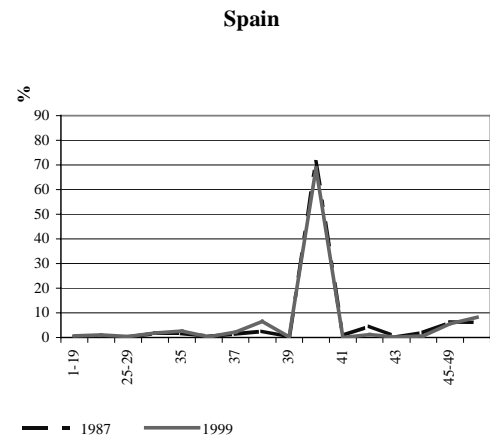
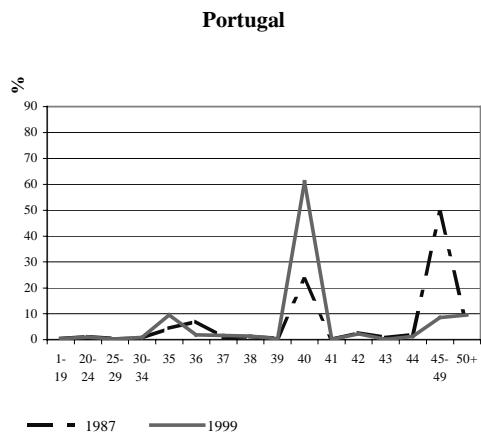
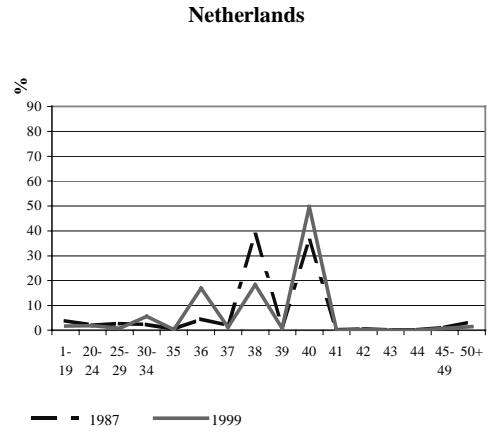
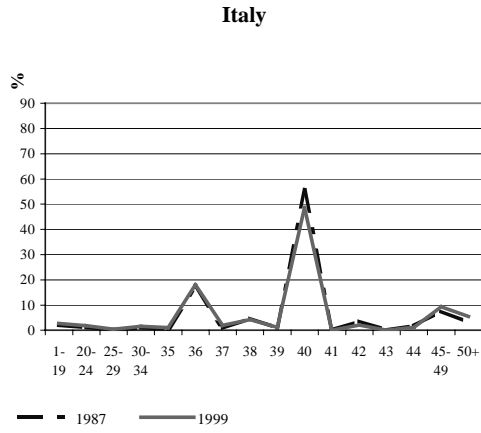


Chart 2. Distribution of usual hours worked, male employees aged 25 to 54 years, 1987 and 1999 (continued)



Source: Secretariat tabulations on the basis of data from the European Labour Force Survey.

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