



TNO-report

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A Digital Dutch Miracle in Households and Firms

**Definitive report for the Ministry of Economic
Affairs**

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1. Synopsis

1.1 Introduction

The objective of the interdepartmental programme “Developing attainability scenarios” is to investigate how a better combination of work and care can facilitate a higher level of female participation in work. To this end, the Ministry of Economic Affairs has indicated a desire to target ICT applications and flexible working hours. In order to investigate the four themes and the potential relationships between them, the following choices have been made:

1. Labour market participation: a) developments in female participation in work; b) the heterogeneity of female labour force and potential female labour force; c) the transitions in the labour market, especially the decisions taken by women to stop working and then, after this break, return to work.
2. The feasibility of combining work and care, particularly parental care and the household tasks with which adults are charged.
3. ICT applications. A conscious choice has been made to limit this theme to areas that we propose have a direct bearing on the participation of women in work or on the feasibility of combining work and care. The areas selected are teleworking, ICT qualifications of women and the use of ICT by women.
4. Flexible working hours. The following have been selected 1) part-time work; 2) work on call/demand; 3) deciding start and finish times; 4) working during school hours or ‘mirror hours’, that is when women work at times that their husband is at home;
5. Buying and selling leave entitlement.

The study concerned employers as well as existing and potential employees. Our inventory of research and case studies revealed very little in the way of a link with ICT, whether in terms of labour participation or questions relating to work and care. The scope and impact of ICT applications have hardly been measured. The survey focused on teleworking, flexible working hours and potential labour supply, more specifically with respect to the group of women in the Netherlands returning to work. The secondary analyses and the analyses of the datasets compiled for this research result in the conclusions outlined below.

1.1.1 Policy of companies towards teleworking

Organisations are currently reticent about teleworking. We identify a great need amongst employees for teleworking but only 10% of the organisations indicate that this is feasible for them. The main objection is that actual on-site presence is necessary for many of the jobs while employees are convinced that some of their jobs do offer good possibilities for

teleworking. Companies only allow their employees to telework when there is a tight labour market or if office costs are high.

One possible explanation is that companies are not particularly concerned about the reduction of home-to-work traffic as long as the time used is mainly that of the employees. The situation is different if the physical supply or distribution of products or services is hindered by traffic congestion. This has an adverse effect on companies' productivity, though this effect does not yet appear to be felt collectively by companies to any great extent. Moreover, teleworking is not considered to be a solution for this. Government prompting to stimulate teleworking so far appears to have been inadequate. The attainability scenario proposes that companies be encouraged to implement transport management, part of which is the active promotion of teleworking. But if this policy is to succeed, more initiative will have to be taken than has been the case to date.

1.1.2 Policy of companies towards flexible working hours: is the feasibility of combining the tasks of working and caring improved?

Five working time arrangements that are central to the combination of working and caring tasks were investigated.

1. Part-time work was by far the most utilised arrangement.
2. Working on call is an option for combining work and care for a small group of women. More than any other form of contractual work, this form allows women to refuse work if it does not suit them.
3. Self-determination of start and finish times. It is not clear the extent to which employees use this specific arrangement to better combine work and care.
4. Working in school hours or 'mirror hours'. This is an arrangement par excellence to improve the feasibility of combining work and care, though a lack of figures do not enable an assessment to be made on whether this is a dominant arrangement.
5. Buying and selling leave entitlement. Collective Labour Agreements are increasingly incorporating this option, although the issue remains of whether this arrangement is actually of use to combine work and care.

Number 1, 3 and 5 have become employee benefits in today's tight labour market. Analysis of company policy reveals significant differences between female and male companies. If rosters are used, they tend in female companies to be determined through consultation with colleagues or the boss or by the employees themselves whereas in male companies the rosters tend to be pre-emptive.

1.1.3 Wishes of those working or seeking work, both women and men, regarding teleworking

Research was carried out into which employees in the ICT sector are able to and want to telework. Earlier research suggested that flexible planning of

the day, being able to concentrate on work and a reduction in commuting to and from work were the main motives. Our research reveals that the 'teleworkability' of the job does not affect the wish of the employees to telework. It seems that employees use a much broader definition, or even no definition, when asked if their job is 'teleworkable'. Location dependency, physical presence and schedule play no role in their considerations.

The hypothesis presented in our research on the time commitment at work and at home – the greater the commitment, the greater the need for teleworking – is largely supported, particularly in terms of the time commitment at home. ICT workers who do overtime more often have the possibility to telework though they do not have the need to telework more often. Here too is the discrepancy between the policy of companies and the wishes of employees. ICT workers whose journey to work is time-consuming do not have any more possibility to telework despite having a greater wish to telework. It is noticeable that the need to telework is not related to the working time per week.

Finally, the research shows how great the discrepancies are between the ICT workers who are able to telework and those who want to telework – in other words, between the policy of the company and the wishes of its employees. The policy of companies to designate 'teleworkable' jobs is totally at odds with the need amongst employees to telework. Indeed, we found no instance here of concurrence. The need to telework is primarily affected by the domestic situation and the commuting time rather than by the 'teleworkability' of the job.

1.1.4 Wishes of those working regarding teleworking and the impact these wishes have on the combination of work and care

Research into employees in the ICT sector, as well as earlier research, does not reveal teleworking to enhance the combination of work and care. People with younger children do not prefer to telework any more often than those with older children or with children no longer living at home. Neither is the preference to telework any greater amongst women than it is amongst men. On the contrary, men want it more than women do.

The results suggest that the need for personal time is the decisive factor in wishing to telework. And this need is greater the longer the commuting time is, the more chores have to be done at home and the stronger the feeling exists that in addition to work, the less time there is left for family, relatives and friends. Further research will have to reveal exactly where the need for time is most pressing. This research reveals that teleworking by ICT workers and, in all likelihood, by many other groups of working people, is considered as a means to achieve a better balance between work and private life. The research also reveals that this may not be constricted to the need for time related to work and care for young children.

1.1.5 Combination of work and care and flexible working hours

In responding to the question of how women with children up to the age of 13 combine work and care, three distinct aspects emerge:

1. The number of working hours, including overtime and leave entitlement

Findings: women with a child up to the age of 13 work distinctly fewer hours than the other groups. A smaller portion of them work overtime, but when they do they do so for more hours. The vast majority of this group of women had previously worked full-time.

2. The working time pattern

Findings: women with young children tend to have a set number of hours, work set times more often and less on a roster basis than other women. If this is the case, this group indicates experiencing difficulty more often in exchanging roster slots.

3. Working hours over the working day

Findings: women with young children prefer to work if their partner is at home, during school hours and at regular times.

Assumptions that the combination of work and care would improve if work times could be more flexible are not confirmed by this research. Quite the contrary, women with young children are only able to combine work and care on the basis of set, regular working hours. They have no greater need for an on-call contract than other women.

1.1.6 Higher work participation

In exploring the literature that deals with the research question: ‘can ICT applications result in a higher degree of participation?’, little information seems to exist on the potential labour supply in the Netherlands, the way it is developing or the influential factors. Following this, it was decided to acquire more insight into the size, possibility for participation and length of career break of this group.

Between 1988 and 1999 the net participation of women in work had risen from 36% to 51%. The Dutch Cabinet wants to raise that level of net participation to 65% in 2010. During the period 1995-1999, the number of women in paid work rose by 435,000, a rise made possible by an increase in the working population (21.6%), reduction in the labour force (25.1%), a decline in the potential labour supply (14.0%) and fewer numbers in the non-participating category (39.3%). Increasing the net participation of women requires the prevention of women interrupting work and encouraging women to return to work. The net participation of women in the 25-44 age category is currently 65%, with participation of ethnic minority women at 46.6%. The net participation of women in the 45-64 age category 36.9%. Of unemployed women and women that belong to the potential labour supply, 20% appear to be of ethnic minority origin. In the potential labour supply the age category 25-44 still makes up a larger

proportion of women than the 45-64 age category. If all unemployed or potential working women were to participate in work, there would be a further 520,000 women in the labour force, 100,000 of whom would be ethnic minority women. However, of this group of 520,000 women, 181,000 (43,000 of whom are ethnic minority women) say that they would be unable to begin at short notice. The majority comes from the age category 25-44.

This means that future research will have to focus on removing the ‘not able’ obstruction as well as on the factors that have a bearing on the possibility for women who are able to participate but are not looking to do so to indeed participate and on women who say they do not wish to participate. The research has to target the reasons why women do not participate, and whether these reasons are related to aspects of organisation, logistics, education or other qualifications. Since so little quantitative research exists on the ethnic minority women leaving or returning to work, a separate study into this would have to be undertaken.

Three aspects of a return to work as a transition in the labour market have been investigated: 1) The determinants of the possibility to return to work; 2) The determinants of the career break period of women from work; 3) The effect of the return on the hourly pay of those returning to work.

1.1.7 The possibility of women returning to work

The possibility of a return to work for all non-participating women (based on data from OSA, the Dutch Organisation for Strategic labour Market research) is five times that of their younger counterparts, with a higher educational background, having followed a course, with children aged between 6 and 17, and with children between 13 and 17 (at least doubling the possibility of a return).

Chapter 8 reveals that those returning to work as contained in the Dutch Trade Unions Congress (FNV) survey mirrors that of the potential labour supply (category C according to the Central Bureau of Statistics, or CBS, definition in Table 22 of this report). The women returning to work tend to be secondary earners in the household. We investigated different motives for women to return to work, motives that are partly linked to level of education and the career break from work. The motives have been incorporated through the level of education and the career break from work into the estimates of the possibility of a return to work.

Analysis of this possibility for the potential labour supply is less determined by age and education but is positively affected by children aged 13-18. The condition that ‘work must be fun’ has an adverse impact on a return to work. The length of the career break from work is equally determinative. The longer there is a break from the labour market, the less the possibility of a return to it.

1.1.8 Career break from work

Those women returning to work as contained in the FNV survey (the potential labour supply) indicates an average career break of 11.4 years for those who have succeeded in making a return and 9.5 years for potential returning women.

The FNV survey reveals that 35% to 40% return when the first child reaches 10, 25% return or wish to return when the first child is between 7 and 8 while 50% take first steps to return when the first child is 12. The majority (75%) only return or intend to return when the first child has reached the age of 16. Women with a lower secondary education return to work less quickly than their more highly educated counterparts, and tend to do so when their first child is born. Of highly educated women, 55% leave work when their first child is born (for the women of a lower level of education this is 70%) and 75% of women who are educated up to a mid to high level of education, a return to work occurs when the first child is (this is 50% for those with a low level of education).

Comparison between the cohorts of women returning who were born in the periods 1940-1949, 1950-1959 and 1960-1969 shows that those born 1940-49 leave work least quickly (50% leaving in the year the child is born against 70% in the younger cohorts) and also re-enter less quickly. Only when the first child reaches 14-15 years of age these women want to return or make a successful return to work. In contrast, 25% of the women returning who were born 1950-59 already return to work when the first child reaches the age of 9, and of the group born in 1960-1969, 25% return to work when the first child is 5.

Analysis of periods reveals that the career break period is dependent, and is significantly affected by education and age. The FNV survey asked when the woman last completely stopped work, so the information about how often transitions in and out of the labour market occurred is absent.

1.1.9 Wage and career disruption

Wage regressions for all working women reveal that each additional year of education and age have a substantial positive impact on the hourly wage. Each year of service also has a small positive effect. Where women have largely male colleagues, this too has a substantial impact on the wage, an effect that is almost as great as that exerted by management. Promotion also has a positive impact, though this is only half of that which (supervising position exerts. Working in healthcare has a comparably positive effect on the wage. Three factors have an adverse effect on the wage. A return to work has a big, negative effect as do the number of working hours, though this is very small. The age parabola that indicates the rise in the wage is more productive as a result of experience does not continue in linear fashion up to the 65th year but curves downwards after a number of years' work

experience, and this has a very small negative effect. Other factors, including having children or a partner, do not affect the wage.

In comparing the wages of women returning to work, it appears that each career break year has a negative impact on the wage, an effect that is larger than the positive impact of each additional year of service. What is interesting is the insignificance that working hours now have. In contrast, working in the healthcare sector now has a greater positive effect than in comparing the wage of all women.

Comparing the wages of female non-re-entrants, a large positive effect of education years can be seen but less of a positive effect of age and period of service than in the wage comparison for all those at work and for female re-entrants only. The effect of the working hours is still negative, but small. For women that have not yet disrupted their careers, having male colleagues, a managerial position has a greater effect on the wage than for female re-entrants, though wage is not as important as promotion for female non-re-entrants.

1.1.10 Courses during the career break, qualifications

Non-participating women, specifically those with older children, follow very few courses. Analysis of the possibility of them returning to work suggests that the following of a course would enhance their probability of making a successful return. Also 42% of the women questioned indicate that the following of a course helped them find a job.

Motives for returning to work are related to the highest level of education attained. Women with a lower level of education cite financial motives while women with a higher level of education are more concerned with 'developing themselves'. Motives are also related to the career break period. Motives like 'income', 'self-development' and 'social contact' play a role especially when the career break is short. Motives like 'more spare time', 'my children have become more independent' are cited for longer career break periods.

A model that explains the possibility of returning to work purely in terms of motives only reveals a significant effect of 'I gained more spare time'. Women citing this motive have a bigger probability of returning to work. The effect of this motive falls apart entirely if 'children' are brought into the equation. It seems that standard economic variables cover the effects of the motives very well. Motives like 'development' are in themselves insignificant. Given that education is significant, the policy to encourage return to work will have to focus on this. In order to reach women of a certain level of education, information about the link between motives and education and between motives and career break period can be used. Appealing to the 'self-development' motive appears to be potentially the most successful ploy if the woman has a higher educational level and the

career break period is between 2 and 5 years. Appealing in terms of wage seems appropriate for women with a lower level of education and women with a short career break period and those for who social contact is a motive. Women whose motivation comes from their children being older can be encouraged to return to work if their children are at least 5 years old.

Female re-entrants often work in a different sector to that which they had earlier exited, so they probably return to a job where they are able to make use of their generic qualifications. Some three-quarters of the women in unpaid work use a PC, and two-thirds of these use it for word processing, emailing and for information searches. The possibilities of this information and communication channel can be used for information exchange on the labour market.

1.2 Recommendations

1. Inform companies about the conditions laid down by women with young children (school times, etc.) and women returning to work (potential workers) for paid work, like wishes regarding working hours. This information should be sector specific.
2. Inform companies about developments concerning women returning to paid work.
3. Use Internet to inform those that have recently returned or are intending to return to work – to nip potential problems in the bud and improve the solutions, thereby accelerating and making the process more effective. Discussion platforms on the Internet amongst kindred spirits may offer a vent for opinions here. Link to or learn from ‘Vrouwenvakschool’ and ‘vrouwonline’.
4. Stimulate teleworking. Employees have a great need for teleworking even though this is not adequately acknowledged. The need is related to the commuting time and gives more opportunity for personal time. Investigate the possibilities for tax relief, as also recommended by the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment (2000).
5. Monitor teleworking to determine not only the scope of it but also the mobility flows of women and men that alter as a result of teleworking.
6. Schooling of potential and existing re-entrants. The need for this and the conditions under which it occurs (availability of and payment for child care)
7. Monitoring system to quantify the development of the scope and composition of the labour supply of women over time. Which groups belong to the potential supply over how many years. And what are the implications for tax revenues and making use of various regulations like the early retirement scheme?

Information that focuses on non-participating women can make use of the following findings of this research. As chapter 8 reveals, the possibility of returning to work is influenced by the family situation, educational level of women, period of career break and the following of courses. In deciding whether to return to work, information is central: (1) orientation towards the labour market (2) additional training. ICT applications can be employed to exchange information to stay in better touch with the labour market and so:

1. Stimulate entry
2. Prevent exit
3. Supervise/bridge temporary exit/leave
4. Stimulate return to work

Research into the role of ICT in labour-broking reveals that the supply side of the labour market is continuing to gain strength and that employment agencies use ICT to better serve segments of the labour market (Wetzels et al, 2000). Moreover, this study, specifically chapter 11, reveals that women not only use PCs to a large degree, as do housewives, but that they can locate websites and wish to learn more about computers. Women without paid work prefer to follow professional courses and courses in social skills than computer courses.

2. Policy of companies

2.1 The problem

The first research question was:

What is the policy of companies regarding ICT applications and flexible working hours, and do these improve the possibility to combine work and care or raise the level of work participation of women?

To answer this question a survey was made among 314 companies to examine what their policy was regarding ICT applications, particularly teleworking, and flexible working hours and whether thereby they have in mind the opportunity to combine work and care or raise the participation level of women in work. This section attempts to link the two areas of, on the one hand, ICT applications and flexible working hours and, on the other hand, better combinations of work and care and improvement of the work participation level. The section ends with a comparison of the results of the survey amongst companies and the findings of a summary study of the literature along with the analysis of the case studies.

2.1.1 Research rationale

The analysis is based on a dataset of a telephone survey amongst companies in which our questions concerning teleworking and flexibility could be incorporated. This survey was undertaken to analyse the effect of collective labour agreements on the policy of companies and was part of a study to measure the presence of various forms of flexible working and record the reason for this flexibility (Tijdens and Van der Meer, 2000). For this research we recorded the agreements in five collective labour agreements – for the construction industry, metal and electronics industry, the banking sector, hospitals and local authorities – and thereafter efforts were made to hold interviews with companies and institutions that fall within one of these collective labour agreements. In the telephone survey questions were supplemented for this research concerning the working locations of the personnel, possibilities for the personnel to work or telework from home and the reasons why employees were not able to telework from home. Moreover, an additional 75 companies were selected for the research that were just outside the scope of the five collective labour agreements examined.

The survey took a random selection of 882 business establishments of companies and institutions from the Chambers of Commerce database, selected according to sector (SBI code) and minimum number of personnel. In May 2000 telephone interviews were held with the directors or personnel officers of 340 business establishments. The response was 39%. Of the business establishments that declined to be interviewed, almost half cited a

lack of time, pressure of work or that the person responsible for such matters was on holiday. A good 10% objected in principle to taking part in interviews and a somewhat smaller group simply had no wish to take part. The remainder cited other reasons.

After the dataset was cleaned up for incompletely completed questionnaires, for missing values for the central variables and for business establishments with fewer than 20 employees, what remained was a dataset with 314 business establishments of companies and institutions. In the rest of this report, these business establishments are referred to as organisations. In table 1 the organisations are divided according to collective labour agreement and size.

Table 1 Numbers of companies by sector and size (N=314)

collective labour agreement (CAO)	< 100 employees	100-500 employees	> 500 employees	total	%
Construction	28	20	2	50	16%
Metal	35	26	4	65	21%
Local authority	26	25	9	60	19%
Hospital	2	0	18	20	6%
Banks	17	29	4	50	16%
Other	23	28	9	60	19%
No CAO but company scheme	3	4	1	8	3%
No CAO and no company scheme	0	0	1	1	0%
total	134	132	48	314	100%
%	43%	42%	15%	100%	

Source: *AIAS survey of company policy and collective labour agreements*
Relationship between sector and size: Chisq=101,23, p=.000, df=43

2.2 Teleworking

2.2.1 Policy of companies regarding teleworking, summary of the literature

As part of its ICT Monitor™, the Tilburg-based research bureau Heliview regularly conducts interviews with computerisation specialists in companies. The survey of the summer of 1999 revealed that teleworking had made only modest headway in the Dutch business world, with only 7% of the companies deploying teleworking as a solution. Within two years this will grow by a further 6%.¹ The deployment of teleworking is developing rapidly. Of all the companies and institutions with computers, a total of some 16,500 business establishments, 12% are familiar with teleworkers. In addition to the growth in the number of business establishments with teleworkers, it is predominantly the number of teleworkers that will increase in the years ahead. Together this results in a rise in the number of teleworkers from 83,000 at the end of 1999 to around 152,000 in 2001/2002, more or less a doubling.²

¹ Dutch Business prefers the employee to work on site rather than at home. Heliview press release.com 08-09-1999.

² Teleworking gaining momentum. Heliview press release.com 27-01-2000

Interpolis, the insurer based in Tilburg, is one of the most well-known examples of a company that makes use of teleworking. By combining teleworking and the introduction of flexible workplaces, the new premises of the headquarters enables 1,500 employees to work in 1,000 workplaces (Meijers, 2000). Other companies, like TNO Work and Employment in Hoofddorp, with plans to build new premises have gone for flexi-workplaces in combination with teleworking. Implementation of a successful, large-scale form of teleworking demands a combination of organisational flexibility, flexible workplace design and a good ICT infrastructure. This may go some way to explaining why the implementation of teleworking has to date suffered considerable delay. The ICT sector appears to have taken a lead. Oracle, for instance, won the 1998 Telework Award for its FUNctional Office. Other ICT companies also have a positive attitude towards teleworking.

Since recently a new motive has come into play – the need for employees to telework is seen as an ‘employee benefit’ in today’s tight labour market. In recent collective labour agreements, like those of ABNAMRO, Rabobank and DSM, employees have the opportunity to telework by consent from their employer. KPN too has introduced a teleworking scheme in its new collective labour agreements. A telecommunication company obviously cannot be seen to linger. The general consensus of teleworkers is positive. Trials at the Ministry of Economic Affairs reveal that after a year experiencing teleworking those involved in the pilot want to continue teleworking.³ Satisfaction also seems to be on the increase at Interpolis. The opportunity to telework is largely regarded as a ‘benefit’ for incumbent personnel and is not seen as a recruiting strategy. Indeed, only three (0.25%) of the 1203 personnel advertisements in four national and one regional newspaper of Saturday 19 August 2000 offered the teleworking possibility.⁴

Though some companies have introduced a policy regarding teleworking, most seem to be very hesitant about it. The employers interviewed for an Amsterdam survey cited as the main argument: “the working process won’t allow it” (Van Vuuren et al, 1999). However, and sometimes to the surprise of the employers, this survey revealed that their employees did, in fact, telework. Given the significant need amongst employees for teleworking, it is probable that the number of companies that have a formal teleworking policy are much fewer than those in which the employees telework informally.

According to the companies, the activities determine the possibility for their employees to telework. From such an angle, Bosch, Webster and Weisbach

³ P&O 1998 annual report of the Ministry of Economic Affairs

⁴ This examined the personnel advertisements in the *NRC Handelsblad*, *de Volkskrant*, *De Telegraaf*, *Algemeen Dagblad* and *Nieuwe Noord-hollandse Courant*.

(2000) arrived at a list of 'teleworkable' tasks on the basis of a survey of companies in five European countries. An examination of the literature and supplementary telephone enquiry amongst companies provide Van Klaveren and Van de Westelaken (2000) with an overview of those activities where home teleworking and teleworking can play a key role (see table 2), and it appears to lie in business services, in the general direction of the government and the odd branch of industry. The Amsterdam study also revealed that employees of publishing and printing firms used teleworking more often (Van Vuuren et al, 1999). In collective labour agreements to date, teleworking is dependent on the job and the activities as well as the structure and method of the department. A job can be defined as 'teleworkable' by the employer, as is the case of the KPN collective labour agreement. The Teleworking Platform, which has a Ministry of Economic Affairs subsidy to promote teleworking, has made a scan that enables an explanation to be gained of where teleworking is feasible for particular jobs.

Table 2 Sectors where teleworking occurs, nature of the activities and type of telework

Sector	activities	Home tele-working	Multi-site tele-working
insurance companies, incl. health insurers	data-input, policy- and complaints processing	X	
	telemarketing/commercial work	X	X
printers and publishers	layout work, text processing	X	
	translation, telemarketing/commercial work	X	X
mail order companies	telephone service, telemarketing	X	
computerisation companies	software development and further research		X
market research bureaus	telemarketing, data-input, text processing	X	
	translation	X	X
	research		X
organisation advice and engineering bureaus	translation	X	X
	policy, research, inspection and other multi-site work		X
government	text processing	X	
	translation	X	X
	Policy and research work		X
pharmaceutical industry	translation, telemarketing/commercial work	X	X
	on-line support		X

Source: Van Klaveren & Van de Westelaken, 2000

Nonetheless, the definition of 'teleworkable' jobs is not cut and dried by a long shot. The Amsterdam research asked those working whether they were able to telework in their jobs; so the employee defined teleworkability himself. More than half of those interviewed defined their work as teleworkable, a substantially higher percentage than might be expected from the stated tasks or job lists. Moreover, this research indicated, much to the employers' surprise, that employees were teleworking. There are apparently clear discrepancies between how employers and employees define a job as being teleworkable. The social partners have also not really developed a

policy to stimulate teleworking. Employer organisations are predominantly keen to have the costing, including the fiscal facilities and implications, taken care of. Trade unions are more concerned about the conditions under which teleworking occurs, like the provision of furniture, hardware and software, reimbursement, workplace design and monitoring of it, contact possibilities, progress meetings, career prospects and the confidentiality and security of data.

2.2.2 Policy of companies for teleworking, results of the survey

In the telephone survey amongst 314 organisations⁵, the first question concerned the workplace of the personnel. Table 3 shows that for hospitals and banks, this was at the organisation in all cases whereas in the construction industry the workplace address of the personnel was largely a changing affair though often with a fixed reporting point. In the metal and electro industry as well as in the group of other sectors, a minority worked at changing workplace address with a fixed reporting point.

Table 3 Work location by sector and company size (N=314)

Work location	at our organisation	at the customer	home address	changing workplace address with fixed reporting point	changing workplace address with no fixed reporting point	total
By sector	%	%	%	%	%	%
Construction	8	4	0	51	37	100
Metal and electro	83	0	0	14	3	100
Local authorities	97	0	0	3	0	100
Hospitals and public health	100	0	0	0	0	100
Banks	100	0	0	0	0	100
Other sectors	75	3	1	16	5	100
By company size						
< 100 employees	70	2	1	19	8	100
100-500 employees	76	1	0	14	9	100
> 500 employees	92	0	0	6	2	100
Total	76	1	0	15	8	100

Source: AIAS survey of company policy and collective labour agreements

The survey asked whether employees could work at home, telework or both. Table 4 reveals that of the organisations interviewed, in 80% of the cases working from home or teleworking does not occur. In 10% of the companies, there is the possibility for employees to continue work at home, largely employees of local authorities and, to a lesser extent, banks, and just 4% of the construction companies said that their employees had the probability to work from home though not the opportunity to telework. The working from home-teleworking combination was used somewhat more frequently.

⁵ See 4.1.1. for the research rationale.

Table 4 Possibility to work from home or telework by sector (N=314)

	work from home only	telework only	work from home and telework	No/ don't know	total
by sector	%	%	%	%	%
Construction	4	0	6	90	100
Metal and electro	7	2	5	85	100
Local authorities	20	2	10	68	100
Hospitals and public health	5	0	5	90	100
Banks	12	0	6	82	100
Other sectors	9	4	10	77	100
Total	10	2	8	80	100

Source: AIAS survey of company policy and collective labour agreements

Subsequently the organisations that do not offer their employees the possibility to work from home or telework were asked the reasons why this is so. Respondents had the option of answering with more than one of the preset reasons or providing, spontaneously, other reasons. The main reason given by companies (49%) was that the job did not allow it, which is in line with the research referred to in the previous section that suggested the possibility to telework was dependent on the job. In collective labour agreements containing agreements on teleworking, 'teleworkable' jobs are defined.

A second notable result is that many organisations (25%) could still give no reason why their employees were not being offered the possibility of working from home or teleworking. Answers included: 'I don't know why', 'There is no reason' or, to speak in local authority jargon, 'We have no policy'. This, too, is in line with findings from earlier research. The results of our survey reaffirm the contention that employees tend to telework more often informally than formally.

Sometimes it is claimed that organisations will not allow teleworking because they would lose control over the activities of their employees. In fact, this appears to be far from the truth. Only 3% of the organisations cited this reason. Other reasons are related, though: technical problems (2%), no demand for it from employees (2%), wish not to isolate employees (2%) and, as one company put it, it is too expensive.

Table 5 Why employees have no possibility to work from home or telework, by sector and company size (more than one argument possible)

	job/work does not allow it	no reason/no policy/don't know	no control
by sector	% cited	% cited	% cited
Construction	67	18	4
Metal and electro	61	19	2
Local authorities	24	34	2
Hospitals and public health	75	10	0
Banks	32	46	2
Other sectors	52	19	5
By company size			
< 100 employees	56	25	5
100-500 employees	42	29	2
> 500 employees	48	15	0
Total	49	25	3

Source: AIAS survey of company policy and collective labour agreements (N=252, only companies where employees are unable to telework)

Table 6 shows that if organisations allow teleworking, it is only for a very small proportion of the personnel. In more than half of these organisations, only 3% of the personnel at the most telework. In just under a quarter of the organisations, it is 3-10% of the employees and for just over a quarter the figure lies at 10% or more, though the percentage almost never exceeds 20%. If we look at the size of the organisation, there is less opportunity to telework in smaller companies, but where such a possibility does exist, often more than 10% of the personnel make use of it. In contrast, more teleworking opportunity exists in the large organisations, but for a proportionately smaller percentage of the personnel.⁶

Finally, the percentage of females working from home or teleworking was examined – data was available on female employees and the percentage that worked from home or teleworked from 52 companies. It revealed that women worked somewhat less from home or teleworked than men. In 30 of the 52 companies, both percentages were equal, in 8 companies the percentage of women working from home or teleworking was higher than for men but lower in 14 companies.⁷

⁶ (Chisq=22.31, df=6, sign.=0.001).

⁷ (Chisq=9.48, df=4, sign.=0.050).

Table 6 Percentage of teleworkers or home-based workers by sector, company size and percentage of female teleworkers or home-based workers (N=314)

% of personnel working from home or teleworking	none/unknown	< 3%	3-10%	> 10%	total
	%	%	%	%	%
by sector					
Construction	8	4	0	51	100
Metal and electro	83	0	0	14	100
Local authorities	97	0	0	3	100
Hospitals and public health	100	0	0	0	100
Banks	100	0	0	0	100
Other sectors	75	3	1	16	100
By company size					
< 100 employees	70	2	1	19	100
100-500 employees	76	1	0	14	100
> 500 employees	92	0	0	6	100
By % of women teleworking/working from home					
unknown	98	2	1	0	100
< 3% women	0	67	17	17	100
3-10% women	0	29	43	29	100
> 10% women	0	25	25	50	100
Total	82	10	4	5	100

Source: AIAS survey of company policy and collective labour agreements

Which organisations already offer employees the possibility to telework and which say that the work will not allow teleworking? We expect there to be significant differences between the sectors because the ‘teleworkability’ of the job is strongly related to the sector. We also expect that ‘teleworkable’ situations occur more in larger organisations than in their smaller counterparts and that the possibilities of teleworking increase with the proportion of women in an organisation and the higher the level of education of the personnel. Table 7 shows the results of the analyses. And indeed significant differences between organisations do emerge. In hospitals employees are clearly less able to telework or work from home. While local authorities suggest that the job does allow teleworking, hospitals suggest the contrary. In line with our expectations, employees in organisations of less than 100 personnel tend to have no possibility to telework when compared to the medium to large organisations. In male dominated companies, employees have less possibility to telework than in mixed or female dominated companies. The educational level of the personnel, measured by schooling for internal vacancies, plays no role in the option to telework. As expected, companies without schooling tend to cite the argument that the job does not allow teleworking.

Table 7 Which companies offer teleworking as a possibility and which companies say that the work does not allow it? (logit analyses)

	possibility to work at home/telework			job does not allow it		
	B	t-value	sign	B	t-value	sign
Sector (other sectors is ref.)						
Construction	0.23	0.32		-0.04	-0.08	
Metal and electro	0.37	0.64		-0.08	-0.19	
Local authorities	0.16	0.38		-1.08	-2.67	**
Hospitals and public health	-2.39	-2.58	**	1.77	2.42	*
Banks	-0.89	-1.54		-0.46	-0.94	
Number of employees (100-500 emp is ref.)						
< 100 emp	-0.86	-2.40	**	0.52	1.91	
>500 emp	0.74	1.67		-0.25	-0.56	
Percent female emp (11-40% is ref.)						
<=10%	-1.14	-2.01	*	0.59	1.36	
>40%	0.28	0.62		-0.17	-0.43	
Schooling of personnel for internal vacs	1.69	1.60		-1.03	-1.97	*
Constant	-2.41	-2.24	**	0.71	1.26	

Source: AIAS survey of company policy and collective labour agreements (N=314)
 *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

2.2.3 Conclusion

It can be concluded that organisations are playing a waiting game on teleworking. Where we observe a great need among employees for teleworking, a mere 10% of the companies offers that possibility. The prevailing notion is that for many jobs a presence at the company premises is necessary while some of these jobs, employees contend, offer a good opportunity to telework. Only when the labour market is tight or office space is expensive do companies allow the teleworking option. A possible explanation is that employers' interest in reducing the work-office commuting is not significant as long as it happens mainly in employee time. The situation is different if the physical distribution of products or services is hindered by traffic congestion and adversely affects the companies' productivity, though this is apparently not yet being felt by companies in a collective sense. Moreover, teleworking is not acknowledged as a solution to this. It seems that the government's own appeal to teleworking has so far been inadequate. The attainability scenario proposes that companies undertake transport management, part of which is the active promotion of teleworking. For this policy to be successfully implemented, more initiative is necessary than has been the case to date in this area.

2.3 Flexible working hours

2.3.1 Policy of companies concerning flexible working hours, summary of the literature

Chapter 2.4 distinguishes five working time arrangements within the concept of 'flexible working hours' that are considered central to the combining of work and care tasks. It concerns part-time work, work on call or on demand, starting and finishing times of work determined by employees, working during school hours or 'mirror hours' and the buying and selling of leave entitlement. The following is a brief synopsis of the literature of company policy on these five arrangements.

The breakthrough in part-time work dates from the Wassenaar Agreement in 1992 (Tijdens, 1998b). This set down a work opportunity policy for the longer term through the recovery of business profits and redistribution of work. In the short term this meant an exchange of a reduction of working hours for wage moderation. A reduction of working hours is vague and ranges from a shorter working week, roster-free days each year, early retirement and the promotion of part-time work. Each collective labour agreement had its own forms.

A reduction of working hours and part-time work had been controversial issues between employers' and employees' organisations in the 1980s, but a growing number of collective labour agreements contained such part-time agreements: an employee can request his or her working hours to be lessened and the employer has to grant this request unless business interest was threatened. In 1998 64% of the 118 main collective labour agreements had such a clause (De Jong, 1999). A study of companies, excluding government institutions, revealed to the Labour Inspectorate that 67% had part-time employees (De Jong and Van Bolhuis, 1997). In a similar random survey, TNO Work and Employment came up with a figure of 72% (Goudswaard, Kraan, Dhondt, 2000).

Even though the initiative to work part-time is normally taken by the employee, one of the few studies on this matter (Loontechnische Dienst, 1991) reveals that this does not necessarily imply that companies should not benefit. By far the main argument for having part-timers is to cope with peak business, with 60% of the companies positive about part-timers and 35% neutral. Other research shows that part-timers play a crucial role in adjusting personnel numbers to capacity requirements (Simmelink and De Jonge, 1994). If the labour supply is somewhat more plentiful, then 30% of the companies take a positive attitude towards part-timers. In terms of the connection between business time and working time, 29% is positive and 58% neutral. In respect of limiting the costs of overtime, 20% is positive and 79% neutral.

Of course, companies also suffer from part-time work. The most often cited disadvantages are the stress imposed on managers as a result of handing over problems (33% assessed this negatively, 66% neutral) along with communication and information transfer (32% negative, 67% neutral). The commitment of part-timers to their work, their knowledge and experience and their bond with the company score a very high neutral. It is also worth noting that employers are predominantly neutral about the economists' main argument that part-time work would make work more expensive through the additional costs of administration, education, social contributions, premises and coordination. Three-quarters of the companies assess this as neutral and the rest negative for the costs of personnel management and administration for part-timers, four-fifths assess as neutral the costs of extra equipment, machinery and workspace, and five-sixths are neutral about the costs of education and induction. The cost argument even seems to favour part-timers: 16% respond positively to the labour costs for part-timers in relation to productivity, with 76% taking a neutral stance. Apparently any additional overhead costs for part-timers are lower than the benefits of more efficient staffing and lower overtime and work costs.

The second element in the box of arrangements for working time is work on call. The proportion of on-call employees and home workers under contract is just 2% (Fouarge et al., 1998). Moreover, this percentage fell slightly between 1996 and 1998 as a result of economic growth. A Labour Inspectorate reveals that around one in five companies makes use of this on-call arrangement (Van Bolhuis, 1996) in which an employment contract exists between the employer and employee though no agreements are made, in principle, about the number of hours to be worked.⁸ Nevertheless, a third of companies that use this arrangement agree a standard number of hours, usually 6 per week. In trade and hotel and catering, this is normally 3 hours, in construction 5 hours and in industry 18 hours. In total 29% of the companies employ on-call workers, the larger companies substantially more than the smaller companies.

On-call work often occurs mainly in the food and confectionery, trade and hotel and catering, transport and other services, including healthcare. Of the companies with on-call workers, 59% say that they regularly use them during peak business, 30% for substitution and 27% for seasonal work. Companies tend to have a bigger database of on-call workers than they need because such workers can always turn down work if they wish. The term on-call work bears a suspicion of disquiet in the working relationship between employer and employee, and this is confirmed when we know that in a little more than half of the companies in the private sector a written agreement exists and that the on-call worker is informed in writing about the

⁸ It is also termed an employment or on-call contract, or a min-max contract if a minimum or maximum number of hours is agreed. Where the minimum is zero hours, it is referred to as a zero-hours contract.

level of pay and such matters (Massaar and Faas, 1996). However, there is no 'under the counter' work since in 90% of the companies a wage slip is issued.

The third element is that employees can determine for themselves the times when they begin and finish work. We call this variable start and finish times. According to OSA 27% of the employees do this (Fouarge, 1998). A survey from 1997 amongst companies in the private sector reveals that 20% of the companies use this arrangement (De Jong and Van Bolhuis, 1997), particularly in the world of banking and insurance (Fouarge, 1998). The ABNAMRO and RABO collective labour agreements of 2000 allow employees to determine, within certain limits, their own start and finish times (Tijdens, 2000b). In contrast, this is not feasible in the transport sector nor does it happen much in the education, industry and healthcare sectors which operate according to fixed rosters. Companies with variable start and finish times tend to introduce block times, hours when employees at least have to be present. Outside of this they are free to choose when to start and finish. In companies with a time registration system, it is possible that the start and finish times vary per day and that the required number of working hours do not have to be worked each day so long as the total is reached over a week or a month. In companies without a clock-in system, start and finish times are usually set for a particular period, say a month. No research has been performed on the reasons why companies allow variable start and finish times though this arrangement is increasingly regarded as an 'employee benefit'.

The fourth working time arrangement concerns working during school hours or 'mirror hours'. Much research has been done on working at odd or irregular times, like shift work or evenings or nights, but little in the way of the times during which employees work during the day. According to the Scientific Advisory Council (WRR) a large proportion of the part-timers work mornings between 8 and 12 o'clock but no source is cited for this data (WRR, 2000). It is indicated above that part-timers fulfil a crucial role in balancing the staffing with business capacity, so it is even more remarkable that neither the times when part-timers work nor the wishes of companies in this respect have not come under scrutiny.

The fifth arrangement is the buying and selling of leave entitlement. This is usually stipulated in the collective labour agreement whereby employees can, within certain limits, choose to work fewer or more days than is contained in their employment contract in order to be able to earn either more money or more time. Given the current tight state of the labour market, the buying or selling of leave entitlement is regarded as an 'employee benefit' (Van den Brekel and Tijdens, 2000). In 1992 the Centraal Beheer insurance company introduced the first so-called *à la carte* collective labour agreement with an elaborate form of time-for-money and

money-for-time arrangement. Such collective labour agreements are few and far between, though less elaborate forms do exist. Some 6% of companies have a time-for-money arrangement which allows employees to sell their shorter working hour days (De Jong, 1996). A money-for-time arrangement whereby additional shorter working hour days can be bought exists in 2% of companies. In one in five of the companies in the private sector, the possibility exists to save up these shorter working hour days and at most of these companies these saved days can be carried forward into the following year(s) (De Jong and Van Bolhuis, 1997). Companies do this more than is stipulated in the collective labour agreements, since there are only four collective labour agreements, including that of the Amev insurance company, that explicitly contain such a possibility. On the one hand, the emergence of saving schemes over several years is being inhibited because of the complex fiscal nature of them and problems that arise in cases of bankruptcy, but the government has, on the other hand, introduced regulations to deal with some of these problems.

2.3.2 Company policy regarding flexible working hours, results of the survey

In order to investigate the policy of companies regarding working time arrangements, use was again made of the AIAS company policy survey and collective labour agreements. This enabled us to study only the third and fifth working time arrangements though we were able to analyse in general how working hours are determined by looking at differences between sectors, company size and the gender typing of the company. A company with less than 10% women in the personnel database we type as a male company and a 40% proportion as a female company. The arrangements for working hours, differently than for teleworking, have implications for the personnel database. Arrangements at female companies have a greater significance for the feasibility of combining work and care than arrangements at male companies.

The survey first asked how the working period is calculated, and this resulted in a great diversity of answers. Almost four out of ten organisations (39%) calculated the period of work on a week basis, with a good two in ten (22%) calculating the figure on an annual basis and almost two in ten (19%) on a monthly basis. The remainder calculated either per week or, as a few did, per quarter or another way. At three of the ten organisations, the working period differs according to job. At a little more than half (55%) all employees or groups of employees can negotiate their working hours. In three-quarters of the cases this occurs after consultation between employer and employee.

At a third of the organisations, all departments work to a roster (table 8). The roster system is most used at hospitals while local authorities practically

Table 8 Number of departments with roster, by sector and percentage of women in the company (N=314)

	all depts.	most depts.	some depts.	no depts.	Don't know	n.a.	total
by sector	%	%	%	%	%		%
Construction	24	4	14	37	12	8	100
Metal and electro	36	17	19	25	2	2	100
Local authorities	24	0	41	32	0	3	100
Hospitals and public health	25	70	0	5	0	0	100
Banks	64	12	16	8	0	0	100
Other sectors	31	19	21	21	3	5	100
percentage women							
<=10%	30	13	18	30	5	3	100
11-40%	26	11	29	26	3	5	100
>40%	48	22	16	13		2	100
Total	34	15	21	23	3	4	100

Source: AIAS Business Policy survey and collective labour agreements

When rosters are used by companies, they apply virtually to all jobs (not in table). By contrast, in a quarter of the companies, no departments or jobs work according to a roster. A good quarter of the organisations that use the roster system knows their roster 52 weeks in advance, a further quarter knows it within 4 weeks and yet another quarter within 1-2 weeks. This time varies for the other quarter from 4 to 52 weeks. Once the rosters are fixed then they are not changed in two-thirds of the cases while for the third where changes are made these tend to be on a monthly or, to a lesser extent, weekly basis. Rosters are almost never changed day by day and sanctions, in the financial sense for example, for the employer are very rarely advocated. Less than one in ten organisations use sanctions and when they do the recompense is financial not temporal.

The survey enquired how the working time was fixed if employees do not work according to a roster. Table 9 shows that in four of every ten companies (41%) the working hours are set by the boss or set through consultation with colleagues (20%), or are fixed (18%) or decided by employees themselves (14%). In hospitals, banks and other sectors, it is normal for working hours to be set by the boss. In the construction and metal and electro sectors, working hours tend to be fixed. Local authority staff can decide on their working hours themselves. From the perspective of combining work and care, the table reveals that in male companies it tends to be the boss that sets or decides on the working hours while in female companies working hours are often negotiated between colleagues or set by the employee him or herself.

Table 9 Method of setting working hours, by sector and percentage of women in the company (excluding companies where all departments have rosters)

	by boss	in consultation	by employee	fixed	don't know	total
	%	%	%	%	%	%
by sector						
Construction	32	11	5	35	16	100
Metal and electro	39	13	13	26	8	100
Local authorities	31	29	24	11	4	100
Hospitals and public health	53	20	7	7	13	100
Banks	50	22	17	11		100
Other sectors	49	23	11	11	6	100
percentage women						
<=10%	35	15	8	30	13	100
11-40%	47	24	16	9	4	100
>40%	40	22	20	12	6	100
Total	41	20	14	18	8	100

Source: AIAS Business Policy survey and collective labour agreements (N=206)

Employees were asked if they are able to change their start and finish times, and a good third (38%) of the companies confirmed that this is the case. Unsurprisingly this is not the case for construction and metal and electrotechnical companies but it is for local authorities, while banks, hospitals and other companies are somewhere in between. In an analysis of which companies employees are able to change their start and finish times, this is significantly less in construction than it is for other sectors (table 10). Furthermore, the changing of start and finish times occurs more in larger than in smaller companies, and less where rosters are used.

Table 10 In which companies can employees change their start and finish times? (logit analyses)

	change start and finish times		
	B	t-value	sign
Sector (other sectors is ref.)			
Construction	-1.23	-2.12	**
Metal and electro	-0.57	-1.13	
Local authorities	0.66	1.56	
Hospitals and public health	0.38	0.54	
Banks	-0.64	-1.19	
Number of employees (100-500 emp is ref.)			
< 100 emp	0.24	0.78	
>500 emp	0.90	1.86	#
Percent female emp (11-40% is ref.)			
<=10%	-0.71	-1.48	
>40%	0.12	0.28	
All/most depts. have roster	-1.96	-6.10	***
Constant	0.55	1.49	

Source: AIAS Business Policy survey and collective labour agreements (N=314)
 *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, # $p < .10$

The options contained in collective labour agreements are pitched at the exchangeability of time and money. This study distinguishes three groups of options: exchanging time for money, money for time and time for time. What is company policy in respect of the options? In total 159 companies claim to have options (51%). Almost two-thirds of these companies (101 companies) refer to a single choice while a fifth (32 companies) indicate two choices. The remaining 26 companies say they have three or more choices, and two even claim to have eight possibilities. Local authorities tend to have more exchange possibilities than companies from other sectors while hospitals have the least number of possibilities.

The most popular option, as indicated by 67 organisations (21%), is employees working their vacation or the Dutch adv (shorter working hours) days for additional pay (table 11). This is mainly local authorities and companies with 11-40% women. Ranked second is the option for employees to be paid for their overtime days (54 organisations), which is particularly the case for local authorities and for metal and electrotechnical companies. The third option - to work fewer hours each year than those stipulated in the employment contract and so be paid pro rata less - is a trade of money for time, a situation that occurs in 39 organisations, particularly at local authorities and hospitals. However, working more than stipulated in the employment contract is more popular than working less.

Table 11 Percentage of companies stating an exchange option, by sector and percentage of women in the company (N=314)

	holiday or adv days exchange for money	overtime days exchange for extra money	money exchange for extra hours
by sector	% stated	% stated	% stated
Construction	12	16	8
Metal and electro	14	20	8
Local authorities	58	27	32
Hospitals and public health	10	0	15
Banks	8	16	8
Other sectors	17	13	5
percentage women			
<=10%	13	18	6
11-40%	33	17	16
>40%	19	16	17
Total	21	17	12

Source: AIAS Business Policy survey and collective labour agreements

2.3.3 Conclusion

Five working time arrangements that are crucial for the combination of work and care have been investigated. Part-time work is the arrangement that is most used by far. In periods of labour shortage, part-time work has become an 'employee benefit', especially for professions in which women work, like health care. On-call work is an option to combine work and care

for a small group of women since more than any other contractual form of work, it allows work to be rejected if it does not suit the employee. Deciding on when to start and finish work in a period of labour shortage has also become an 'employee benefit' though it is not clear to what extent such an arrangement is used to improve the feasibility of combining work and care. The fourth arrangement - working during school hours or 'mirror hours' is an excellent way of improving the combination feasibility but not enough data exists to indicate to what extent this is a dominant arrangement. The fifth arrangement concerns the buying and selling of time, increasingly being incorporated into collective labour agreements. Here again, it is questionable as to how far this arrangement is used specifically to combine work and care. It has, in the tight labour market, become an 'employee benefit'.

Analysis of the policy of companies reveals substantial differences between female and male companies. If rosters are used, they tend to be set in female companies through mutual consultation between colleagues, by the boss or by the employees themselves while rosters in male companies are usually fixed. In policy regarding working time arrangements, 'employee benefit' seems to be a more important consideration in combining work and care, except for those sectors that have a significant shortage of female personnel. At such organisations, the working time arrangements are specifically geared towards combining work and care.

3. Wishes of those working and seeking work

3.1 The problem

The second research question was:

- ✓ What are the wishes of those working and seeking work, both women and men, relating to ICT applications and flexible working hours, and could complying with these wishes result in a higher level of participation in work and a more feasible combination of work and care?

The answer to this question has two main components. In the first it is the wishes of those in work to telework and then work flexible times; the second component concerns the level of participation of women in work and the role that ICT developments and flexible working hours play in this. The analysis focuses on a single group of women, those wishing to return to work after an absence from the labour market.

To answer these two issues, use is made of two datasets: a survey of employees in the ICT sector to investigate the need for teleworking and a computer-driven survey at Telepanel which is part of the KUB (the Catholic University of Brabant) to undertake surveys of a representative random selection of the Dutch working population. To examine the need for flexible working hours, exclusive use is made of the Telepanel survey.

3.1.1 Research rationale

The research makes use of the database of a telephone survey amongst people working in the ICT sector. In December 1999 the journal 'Computable' and the FNV commissioned a questionnaire to be sent to a random sample of subscribers to 'Computable' working in the ICT sector. On top of this, an additional sample was taken of several hundred helpdesk staff since it could be expected that this job would be under-represented in the sample of subscribers. Altogether the survey covered 10,000 subscribers and was also sent to a random sample of 5,000 Trade Union members working in the ICT sector. In total 1,689 usable questionnaires were returned, a response of 11%. Though this is not high, it is above average for response to similar questionnaires from journals. Tijdens (2000a) contains a report of this survey.

For the research use is made of the data taken from a survey undertaken in March 2001 by Telepanel for this research, known hereafter as Work & ICT 2001. Answers came from 918 men and 841 women (total 1759 people) in the 15-65 age range about their use of ICT, their working hours and their work history (women only). At the time of the interview, two-thirds of the women were in paid work while this was the case for four-fifths of the men. In the rest of this report, the results of Work & ICT 2001 are presented a number of times, and the dataset examined.

3.2 Teleworking

3.2.1 Summary of the literature

People working indicate a great need to telework – this is the finding of a study in 1999 among Amsterdam residents, half of whom have jobs that are suited to teleworking (Van Vuuren et al, 1999). Of this group, 15% actually teleworked while 60% wanted to but were hindered at work from doing so. Only 20% indicated no desire to telework. Of those people who telework, more than half do so just one day or less per week; they can be termed ‘marginal teleworkers’.

Three dominant motives exist amongst employees that want to telework (Van Vuuren et al, 1999). Freedom and flexibility to schedule the day was the most popular amongst both teleworkers (26%) and aspirant teleworkers (48%). Teleworking facilitates flexible daily schedules, allowing employees to pop out, say, to the post office, do a bit of shopping or pick up their children from school.

The second motive, according to the Amsterdam study, is reduction of commuting time (20% of teleworkers, 26% of aspirant teleworkers), a finding reaffirmed by an analysis of the data extracted from the 2nd European Study of Labour Conditions from 1996. Teleworkers, both in Europe and in the Netherlands, experience longer commuting time than comparable occupational groups that are able to telework but do not, and even more than the remaining groups in the labour force (Dhondt and Van den Heuvel, 2000). The Amsterdam study also shows that commuting costs have an insignificant role while the time element is a factor. It also appears that teleworking is mainly done or desired by employees that use their cars to commuting to and from work. This can, though, have inverse effects: the same study points to 20% of those wishing to telework consider living further from work if teleworking were a structural option. Only 2% of current teleworkers, however, have chosen to live any further away from their work.

Finally, the third argument is ‘peace and quiet’ (20% of teleworkers, 19% of aspirant teleworkers). Apparently the office workplace offers insufficient opportunity to work in a concentrated fashion. Office workplaces are too restless for writing memos, working out drafts or other activities that demand a lot of concentration and peace and quiet.

It is notable that teleworking is being seen less and less as a way of combining work and family. The Amsterdam study found this consideration in 7% of the teleworkers and in 15% of the aspirant teleworkers. Teleworking does not appear to be an alternative for child care, in all likelihood because when women have children they modify the time arrangements from the beginning to suit their situation, so they switch to

part-time work. An analysis of the interviews in daily and weekly newspapers appears to show that teleworking does offer possibilities to mothers that had stopped working to return to paid work even though their children are still young.

So where organisations emphasise the nature of the work as the main criterion for employees teleworking or not, this is not reflected in their motives to telework. These motives concern mainly the private situation and personal traits. For them the nature of the work is possibly only a peripheral factor. If teleworking is going to become increasingly regarded as an 'employee benefit', it is useful if organisations examine which groups of employees, in terms of the home situation and personal traits, would aspire to telework.

Two questions were examined: (1) To what extent is the possibility to telework dependent on factors at work, especially being bound to the workplace, actual presence and schedule? (2) To what extent is the need to telework dependent on the time commitment to work and the home? To answer these questions, two hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesis 1) The possibility to telework is smaller the greater the attachment to the workplace, the physical presence demanded for contact with colleagues and the stronger the scheduling.

Attachment to the workplace, required presence and scheduling come into play if the respondent ...

1. indicates that the most important aspect is that what is expected of him in his job is that he is present for an agreed number of hours (as opposed to an agreed number of working hours, specific output or completion of work);
2. is in paid work as opposed to freelancers and temps;
3. works in a project team;
4. has a managerial position;
5. has to account for hours;
6. works in an organisation with a time registration system.

The possibility to telework can be related to the work processes, so the analyses were checked in terms of function and sector.

Hypothesis 2) The need to telework is greater the higher the time commitment to work or the domestic situation.

The time factor of work comes into play if the respondent

1. works full time;
2. works overtime;
3. commutes a long distance to work.

The time factor at home was not directly measured but based on the response of an earlier study of the groups for whom the time factor at home is substantial (Tijdens, Van der Lippe and De Ruijter, 2000). This results in the time factor at home coming into play if the respondent

4. is a woman;
5. has a partner;
6. has children living at home;
7. is responsible for the home;
8. indicates that outside work little time is available for him/herself, family, relatives or friends.

These analyses were checked in terms of education and age group.

The two analyses are linked since the possibility to telework will affect the need to do so and vice versa. This problem has been approached in two ways: to investigate whether the explanatory variables in the analysis of the possibility to telework do affect the need to do so and vice versa; to examine the extent to which the possibility to telework contributes to the explanation of the need to telework. This is done both by incorporating the possibility to telework into the analysis and by performing separate analyses of the group that wants and is able to telework. A final remark concerns the motivation to be able to work with concentration and in peace and quiet. This element is, unfortunately, omitted from consideration since the dataset contains no data on this.

3.2.2 Teleworking in the ICT sector, the data

The ICT survey contained seven clusters of questions, including the question of whether the ICT worker has the possibility to telework and whether he/she has the need to telework. In answer to the first question, two in five responded that they do indeed have the possibility to telework, with almost two-thirds of this group indicating that the facilities for this were present, like a PC and network connection. A third stated that the facilities are inadequate and a small group indicated that such facilities would soon exist. In total 26% of the ICT workers have the possibility and the facilities to telework (see table 12). The need to telework is much greater. To the statement 'I would like to work at home for part of the week (telework)' 77% of the ICT workers responded with yes. A group of 55% wants to telework but is unable to.

Table 12 ICT workers that want to but are unable to telework (percentages).

		want to telework		
		no	yes	total
can telework	no	18.9%	55.2%	74.2%
(possibility +facilities)	yes	3.5%	22.3%	25.8%
	total	22.5%	77.5%	100%

Source: ICT survey (N=1689)

We differentiate firstly the group that is able to telework, that is the ICT workers that have both the possibility and facilities to telework (26%). Secondly is the group that wants to be able to telework (77%). Table 13 separates the values of the variables to be checked and reveals whether the group that is able to telework or wants to telework differs significantly from the group that is unable to telework or does not want to.

To the question of job, the option was given to tick off a number of areas, so this resulted in many combinations, the total exceeding 100%. In table 13 one can see that 25% of the ICT workers have processing as part of their task package. Processing includes jobs like operator, helpdesk assistant, network manager, application manager and hardware manager. Similarly 32% say that they program (programmer or program analyst) and 55% indicate that their activities fall under the analysis and design task package (system developer, information analyst, project advisor, database administrator). In addition, a category 'other tasks' could be ticked though this is not contained in the table since it does not point to a specific type of task.

The question 'Under which sector of ICT does your employer fall?' prompted a similar response, revealing that the ICT business borders are difficult to draw. Only 18% of the respondents ticked off a single type of organisation while the others indicated that the organisation in which they work is involved in two or more sectors. On average they ticked off 2.9 types of organisation. Table 13 reveals that 70% of the ICT workers say they work in the service sector, followed by 66% that work in ICT consultancy. Here, too, the total far exceeds 100%.

Table 13 also shows that in terms of attachment to the workplace, required presence and scheduling of work, significant differences do exist between those that are able and are not able to telework but virtually no difference between those that want to and do not want to telework. The same applies to a number of jobs and one sector. In terms of the time factor at work, for overtime a significant difference is revealed between those that are able and are not able to telework but not between those that want to and do not want to telework. For the time commitment at home, a number of significant differences exist for all groups. Finally those that are able to telework want to do so more often than those that are unable to telework.

Table 13 Percentages of the variables to be research for ICT workers that are able/unable and want/don't want to telework

	all	able to telework		sign.	want to telework		sign.
		no	yes		no	yes	
<i>location bound, presence and time scheme</i>							
must be present for hours	5%	6%	3%	***	7%	5%	*
not in paid work	2%	2%	2%		1%	3%	**
works in project team	59%	60%	59%		58%	60%	
is manager	37%	34%	43%	***	35%	37%	
must account for hours	81%	83%	75%	***	80%	81%	
time registration in company	22%	25%	13%	***	22%	22%	
job: processing	25%	28%	17%	***	28%	24%	
job: programming	32%	35%	22%	***	30%	32%	
job: analysis and design	55%	55%	53%		53%	55%	
sector: hardware supplier	24%	25%	22%		25%	24%	
sector: software supplier	54%	54%	55%		56%	53%	
sector: service provision	70%	70%	71%		78%	68%	***
sector: softwarehouse	57%	55%	63%	**	57%	57%	
sector: ict-consultancy	66%	65%	70%		65%	67%	
sector: telecom services	13%	13%	12%		14%	13%	
sector: telecom supplier	5%	5%	5%		7%	5%	
<i>time spent at work and at home</i>							
is full-time	88%	88%	89%		85%	89%	
overtime previous month	56%	53%	63%	***	54%	56%	
commute to work							
<= ½ hour	31%	32%	30%		40%	29%	
½ - 1 hour	42%	42%	41%		42%	42%	
> 1 hour	27%	26%	30%		18%	30%	
man	88%	87%	89%		84%	89%	**
lives with partner	81%	80%	85%	*	73%	84%	***
children							
none living at home	49%	52%	43%		55%	48%	
youngest child < 12	38%	37%	42%		36%	39%	
youngest child >=12	13%	12%	15%		9%	14%	
is responsible for household	26%	27%	21%	**	28%	25%	
has enough time for household	58%	56%	64%	**	66%	55%	***
higher level education	70%	67%	77%	***	67%	70%	
<i>Age group</i>							
< 30 years	12%	12%	12%		14%	11%	
30-44 years	61%	61%	60%		59%	62%	
>=45 years	28%	28%	27%		28%	28%	
can telework	26%	-	-		16%	29%	***

Source: ICT survey (N=1689), t-test for differences, sign. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

3.2.3 Does the possibility to telework depend on aspects of the job?

According to the first hypothesis, the possibility to telework reduces the stronger the attachment to the workplace, required presence and scheduling of activities, which means if the ICT worker must be present at work, is in paid work, works in a project team, has a management position, a time registration system is in place or has to account for his hours.

Analyses reveals, as expected, that ICT workers duty-bound to be present at their organisation, with hour accounting and time registration, are able to telework less often (see table 14). Working in a project team does not,

conversely, affect this. Contrary to expectations, ICT workers in a managerial position are able to telework more rather than less often. The predominant notion that managers have to be present at their workplace is not borne out. The studies of Dhondt and Van den Heuvel (2000) as well as Van Vuuren et al (1999) indicate that those with managerial tasks telework more often. Perhaps they have more opportunity to organise their work so that they can be absent now and again, whether this is due to meetings or teleworking.

The second part of the analysis shows that the need to telework is not influenced by attachment to the workplace, required presence or scheduling of work (see table 14). However, as expected, the need to telework is influenced by the possibility to do so: ICT workers able to telework relatively often want to do so. Employers that facilitate teleworking for their personnel can therefore expect demand for teleworking to rise. The possibility to telework autonomously influences the desire to telework. Regression analyses that omit the ‘able to telework’ variable confirm this. The coefficients of the other variables virtually keep their values in that case (not in the table). Also an analysis in which the group comprises those who want to telework but are unable to reveals that the coefficients hardly deviate from the whole group that wants to telework (not in the table).

Attachment to the workplace, required presence or scheduling of work may naturally be linked to the job or the sector, so this is checked in the analyses. In table 14 several remarkable results emerge. ICT workers in service provision wish to telework significantly less than their colleagues. This is probably related to activities like troubleshooting that often have to be performed on site at the customer’s location. At service provision organisations this consideration plays no role because ICT workers in this sector do not differ from their colleagues in respect of the possibilities that exist for teleworking. For the ICT workers in software houses, the analysis points to a contrary result; they are able to telework more often though there is no difference from their colleagues in terms of their wish to telework. In contrast, in ICT consultancy the employees do not differ from those in other sectors when it comes to the possibilities to telework, though they do want to telework more often than their colleagues in those sectors. Looking at the jobs, both ICT workers performing processing and programming are less able to telework than their counterparts in other jobs. Of the seven sectors, in three a discrepancy exists between the possibilities and the wishes to telework. In two of the three jobs such a discrepancy is evident.

Table 14 *The possibility and the need for teleworking explained from the perspective of attachment to workplace, required presence and scheduling of the work, checked for job and sector (coefficients and t-values of the logistical regression).*

	able to telework			wants to telework		
	B	t-value	Sig	B	t-value	Sig
must be present a certain number of hours	-0.71	-2.58	*	-0.29	-1.15	
must account for hours	-0.50	-3.57	*	0.04	0.22	
time registration in organisation	-0.68	-4.96	***	0.13	0.88	
works in project team	-0.13	-1.07		0.06	0.43	
is manager	0.28	2.46	**	0.03	0.23	
is not in paid work	0.27	0.61		0.80	1.27	
sector: hardware supplier	-0.21	-1.30		0.23	1.45	
sector: software supplier	0.03	0.24		-0.07	-0.52	
sector: service provision	0.06	0.38		-0.79	-4.66	***
sector: software house	0.38	2.86	**	-0.12	-0.88	
sector: ict consultancy	0.12	0.77		0.42	2.75	**
sector: telecom services	-0.18	-0.91		0.08	0.41	
sector: telecom supplier	0.13	0.44		-0.34	-1.20	
job: processing	-0.49	-3.20	**	-0.02	-0.11	
job: programming	-0.57	-3.85	***	0.12	0.85	
job: analysis and design	0.09	0.68		0.01	0.10	
able to telework	-	-		0.82	5.07	***
constant	-0.62	-3.45	***	1.28	6.27	***

Source: ICT survey (N=1689), sign. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

3.2.4 Does the need for teleworking depend on the time absorbed at work or at home?

As the second hypothesis postulates the need for teleworking is greater the more the time commitment at work or at home. To measure the time at work, the ICT workers are considered in terms of whether they work full time, have long commuting times or do overtime. Overtime is when the respondent has worked in the past month more hours than set in the contract. We expect full-time work, commuting times and overtime to result in a stronger need for teleworking. As already mentioned, the time factor at home has not been directly measured but derived from five factors that influence how the time is spent at home. We also expect that women, those with a partner, those with young children, those responsible for the home and those that have insufficient time outside their work for themselves, family, relatives or friends to have a greater time commitment at home and so a greater need for teleworking.

Contrary to expectations, it seems to make no difference whether one is working full time or part time (table 15). Neither does overtime have any influence on the wish to telework. However, commuting time does influence the need for teleworking, with ICT workers that have a single journey of more than an hour having the need for teleworking more often than those whose journey lasts between half an hour and an hour; ICT workers with a journey of less than half an hour have less need to telework. As expected, teleworking is seen by ICT workers as an opportunity to reduce the

commuting time, which is in line with the findings of the Amsterdam study and the TNO research (Van Vuuren et al., 1999; Dhondt and Van den Heuvel, 2000).

Expectations regarding the influence of the time commitment at home on the need for teleworking were only partially confirmed. Men, contrary to expectations, telework more often than women. Oddly enough, children living at home do not influence the wish to telework, which is in line with earlier research results that indicate that teleworking is no alternative to child care. As expected those people that have a need for teleworking are those who live with a partner, those who are responsible for the home and those who have little time for other things outside work.

The analysis took account of education and age. This showed that education had no impact of the wish to telework but age did: ICT workers of 45 years or older wanted to telework less often than their colleagues in the age bracket 30 to 45, while the age category 30 and younger revealed nothing of any significance. Finally, the possibility to telework was again seen to have an influence on the wish to telework. The Amsterdam study referred to earlier reveals that cohabitation has a positive influence on the wish to telework (Van Vuuren et al., 1999). This also showed education and age to have an effect – younger people want to telework more – but this is not confirmed by the ICT research.

The second part of the analyses indicates that the possibility to telework does not depend on the length of work time but overtime. Those working overtime are more often able to telework. Apparently the employer perceives teleworking as an answer or even a means to overtime. The ICT worker does not himself view teleworking in this way because overtime does not influence the need for teleworking. Commuting time does have some influence on the possibility to telework – ICT workers who commute longer telework more often. Gender, responsibility for the home and age have no impact on the possibility to telework, though ICT workers with children under 12 years of age are more often able to telework. However, they do not want to do so any more than colleagues with older or no children. People with a higher educational background are able to telework more often though their desire to do so is no different to those from other educational categories. Finally a very odd result: ICT workers who have little time over after work report that they are able to telework more often. Or is the causality perhaps the other way round: teleworking gives them time?

Table 15 The need and possibility for teleworking explained from the perspective of the time commitment to work and home (coefficients and t-values of logistical regression analyses).

	wants to telework	is able to telework				
	B	t-value	Sig	B	t-value	Sig
works full time	0.19	0.94		0.06	0.31	
worked overtime last month	-0.05	-0.39		0.47	3.85	***
commute to work (ref. ½ - 1 hr)						
<= ½ hr	-0.34	-2.42	*	0.02	0.11	
> 1 hr	0.39	2.26	*	0.30	2.09	*
man	0.68	3.43	***	-0.21	-1.03	
lives with partner	1.16	5.00	***	-0.01	-0.06	
children (ref no children living at home)						
youngest child < 12	-0.1	-0.65		0.23	1.57	
youngest child >=12	0.29	1.19		0.45	2.14	*
responsible for the home	0.74	3.37	***	-0.29	-1.42	
has sufficient time after work	-0.46	-3.38	***	0.45	3.57	***
post secondary education	0.02	0.12		0.57	4.19	***
age (ref. 30-44)						
<30	-0.22	-1.07		0.17	0.85	
>=45	-0.35	-2.14	*	-0.01	-0.03	
is able to telework	0.81	4.96	***	-	-	
constant	-0.34	0.37		-2.04	0.37	***

Source: ICT survey (N=1689), *p<.05; **p<.01; ***p<.001

3.2.5 Which factors influence the possibility and need for teleworking?

The paragraphs above reveal that the need for teleworking is mainly influenced by factors concerning time commitment at home and not at work, except for commuting time between home and work. The possibility to telework is mainly affected by factors such as attachment to the workplace, presence and scheduling at work as well as job and sector to a lesser extent. To arrive at a definitive assessment of the factors that influence the possibility and need for teleworking, two analyses were performed which incorporate all the significant factors from the previous analyses (table 16).

Table 16 The need and possibility for teleworking explained from the perspective of the significant variables from previous analyses (coefficients and t-values of logistical regression analyses).

	is able to telework				wants to telework		
	B	t-value	Sig		B	t-value	Sig
must be present	-0.64	-1.89		service provision	-0.74	-4.42	***
hour accountability	-0.44	-2.94	**	ict consultancy	0.24	1.59	
time registration	-0.69	-4.10	***	commuting time (ref. ½ - 1 hr)			
manager	0.23	1.87		<= ½ hr	-0.35	-2.45	*
software house	0.38	2.99	**	> 1 hr	0.42	2.42	*
processing	-0.38	-2.41	*	man	0.66	3.55	***
programming	-0.54	-3.74	***	lives with partner	1.09	4.82	****
worked overtime	0.28	2.19	*	responsible for home	0.74	3.39	***
commuting time to work				has enough spare time	-0.47	-3.47	***
half hour or less	-0.01	-0.09		age (ref. 30-44)			
more than full hour	0.29	1.94		<30	-0.15	-0.75	
children (ref none)				>=45	-0.24	-1.60	
youngest child < 12	0.15	1.17		is able to telework	0.82	5.05	***
youngest child >=12	0.29	1.55		constant	0.21		
has spare time	0.47	3.73	***				
post-secondary education	0.42	3.00	**				
constant	-1.56	-6.53	***				

Source: ICT survey (N=1689), * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The results reveal which ICT workers are able to telework (table 16). The scheduling at work factor remains the best predictor. ICT workers that have to account for their hours and work in an organisation with a time registration system have a smaller probability of being able to telework. The argument of a managerial position has now been eroded by the influence of other factors. The findings on the jobs and sectors remain the same: ICT workers in software houses are able to telework more often while those in processing or programming can do so less often. The findings on the time commitment at work still hold true in part. ICT workers who do overtime are still more able to telework but those with long commuting time to work no more. Also the argument of time commitment at home is diluted. In the earlier analyses the presence of older children still had an effect on the possibility to work, but this effect disintegrated in the composite analyses. Previously it seemed that ICT workers who had more spare time were more often able to telework and this effect remains intact, but we have already queried the causality of this finding. The finding that ICT workers with post-secondary education have a bigger probability of being able to telework also remains intact.

Table 16 further reveals which ICT workers want to telework. The cluster of factors related to the time commitment at home is still the best predictor. Male ICT workers, those that live with a partner, are responsible for the home and have very little time to spare outside of work want to telework.

Those whose commuting to work is long also want to telework, although those for whom the journey to work is short have significantly less of a need. Finally, ICT workers in service provision have less of a need for teleworking. Previous analyses revealed that ICT workers in consultancy had more need for teleworking, but there now appears to be little effect. Age was still a significant predictor in earlier analyses though it now is not a relevant factor any longer. Finally the possibility to telework is a good predictor of the need to telework.

3.2.6 Teleworking in the labour force

In Work & ICT 2001 a number of questions were put to people in paid work about teleworking. In the ICT survey the significance of the term teleworking is very clear for those working in this sector. In other sectors the term will be of much less significance, or have a different meaning. A policeman or nurse is less likely to appreciate what teleworking may mean in their work, so that is why the Work & ICT 2001 survey initially enquired whether people took their work home with them. Less than half (43%) indicated that they did, and of this there was a significant difference between men (49%) and women (35%) taking work home. To investigate the extent to which this outcome was related to the domestic situation, we made an analysis which revealed the following: breadwinners tend to take work home more than non-breadwinners, and the greater the household income, the more often work is taken home; those with a lower educational level take work home less often than those of a higher educational level who, in turn, take work home more than those of an intermediate level of education; people with a partner take work home more often than those without a partner. Children living at home have no effect on whether or not people take work home. The original way of discriminating between men and women is invalidated by this analysis.

A question asked to those who take work home is whether this is part of their normal weekly workload or is additional to it. Nearly half responded that it was an additional workload while less than a quarter indicated that this was part of the normal working week. A third did both. Hardly any difference between men and women emerged here. Those who never work at home were asked why, and two-thirds claimed that their jobs did not allow this, a quarter that they did not want to take work home and a small proportion indicated that it was the employer's wish that they did not take work home.

Subsequently, the question was posed as to whether those working are able and willing to telework. A fifth (22%) is able to telework while almost a half (49%) want to telework. A similar wish to telework also emerged in the study of the ICT sector. Taking work home is related to both the capacity and the willingness to telework. The group that is able to take work home both teleworks and wants to telework twice as much as the group that takes

no work home. The capacity to telework does not necessarily prompt the wish to telework as suggested by almost half of the group able to telework but not wanting to do so.

Just as for the ICT workers, we made an analysis here of which working people are able to telework. Since the Work & ICT 2001 is a random selection across the entire labour force, we were unable to ascertain the differences between jobs. Whether people are able to telework depends on their level of education: the higher the level of education, the more that teleworking is an option. The self-employed are also more able to telework than those in paid work. Managers telework more often than non-managers. No role is played in this respect by commuting time or distance to work, type of transport, size of company or number of branches, length of employment or income, or domestic situation. The influence of education and managerial position reflects the results of the ICT workers.

We subsequently analysed which of those people working actually wanted to telework. Some already do but for others it is a wish. Two crucial factors emerge here. Those with a high educational level want to telework more than those with an intermediate educational level. The second factor is even more important: those whose journey to work takes at least an hour want to telework more than those whose journey time is a maximum of half an hour who, in turn, want to telework less than those whose journey takes between half an hour and an hour. The probability of anyone wanting to telework who is going to belong to the group with a longer journey time increases by 67%. We found comparable results for ICT workers. Here too, no role is played by distance to work, type of transport, family situation or gender, though women less frequently commute in excess of an hour to work (5% versus 12% for men). Women commute significantly more often for less than half an hour (76% versus 61%). This does not influence the wish to telework: when commuting for longer women want to telework as much as men do.

Do facilities exist at home for those working to telework? For three-quarters this is indeed the case. Facilities comprise a PC, which contains in half of the cases a modem and call-back facility, and half of this group has an ISDN connection. Finally a very small group would shortly be having such facilities installed, with the costs borne by the employee in half of the cases, by the employer in full in a quarter of the cases and via a PC project subsidy or paid by the employer in part for the remaining quarter. For those who are able to but clearly do not wish to telework, the costs are considerably more often paid in full or in part by the employer than by those who are able and willing to telework. The costs for subscription and use are borne by three in five of the people who are able to telework, with the employer paying all the costs in one in five cases. For the remainder, the employer makes a contribution or other schemes prevail. This last group includes some self-

employed people and freelancers as well as those whose teleworking subscription costs are borne by the partner or parents.

In Work & ICT 2001 all respondents were asked for their opinions about teleworking. Most support came for the view that teleworking is largely a convenient way of reducing commuting time (90% agreed with this) and a good way of being able to organise the day more flexibly (87%), followed by the opinion that teleworking is a handy way of combining work and care (78%) as well being able to work with peace and quiet (75%). That teleworking is a good way of avoiding commuting and parking costs is the least supported view (71%). Table 17 reveals little difference between the views of men and women, with one exception. Women more often find that teleworking is a handy way of combining work and care, and those not in work often have more positive opinions about teleworking than those in work (not in table).

Table 17 Percentage of respondents agreeing with opinions about teleworking, by gender

Teleworking is mainly	Mean	Mean	diff.
	woman	man	
convenient way of reducing commuting time	91%	90%	
handy way of combining work and care	83%	74%	***
good way of avoiding costs of commuting to or parking at work	71%	68%	
nice to work in peace and quiet	74%	76%	
good way of organising the day	88%	85%	

Source: Work & ICT 2001 (N=1759)

3.2.7 Conclusions

This section examines which employees in the ICT sector are able to telework and which want to telework using data from a survey conducted amongst 1689 employees in the ICT sector in which question were asked about teleworking. On the basis of earlier survey research, descriptive research and collective labour agreements it emerges that employers consider teleworking possible if the job or activities allow for it. Collective labour agreements make a distinction between ‘teleworkable’ jobs and ‘non-teleworkable’ jobs. In the past year teleworking has been incorporated as an ‘employee benefit’ in a number of collective labour agreements, and as such it is important to know the employees’ key motivations, indicated by earlier research as the need for flexibility in organising the day, being able to work in a concentrated fashion and reduction of commuting time. This means that the employees’ definition of jobs that are ‘teleworkable’ may be broader than that of the employers.

Two hypotheses were tested. The first is that the possibility to telework diminishes the more the job is attached to the workplace, the more presence is required and the greater the scheduling imposed. This is understandable from the perspective of the policy of organisations to define ‘teleworkable’ jobs. Analysis reveals that this hypothesis is largely supported though it is

notable that the 'teleworkability' of the job has no impact on the desire of employees to telework who appear to have a much broader or entirely different definition when it comes to their job being 'teleworkable'. Attachment to the workplace, presence and scheduling play not role in their considerations. Also if we look at the jobs and sectors employers are much narrower in the way they define 'teleworkable' jobs. So ICT workers occupied with processing or programming have less opportunity to telework than colleagues in other jobs despite the fact that their desire is the same as that of their colleagues. The mechanism used by employees for a broader definition is, however, not generally applicable; some even have a narrower definition than their employers. Employees in the service sector do not differ from others when it comes to the possibilities to telework but their need to telework is less. ICT workers in software house more often have the possibility to telework though there is no difference in terms of the need to telework.

The second hypothesis regarding time commitment at work and at home – the greater the time commitment, the greater the need for teleworking – is largely supported in respect of the time commitment at home. ICT workers who do overtime more often have the possibility to telework but not the need. Here, too, exists a discrepancy between the policy of organisations and the wishes of employees. ICT workers with long commuting times have no more possibility to telework though they do have a greater desire. What is worth noting is that the need for teleworking is not related to the working time per week.

It is sometimes assumed that teleworking facilitates the work-care combination; research does not bear this out. People with young children have no greater need to telework than people with older children or no children living at home. Women have no greater need for teleworking than men. Quite the contrary, men want to telework more than women do. Telework is quite transparently not an option to ease the responsibility of women to care for their children and is no alternative to child care. Teleworking is more often desired for people who are responsible for the home. An optimist could regard teleworking as a step in the direction of a more balanced distribution of household tasks between men and women. The results, however, point to private time being a more decisive factor for the teleworking need. And this need is greater the longer the commuting time, the more household tasks have to be done and the stronger the feeling prevails that too little time remains for family, relatives or friends. Further research will have to reveal where the time need is most pressing. This research shows that teleworking by ICT workers, and probably many other groups of working people, is considered a means of finding a better balance between 'work' and 'private life'. Research points to the fact that this cannot be constricted to the time need related to work and care of young children.

Finally the research reveals how large the discrepancies are between the ICT workers that are able to telework and those that want to telework, so between the policy of the organisations and the wishes of the employees. The policy of organisations to indicate ‘teleworkable’ jobs does not mesh in any way with the need amongst employees for teleworking. We did not even find any point of agreement on this. The need for teleworking is primarily influenced by the domestic situation and the commuting times rather than by the ‘teleworkability’ of the job.

3.3 Flexible working hours

3.3.1 Summary of the literature

Recent years have seen research repeatedly undertaken into the desired working hours. Employees are relatively satisfied with their contractual working time (Fouarge et al., 1999) – eight in ten men and seven in ten women. In view of the fact that almost 90% of the men work a 35-hour or more week, it is not surprising to know that only a small group of men want to work more hours while a stable group of 12-14% want to work fewer hours. In the first half of the 1990s a rising percentage of female employees were dissatisfied with their contractual working time largely because a growing group wanted to work more hours. In 1996 the figure had risen to 18%, while a smaller, declining group wanted to work fewer hours. After this the trend reversed. In 1998 the percentage of satisfied women was up to 75%, with 14% wanting to work less and 11% wanting to work more. There are two explanations for this: in a tightening labour market there will be an enthusiastic response to the demand for more hours yet we see here the effect of increasing working hours of part-timers in the implementation of the shorter working week between 1994 and 1997. By comparing the wishes with the actual situation of the division of work and care in households, both young parents and couples tend to prefer a working week that is on average shorter than the actual working week (Bekkering and Janswijer 1998).⁹

The TNO Work and Employment study reveals that significantly more women than men prefer flexible start and finish times (61% against 44%, Verboon et al., 1999), a conclusion that is borne out by earlier research (Tijdens, 1998a). Moreover, it is women that find the existing schemes in their organisation inadequate. Employees that work 40 or more hours per week are less able to shift but express a great need to do so and those working up to 16 hours per week are equally unable to shift, though they have very little need to do so. In line with the TNO findings, here too women appear to have a greater need to shift than men, especially those women that live with a partner.

⁹ On the basis of a European dataset Tijdens (2001b, 2001c) has analysed which women in Europe work part time and which full time, give their domestic situation and the characteristics of the workplace and organisation in which they work.

Looking at the buying and selling of leave entitlement, research points to which groups make particular choices (Paping and Tijdens, 2000). Those choosing to save leave entitlement mainly include women, younger employees, the higher educated, employees that are busy at work and employees who have insufficient time for family and friends. They attach great value to spare time though they are unable, or able only with difficulty, to take advantage of this when it becomes available. It is more popular among part-timers to buy free days than among full-timers. As expected, employees want to buy free days to compensate for the lack of spare time for family and friends. For breadwinners the buying of free days is not a desired option, particularly for the lower-income groups that prefer additional work for additional income. Those that want to work more because they are so busy comprises younger employees with a low income as well as employees with higher incomes.

3.3.2 Working hours: How do working women combine work and care?

In Work & ICT 2001 a number of questions were posed about the combination of work and care. The question of how women combine these two aspects identifies three perspectives. Firstly, the number of working hours including overtime and leave entitlement; secondly, the working time pattern; thirdly, wishes with respect to the working time throughout the day. In terms of the number of working hours, Work & ICT 2001 reveals that women work an average of 24 hours a week, according to their contract (table 18). Asked if they work more hours than agreed in the contract, a quarter indicated that this was the case each week while nearly a quarter work more hours each month than is stated in their contract. A third occasionally works more hours and the rest never work additional hours. On average the women work 3 hours more each week than is stated in their contract. A good third (35%) of women is full-time, with three-quarters (73%) stating that they had previously worked full-time.

To answer the question of how working women combine work and care in respect of working hours, the figures are divided in terms of the presence of children, which reveals that women with a child up to age 13 work significantly fewer hours than women from other groups. Women with young children work an average of 20 hours per week while this is 24 hours for women with older children. A point to note is that they do work just as much overtime as other groups, even though a smaller percentage of this group of women work overtime but when they do, they tend to work more hours than women with older or no children. On a scale of 1 (every week) to 4 (never) women with younger children work less overtime than women with older children who, in their turn, work less overtime than women with no children. The table also reveals that only a small minority of women with younger children has a full-time job (8%). However, the majority of these women had previously worked full time, though we cannot see whether they

have reduced the number of hours in the same job or had worked in a different job before.

Table 18 Average number of working hours and percentages of full-timers (working women only, N=550)

	hrs per week	including overtime	does extra hrs (1 – 4)	% full-timers	worked full-time before	as %
no children	31	33	2.3	56%	72%	50
youngest child 0-13	19	22	2.6	8%	76%	35
youngest child >=13	23	25	2.5	26%	65%	15
total	25	28	2.4	35%	73%	100

Source: Work & ICT 2001

We also calculate leave entitlement in the working hours, and Work & ICT 2001 contains questions on this. As table 19 reveals, there is little interest in buying leave entitlement (14%). Contrary to expectation, it is lowest for women with young children. Almost a quarter of the working women (24%) is prepared to work on their free days, and no differences are evident in terms of the family phase. A good one in five women (21%) has more leave entitlement than can be taken while a quarter (27%) considers that the pressure of work is too great, a percentage that is highest amongst women with young children! Finally, one in five women (21%) indicates a preference to work fewer hours, a wish that is most prevalent amongst women without children and perhaps related to possible future family plans.

Table 19 Percentages with wishes relating to leave entitlement (working women only, N=550)

	would like to buy leave entitlement	willing to work on free days	have more leave entitlement than can take	work under excess pressure	would like to work fewer hrs
no children	14%	25%	24%	28%	25%
youngest child 0-13	7%	24%	24%	29%	16%
youngest child >=13	18%	24%	15%	24%	16%
total	14%	24%	21%	27%	21%

Source: Work & ICT 2001

3.3.3 Patterns of working hours for women

The second perspective in the combination of work and care concerns the working hour patterns of working women, a question posed by Work & ICT 2001 (see table 20). The first question asked whether there were set or changing start and finish times to the working day. Six in ten women (60%) had set start times and just over four in ten (43%) had set finish times. Women whose start times change almost always have changing finish times. Of those with a set start time, a third have a changing end time. More than half the women who have a changing start time indicate that this is the result of a roster system, while a third is able to choose the start time. The remainder gave various other reasons. Of those women with a changing

finish time, a good two-fifths say this is due to scheduling, a third that they are able to choose the start time. The remainder gave various other reasons. In total slightly more than a quarter (27%) work according to a roster. These women were asked who organises the roster, and in two-thirds of the cases it is the management or a time-and-motion officer or planner. In a quarter of the cases it is a colleague or the woman herself. These women were also asked whether they are able to switch shifts with a colleague if this became necessary. On a scale of 1 (almost always) to 5 (never), women with young children indicate that they are least able to switch. Looking at the sectors, set start times are least evident in the retail business while set finish times are least evident in the hotel and catering trade, nursing and old people's homes, cleaning companies and the retail trade.

Eight out of every ten women (81%) have a set number of hours in their contract. On average, women with a set number of contracted working hours work one and a half times as much as women with a varying number of hours in the contract (27 versus 18 hours), a group that concerns largely women with an on-call contract and women who work independently, as a freelancer or as part of the family business. Having an employment contract with a set number of hours is closely associated with set start times and, to a lesser extent, set finish times. Looking at the sectors, contracts with a set number of hours is least in evidence in the restaurant and hotel and catering trade (not in table).

Table 20 Percentages with several working time patterns (working women only, N=550)

	set start times	set end times	roster work	can switch shifts (1-5)	contract with set no. of hrs	as %
no children	58%	43%	28%	2.33	83%	50
youngest child 0-13	64%	49%	24%	2.60	82%	35
youngest child >=13	58%	28%	31%	2.04	72%	15
total	60%	43%	27%	2.36	81%	100

Source: *Work & ICT 2001*; 1 = almost always,, 5 = never.

To find out how working women combine work and care with respect to working time patterns, these figures are subdivided according to the presence of children (table 20). It shows that women with a youngest child of up to 13 years of age tend to have set start times more than women with older or no children; they also tend to have set finish times and work less to a roster system. They also tend to have, more than women with older children, a set number of working hours in their contract. These percentages reveal a picture that women with young children more often have a set number of hours at set working hours and work less to a roster system so that they can combine work and care in this family phase. If they do work a roster then they indicate the possibility of being able to find a way more often of switching shifts.

3.3.4 Time preferences of women

In Work & ICT 2001 women were subsequently asked about their time preferences in paid work. Table 21 reveals some of the results, divided into all women and working women only. Women with a youngest child up to 13 years of age are more keen to work if their partner is at home than women without or with older children. These women also prefer to work during school times than women without or with older children. Women with a youngest child up to 13 years of age are more prepared than the other groups of women to work on an on-call contract, which is not what we had expected. We had expected mainly women with younger children to prefer an on-call contract, but that is not the case. Finally, table 21 shows that the preference for regular working hours is a strong factor, particularly for women with young children and that non-working women prefer such working hours somewhat more than working women. The findings of the previous section - that women with young children work half a working week for a set number of hours at set times - is supplemented here: these women prefer to work if their partner is at home, during school times or regular hours. Assumptions that the combination of work and care would be enhanced by more flexible working hours is not confirmed at all in this study, quite the contrary. Women with young children are only able to combine work and care at set, regular working hours.

Table 21 Percentages of women that agree with the statement about working hours (non-working women, N=250, and working women, N=550)

	prefer to work if partner is at home	prefer to work school times	prefer to work on on-call contract	prefer to work regular hours
non-working women				
no children	12%	29%	17%	77%
youngest child 0-13	34%	89%	12%	93%
youngest child >=13	13%	52%	23%	90%
total	19%	54%	16%	85%
working women				
no children	6%	20%	2%	73%
youngest child 0-13	38%	78%	5%	85%
youngest child >=13	13%	45%	5%	73%
total	18%	44%	4%	77%

Source: Work & ICT 2001

We have analysed which women have which preferences, for both working and non-working women, and incorporating six factors: the presence of a partner, the presence of children (divided into under and over 13 years of age), gross disposable incomes, level of education, age, if the wife works and, if she does, whether she is the breadwinner. The gross disposable income is divided into three groups: up to NLG 5,000 per month, over NLG 5,000 and below NLG 8,000 per month and above NLG 8,000 per month. The outcome is presented below.

The question concerning women preferring to work if their partner is at home was only analysed for women with a partner. Only one factor is important: having children of up to 13 years old at home. Education, age, disposable incomes, work and being the breadwinner are irrelevant to this issue.

Which women prefer to work at school times? Analyses reveal there to be a large number of key factors. Women aged between 30 and 44 tend to have more of a preference for this than their junior or senior peers as do women with an intermediate level of education when compared to women with a lower level of education, though there is hardly any difference with women of a higher level of education. Women who are not breadwinners want this more than women who are breadwinners as do women with a lower level of disposable income compared to women with a middle income level. Women with children of up to 13 years of age also have this preference more than women with no children, though there is little difference in this respect with women that have children of 13 or older. Finally, women not in work would prefer to work during school times more than women already in work.

Which women have a preference for on-call work? Analyses show that women in the 45 years and older category prefer on-call work compared to those in the 30-44 age range who, in turn, have more of a preference for this than those women younger than them. Women breadwinners have significantly less preference for this than non-breadwinners. Women with a low disposable income prefer on-call work more than women with a middle income level or women with a higher level of disposable income. Women not in work prefer an on-call contract more than women already in work.

Which women prefer work regular hours? Two factors count here: age and children. Women between 30 and 44 years old prefer regular hours compared to younger or older women as do women with children up to 13 years of age in comparison with women with older or no children.

In short, the main conclusion that can be drawn is that women with children up to 13 years old want to work if their partner is at home, or at school times or at regular hours. These aspects of working hours are strongly related to the feasibility of combining work and care for young children. Women not in work but who have young children consider working during school times as a likely condition for going to work, a point that is explored in chapter 11 on the preferences of re-entrants. Older women that are not breadwinners and have a low disposable income are more disposed to an on-call contract than the other groups, an aspect that is probably related to the need to occasionally earn extra household money.

3.3.5 Conclusion

The question of how women, particularly those with at least one child of up to 13 years old, combine work and care is answered above, identifying three aspects: the number of working hours including overtime and leave entitlement, the working time patterns and the working hours spread over the day. In terms of the working hours, women with a child up to 13 years old work significantly less than other groups. While a smaller proportion of them does overtime work, when they do this, they do more hours than other groups. The great majority of this group of women had previously worked full time. As for working time patterns, women with younger children more often worked a set number of hours at set times and less according to a roster than other women. When they do work according to a roster, they find ways of being able to switch shifts. For working hours spread over the day, women with younger children prefer to work when their partner is at home, during school times or at regular hours. Assumptions that the combination of work and care is enhanced by flexible working hours is not at all confirmed by this study, quite the contrary. Women with young children are only able to combine work and care when they work at set, regular working hours. They have no greater need for on-call work than other women.

4. Women re-entering the workforce

4.1 Introduction

The continued rate of growth of the Dutch economy, which has not been nearly so high in decades¹⁰, has resulted in an incredibly tight labour market, measured in terms of the number of vacancies per 1,000 jobs.¹¹ The need for new personnel is partly filled by tapping the potential of those not working. This group primarily includes people who have become unemployed, school-leavers and women re-entering the workforce. The number of unemployed people has now become quite small and the number of school-leavers in the labour force is becoming proportionally smaller as the population ages. Meanwhile, female re-entrants constitute a substantial number of people, but there is very little known about them. Re-entry after a career break is the most important factor behind the increased labour force participation of women. Compared to other countries in the European Union, the growth in the total number of working women age 15-65 with a job for at least 12 hours a week (the net participation of women in the workforce), from 36% in 1988 to 51% in 1999 (CBS, 2000), has been tremendous.

A further increase in the participation of women in the workforce remains high on the political agenda; not only because of the tight labour market, but also because of the importance of having citizens achieve economic independence and because of the dire need to finance a greying welfare state. In March 2000 the European Council in Lisbon set a target for the net participation of women in the European Union of more than 60% (including jobs for less than 12 hours a week) by the year 2010, assuming a participation of 50% in 2000.¹² The Dutch cabinet wants to achieve more, though; it is aiming for a participation of women in the workforce of 65%

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11. In 1999 the Dutch economy grew by 3.5%, only a little lower than the growth figure for 1997 and 1998. Growth is anticipated at 4.5% for 2000 and 4% for 2001. This high rate of growth is coupled with strong growth in employment opportunities. In both 1999 and 2000, manpower rose by 2.5% and in 2001 the growth in manpower will remain above 2%.
 12. At the end of March 2000 the number of vacancies was above 2000 for the first time. In the second quarter of 2000 there were 233,000 vacancies, while the number of vacancies filled held this in balance at 232,000. For all private companies taken collectively it was the case that for every 1,000 jobs there were 37 vacancies. The labour shortage was greatest in the IT sector, with 85 vacancies per 1,000 jobs. 50% of all vacancies are difficult to fill. However, in general there tend to be labour shortages in hotels and catering, construction, business services, health care and education. Employers have particular difficulty in recruiting personnel with a vocational or higher education.
 13. The target for total participation by men and women is 70% in 2010 (European Council in Lisbon, 2000).

by 2010, without counting jobs for fewer than 12 hours a week.¹³ To reach this objective, they will need to have a good understanding of how to prevent women who now have paid work from leaving the workforce, on the one hand, and how to promote the influx of women who do not now have paid jobs, on the other. There has been a lot more research done in the Netherlands on women exiting the workforce than on women returning to work. Appendix 1 contains a summary of Dutch research on women exiting the workforce.

4.2 No unequivocal definitions

The first problem in gathering information about women re-entering the workforce, or those with a potential for doing so, is the lack of unequivocal definitions. The concept of ‘re-entry’ implies that a person once again finds paid work after not being active in the labour market for a while. There are a number of issues to look at here: How long was the person inactive? Is it really a matter of re-entry? Did this re-entry take place after an active job search (unemployment)? The CBS does not use the term ‘female re-entrant’ in its Labour Force Survey (EBB); it uses other terms (see Table 22). Female re-entrants can become active in the labour market from various positions: as a potential labour supply, as non-participants or as job seekers. It is not known whether the potential labour supply, that is people who indicate that they would like to work for more than 12 hours a week, actually ever succeeds in finding a job. Nor is it known whether people in the non-participating segment of the population are prepared to perform paid work without actively looking for a job (Van der Valk and Vogels, 1990).

Table 22 *Definitions for the main segments in the labour market*

Category A	Employed labour force	People who perform at least 12 hours of paid work a week. These are people with paid employment and self-employed people.
Category B	The unemployed	People without paid work for at least 12 hours who, in the four weeks leading up to the CBS survey, had sought paid work for at least 12 hours a week.
Category C	The potential labour supply	People who want paid work for at least 12 hours a week but are not actively looking or are not available at short notice.
Category D	Non-participants	People who do not want paid work for at least 12 hours a week, such as students, housewives, the disabled and pensioners. Some of them do have paid weekly work but it is for fewer than 12 hours a week.
Category E	Marginal workers	People who work fewer than 12 hours a week.

Source: *Extracted from CBS*

In its analyses of the data from the biennial labour supply panel, the Organisation for Strategic Labour Market Research (OSA) understands ‘female re-entrants’ to mean women who have paid work at the time of the survey but did not have a job two years prior to that, whether because they

¹⁴ *Long-range memorandum, Equal Opportunities Policy, Parliamentary Paper II, conference year 1999-2000, 27061 nr 2 p 18* [Meerjarennota Emancipatiebeleid, Kamerstukken II vergaderjaar 1999-2000].

were unemployed or non-participants. Their findings provide insight into the return of women to paid employment after being either unemployed or ‘non-participating’.

The FNV conducted a survey of women re-entering the workforce in 2000. They distributed a questionnaire among women who were registered with the Start Temp employment agency as re-entrants, women who had called in on the telephone day for women returning to work, and women who regarded themselves as re-entrants and had filled out the questionnaire on the internet. The survey thus covered women who were actively looking for work and had possibly already found it.

In Chapter 8 we will be referring to the Women’s Wages Indicator 2000, abbreviated in Dutch to VLW2000¹⁴. This was a survey conducted among working women that included detailed questions about wages. The VLW2000 takes women re-entering the workforce to mean women who had at some point worked then took off at least a year to take care of children or the home and then started to work again. It also classifies all women who had only started to work after the birth of their first child as women ‘returning’ to work. In the VLW2000, 27% of the women surveyed were re-entrants.

The concept of re-entry implies that the person had previously participated in the labour market. There are some female re-entrants, however, who have never participated in the labour market before because they started raising a family at an early age. The notion of a re-entrant is nevertheless clear in this respect: it refers to women who start participating in the labour market after a period of being out of the workforce. We will clearly indicate throughout this report which definition is being used.

4.3 Problems with the data on re-entrants

To estimate the amount of potential among female re-entrants, having a clear definition of the term is important, as is a representative set of data. Of course, how representative the data set is will depend in part on the definition used. For researching the size of the group of potential re-entrants and the dynamics within the group of women who constitute a ‘potential labour supply’, the information from the Labour Force Survey conducted by the CBS would be satisfactory since it is based on a large, representative sampling of the Dutch labour force, age 15-64. With this data, however, we have no retrospective information on whether transitions in and out of paid work are taking place. The data is suitable for comparing the categories in the labour market, such as those in Table 22, at a point in time or to define the size of the categories at different points in time. In our research, we have

¹⁴ See Tijdens (2001a) for a description of the dataset.

used the CBS statistics to gain a preliminary understanding of the potential labour supply among women. On the one hand, that means that we will have to take into consideration the meaning of 'wanting to work' as an explanation for someone's probability of participating.¹⁵ On the other, this is the only available representative data for distinguishing between non-participants, the unemployed and the potential labour supply.

The data from the OSA labour supply panel would also be a suitable source because it is based on a representative sampling of the Dutch labour force. The panel contains information on the work status at the time of the survey and retrospective information about the work status in the two years prior to that, including the transitions made in the intervening period. As such, it provides insight into the re-entry of women from the categories of 'job seekers' and 'non-participants' into paid work. Re-entrants, then, are women who did not have a job two years ago, and were unemployed or non-participating, and had managed to find paid work as of the time of the survey. There are not many respondents who made such a transition, however, and, more importantly, the list of questions is not specifically targeted at this group.

4.4 Earlier research on re-entrants

Re-entry into the workforce has been quantitatively measured a few times in the Netherlands. Most of the research is based on information gathered prior to 1992. Moreover, most of the quantitative research is based on non-representative sampling (see Allaart and De Voogd-Hamelink 1994 for a review). In Appendices 2, 3 and 4 of this report, we present an overview of the research published after 1990. We briefly summarise the most important findings of the research to date below.

The oldest research on re-entrants that is known to us is that performed by Elchardus and Martin (1985) on the job commitment of women in Belgium. More specifically, the research concentrated on the influence of the division of tasks, the degree of control over the work itself and other aspects of the working situation. Their research revealed that the higher the quality of

¹⁵ It appears from the OSA labour supply panel that 18% of the women in the age group 40 or older, who were interviewed in 1990 said that they expected that they would look for a job, and 22% said that they would perhaps look for a job but were not yet certain. If the 1990 expectation is set against the reality of 1992, drops reduce how representative the panel is, but 25% of the women who in 1990 reported that they would look for a job had succeeded in doing so by 1992. What is perhaps even more surprising is that a quarter of the women who reported in 1990 that they would not look for a job, or that they did not yet know if they would look for a job, also had a job in 1992. We would like to point out that the survey conducted by the CBS follows up positive responses to the question of whether a person wants to work with further questions about whether the person can start work at short notice and has actually begun looking. This is more specific than 'Do you think you will start looking?' as used in the OSA study.

work in a profession prior to exiting the job market, the greater the probability of re-entry.

Dutch research has concentrated primarily on estimating the numbers of female re-entrants, mostly on the basis of performing representative sampling like in the Labour Force Survey by the CBS and the OSA labour supply panel. In the latter, it is possible to make a comparison with the work status that existed two years prior to the survey. On the basis of its labour supply panel, the OSA shows that 60% of the women who entered or re-entered the workforce from 1984-1990 from the non-participating, job-seeking or immediately graduated categories had no more than lower vocational education. For those who found employment among the job-seekers category, that figure is over 50% and among female school-leavers the number is 35%. A majority of the female re-entrants ends up in the non-commercial services industry (including government). Of the 30% who find work in the services industry, two-thirds are in the trade, hotel and catering industry. It is noteworthy that re-entrants end up in relatively stable job situations. The number of job changes is minimal compared to the number among the ex-job seekers and the school-leavers.

In OSA (1992) female re-entrants are analysed on the basis of the OSA labour supply panel from 1990, in which people were asked if they thought they would be seeking a job at some future point (yes, no/don't know). A logistic regression analysis of this question reveals that, for non-participating women with a child between the ages of 0-18, age had the biggest, negative, effect on the likelihood of participation. This likelihood was positively affected by a higher than average education and a domestic situation in which the women was single or widowed as opposed to cohabiting or married. Having a youngest child up to the age of four increases the likelihood of participation. If the youngest child is older, then the likelihood drops; this drop is, in turn, greatest for youngest children who are older than 12. Re-entrants seem to mostly start working in organisations where women already constitute more than 75% of the employees (Allaart, Praat and Vosse, 1992). Unfortunately, there is no known research based on OSA data after 1992.

Other research has focused primarily on either the specific conditions that women set in accepting paid work or the specific sectors where there are shortages of personnel, such as the healthcare sector. Vogels and Portegijs (1992) show that the most important criteria that women use in choosing a job are: time preferences followed by location preferences. This was confirmed in a recent study by Til Van, Kanters and Bloemendaal (2001). The research covered nurses and care workers who do not work in the healthcare sector, about 16,000 nurses, 18,000 care workers and 2,000 other nurses and care workers. The conditions given most frequently for re-entering the healthcare sector had to do with working times; being able to

work at suitable times and the desire to enter into an employment contract for a limited number of hours. Another common condition that was given was being able to take retraining and refresher courses. About two thirds of the people who may want to return prefer to work during regular working hours in the daytime. Just under two thirds have a preference for permanent employment at an institution. These are also the kinds of conditions that played a role in the attempt, which ultimately has a limited probability of success, to get certified teachers to return to teaching.¹⁶ There are more than enough certified teachers, but their conditions with regard to working times, location preference and permanent contracts for a fixed number of hours were difficult to foresee and implement. These conditions could be one of the explanations for the finding of Belderbos and Teulings (1989) that of all of the job seekers with primary and secondary education, the potential re-entrants have the smallest probability of finding a job within a year.

This scan of the literature reveals that at present there is as yet no clear understanding of the size, developments in size or composition of the potential labour supply, nor of the size, developments in size or composition of the category of female re-entrants. Nor is there any clear answer to the question of which factors have an effect (What effect? How much of an effect?) on enduring re-entry.

4.5 Research questions

The following questions are central to this research.

Situation of women in the labour market:

- What are the developments in the group that we have indicated as being the potential labour supply among women?
- What is the size and composition of this group of women?
- What is the current situation of women in the labour market?

Re-entry as transition:

- What is the composition of the group of female re-entrants?
- What are the determinants women re-entering the workforce?

Length of interruption:

- For how long do women interrupt their careers?
- What are the determinants of the length of the break for re-entrants?

Wage after a career break

¹⁶ Klaassen (2000) refers to the drawing on of the Ministry of Education and Science's 'silent reserve' in 1998 and the role played in this by the conditions set by the women approached. 150,000 people, mostly women, were summoned to return to work in education. Only 1,000 of the 5,100 people, mostly women, who were immediately available, wanted to join a replacement pool without imposing further conditions. The women wanted to replace at no more than two or three schools so that they could build some times with their workplace. They wanted good supervision and the preference for primary or upper secondary education had to be honoured. And their preference was for a permanent position.

- How does a career break affect wage level?

Policy:

- How frequently do women follow courses and to what degree does this differ according to their position in the labour market and the composition of their household?
- What sectors do re-entrants work in before they exit the workforce and what sectors do they, or would they like to, work in upon re-entry?
- What conditions to these women place on jobs?
- What kind of policy is needed to increase women's participation in the workforce?

Various sources of information were used to answer these questions. Information from the CBS was used to gain an understanding of the situation of women in the labour market. The questions about re-entry as transition will be answered on the basis of information from the OSA and the FNV's survey of re-entrants. The length of the break will be studied using the FNV's survey of re-entrants. This is a survey that the FNV conducted in 2000, with information from over 1800 re-entrants or potential re-entrants.¹⁷

4.6 Structure of the research

In Chapter 5 we will discuss developments in the potential labour supply, the current amount of this supply and its composition. To do this, we will be using CBS information about the labour force, which includes people who do want to work but have not yet succeeded in finding a job. In Chapter 6, re-entry as transition is the main topic. The characteristics of women who succeeded in finding a job after being in a position of having no paid work are described and the probabilities of women who are without paid work re-entering the workforce are estimated on the basis of a recent wave of the OSA labour supply panel and the FNV survey of re-entrants. In Chapter 7, we indicate what determines the length of the period preceding re-entry. Chapter 8 analyses the effect of taking a career break on the wage level. Chapter 9 outlines the kinds of women from the labour force who follow courses, what sector women work in before exiting and after re-entering the workforce, what conditions women place on working and what the implications are for policy aimed at promoting the re-entry of women into the workforce.

18. With thanks to Carole Sombroek at the FNV women's secretariat, Amsterdam, and MuConsult research bureau, Amersfoort.

5. The potential labour supply of women

5.1 Developments in the Dutch labour market 1995-1999

Use is made in this section of the EBB data in order to examine the size and development of the potential labour supply of women. We have not limited the examination to women but have made a comparison with men. Table 23 presents the labour market situation in 1999 (columns 1 and 2) and the differences between 1995 and 1999 (columns 3 and 4). The rows are designated numbers whereby "(4): (3) off which:" means that in row (4) the people from row (3) are shown and then those people for whom an additional criterion applies. And (2)/(1) means that the number of people is shown in row (2) is divided by the number of people in row (1). The main findings are summed up below.

Table 23 reveals that the size of Category A, the working labour force, rose by 742,000 people between 1995 and 1999, with the proportion of women being 59%, higher than the increase in the percentage of women in the 15-64 age bracket of the population. This reflects the increase in the participation of women in the labour force.

The size of Category B, the unemployed, fell by 241,000 in the same period, with the percentage of women in the steep fall being 45%. The reason for this may be that more women from a non-participating position want paid work and so register for work.

The size of Category C, the potential labour supply, fell by 90,000, with women accounting for 68% of this figure. The potential labour supply unable to start work at short notice increased between 1995 and 1999 by 11,000. This rise is not attributable to women entirely since they even compensate the reduction of men in this group. The potential labour supply able to start work at short notice, though not having sought work in the preceding four weeks, fell by 101,000, 73% of which were women. This means that predominantly women not seeking work flowed into the labour market, most probably because of the shortage of labour.

Table 23 Situation in the Dutch labour market: men and women in 1999

		1999	1999	Difference 1999-1995		
		M&W	W	M&W	W	%W
	(1): People aged 15-64 (x 1,000)	10.663	5.263	165	94	57
Category A	(2): Working labour force (x 1,000)	6.805	2.684	742	435	59
	(3): Not working but seeking paid work (x 1,000)	805	520	-331	-170	51
Category B	(4): (3) of which: can ssn & have sought work p4w (x 1,000)	292	172	-241	-109	45
	(5): (4) of which work <12 hpw (x 1,000)	50	40	-19	-11	58
Category C	(6): (3) of which have not sought work p4w (x 1,000)	513	348	-90	-61	68
	(7): (6) of which can not ssn (x 1,000)	254	181	11	13	118
	(8): (6) of which can ssn (x 1,000)	259	167	-101	-74	73
Category D	(9) Not participating Not want to or can not work (x 1,000)	3.053	2.059	-243	-171	70
Category E	(10): Marginal workers (9)+ work <12 hpw (x 1,000)	746	517	44	29	66
Participation						
Net	(2)/(1) (in %)	63.8	51.0			
Net	Policy objective for 2010 (in %)		65.0			
Gross	((2)+(4))/(1) (in %)	68.1	54.3			

Source: CBS (2000) M=Men, W=women; Work is defined as paid work ≥ 12 hours per week. Can ssn= Can start at short notice. p4w=preceding 4 weeks. HpW=hours per week.

The size of Category D, the not-participating population, fell between 1995 and 1999 by 243,000 (women 70%). The size of Category E, the marginal workers, rose. This can be explained by the increase in the number of minor jobs for schoolchildren and students, though this last category is not incorporated in this study.

The rise in the category of working women is for 21.6% facilitated by the growth of the labour force. The other 78.4% of this rise is attributable to the fall in the categories of non-participating women. It relates more or less equally to the fall of the number of women that indicated no wish to work (39.3%) and a wish to work (39.1% of whom 25.1% unemployed, 14.0% potential labour supply). The second millennium therefore closed with a higher participation of women.

However, how can this strong increase in the net participation of women in the labour market to 51% in 1999 rise even further to 65% in 2010? If the population does not increase, then 737,000 women will have to succeed in finding paid work of more than 12 hours per week. Between 1995 and 1999 the labour force grew by 94,000 women. If the female labour force rises by 188,000 up to the year 2010, then 550,000 women will have to re-enter

employment if the aim of having 65% net participation of women in work by 2010. And this assumes that the participation of women already working in 1999 remains at similar levels and that the level of participation parallels the population growth.

The participation of women since the 1960s was low for a long period because women tended to stop paid work when they got married or had their first child at a young age. The human capital of these women is on average lower than men of the same age or women that are now as old as they were when they exited work because of the rise in the average levels of education. It appears that following the enormous growth in the participation of women at work, particularly from the mid eighties to the present, women that have the most desired qualifications have become active in the labour market. We could ask ourselves whether the labour supply potential has not meanwhile been creamed off. That is why we have investigated on the basis of the CBS data which characteristics the current group of people, wanting to work but not yet in work, embody. Does it concern mainly older women and/or women with a low level of education who are not yet participating but want to? And what are the obstacles that women face in the transition to paid work? Subsequently we put the potential labour supply into perspective with the other categories from Table 23 to try to clarify the work situation for women. Using the Work & ICT 2001 dataset, we want to check whether it is not mainly other qualifications that the current labour market demands that re-entering women fail to get a job due to a lack of qualifications. Chapter 9 of this report provides the first initiative for this research issue.

5.2 The size and composition of the potential labour supply

Since so little is known about the potential labour supply, Category C, and that those in this category do want to work, we will now consider more specifically the size composition of this category.¹⁸ Of all those wanting to work, 64% belong to Category C from Table 22 (see the Appendix of the Dutch version of the final report) of which 65% is women and 13% ethnic minority women.¹⁹ We have divided Category C into gender, age, ethnic origin and level of education in relation to the barriers ‘not able to participate at short notice’ and ‘able to but not having sought work in the preceding 4 weeks’. We subsequently label these barriers to paid work with ‘not able’ and ‘not seeking’.

19 In the Netherlands much research has been done in recent years on the unemployed. Therefore, we shall not be explicitly focusing here on the ‘non-participating but wishing to work’ group.

20 Ethnic minorities are defined by the CBS as: persons not born in the Netherlands nor of Dutch nationality. The data comes from the CCBS survey into the labour force. This definition is not the same as that for the target groups of the minorities policy.

The potential labour supply is greater amongst the labour force in the age range 25-44 (189,000 women) than in the 45-64 age range. This is 7.7% of the respective population group, 4.3% of whom are unable to begin at short notice and 3.3% that can but are not seeking work. This means that probably a larger portion of these people are 'not able' but that a large number are not seeking. In the 45-64 age range, 111,000 women belong to the potential labour supply, or 5.9% of the respective population group, of whom 2.6% are not able and 3.3% are not seeking. Why these women are not seeking work is not clear. Child care for children up to 4 years of age cannot be the reason. We can only guess that maybe the reasons include the location and times of work, required additional training, care for grandchildren, etc. 'Not able' does not include the category of the unemployed, as also indicated in the tables in the appendix of the Dutch final report.

5.2.1 'Not able'

Around half of the potential labour supply indicates 'not able' as a barrier to paid work, with women in the majority (73% of them want to work). This barrier is most apparent in women aged 25-44: 59% of women and 65% of ethnic minority women. This barrier was also cited by 20% of women aged 45-64.

The percentage of women 25-44 years old with an academic background is high amongst those in the potential labour supply. Of women aged 25-44 that are 'not able', 43% have a higher intermediate educational level of education or higher (hereafter referred to as 'mbo+') and 16% have a higher advanced level of education (hbo). These women are expected to re-enter work, indicating that they want to work. They have invested in education and probably exit work at a higher age than women in previous decades. Following re-entry, these women will possibly have a similar participation pattern as men. Women aged 45-64 that cannot begin at short notice have in 42% of the cases mbo+ education, 12.5% at hbo level. This group was examined for the reasons why they are unable to begin at short notice.

5.2.2 'Not seeking'

The other half of the potential labour supply can begin at short notice but have not been seeking work in the preceding four weeks, and 72% of them not in the preceding six months. Of this figure, more than half cites reasons other than lack of result. This last group comprises 40% women aged 25-44, and a similar percentage applies to ethnic minority women that probably have to contend with problems in combining work and care but indicate that they would be able and willing to work. This means that the 'not able' group is actually larger because a part of the not seeking is also not able. Nonetheless, the not seeking group is still significant.

Of women aged 25-44 that are 'not seeking', 46% has mbo+ education, and roughly a third hbo education: 10% is able but not seeking will 11% wants to work but has not been seeking in the preceding six months.

Women aged 45-64 that are not seeking have in 36% of the cases mbo+ education, of which 11% is at hbo level. The reasons why these women are not seeking are 'lack of result' and 'other reasons' in equal measure. 44% of women aged 45-64 that have not been seeking work in the preceding six months cite the chief reason as 'lack of result', which means that they have had problems finding a suitable job.

Not seeking is therefore a considerable barrier to the labour market, a category that decreased most in the period 1995-1999. Unfortunately the data at our disposal does not lend itself to investigating this phenomenon further. The Work & ICT 2001 survey provides the basis for inquiring into and further analysing the seeking behaviour.

5.3 Situation of women in the Dutch labour market in 1999

5.3.1 'In work'

Table 23 reveals that in 1999, there were 435,000 more women in paid work than in 1995. To maintain and expand levels of female participation, the outflow of this group must be prevented, and transition to jobs where there is a better match between supply and demand fostered. Moreover, it will have to be ensured that the steadfastness of these working women is such that they are not to be the first victims of any fall in economic growth. Transition and outflow of successful re-entrants fall outside the scope of this study, however.

Bearing in mind ICT, we have looked at how many women are involved with ICT in their work, and it is a considerable portion of working women, especially those in commercial and administrative professions. The appendices contain tables showing this. Depending on the development of computerisation within these professions, it will become apparent whether the incumbents can continue to fulfil the necessary qualifications or whether the size of the demand for this type of personnel will change. For successful re-entrants career supervision is important to help them into the most profitable sector and find out what the possibilities are to move into other work, and to clarify remuneration and the improvement of other terms of employment following re-entry.

5.3.2 'Want to and seeking work'

In 1999 there were 172,000 women wanting to and seeking work but the reasons why they still have no work are probably linked to their qualifications, with the conditions they place on a job or with the manner

they use to seek their preferred job. But there are women that classify themselves as unemployed in terms of the CBS as an initial step towards the labour market. We do not know whether these women have been classified for a long time as unemployed or whether they are recent additions to the ranks. On the basis of the CBS data we are unable to distinguish this group by the length of time the woman has been in the labour market. The tables in the Appendix show ethnic minority women looking for but having no work more often classified as unemployed than indigenous women with the same wish and in the same position. We have indicated that more women probably classify themselves as unemployed as a step towards paid work. This question requires further research.

5.3.3 'Potential labour supply'

More than 181,000 women that want to work are unable to start at short notice; this concerns probably women who are unable to perform paid work due to child care responsibilities, but would like to, at least in the long term. This group has the best probability of participation if the obstacle of 'not able' is removed. Finally, there are 167,000 women that want and are able to work at short notice, but are not seeking work. This group can participate in the labour market if their route to it is eased, if jobs present themselves. We later explore what the determinants are for successful seeking and which jobs present themselves.

As the previous section showed, in category C, the potential labour supply is greater in the 25-44 age range than the 45-64 range, with the average level of education mbo+. The group is more or less equally divided between 'not able' and 'not seeking' as to the reasons why they do not yet participate. This implies that in addition to policy, obstacles like care duties can be diminished and policy focused on 'seeking'.

The OSA (1999) reveals that the percentage of women with a working week of 25 hours or more rises the higher the level of education. In 1996 this percentage for women with a lower educational level was 35.6% against 80.7% for women with an academic educational level. In 1998 these percentages were 33.3% and 70.3% respectively. More than half of the working women with intermediate, higher and academic levels of education worked 25 hours or more each week in 1996 and 1998. This bodes well long-term for potential labour supply for the scope of the possible working week. In view of the large percentage of the potential labour supply with this level of education, it is a component not to be underestimated.

5.3.4 No wish for paid work

Since a large portion of the increased participation is the result of a fall in the 'non-participating' group, we want here to indicate the size and characteristics of this group of women in the labour market. Of the women

aged 25-44, 22% (544/2463) do not want paid work. The education of ethnic minority women that do not want paid work is generally high: 65% have mbo+ education, of whom 26% are hbo+. Most likely they do not want paid work due to caring for their children. This means that there will continue to be a group of women in the labour supply that interrupt their career for a period of time but that the possibility of them re-entering work rises as their children grow older. Half of the women aged 45-64 (943/1880) does not want paid work - 31% of these have mbo+ education and 8% education at hbo+ level.

Table 24 provides a brief overview of the labour potential of women. The lower half of the table refers to ethnic minority women, though we were not able empirically in this study to examine their labour market behaviour. We do, however, have the data at our disposal to further empirically analyse the labour market position of these women.

Table 24 Summary: labour potential of women

Women	Age 25-44	Potential (x1000 pers)	Age 45-64	Potential (x1000 pers)	Age 15-24	Potential (x1000 pers)
Total (x 1,000 persons)	2.463		1.880		920	
Net participation (%)	65.1		36.9		42.1	
Unemployed (%)	3.9	96.1	2.0	37.6	3.9	35.9
Willing, not seeking (%)	3.4	83.7	3.3	62.0	2.5	23.0
Willing, not able (%)	4.3	105.9	2.6	48.9	2.8	25.8
Not willing (%)	22.0		50.2		48.5	
Disabled (%)	1.2		2.6			
Early retirement (%)			2.4			
Total (x 1000 pers.) to the labour market		285.7		148.5		84.7
Selection: ethnic min. women						
Total (x 1,000 persons)	313		173		99	
Net participation (%)	46.6		35.3		29.3	
Unemployed (%)	6.4	20	3.5	6	6.1	6
Willing, not seeking (%)	5.2	16	4.1	7	4.0	2
Willing, not able (%)	8.9	28	4.6	8	7.1	7
Not willing (%)	31.3		46.8		53.5	
Disabled (%)	1.9		2.9			
Early retirement (%)						
Total (x 1000 pers.) to the labour market		64		21		15

Source: Based on EBB 1999 Work=paid work of more than 12 hours per week. 'Not able' means cannot begin at short notice; 'Not seeking' means not having sought paid work in the preceding 4 weeks.

5.4 Conclusions

We may conclude that to raise the net participation of women in 2010 to 65% is less than realistic. The period 1995-1999 saw the number of women in paid work increase by 435,000, a rise made possible by the increase in the labour force (21.6%), decrease in unemployment (25.1%), reduction in the

potential labour supply (14.0%) and the category of non-participants (39.3%). A further rise in the numbers of women in paid work by 550,000 in 2010 and 188,000 from the growth of the labour force requires predominantly women in the 45-64 age group to raise their participation, and that within the labour supply of women younger than 45, the participation of women from the ethnic minorities is boosted.

Table 24 suggests that if all women currently unemployed or belong to the potential labour supply are going to participate, then around 520,000 more women will be in paid work, 100,000 of whom will be ethnic minorities. However, 181,000 women (43,000 of whom are ethnic minority women) of this total state their inability to work in the short term. The majority of these come within the 25-44 age range. This means that any future study must focus on the removal of 'obstacles to not able' and on the factors that affect the probability of participation of women that are able to participate but are not seeking to do so and women who state their intention not to participate.

The two groups from the potential labour force that can raise the level of participation in the future have hardly been studied quantitatively. A chasm exists concerning knowledge about the labour market behaviour of ethnic minority women in relation to the birth of children, and in the relationship with the labour market position of the partner, if any, and particularly since these women will account for 20% of the younger generation in 2010. Almost nothing is known either about the older women that have begun to participate in the past five years after having stated that they would not be doing so, and about women not yet participating in the labour market. The following chapter examines the group of re-entrants. However, the data available did not allow for an examination of the labour market transitions of ethnic minority women.²⁰ Such research first has to focus on the exit²¹ of the second generation of ethnic minority women that have completed their education in full in the Netherlands and also delay the birth of their children to a later age²². Only then can the career break between exit and re-entry be examined.

²⁰ Recently data has become available that facilitates analysis of the labour market behaviour of ethnic minority women.

²¹ The school to work transition is being investigated. Moreover, and to an increasing degree, school leavers are experiencing no difficulty in finding a job. Each year 175,000 to 200,000 pupils leave school. In 1994 school leavers needed 7 months on average to find a job; in 1999 this was down to 3.8 months, and academics had work within 3 months.

²² Women from all ethnic groups delay having children. Turkish women are the youngest in having their first child, at five years earlier than their indigenous Dutch counterparts.

6. Re-entry as transition

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter we want to examine how re-entry functions as a transition in the labour market. The following questions are investigated:

- What is the composition of the group of female re-entrants?
- What are the determinants for women re-entering the workforce?

We draw on the 1988 OSA labour supply panel research and the FNV survey made in 2000 of female re-entrants. In section 6.2 the composition of the group of female re-entrants will be discussed with regard to age, level of education and family situation. This will enable a comparison with the 1999 CBS database as described in Chapter 7. In section 6.3 the determinants likely to influence the probability of re-entry are discussed. Following that, in section 6.4 the effects of these determinants on re-entry are estimated on the basis of the OSA database and the FNV database of female re-entrants. Conclusions are presented in section 6.5.

6.2 Composition of the group of female re-entrants

In this section we discuss the composition of the group of female re-entrants. We draw on recent OSA data, although small-scale, in order to describe the characteristics of the women who, from being in a position of having no paid work (categories B and D according to Table 23²³) have actually found a job (category A according to Table 23) in the period 1996-1998. The second source of data that we have used to research the transition to paid work are the data from the survey recently undertaken by FNV amongst female re-entrants.

6.2.1 FNV survey among female re-entrants

The female re-entrants were contacted in various ways. Firstly, on 27 June 2000, the FNV held a 'telephone day' on which re-entrants could talk about their experiences of re-entering the workforce. Women who called were asked if they would complete a questionnaire, and 135 did so. Secondly, the FNV collaborated with the Start employment agency to send the questionnaire to women who were registered with the agency as re-entrants. Of the 7,000 questionnaires sent out, 1,756 were sent back. Thirdly, the FNV placed the questionnaire on its website. Roughly 80 people accessed it in this way. The database consists of women who are seeking work or, in any event, are keeping the trade union or Start informed of their labour market status and who are thus communicative about their re-entry.

²³ We cannot identify category C according to Table 27 in the OSA data.

Of the total 1,971 questionnaires that were completed, a number of respondents did not meet the definition of a re-entrant as defined by the FNV: a woman who wants to work but who has not participated in the labour market for a minimum of one year. 16 people had not had a paid job in the past, 29 people were men, and 66 women stopped working in 2000. By contrast, we do include women who have had a break of less than a year in our research. For the analyses, we use a dataset that includes 1,926 questionnaires.

The women who have completed the questionnaire fall into two groups. The first group (n=594) consists of women who still did not have a job in June/July 2000; they are called the potential re-entrants. The second group (n=1332) consists of women who by contrast had succeeded in finding a job at that time. They are called the successful re-entrants. Of these successful re-entrants, those who work more than 12 hours a week belong to category A of Table 23, and those who work less than 12 hours a week belong to category E. The potential re-entrants belong to the categories B, and C from Table 23. They are actively seeking paid work.

6.2.2 Comparison of datasets: characteristics of re-entrants

In Table 25, the women who went into paid work are shown based on the OSA data and the FNV's re-entrants survey. Since the databases differ in structure, women in the OSA database are shown who made the transition to paid work from a being in the position of not participating and from a being in the position of seeking work in the period 1996-1998. For those re-entrants in the FNV survey, we know their current labour market status and when they last stopped paid work.

We describe the composition of the group of re-entrants by age, highest achieved level of education and home situation, in particular with reference to the age of children. From the comparison of the datasets it can be deduced that the category of women without paid work (n=907) in the OSA data greatly resembles the FNV categories B, C and D. However, those who made the move from being without paid work to paid work (n=179) form a young selection of this group. Almost half of the women who made the transition to a job from being in the position of not participating are in the age category 35-44. A little under 20% are 45 or older. Of the women who made the transition to paid work from seeking work, 37% are aged 35-44 and 20% are 45 or older. In particular, women with a lower vocational/intermediate secondary education found paid work. Yet 12.4% of the women who joined the labour market from being in a position of not participating are also educated to at least higher vocational level.

The FNV survey is a good reflection of the CBS category C of those who can begin in the near future. These women are on average older and better educated than the other individuals without paid work (category D of the

CBS, and OSA unemployed and not-participating in September 1996). The women in the FNV survey who found paid work after 1996 are younger and better educated than the re-entrants who accepted paid work before 1996. The potential re-entrants have yet less education than the already successful re-entrants. This appears to be a case of the market skimming off the cream.

As regards the composition of the household, it appears in the OSA data that married women without children living at home comprise the greatest proportion of the women who went into paid work, both from having not participated as well as from being in a position of seeking work. Of the women with children living at home, particularly those whose children are in the age groups 6-12 years and 6-17 years found work, and in particular those starting from a position of not participating.

Table 25 Comparison of the datasets: characteristics of women in the labour market

	CBS Cat A	CBS Cat B, C&D	CBS Cat C	CBS Cat C oktb	CBS Cat D	OSA. Np& wz 9-96	OSA Trans. Np-bw	OSA Trans. wz-bw	FNV Trans. Bw	FNV Trans. Bw na 96	FNV Poten tueel
Age1											
15-24(%)	14.3	20.9	14.1	12.7	23.0	2.0	3.4	16.5	0.1	0.1	0.2
25-44(%)	59.1	33.7	54.3	52.2	28.2	44.7	81.1	63.8	59.5	66.8	60.3
45-64(%)	26.7	45.4	31.6	35.0	48.8	53.2	18.2	19.8	40.5	33.1	39.6
N x1.000 pers	2.684	2.579	348	167	1.933	907	88	91	1329	831	531
Age2											
24-44(%)	68.9	42.6	63.2	59.9	36.6	45.7	82.2	80.7	59.8	66.8	60.4
45-64(%)	31.1	57.4	31.6	40.1	63.4	54.3	17.8	19.3	40.2	33.1	39.6
N x1.000 pers	2.297	2.046	300	144	1.487	882			1329	830	531
Age3											
15-24(%)						2.0	16.5	3.4	0.1	0.1	0.2
25-34(%)						16.1	26.4	31.8	7.0	9.4	11.1
35-44(%)						28.6	37.4	46.6	52.8	57.4	49.2
45-54(%)						25.5	18.7	14.8	37.3	31.3	34.9
55-64(%)						27.7	1.1	3.4	2.8	1.8	4.7
Education All ages											
Lo(%)	5.9	22.5	17.8	18.6	24.0	12.0	2.3	7.4	1.8	1.6	2.7
Lbo/mavo(%)	19.5	35.7	30.2	32.3	37.1	54.9	37.1	51.9	51.5	49.1	53.6
Mbo/havo(%)	45.5	31.3	35.9	35.3	29.8	25.3	33.7	28.4	33.8	36.6	30.7
Hbo(%)	21.1	6.1	12.1	10.2	7.8	6.4	19.1	9.9	12.9	12.8	13.0
Wo(%)	7.8	1.8	2.0	-	1.2	1.4	7.9	2.5			
Education Age 25-44 year											
Lo(%)	4.4	15.0	15.3	17.1	8.9	6.7			1.3	1.1	2.5
Lbo/mavo(%)	14.9	27.6	28.0	30.5	19.8	50.5			48.6	45.4	50.4
Mbo/havo(%)	47.1	39.1	36.5	32.9	44.9	32.8			40.7	43.6	37.8
Hbo(%)	23.4	12.9	13.2	9.8	18.8	7.7			9.4	9.9	9.2
Wo(%)	10.0	4.2	-	-	7.5	2.2					
Education Age 45-64 year											
Lo(%)	9.5	18.1	15.5	19.4	28.2	16.3			2.0	2.6	3.4
Lbo/mavo(%)	26.1	30.9	32.7	35.1	38.9	58.8			54.5	56.4	59.8
Mbo/havo(%)	38.1	32.9	26.4	24.2	24.7	19.0			24.4	22.6	19.6
Hbo(%)	20.2	12.8	11.8	11.3	7.1	5.2			19.1	18.6	17.2
Wo(%)	5.9	4.7	-	-	1.2	0.8					
Family situation											
Child 0-5(%)						11.9	11.8	16.7	15.3	21.4	22.7
Child 6-12(%)						30.7	28.8	31.0	47.8	51.4	45.7
Child 13-17(%)						23.8	17.0	26.2	37.0	27.2	31.5
Child 0-1(%) ²						12.9	11.9	2.4			
Child 6-17(%)						19.3	27.1	23.8			
Child 0-17(%)						1.4	3.4	-			
Single						9.9	4.6	15.4			
Couple no children at home						45.2	22.8	34.1	19.5	16.0	26.4
Child 0-5(%)						5.3	10.2	8.8	12.3	18.0	16.7
Child 6-12(%)						13.8	20.5	14.3	28.5	43.2	33.6
Child 13-17(%)						10.7	13.6	15.4	29.7	22.9	23.2
Child 0-1(%) ²						5.8	18.2	11.0			
Child 6-17(%)						8.7	8.0	1.1			
Child 0-17(%)						0.6					

Source: Own analysis of data from CBS 1999; OSA 1998; FNV re-entrants 2000. Categories A, B, C and D according to the CBS definition. OSA data by type of transition (trans.sw-pw=from seeking work to paid work; trans.np-pw=from not participating to paid work) in the period 9-96 to 9-98. FNV survey: trans.pw=transition to paid work. Trans pw after 1996=transition after 1996 to enable a better comparison with OSA database. Age1 represents the complete labour force. CBS data includes individuals in full-time education; OSA excludes individuals in full-time education. Age2: the age categories relevant to re-entry. Age3: CBS data is not differentiated at this level of detail. OSA and FNV are differentiated to enable comparison of, in particular, the categories 35-44 and 45-54 years. FNV couple no children living at home, is wife with children older than 18. FNV data: Hbo and Wo are merged. Family situation²=percentage split is based on family type including single parent and couple without children living at home.

Explanation of levels of Dutch educational qualifications used in Table 25

Lo – primary education, Lbo/mavo – lower vocational/intermediate secondary education

Mbo/havo – intermediate vocational/higher secondary education

Hbo – higher vocational education; Wo – higher education

The re-entrants in the FNV survey who became active in paid work after 1996 tend to have children in the age group 6-12 years to a greater extent than in the OSA data. A large proportion of the re-entrants also has children of secondary school age. This is also true of potential re-entrants.

6.3 The probability of re-entry

This section focuses on the probability of re-entry:

- ✓ What are the determinants for the probability of finding a job for women who are not participating in paid work?

The analysis of the probability of re-entry is based on the theory of human capital. In this theory participation in the labour market depends on the comparison between the salary that can be earned in the labour market and the reservation wage (“shadow wage”). This logical framework for the female labour supply is based on ‘not able to’ because of caring for children, and ‘not needing to’ because of a partner’s income, and ‘to be able to’ and ‘to need to’ given the highest achieved educational level. ‘Not able to’ is regarded positively if the productivity in the household is greater than the productivity in the labour market. The model is based on the reality of a breadwinner situation and an unequal distribution of child care and the provision of the income between men and women. If care duties are organised, education once again becomes the indicator of ambition and the probability of a ‘good’ salary.

In Chapter 7 we showed how for women who belong to the potential labour supply ‘not able to’ and ‘not seeking’ form two barriers to the labour market for women who actually do want to take up paid work. It seems plausible that for women in the potential labour supply, the calendar time and the age at which human capital is built up and the time at which ‘able to’ and ‘want to’ go hand in hand with ‘employment growth’ together account for the probability of participation. The investment in initial education has been made in order to earn an income later on.

Most economic models that aim to predict the probability of participation in the labour force by women use as explanatory variables the age of the woman, her level of education, her wage base, her partner’s income, and the number and age of children in the household. A great deal of international economic research has been done in this area.²⁴ The most recent research, however, is based on cross section data from 1992. In the case of re-

²⁴ Dutch dissertations about labour supply models (not exhaustive): Based on cross section data up to 1992: Siegers (1985), Van Soest (1990), Woittiez (1990), Renes (1991), Maassen van den Brink (1994), Grift (1998), Mertens (1998) and Vlasblom (1998), Aldershof (1999). We not do know of any thesis at this time that analyses Dutch cross section data since 1992. Wetzels’ thesis (1999) is based on panel data 1985-1996. Other publications: Hartog and Theeuwes (1985), and Mol et al (1988) for an overview of the research into the female labour supply in the Netherlands in the period 1960-1987, Van der Klaauw (1996), Yoshikawa, H. and Ohtake F. (1989).

entrants, it appears to be important to research the extent to which their perception of the probability of gaining a job contributes to success in finding one (Renes, 1991). One factor in this is the number of jobs offered per year in relation to the speed and possibility of recruiting employees. A notable point for analysis that has not actually been investigated in the standard comparison is the extent to which human capital ages during a break from work and in what ways and to what extent this can be explained by the duration of the break. The accumulation of the re-entrants' human capital has been interrupted and it is not clear whether an update is necessary and if so of what type, and in what form and what the new or changed requirements placed on employees are. It is also unclear what the precise effect of the duration of the interruption is on the re-entrant's human capital in relation to the demand for human capital. It is a major issue that requires extensive research. It has, though, been shown in various studies that the quality of the work experience in the labour market decreases with age.

It appears from the FNV survey that in the majority of cases the re-entrants to the labour market need to participate for the sake of income. The FNV survey asked whether the successful re-entrant has a higher, equal or lower gross income than her partner. It appears that 74% of the successful re-entrants have a lower gross wage than their partners, 5% of them earn more, 0.9% of them earn the same amount as their partner. The remainder does not wish to impart information on this point. Unfortunately the gross wage for either the re-entrant or the partner is not known. We can suppose that if income plays a role in the decision to re-enter, then on average it is the salary of the 'second earner' that is in question. Before making estimates of the probability of re-entry, we will first analyse the motives for re-entry.

6.3.1 Motives for re-entry

To better understand the step of re-entering, we have translated the information from the FNV survey about motives for becoming active once more in the labour market to 'successful/potential re-entry', education and length of break from work. Table 26 shows the motives given for wishing to return to paid work and the proportion of re-entrants who subscribe to these motives. The motive for re-entry 'because the income is needed' is only cited by a quarter of the women (successful and potential re-entrants). Similarly, the motive 'I want to be financially independent' is cited by 19% of the successful re-entrants and by 24% of the potential re-entrants. Both motives are cited by 4.7% of the successful re-entrants and 5.4% of the potential re-entrants.²⁵

²⁵ It should be borne in mind that in 1991, according to estimates by Van Berkel and De Graaf (1995), 48% of Dutch women were completely financially dependent on their partners.

The most frequently cited motives for re-entrants to participate are ‘my children are growing up/ becoming more independent’, ‘because of the social contacts’ and ‘I want to develop myself’. These motives indicate that for re-entrants the intrinsic motivation of having a job plays the greatest role. This is also apparent from the comparison of the current and previous jobs of the successful re-entrants in terms of the characteristics ‘enjoyable and/or interesting job’ and ‘wage’. The current position is regarded as more interesting or as being of at least equivalent interest by more successful re-entrants than the number of re-entrants for whom the accompanying wage has become higher or remained equal to the wage for the previous job.²⁶

Table 26 *Motives of re-entrants to participate, percentage of re-entrants who cited that motive*

Motives	Successful re-entrants	Potential re-entrants
1. Need the income	26.5	26.8
2. I would like to be financially independent	19.4	23.9
1+2	4.7	5.9
3. To develop myself	25.9	31.8
2+3	3.7	5.4
4. My children are growing up/becoming more independent	47.2	39.1
1+4	6.2	5.6
3+4	19.4	9.3
5. I gained more spare time	16.9	15.3
6. Because of the social contacts	33.0	38.2
5+6	3.5	4.0
7. Because of the government benefits agency	0.8	2.2
4+6	12.0	10.1
N	1332	594

Source: *Own analysis of data from FNV re-entrants survey, 2000*

Table 27 shows the motives given by the successful and potential re-entrants categorised by the educational level of the re-entrants. From the table, it appears that there is a link between motives to move back into paid work and educational level and that these can be most clearly seen among the successful re-entrants. It concerns the following link: low-educated re-entrants cite financial motives much more often than re-entrants with higher or higher vocational education. The motive ‘to develop myself’ is cited more often as the educational level of the re-entrant increases. Vice versa, the motives ‘more spare time’ and ‘because of social contacts’ are cited less as the educational level of the re-entrants rises. The motive that children are becoming more independent is cited a little more often by the low and highly educated than by the re-entrants educated to intermediate level.

²⁶ Of the successful re-entrants, 26% apparently earn more in their current job than in their previous job. 28% do not indicate a difference in the two salaries, and 26% report that the current job pays less well than the previous job. The remainder does not wish to divulge information. The percentage of successful re-entrants who state that their current job is more enjoyable and/or interesting than their previous one is 37%, just as enjoyable and/or interesting 36%, less enjoyable and/or interesting 13% and the rest expressed no opinion.

Table 27 *Motives of successful and potential re-entrants by education, percentage of re-entrants who cited that motive*

	Successful re-entrants			Potential re-entrants		
	1	2	3	1	2	3
Educational level						
Motive:						
1. Need the income	47.1	35.3	15.4	25.8	25.3	31.2
2. I would like to be financially independent	46.4	33.7	16.5	23.3	21.4	29.9
3. To develop myself	20.3	30.7	38.5	24.2	41.2	40.3
4. My children are growing up/becoming more independent	51.2	44.2	39.6	43.0	39.6	23.4
5. I gained more spare time	21.5	14.0	5.9	19.1	9.9	13.0
6. Because of the social contacts	34.8	33.6	24.9	40.8	38.5	32.5
N	676	450	169	314	182	77

Source: *Own analysis of data from FNV re-entrants survey, 2000*

Level 1 = domestic science school, advanced primary, intermediate secondary and lower vocational education; Level 2: high school, higher secondary, pre-university and intermediate vocation education; Level 3 = vocational higher and higher education

Table 28 displays the motives given by the successful and potential re-entrants categorised by the duration of the re-entrants' most recent break from paid work. The pattern of motives is roughly the same for successful and potential re-entrants. The length of the break is measured from the last time that the women stopped doing paid work. The financial motives are primarily cited by those re-entrants with the shortest time away from the workplace, that is by the successful re-entrants with an interruption of between one and five years and by the potential re-entrants with an interruption of one year.

The motive 'to develop myself' is primarily cited by the re-entrants who have interrupted their working careers for between two and five years. When the increasing independence of children is cited by successful re-entrants it is primarily those who have interrupted their careers for a period of between five and ten years. Of the potential re-entrants, this reason is primarily cited by those with a break of just one year and those whose break is more than ten years. This probably indicates a group of women among the potential re-entrants with an interruption of one year and who were previously active in paid work. The motive 'more spare time' is cited increasingly as the duration of the break increases. The motive 'because of social contacts' is cited frequently even by women with a short interruption. This probably reflects their missing their circle of work friends when the break from work occurred not so long previously.

The motives held by re-entrants are thus partly related to educational level and partly to the duration of the break from work. The intrinsic motivation for re-entry into the labour market appears to be related to the highest achieved educational level and the duration of the break. The woman's human capital (education, when she last stopped paid work) and the

opportunity costs ('children are growing up') appear in any event to offer the best explanation for the probability of a woman re-entering. In estimating the probability of participation, we include the motives via these variables.

Table 28 Motives of successful and potential re-entrants by length of career break, percentage of re-entrants who cited that motive

Length of career break	Successful re-entrants						
	1 year	2 year	3-5 yr	5-10 yr	10-15 yr	15-20 yr	> 20 yr
Motive:							
1. Need the income	31.8	34.0	32.3	25.1	23.2	23.0	31.1
2. I would like to be financially independent	28.8	32.0	21.1	22.8	13.6	17.4	21.2
3. To develop myself	30.3	36.0	34.2	23.9	22.0	25.8	25.8
4. My children are older/more independent	27.3	22.0	25.5	45.9	60.9	60.1	39.4
5. I gained more spare time	3.0	8.0	14.9	18.5	20.3	16.4	17.4
6. Because of the social contacts	40.9	46.0	37.3	35.3	28.4	28.2	31.8
N	66	50	161	351	345	213	132
	Potential re-entrants						
1. Need the income	32.4	20.0	25.5	22.1	28.4	23.6	28.6
2. I would like to be financially independent	28.2	15.0	27.7	32.0	19.0	19.1	22.2
3. To develop myself	22.5	35.0	36.2	41.0	33.7	31.5	17.5
4. My children are older/more independent	33.8	12.5	17.0	32.8	56.8	59.6	44.4
5. I gained more spare time	15.5	15.0	6.4	15.6	15.8	18.0	19.0
6. Because of the social contacts	36.6	47.5	59.6	36.9	33.7	28.1	36.5
N	61	40	47	122	95	28	11

Source: Own analysis of data from FNV re-entrants survey, 2000

6.4 Determinants of re-entry

6.4.1 Introduction

We are interested in the issue of what determines whether a woman returns to the labour market at a given moment after an interruption of at least one year. What we observe is whether or not a woman returns to paid work after a break of at least this long, represented as Y ($Y=1$: woman has re-entered, $Y=0$: woman has not re-entered). We assume that the decision to re-enter is influenced by:

1. Personal characteristics: highest achieved educational level, age, age on last exiting the workforce, number of years' break, accumulation of human capital during the break such as by following courses (how many, how long and subject matter), participation in social networks (voluntary work).
2. Domestic characteristics: social position of partner, if any, partner's income and education, number and ages of children.
3. Wider socio-economic environments: accessibility and availability of search channels, economic situation at the time at which 'able to' and

‘want to’ coincide, availability, quality and cost of social services such as the purchase of child care, leave arrangements and the like.

Personal and domestic characteristics are represented by X . The relative influence of each of these characteristics on the decision to re-enter is represented by the coefficient b . To relate the determinants of re-entry Xb to the actualisations, we must make an assumption about the distribution of the outcomes. We assume a logical distribution. Then, by applying econometric techniques the relative weightings b for the various variables in X on the probability of re-entry are determined.

6.4.2 Probability of re-entry for all non-participating women

In Table 29 the estimation results of the logit model are presented, estimated with the help of the OSA database. We have presented the results as log odds ratios. This ratio can be interpreted as meaning that a value less than one means that the variable concerned reduces the probability of the transition to paid work in comparison with the group that has been taken as a reference group (the base group, indicated by ‘base’ in the table). A value greater than one means that the probability of re-entry is greater for individuals with that characteristic than for the reference group.

The specification of the model in Table 29 takes into account age, education, age of children, voluntary work and activities or courses followed. Since age and education are related, as are education and the age of the mother on the birth of the first child, we have also estimated models in order to research the effects of these relationships on the probability of working. These estimation models are included in the appendix. These estimation models are available upon request by the authors.

As is to be expected from the description in Table 29, the significant effect of age is evident. Women younger than 45 have five times more probability of re-entry than women over 45. It is striking that there is little difference between the women younger than 35 and women in the age group 35-45 years. Education to a high level more than doubles (2.3) the probability of re-entry compared with a low educational level. But education to an intermediate level has no significant effect on re-entry in comparison with a low-level education. A child in the 13-17 age group also doubles the probability of re-entry in comparison with a child under six years old. A child in the 6-12 age group has the same effect as a child under six years old. Children in other age groups have no significantly different effect to children in the 0-6 age group.

Table 29 Factors determining the probability of succeeding in finding a paid job in the period September 1996–September 1998, for women who were not in paid work in September 1996. Odds ratio based on logit model and Z value.

All women not in paid work and not in education in September 1996		
	odds ratio	z
Age younger than 35 years	4.992	5.48
Age between 35 and 45 years	5.019	5.28
Age older than 45 (base)	1	
Education is voc. uni./uni	2.329	2.74
Education is pre-uni./intermed. voc.	1.122	0.51
Education lower (base)	1	
Child 6-12	1.635	1.62
Child 13-17	2.003	2.32
Child 0-12	0.831	-0.42
Child 6-17	2.440	2.63
Child 0-5 (base)	1	
Dummy: Course followed	2.214	3.41
Base (no course followed)	1	
Dummy Voluntary work	0.558	-2.55
Base (no voluntary work)	1	
Loglikelihood	-334.10	
Wald chi2(7)	94.13	
Prob > chi2	0.000	
Pseudo R2	0.1542	
N	907	

Source: Own calculation based on OSA 1998. The dependent variable=transition from not in paid work to paid work took place after September 1996 until September 1998. Dummy child 0-5 =1 means that there is at least one child in the household and that the child/children is/are in the age group 0-5. Ditto for the ages 6-12 and 13-17. The dummy that indicates whether a course was followed is 1 if the woman followed the course after September 1996. The dummy voluntary work indicates that the woman was engaged in voluntary work in September 1998.

Following a course (after September 1996) doubles the probability of re-entry compared with women who have not done this. But women engaged in voluntary work at the time of the survey in September 1998 have 50% less probability of re-entry than women who reported that they were not engaged in voluntary work at that time. Two explanations for this are possible: women in voluntary work have less success in finding a job because they search less actively as they spend their time on voluntary work; women who do not succeed in finding a job become active in voluntary work. Unfortunately we do not know if this group of women was active in voluntary work two years before the survey. By making the link to data collected in 1996, this can be researched. However, the group of re-entrants in 1998 is already extremely small and will become even smaller once linked with OSA 1996, unless all women from 1998 were also questioned in 1996 (no panel dropout).

6.4.3 Probability of re-entry for women who regard themselves as re-entrants

According to Table 25 the survey among re-entrants was held among women who would like to work, and who, on average, are older than the women who become participants according to the OSA survey. We have estimated the probability of work using the same specification as in Table 30. The logit model is estimated using information from the time of the survey. Age and education no longer appear to have a significant effect on the probability of re-entry. However having a child in the 13-18 age group has a positive significant effect on the probability of re-entry.

In looking for a job, a number of employment conditions can act as a criteria ceiling. For example, number of hours worked, commuting distance, working hours, the possibility of teleworking and minimum wage sought. The conditions the woman applies have a relationship with the conditions the demand side can and wishes to grant. From the logit model in Table 30, it appears that the condition of enjoyable work in particular most reduces the probability of re-entry. The women who cite this condition have 40% less probability of re-entering the workforce than those who do not. The condition of part-time work reduces the probability of re-entry by 12% in contrast to those women who do not cite it.

As expected, in addition to conditions, the following factors play a role in explaining the probability of re-entry. A foremost factor is employment trends: the demand in the labour market for new personnel can make it easier for women looking for work to find a job. The percentage of unemployed appears to be a less good indicator because a proportion of the women who do not participate but who in fact do want to work, register themselves as unemployed. A consequence of this is that a shortage in the labour market results in a high unemployment percentage among women. And thus a high unemployment percentage among women is not an indicator of poor economic development. What then becomes an indicator is the number of jobs that are generated in a calendar year. As such an extension of the research would require an initial analysis of the number of jobs in the period that we are studying, it therefore falls outside the scope of this research.

Table 30 Factors determining the probability of succeeding in finding a paid job after exiting the workforce. Odds ratios based on logit and z values.

All re-entrants	Odds ratio	Z
Age younger than 35 years	0.827	-1.02
Age between 35 and 45 years	1.013	0.09
Age older than 45 (base)	1	
Dummy Education =high	1.083	0.497
Dummy Education =intermediate	1.205	1.587
Education low (base)	1	
Youngest child 6-12		
Youngest child 0-5 (base)	1	
Youngest child 13-18	1.461	2.09
Youngest child >18	0.975	-0.122
Condition enjoyable job	0.612	-3.70
Condition part-time	0.818	-1.78
Condition locally	0.772	-2.33
Condition during school hours	0.776	-2.00

Source: Own calculation based on FNV re-entrants survey, 2000. Low education: lower than secondary school; intermediary education is secondary school; High education =higher vocational education or university. Sector: sector in which successful re-entrant now works; sector in which potential re-entrant wishes to work.

6.5 Conclusions

In this chapter the transition to paid work has been researched among women who do not participate but who have done so or who wish to do so, using quantitative data. The surveys on which the research into the re-entry into the labour market has been based differ. The OSA survey has information about women who make the transition to paid work from the statuses: non-participating or seeking work. These women primarily belong to the age group 25-44, and have an educational level comparable to those working women in the CBS data. More than 20% of them have no children living at home, and of those women who do have children living at home their children are generally older than six.

The survey of FNV re-entrants from 2000 contains information about re-entrants: those who maintain contact about their transition from non-participating to actively participating in paid work. These women correspond to category C in the labour supply who report that they can start work at short notice. From these data it appears that this group is subject to a creaming-off process in the market. The women who most recently re-entered are younger and better educated than those who re-entered prior to 1996. The re-entrants from the FNV survey are somewhat older and on average less highly educated than the re-entrants from the OSA database, but there are also few re-entrants with a low educational level. Relatively often, the re-entrants have children in the 6-12 age group and aged between 6 and 17 years old.

The probability of re-entry among all non-participating women (based on the OSA data) is five times greater among the following groups: young re-

entrants; those with higher vocational or higher education; those who have followed a course; those with children aged between 6 and 17; and those with children in the 13-17 age group (at least doubling the probability of re-entry).

The probability of re-entry among women who would like to work and call themselves re-entrants (the category C according to the CBS categorisation in Table 22, based on the re-entrants survey) increases when these women have a child aged 13-18. The condition of enjoyable work, in particular, negatively influences the probability of re-entry.

Motives for re-entry correlate to the highest level of education completed. In particular, the financial motives are cited by women with a lower level of education and the motive 'to develop myself' by more highly educated women. The motives also correlate to the length of the break from work. Motives such as 'income', 'development' and 'social contacts' tend to play role when the interruption is short. Motives such as 'more spare time' and 'my children are becoming more independent' occur when the period away from work is longer.

A model that only explains the probability of re-entry on the basis of motives attributes a significant effect only to 'I gained more spare time'. Women with this motive have a greater probability of re-entry. The effect of this motive is completely erased when 'children' are included in the estimation. It appears that standard economic variables covers the effects of motives. Thus, in themselves motives like 'developing myself' are not significant. Since education by contrast *is* significant, the policy that aims to encourage re-entry must focus on this. The information about the correlation between motives and education and motives and the length of the break from work can be used to reach women with a particular educational level. Appealing to the motive 'to develop myself' appears to have the greatest probability of success if the woman has a higher education and the break from work is between two and five years. Appealing with salary appears to work well with women with a lower educational level and those who have been away from the workplace for a short time. The same applies to social contacts. Women whose motive is that their children are growing up will want to be approached about re-entry when their children are at least five years old.

The results of the FNV survey are indicative for the CBS's potential labour supply, with the exception of women who only achieved a low level of education.

7. Determinants of the period preceding re-entry

7.1 Introduction

This section investigates the following questions:

- For how long do women interrupt their careers?
- What are the determinants for the length of the break for re-entrants?

We draw on the FNV survey among re-entrants conducted in 2000. In section 7.2 we discuss the length of the break taken by re-entrants in relation to age, educational level and whether or not the re-entry was achieved. In section 7.3 the probability of re-entry is discussed and estimated on the basis of the FNV re-entrants database. Section 7.4 completes the chapter with conclusions.

7.2 Length of career break

Little research has been undertaken into the transitions from working to not participating, from not participating to seeking work and from not participating to working. Analyses have recently been made of workforce exit and re-entry as a consequence of the birth of children. Research into transitions in the labour market depends on panel data or reliable retrospective data. It has been possible to concentrate such research on transitions surrounding the births of the first, second and third children though it has only been possible to carry out the analysis in the short period surrounding the birth.²⁷ In this study we want to gain an insight into the career break by analysing the group of women who characterise themselves as re-entrants. Within this group are both women who have recently had a first child and those who have adult children and who were not active in the labour market for more than ten years.

We can place the duration of the break by the re-entrants in the FNV survey in the perspective of the research undertaken by OSA. The numbers of re-entrants in the OSA panel database are too few to enable reliable statements about the length of the period that the re-entrants have not been active. However, something can be said here about this given the average age on exiting the workforce. At the start of the 1980s, the average age of women with a child younger than five years old (and in OSA 1985/1986) on exiting the workforce was 25 or 26 years. From Allaart and De Voogd (1994) it appears that before the start of the 1990s the average age at re-entry was 36 to 37 years. Since it is a question of the same birth cohort, it can be said that

28. Gustafsson S.S., C.M.M.P. Wetzels, J.D. Vlasblom and S. Dex (1996), Groot W. and H. Maassen Van Den Brink (1997), Wetzels (2001), Gustafsson S.S. and C.M.M.P. Wetzels (2000), Gustafsson S.S., C.M.M.P. Wetzels and E. Kenjoh (forthcoming 2001a,b,c,d, 2002a,b)

the re-entrants in 1990-1992 had not been active in the labour market for an average of 11 years. It is assumed that the women did not re-enter the workforce and leave it again in the period 1986-1990.

The average length of the break taken by the potential re-entrants in the FNV survey is 10.6 years (stand dv 7.0; n=1785²⁸). The successful re-entrants have, on average, a break that is two years longer than that of the potential re-entrants. Re-entrants with a low educational level have, on average, a break that is two years longer than that of re-entrants with an intermediate-level education. Re-entrants educated to an intermediate or high level have, on average, a break of equal duration.

Table 31 Average duration of break in years by re-entrants actively seeking work and education (standard deviation)

Education	All	Low	Intermediate	High
Successful re-entrants	11.4 (6.2) n=1196	12.4 (6.3) n=636	10.3 (5.6) n=410	10.4 (6.6) n=150
Potential re-entrants	9.5 (8.0) N=588	10.3 (8.2) N=330	8.4 (6.9) n=182	8.2 (8.9) n=76

Source: Own analysis of data from FNV re-entrants survey, 2000. Level 1=science school, advanced primary, intermediate secondary and lower vocational education; Level 2: high school, higher secondary, pre-university and intermediate vocation education

Table 32 Average duration of break in years by re-entrants actively seeking work and education (standard deviation)

	Born 1940-1949	Born 1950-1959	Born 1960-1969
All	13.8 (9.5) n=195	12.2 (6.9) n=951	8.0 (4.5) n=595
Successful re-entrants	15.2 (8.3) n=117	12.8 (6.0) n=664	8.4 (3.9) n=391
Potential re-entrants	11.8 (10.9) n=78	10.9 (8.3) n=287	7.1 (5.3) n=204

Source: Own analysis of data from FNV re-entrants survey, 2000. Cohort born 1930-1939 and cohort born 1970-1979 not included, too little data

Two thirds of the re-entrants (FNV survey) report to have stopped paid work because of the birth of a child. Figures included in the appendix present the cumulative proportions of the women who exited the workforce and the cumulative proportions of women who made a return to work related to the birth of the first child. In these figures, the first child's year of birth is shown on the x axis indicated by 0. If the exit and the re-entry take place before the birth of the first child, this is shown in years by '-'. If the exit takes place after the birth of the first child, this is shown with a '+' in the number of years after the year of birth of the first child. For all re-

²⁸ Re-entrants who reported the duration of their career break as 'other' are not included, neither are re-entrants who reported an unrealistic duration given the sum of the year of exit and the duration of the break compared to the survey year.

entrants in the FNV survey it appears that 35% to 45% re-entered when the first child was ten years old. From the figures it appears that 25% of the re-entrants re-entered when the first child is seven or eight years old, or wishes to do so, 50% took the step of re-entering when the first child was 12 years old and 75% of women re-entered when the first child reached 16, or wishes to do so. Women with a education to intermediate secondary/lower vocational level return to work less quickly and are more likely to exit on the birth of the first child compared to women educated to an intermediate or high level. Of the highly educated women, 55% exited on the birth of the first child (for those with a low level of education this is 70%) and 75% of the women educated to an intermediate level re-entered when the first child was 12 years (50% for those with a low level of education).

Comparisons of the cohorts of re-entrants born in 1940-1949, 1950-1959 and 1960-1969 reveal that women in the cohort 1940-1949 were least likely to exit (50% exited in the child's birth year, compared with 70% for the younger cohorts). The re-entrants in the birth cohort 1940-1949 re-entered less quickly than women in the younger cohorts. Only once the first child reached 14-15 years old, do these women wish to enter or do they become successful re-entrants. By contrast, 25% of the re-entrants born in the period 1950-1959 have already re-entered by the time the first child is nine years old. Of the re-entrants born in 1960-1969, 25% have re-entered by the time the first child is five years old.

7.3 Determinants of the length of the break from work

Economic theory would suppose that women who have the most invested in human capital at the point of interruption in their working careers would have the shortest time out. Another explanation is that the women with the greatest need for an income interrupt their careers for the shortest time. The need for greater income can go hand in hand with higher consumption – demands caused over the course of time by, for example, growing children.

The length of time that the reservation wage after exiting the workforce (the benefits of exiting) remains higher than the wage that could be earned (the benefits of a paid job) may, in the course of time, depend not only on the reduction in the duties of care as the children become older, but also the conditions placed on work such as enjoyable work, working locally, etc. But also by undertaking activities during the break from work that have market value, such as voluntary work, or courses that are likely to make paid work more attractive, the probability of appealing work presents itself more quickly or is recognised more quickly.²⁹

²⁹ Vice versa it is also true that a certain length of career break is necessary to do courses and voluntary work.

Another factor is the stability of the domestic income. This depends partly on the stability of domestic relationships, but also on the stability of the working relationship of the working partner in the household. The relationship between the development of the domestic income and the household's consumption demands can also result in the non-participating woman wishing to work. We have no information in the FNV survey about the development of the domestic income or the development of the income of the partner. We know only the marital status at the time of the survey and whether the partner earns more or less than the successful re-entrant. Another, exogenous, factor influencing the probability of participation in the workforce is employment trends at the point at which the woman can re-enter and given the probability also wishes to, or now has to probability to fulfil her pre-existing wish. In addition emancipation trends in the labour market and the institution of the welfare state, in particular subsidies dependent on domestic incomes and facilities to combine care and work may affect women's labour force participation. It is expected that young women who can utilise the childcare facilities that were created in the 1990s will, if they exit the workforce, be absent for a shorter length of time. A labour market in which it is more common for women to participate will also encourage women who have not participated for a longer time, but who would like to do so, to enter the labour market. This exogenous factor means that a woman with certain characteristics will have a shorter break were she to take a break during the 1990s, compared to a similar woman who takes a break in her career in the 1980s.

Our research covers the extent to which the probability of re-entry changes the longer women have not undertaken any paid work. In other words, is the probability of women once again becoming active in the labour market greater, the shorter the time that they are out of the labour process? Does the probability of re-entry depend on the duration of the break? The econometric model that we use to estimate the effects of duration is described in the appendix of the Dutch final report. The adapted, simple duration models explain the duration of the break using information at the time of exiting the workforce. This means that the explanatory variables in the model are assumed to remain constant during the break. The explanatory variables used in the model are the age of the woman on exiting the workforce, a dummy variable if the exit had taken place after the first child was born, in which calendar year the exit took place, the reasons for the exit, the sector exited, the type of contract on exiting, etc. We have grouped 17 reasons for exiting used in the survey into five clusters of reasons relating to 1) the family; 2) employment conditions such as no possibility of working less, child care and the like; 3) motivation to work; 4) study; and 5) other, including moving house etc.

7.3.1 Results

The outcomes are relevant to policy because they indicate the extent of the effects of the various variables on the duration of the break since the last exit. We present estimates from Cox's proportional hazard models and have also estimated other parametric duration models³⁰. The results barely differ. From the parametric duration models it appears that the probability of a break does depend on the duration of the break³¹. The longer the period of the break, the greater the reduction in the probability of a short break. Put another way: the longer the individual stays home, the more the probability of re-entry diminishes over time.

Positive estimates of coefficients of β indicate that higher values of the variable increase the hazard of re-entry, or put another way, that the length of the period that precedes re-entry becomes shorter as the variable assumes a higher value. The negative estimation value for a coefficient has the opposite effect. The hazard ratios, estimates of $\exp(\beta)$, indicate the effects of the probability with one unit in the corresponding variable. For example, if the hazard ratio of x_1 is 1.01, then this means that if x_1 rises by one (in which one is measured in the unit of the variable, for example years) the hazard rate rises by 1%. If the hazard ratio is less than 1, then this means that an increase of x_1 has a negative effect on the hazard rate. The proportional hazard model assumes that the ratio of the hazards of "each two individuals" remains constant over time.

As the starting point for the duration in the model, we take the calendar year of exiting the workforce for each individual. The number of years that pass since the exit is in the time scale (scale on which the passage of time is measured) in the model. The co-variants x are dummy variables for the reason for exiting, the highest achieved educational level, and dummy variables for the age to which the woman belonged when exiting (exit at 25 and at an age younger than 25, at an age between 25 and 35, etc.).

The estimation results in Table 33 mean the following. Four hazard models have been compiled using various specifications. These various specifications show the effect adding variables has on the estimation of the effects. The first model concerns the effect of the reason for exiting on the length of the break in the model. The reason for exiting the workforce only has a significant effect on the length of the break in cases where the reason has to do with the woman's motivation to work. Women whose motive for exiting is 'I didn't want to work any more' have a greater probability of re-

³⁰ See Cox (1972) and Kiefer (1988) for a discussion of these models.

³¹ This is in line with the research results in Vogels (1995).

entering more quickly than women who do not cite this as a reason for exiting. These are apparently women who heed their motivation to work. At the time of exiting they no longer wished to work and at the time at which they see themselves as re-entrants they are motivated to work. Women with this changed motivation exhibit a greater probability of a shorter break from work. Women who stopped paid work because they wanted to study also have a greater probability of a shorter break than women who cited another reason for exiting the workforce. There is no great degree of reliability in this result but the influence of this reason on the duration of the break is usually positive. Women who wanted to study after having been active in the labour market have the greatest probability of having the shortest break from work. This indicates that these women are career-oriented. The reason for exiting 'other, for example moving house,' increases the probability of a shorter break a little more than is experienced by re-entrants who did not cite this reason for exiting. The women who cited this reason were stopped from working by an external factor. A number of them appear to want to become active once again in paid work more quickly than is the case for other women.

It is the case for all specifications that the re-entrants with an intermediate educational level have the greatest probability of the shortest break from work as compared to women with higher or lower educational levels. The same effect is evident for women who exit the workforce at a later age. Re-entrants who were younger than 25 when they exited have 73% less probability of a shorter period away from work than the older women exiting. The significance of the effect of age is erased by adding dummy variables for the year of exit. This means that on average the women who are the oldest are also the women who exited earliest. The effect of the dummies for exit year are significant. Women who exited before 1980 have 85% (0.85) less probability of re-entry than women who exited later. For women who left in the period 1980-1985 the probability of re-entry is 62% (0.62) less than for women who exited in another period. However, for women who left in the period 1990-1995 the probability of re-entry is 2.4 times higher than for women who last left the labour market either before or after this period.

The inclusion of the sector exited in the model shows a significant effect for the government sector alone. This effect is negative: re-entrants who worked for the government before exiting have the probability of a longer break from work. However, this effect disappears if dummies for exit year are included in the model. It then appears that the re-entrants who worked in education have a greater probability of returning more quickly to the labour market than re-entrants who worked in another sector on exiting.

Adding the variable 'type contract' to the estimation model shows that women who had a temporary contract in their last job have a greater

probability of a short break than women who did not have a temporary contract in their last job. These are probably the women who have already re-entered on a previous occasion.

Table 33 Cox proportional hazard model for explaining the duration of the break (n=1784)

Length of break Co-variants	Hazard ratio (z-value)	Hazard ratio (z-value)	Hazard ratio (z-value)	Hazard ratio (z-value)
Reason for exiting: family	1.027 (0.03)			
Reason for exiting: emp. conditions	0.976 (-0.29)			
Reason for exiting: motivation	1.424 (3.10)			
Reason for exiting: study	1.61 (1.94)			
Reason for exiting: other	1.207 (2.22)			
Dummy education: high	1.044 (0.45)	0.777 (-2.61)	0.756 (-2.74)	0.924 (-0.76)
Dummy education: intermediate	1.380 (5.00)			
Dummy education: low		0.733 (-4.82)	0.731 (-4.81)	0.864 (-2.24)
Base education is intermediate		1	1	1
Base education = low	1			
Dummy age on exiting <=25 years	0.272 (-2.24)	0.270 (-2.25)	0.287 (-2.14)	0.799 (-0.38)
Dummy age on exiting 25-35 years	0.423 (-1.48)	0.421 (-1.49)	0.449 (-1.37)	0.744 (-0.51)
Dummy age on exiting 35-45 years	1.032 (0.06)	1.032 (0.54)	1.078 (0.13)	1.057 (0.10)
Dummy age on exiting 45-55 years	1.743 (0.02)	1.683 (0.86)	1.733 (0.91)	1.526 (0.70)
Dummy exit before 1980				0.148 (-16.26)
Dummy exit between 1980-1985				0.376 (-11.41)
Dummy exit between 1990-1995				2.417 (8.62)
Dummy permanent contract in last job		1.027 (0.30)	1.195 (1.66)	1.098 (0.87)
Dummy temporary contract in last job		1.591 (3.54)	1.847 (4.20)	1.455 (2.54)
Dummy flex contract in last job			1.482 (2.25)	1.192 (1.00)
Sector exited: trade			1.125 (1.04)	1.160 (1.31)
Sector exited: industry			0.867 (-1.28)	1.035 (0.30)
Sector exited: health care			0.862 (-1.43)	1.030 (0.38)
Sector exited: business services			0.901 (-1.01)	1.036 (0.35)
Sector exited: financial services			0.836 (-1.48)	0.954 (-0.39)
Sector exited: education			1.052 (0.32)	1.395 (2.05)
Sector exited: government			0.778 (-2.15)	0.914 (-0.80)
Prob>chi	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Pseudo R2	0.0137	0.0136	0.0148	0.043
LR chi2	217.4	216.5	234.20	676.0

Source: Own analysis of data from FNV re-entrants survey, 2000. Low education: lower than secondary school; intermediate education is secondary school; High education = higher vocational or university. Reason 'other' means a reason such as 'moving house'

7.4 Conclusions

Chapter 6 has shown that the re-entrants from the FNV survey match the potential labour supply (category C according to the CBS definition in Table 22 of this report). The successful re-entrants among this group appear to have a break of an average of 11.4 years and the potential re-entrants, 9.5 years. This matches the OSA research (Allaart and De Voogd 1994). For all re-entrants in the FNV survey it appears that 35% to 40% re-entered when the first child was ten years old. 25% of the re-entrants re-entered or wished to re-enter when the first child is seven or eight years old; 50% took the step of re-entering when the first child was 12 years old and 75% of the women wish to re-enter or did so when the first child was 16 years old. Women with an education to intermediate secondary/lower vocational level re-enter the workforce less quickly, and are more likely to exit on the birth of the first child in comparison with intermediate and highly educated women. Of the highly educated women, 55% exited when the first child was born (70% of women with a low educational level) and 75% of the women educated to an intermediate level re-entered when the first child was 12 years old (50% women with a low educational level).

Comparison of the cohorts of re-entrants born in 1940-1949, 1950-1959 and 1960-1969 shows that women in the 1940-1949 cohort are the slowest to leave work (50% exited in the year of the child's birth, compared with 70% in younger cohorts). The re-entrants in the 1940-1949 cohort re-enter less quickly after a work break than women in the younger cohorts. Only when the first child is 14-15 years old do these women wish to return to work or do they become successful re-entrants. By contrast, 25% of the re-entrants born in the period 1950-1959 have already re-entered when the first child is nine years old. Of the re-entrants born in 1960-1969, 25% are re-entrants by the time the first child is five years old.

The FNV survey included the question of when the woman last stopped work completely. This means that for this group of re-entrants the total period out of work is not known for all women. Information about how often transitions in and out of the labour market have taken place is lacking.

Estimates based on this dataset indicate the following: Determining factors in the length of the break are educational level and age. Younger women and women with an intermediate educational level have a greater probability of a shorter break than do older women and women with a low or a high level of education. The estimates indicate that to gain a better analysis of the period away from work, more information is required about whether the woman re-entered the labour market on a previous occasion. Work & ICT 2001 asked for the first, last and longest period away from work to enable more specific analyses.

8. Effects of re-entry on the wage

8.1 Introduction

What effect does re-entry have on women's wages? We based our research into this on women's hourly wages. The CBS regularly researches wage levels. In doing so they base their figures on information supplied by companies and institutions from their own salary administrations. Two other sources of data are the Labour Force Survey and the Database of Insured People. The most recent figures are from 1999. In that year the average gross wage was NLG 36.79 per hour for male employees and NLG 25.62 per hour (see Table 34) for female employees. Women's hourly wage is thus 30% lower.³² This difference has increased over the last four years. The male wage has risen more than the female wage. The reasons for this are not known; that would require further research. One of the reasons could be that the rise of women's participation in work has primarily occurred in sectors that have, on average, a low hourly rate. It appears from Table 34 that the average hourly wage is highest in mineral extraction, followed by energy and waterworks. The average hourly wage is lowest in agriculture, forestry and fishing, followed by trade, hotel and catering and maintenance. In the sector with the highest percentage of women the hourly wage is more than NLG 3 under the average.

Table 34 Gross wages per hour for employees in 1995 up to and including 1999 by gender and sector (in NLG)

	1995	1997	1998*	1999*	% women
Women	23.05	24.18	24.83	25.62	
Men	31.86	34.02	35.52	36.79	
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	21.60	23.48	24.88	25.17	29.4%
Mineral extraction	47.14	48.66	50.18	52.58	12.0%
Industry	29.86	31.81	32.89	33.70	20.6%
Energy and waterworks	36.78	40.24	41.39	42.90	16.2%
Construction	28.17	30.27	31.75	32.73	6.1%
Trade, hotel and catering and maintenance	23.95	25.52	26.16	26.97	44.7%
Transport, storage and communication	28.21	30.89	32.20	33.03	25.3%
Financial and business services	29.27	30.64	32.12	33.80	40.8%
Government	35.68	38.96	40.40	41.84	41.6%
Health care and other services	27.94	28.66	29.61	30.57	73.0%
Total	28.93	30.71	31.83	32.89	40.3%

Source: CBS, http://www.cbs.nl/nl/cijfers/kerncijfers/sip_a410.htm

* provisional figures

³² An analysis by Bakker et al (1999) goes into greater detail about the factors causing this wage gap.

8.2 The data

The survey Women's Wages Indicator 2000, abbreviated in Dutch to VLW2000 was held among working women and extensively covered the area of wages. The questionnaire was distributed in three ways: (1) enclosed for subscribers to the women's magazines Viva, Margriet, Libelle; (2) enclosed with the FNV members' newsletters FNV Magazine and Hotel and Catering Info; (3) distributed via de websites www.vrouwonline.nl and www.fnv.nl. A total of 13,799 usable questionnaires were returned, a little more than half of which were returned via the internet.

To ascertain how representative the VLW2000 was, the distribution across areas of industry, number of hours worked, age and education for the women in employment for at least 12 hours per week were compared with those women in the Labour Force Survey (LFS) conducted by the CBS (Tijdens 2001a). The distribution across areas of industry is a fair match: in each sector the deviation is at most three percentage points, with the exception of trade, in which according to LFS'99 16% of the women work and in the VLW2000 only 9%. As for educational level, the VLW2000 shows an over-representation of women with educated to intermediate secondary, higher secondary/ pre-university, higher vocational or higher education levels and an under-representation of women with only primary education or a lower or intermediate vocational education. The differences are never more than ten percentage points, except for women with an intermediate vocational education. According to the LFS'99, this accounts for 39% of the working women and according to the VLW2000, for 27%. As for the spread of age, each age group has a deviation of no more than three percentage points, with the exception of the 20-24 year olds. According to LFS'99, 11% of the working women fall into this group, while in the VLW2000 only 5% do. Finally, in the spread by number of hours worked, in the VLW2000 survey there is an under-representation by six percentage points of women with a working week of 12-19 hours and an over-representation by four percentage points of women with a working week of 35 hours or more.

8.3 Characteristics of re-entrants

In the VLW2000 the respondent was asked if she had had no paid work for a period longer than one year. Opportunity was given to tick the reason for the period of career interruption. Almost four in ten women had interrupted their careers (38%). The reasons given in the majority of cases were related to raising children and looking after the home. A small group gave other reasons for their career breaks. Interruption due to unemployment was the most commonly cited other reason, followed by courses or education. Finally, there is a small group of women who only started paid work after

the birth of their first child. A quarter of this group subsequently had a period in which they did not work.

The term re-entrant is often used to denote women who have interrupted their careers for a number of years in connection with looking after children or looking after the home. In the VLW2000 the term re-entrant is used for all women who first worked, and then took a break because of children or housework and who then subsequently returned to work. The re-entrants also include all women who first worked after the birth of their first child. In the VLW2000 27% of the women are re-entrants.

Table 35 shows that re-entrants differ considerably from women who have not, until now, interrupted their careers. Re-entrants work fewer hours, are older, have a total of more years' work experience, are less highly educated, have a lower gross hourly wage, are more often employed in the healthcare sector, are more often married or cohabiting, more often have a partner with a job of at least 30 hours a week and more often have children. The two groups do not differ with regard to the duration of their employment by their current employer or with regard to the presence of a paid domestic help.

Table 35 Average values and standard deviation of a number of characteristics of re-entrants and non-re-entrants (only women in employment, N=13.518)

Re-entrant	no		yes		sign
	aver	SD	aver	SD	
number of hours worked (in hours)	31.6	8.7	25.3	8.9	***
number of working years minus career break (in years)	14.7	9.3	19.2	8.4	***
duration of employment with current employer (in years)	7.2	7.6	7.3	6.4	ns
age (in years)	35.1	8.5	46.5	6.9	***
number of years' education (nominal years after junior school)	7.0	2.2	5.8	2.1	***
gross hourly wage (in NLG)	28.5	9.6	26.9	9.2	***
employed in healthcare sector (1=yes, 0=no)	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.4	***
married/cohabiting (1=yes, 0=no)	0.7	0.4	0.8	0.4	***
partner works >=30 hours (1=yes, 0=no, incl no partner)	0.7	0.5	0.8	0.4	***
children at home or living independently (1=yes, 0=no)	0.4	0.5	1.0	0.0	***
paid domestic help (1=yes, 0=no)	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.4	ns

Source: Own analysis of data from VLW2000

The percentage of re-entrants differs sharply per profession. The highest percentage of re-entrants is to be found among domestic personnel in institutions (70% are re-entrants). That is followed by waitress/buffet waitress/barmaid (61%), cleaner/domestic help (59%), home help (53%), data processor (49%) and maternity nurse (48%). By contrast, the lowest percentage of re-entrants is evident among the groups economist/accountant (2%), public relations officer (5%), project manager (6%), account manager (6%), barrister/solicitor (7%) and marketing assistant (8%). Of the two largest professions in the VLW2000, the administrative employee group has more re-entrants than average (36%) and the profession secretary/management assistant matches the average (27%) exactly.

Almost three in five re-entrants have interrupted their careers for between five and 15 years. In line with expectations, the oldest women have interrupted their careers for the longest period. More than half of the women born before 1955 have not worked for more than ten years. Of the women born before 1955, 12.5% have not worked for more than 20 years. By contrast, more than two-thirds of the women born between 1970 and 1975 have taken a break shorter than five years. Yet it cannot be simply concluded from this that the duration of the break is decreasing. Besides, a considerable number of women who were born in the 1960s and 1970s are currently in the career-break phase. Most of them will return to the labour market in the coming years. This will, of course, cause the average duration of the break taken by women born in the 1960s and 1970s as it has now been calculated, to increase.

Table 36 Average and standard deviation of the duration of career break in years for re-entrants by birth cohort (only women in employment, N=13.518)

Duration of career break	Average	Std. Deviation
Born before 1950	11.2	6.5
Born between 1950-1954	10.1	5.4
Born between 1955-1959	9.0	5.0
Born between 1960-1964	7.2	4.4
Born between 1965-1969	5.0	3.5
Born between 1970-1974	3.6	2.3
Born in 1975 and later	0.7	0.6
Total	9.5	5.8

Source: Own analysis of data from VLW2000

8.4 Wages

In order to compare wages, the wages have been converted into hourly rates based on the number of hours per week and corrected for the period covered by the payment, which is usually one month, but could be four weeks or one week. To obtain an accurate calculation of the hourly rate it is necessary to know whether the employer has calculated a tax-deductible mortgage into the wage. However, this seldom occurs for women in employment. It affects only 1.5% of them. The average amount that is deducted is NLG 423.

The average hourly wage of the women in the VLW2000 amounts to NLG 28.03. This is the wage from October or November 2000. A comparison with hourly wages as calculated by the CBS during 1999 comes out a little lower than this, at NLG 25.62. The discrepancy has two sources: firstly there is an interval of more than a year between the two calculations, during which time hourly wages will have risen by around one NLG; secondly, women with a low level of education are under-represented in the VLW2000 causing the average wage to rise somewhat.

We have done the calculations to explain the hourly wage with the help of regression analyses for the women in employment.³³ This shows that each extra year of education and each year of age have a positive effect on the hourly wage. Each year of service has a small positive effect. Having mostly male colleagues has a substantial positive effect on a woman's wage. The effect is almost equal to the effect of being in a supervisory role. Promotion also has a positive effect, but one that is half as great as the effect of being in a supervisory role. Working in the healthcare sector has a comparable positive effect on the wage. Three factors have a negative effect on the wage. Re-entry has a significant negative effect. The number of hours worked has a negative effect, but it is very small. Age group as a quadratic function, which indicates that the rise in wage as a consequence of age does not continue until the 65th year but curves back down before that, has a very small negative effect. Other factors, including having or not having children or a partner has no effect on the wage.

A wage comparison has also been estimated for the re-entrants alone. From this it appears that each additional year of interruption has a negative effect on the wage. That effect is, for example, greater than the positive effect of each year of additional service. It is striking that the number of hours worked now has no significant effect and for this reason has been removed from the comparison. By contrast, employment in the healthcare sector now has a greater positive effect than in the previous wage comparison. In the comparison with the non-re-entrants the significant positive effect of number of years' education is evident, but also evident is that age and duration of service have a smaller positive effect of than in the two previous comparisons. The effect of number of hours worked is still negative, but small. For non-re-entrants it is more important to have male colleagues and a supervisory position than for re-entrants. By contrast, in terms of wages it is less important for non-re-entrants to have been promoted.

³³ The estimates are based on Mincer (1962, 1963, 1973). Further research into the effects of a career break will draw on Mincer and Ofek (1982) and Mincer and Polacheck (1974).

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Table 37 *Coefficients of the linear regression for log gross hourly wage of women in employment (all, re-entrants and non-re-entrants)*

all women in employment	Unstandardised Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	
(Constant)	1.739	0.048	0.0000
Number of years' education	0.053	0.001	0.0000
Age	0.051	0.002	0.0000
duration of employment with current employer	0.006	0.000	0.0000
majority of colleagues in the same function are men (yes/no)	0.062	0.007	0.0000
re-entrant (yes/no)	-0.101	0.008	0.0000
supervisory role (yes/no)	0.070	0.007	0.0000
number of hours worked	-0.002	0.000	0.0000
has been promoted (yes/no)	0.036	0.006	0.0000
Age squared	-0.001	0.000	0.0000
Size of organisation	0.020	0.002	0.0000
employed in healthcare sector (yes/no)	0.036	0.007	0.0000
	R	R Square	Adj R Square
	0.569	0.324	0.323
Re-entrants only	Unstandardised Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	
(Constant)	2.607	0.056	0.0000
Number of years' education	0.049	0.003	0.0000
Age	0.007	0.001	0.0000
duration of employment with current employer	0.007	0.001	0.0000
majority of colleagues in the same function are men (yes/no)	0.059	0.019	0.0023
supervisory role (yes/no)	0.053	0.017	0.0022
period between exit and re-entry	-0.009	0.001	0.0000
has been promoted (yes/no)	0.062	0.015	0.0000
employed in healthcare sector (yes/no)	0.087	0.015	0.0000
	R	R Square	Adj R Square
	0.485	0.235	0.232
Non-re-entrants only	Unstandardised Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	
(Constant)	2.483	0.023	0.0000
Number of years' education	0.052	0.001	0.0000
Age	0.012	0.000	0.0000
duration of employment with current employer	0.004	0.001	0.0000
Size of organisation	0.025	0.002	0.0000
Number of hours worked	-0.004	0.000	0.0000
majority of colleagues in the same function are men (yes/no)	0.067	0.007	0.0000
Supervisory role (yes/no)	0.075	0.007	0.0000
has been promoted (yes/no)	0.038	0.007	0.0000
employed in healthcare sector (yes/no)	0.023	0.008	0.0056
	R	R Square	Adj R Square
	0.580	0.337	0.336

Source: Own analysis of data from VLW2000

9. Policy for female re-entrants

9.1 Introduction

In Chapter 6 we established that non-participating women re-entering the workforce can benefit from following a course. For women who already view themselves as potential re-entrants, this effect is not so clearly evident. The first question that we want to answer in this chapter is: To what extent do women who re-enter the workforce, or want to re-enter it, take courses? This information will provide an indication of the investment that re-entrants make in new human capital. In Section 9.2 we compare the OSA and the FNV databases on re-entrants in terms of the extent to which re-entrants take courses. We show that the prevalence of course-taking differs among groups of women according to their situation in the labour market and the composition of their household. We then present the course needs for men and women according to their situation in the labour market and their opinion about computers based on information taken from Work & ICT 2001. The second question that we pose in this chapter is: Do women re-enter the same sectors they worked in before they exited the workforce? In other words: Is the human capital of these women sector specific? In Section 9.3 we discuss the sectors re-entrants worked in before they exited the workforce and the sectors they proceeded to or wanted to work in, based on the findings of the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000 and Work & ICT 2001.

9.2 Courses taken during the career break

The question that we want to answer is whether women who re-enter the workforce, or want to do so, take courses. Both the OSA and the FNV datasets contain information on whether or not people have taken courses. Women who do not have a job are compared with those who do. We already know that the FNV survey pertains to potential female re-entrants. With the OSA data, we want to compare working people and unpaid working people and men and women from various family compositions. What we are trying to do here is indicate the extent to which women who want to find paid work are at a disadvantage, the extent to which women do take courses and the extent to which this differs according to their situation in the labour market and household composition. We can deduce from Table 38 that more men than women take courses and that it is primarily the women with children who take fewer courses. However, women without children and women with children who change jobs are more likely to take courses, which might indicate that these are women with career ambitions. There is

not that big of a difference between women with paid work and men with paid work in terms of following at least one course in the past two years.³⁴

More self-employed women take courses compared to self-employed men, especially self-employed women with children compared to self-employed men with children. There is a remarkable pattern evident among the unemployed, whereby unemployed women with children are more likely to take a course than either unemployed women without children or unemployed men. However, unemployed men without children are more likely to take courses than unemployed women without children. Men *and* women who do not participate in paid work take very few courses compared to the unemployed and the employed. Men from every possible kind of family type take more courses than women from each of the kinds of family types. The gap between women with paid work and those without paid work is particularly large for women with children between the ages of 13-17 and 6-17. Women with children under the age of five, without paid work, participated to a surprisingly large extent in courses.

The FNV re-entrants survey, 2000 reveals that during the period of the career break re-entrants took courses in greater numbers than non-participants and the unemployed in the findings of the OSA panel. And also to a greater extent than women in employment in the OSA panel. This could be partly related to the period for which people were asked to indicate whether or not they had taken courses. The questions in the FNV survey referred to the entire career break period whereas those in the OSA panel concerned the previous two years. It was mostly the women with children over the age of six who took one or more courses during the career break. In the category of female re-entrants who had not yet succeeded in finding a job, mostly the women with children between the ages of 6-12 took a course.

The data from the FNV entrants survey, 2000 also contains information about whether, in the re-entrant's experience, courses and/or volunteer work contribute to finding a job. The survey showed that 42.5% of the successful re-entrants find that activities undertaken during the career break helped them to re-enter the workforce.

We used a logistic regression³⁵ to investigate whether there was a relationship between the extension of activities during the career break and the motives given for re-entering the workforce. Among successful re-entrants, there appears to be a significant, positive connection between taking a course during the period of interruption and the following motives:

35. Kunnen and De Voogd-Hamelink (1997) researched schooling behaviour using the OSA data for 1986-1992 and discovered that the differences between men and women actually disappear if personal and business characteristics are accounted for.

³⁵ Available from the authors upon request.

'I want to develop myself' and 'My children are growing up and becoming more independent.' The regressions produced no significant findings for potential re-entrants.

Table 38 Percentage of people who took courses, according to situation in the labour market in 1998, gender, children / no children and age of children

Situation in the labour market							
	N	All	Position	Paid employment	Self-employed	Unemployed	Non-part.
Took at least 1 course from 09-96/09-98 (OSA)							
All M	2374	47.5	69.1	52.4	32.9	40.0	13.8
M without children	699	47.6	57.3	49.2	34.2	47.6	23.7
M with children	1675	47.5	74.8	53.9	32.5	33.3	12.4
All W	2397	33.0	68.7	41.7	47.7	30.0	12.2
W without children	546	45.7	62.2	40.3	42.7	26.3	12.4
W with children	1851	29.2	78.3	44.5	65.0	41.7	9.1
Situation in the labour market ²							
Paid work						No job	
M with children 0-5	141	70.2	69.8 (n=139)			-	
M with children 6-12	260	52.7	53.6 (n=252)			-	
M with children 13-17	256	50.8	53.6 (n=237)			-	
M with children 0-12	100	64.0	65.3 (n=95)			-	
M with children 6-17	176	47.2	49.4 (n=162)			-	
Paid work						No job	
W with children 0-5	153	47.1	50.5 (n=103)			40.0 (n=50)	
W with children 6-12	278	31.0	42.9 (n=170)			14.8 (n=108)	
W with children 13-17	270	27.8	35.9 (n=181)			11.2 (n=89)	
W with children 0-12	106	35.9	50.9 (n=57)			18.4 (n=49)	
W with children 6-17	183	33.9	45.8 (n=118)			12.3 (n=65)	
Took at least 1 course during the period of the career break (FNV)							
Situation in the labour market ²							
Paid work						No job	
All W	1908	57.6	56.6 (n=1318)			60.0 (n=590)	
W without children	87	51.7	44.1 (n=45)			59.5 (n=42)	
W with children	1821	57.8	56.9 (n=1273)			60.0 (n=548)	
Paid work						No job	
W with children 0-5	258	36.8	36.0 (n=214)			47.1 (n=136)	
W with children 6-12	662	58.6	57.1 (n=524)			58.7 (n=230)	
W with children 13-18	492	65.0	61.4 (n=412)			30.9 (n=172)	
W with children >18	390	62.1	58.4 (n=243)			41.3 (n=147)	

Source: Own analysis of data from OSA 1998 and FNV entrants, 2000. 'N' = the number of respondents, not including people in training; Position = changed position; Non-part. = non-participating; 'M' = men; 'W' = women; '-' = too little data

In Work & ICT 2001, 787 women and 862 men were asked about their work situation and their use of automated equipment. There were also questions about their views on the use of computers and their attitude towards them, and people were asked if they needed to take a course and, if so, what kind of course: professional training; automation/PC use; social, commercial or management skills; or internet use.

In the following tables, we list the percentages of women and men in particular work situations. As expected, the percentage of men working more than 34 hours a week is greater than that of women. The percentage of women with paid work who use a PC differs according to the number of hours worked per week much more than is the case with men with a similar work situation. Another finding is that more men than women can easily find a website. But more than half of the women surveyed indicate that they can find a website without any problem. The percentages of women and men who indicated that they would like to learn more about computers were about equal in every work situation category.

There is a greater need for a course on automation/PC use among women than among men in each of the work situation categories. More than half of the women with a job for between 0 and 19 hours a week, and women who are actively involved in domestic work at home, have a great need for professional training. Also, 39% of the women with full or partial disability need professional training. Only 22% of the women in disability indicate that they need a course on automation/PC use.

Since more than one situation can apply, such as 'I have paid work' and 'I help do the housekeeping', a further selection is presented for women without paid work. In 68% of the cases, these women do the housekeeping. The need for courses among women who do not have paid work pertains primarily to a need for professional knowledge (55%), followed by social skills (29%) and courses on automation (14%). Most of the women without paid work who do their own housekeeping use the PC for word processing (65%), communicating with others (e.g., email) (63%) and for looking up information on the internet (59%). The percentages are higher for women without paid work who are on full or partial disability.

Table 39 Women classified according to work situation and PC use, view of computers and need for courses

	W	% PC use in own situation		Opinion finding website in No problem		Eager to learn more about computers		Need for courses		Soc.Sk.		Com.Sk.		Man.Sk.		Internet	
		Yes=1; No=2	No=1; Yes=2	Yes=1; No=2	No=1; Yes=2	Yes=1; No=2	No=1; Yes=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2	Yes=1; No=2
>34 hr	20.1	91.1	1.22	1.27	0.28	0.52	0.28	0.09	0.10	0.22	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.22	0.10	0.22	0.10
20-34 hr	25.8	75.4	1.35	1.31	0.31	0.49	0.31	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.08	0.10	0.10
0-19 hr	18.4	45.5	1.39	1.33	0.58	0.32	0.14	0.09	0.01	0.03	0.09	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.03
Occasional	3.2	56.0	1.48	1.20	0.44	0.28	0.32	0.08	0.04	0.08	0.08	0.04	0.04	0.08	0.04	0.08	0.08
Self-employed	2.5	75.0	1.45	1.20	0.25	0.45	0.35	0.10	0.05	0.05	0.10	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05
School	7.2	70.2	1.19	1.33	0.60	0.26	0.16	0.07	0.02	0.08	0.07	0.02	0.02	0.08	0.02	0.08	0.08
Domestic	34.4	69.0	1.53	1.42	0.53	0.22	0.24	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.07	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04
Full/partial disability	8.8	71.0	1.46	1.25	0.39	0.30	0.36	0.16	0.10	0.07	0.16	0.10	0.10	0.07	0.10	0.07	0.07
Full/partial sick leave	2.8	77.3	1.45	1.09	0.14	0.50	0.45	0.14	0.09	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.09	0.14	0.09	0.14	0.14
Full/partial unemployment	2.7	76.2	1.47	1.38	0.52	0.14	0.24	0	0	0.14	0.24	0	0	0.14	0.09	0.14	0.14
Full/partial welfare	2.0																
Full/partial early retire.	1.8																
N	787																
No paid work 0-34 hr/wk																	
Occasional	7.4																
Self-employed	4.6																
School	9.5																
Domestic	64.7	73.2	1.59	1.45	0.58	0.11	0.26	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.11	0.26	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.03
Full/partial disability	18.4	71.2	1.46	1.21	0.46	0.21	0.38	0.17	0.10	0.20	0.21	0.38	0.17	0.10	0.10	0.20	0.20
Full/partial sick leave	3.2																
Full/partial unemployment	6.7																
Full/partial welfare	5.3																
Full/partial early retire.	4.2																
N	283																

Source: Work & ICT 2001: n=787; empty cells indicate fewer than 20 responses. Prof. = professional training; Auto. = automation; Soc.Sk. = social skills; Com.Sk. = commercial skills; Man.Sk. = management skills; Internet = internet use

Table 40 Men classified according to work situation and PC use, view of computers and need for courses

m	M	% PC use in own work situation	No problem finding website Yes=1; No=2	Eager to learn more about com- puters Yes=1; No=2	Prof. Yes=1; No=0	Auto. Yes=1; No=0	Soc.Sk. Yes=1; No=0	Com.Sk. Yes=1; No=0	Man.Sk. Yes=1; No=0	Internet Yes=1; No=0
>34 hr	69.5	78.1	1.17	1.27	0.31	0.49	0.28	0.11	0.09	0.24
20-34 hr	8.1	85.7	1.13	1.27	0.40	0.42	0.30	0.05	0.07	0.14
0-19 hr	4.4	60.5	1.05	1.34	0.76	0.17	0.07		0.03	0.31
Occasional	1.9	87.5	1.00	1.38						
Self-employed	3.7	96.9	1.16	1.19	0.35	0.39	0.04	0.13	0.22	0.22
	6.1	67.9	1.08	1.45	0.74	0.11	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.06
Domestic	3.2									
Full/partial disability	7.3	74.6	1.33	1.25	0.35	0.25	0.53	0.12	0.12	0.07
Full/partial sick leave	0.2									
Full/partial unemployment	2.1									
Full/partial welfare	1.4									
Full/partial early retirements	6.8	88.1	1.39	1.25	0.47	0.16	0.37	0.08	0.08	0.37

Source: Work & ICT 2001: n=862; empty cell indicates fewer than 20 responses. See Table 39 for other abbreviations.

9.3 Sector upon exiting workforce and current sector³⁶

Another factor that influences the likelihood of participation in the workforce is a woman's own job-seeking behaviour and the qualifications she has to offer in relation to the qualifications the market demands. In terms of qualifications, it is not just education that matters, but also experience³⁷ and, possibly, specific qualifications like ICT use or other qualifications like new ways of working that are based more on association and/or autonomy. Re-entrants can have relatively fewer qualifications: less schooling or less work experience or less schooling and work experience or a lack of requisite skills (ICT, etc.). As established in Chapter 7, however, non-participating women constitute a large share of the increase in the number of working women. This means that in that period non-participating women possessed the qualification that the market was asking for. We do not know if through a creaming-off of the best candidates the match between the supply and demand of qualifications will become a problem. The data contains no information on the demand for work. We can give a description of the sectors in which re-entrants worked before they left the labour market and the sectors in which they now work (successful re-entrants) or would like to work (potential re-entrants). If, in the process, we divide the groups up according to the level of education, we get an indication of whether or not the sector in which women worked before exiting the workforce is the same as the sector in which they are working (or want to work). If a change of sector occurs, this could mean that the human capital being expended upon re-entry is not sector specific.

9.3.1 Sector upon exiting workforce and current sector 38

What sectors were female re-entrants working in the last time they completely stopped working for pay? The 'business services' sector is over-represented in the survey of re-entrants (FNV 2000) compared to the CBS data. The distribution of re-entrants across the sectors prior to having exited the workforce is more even than that either upon re-entry or according to the desired sectors of potential re-entrants. The sectors where successful re-entrants are now active and where potential re-entrants are eager to work are business services (20.7%), health care (15.8%) and government (12.7%).

³⁶ Unfortunately, we can not tell from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000 whether the current job was also the job upon re-entry. There *is* information on when the woman last stopped working and how long she stopped paid work, as well as questions about the current position, sector, length of the working week, etc. There is no information on how long the woman has been working for the current employer or working in the current position.

³⁷ The two basic requirements demanded of new employees, namely education and experience, are complementary (Ridder and Van Ours, 1990).

³⁸ The survey of re-entrants listed 11 possible sectors plus 'other' as an option. Under the question as to what sector they had worked in prior to exiting the workforce, 226 re-entrants ticked the 'other' box.

Table 41 lists the sectors that re-entrants worked in prior to having exited the workforce and those in which they are now active (successful re-entrants) or wish to work (potential re-entrants), per highest level of education reached.

Table 41 What sectors did the most female re-entrants work in prior to exiting the workforce, what sectors do successful re-entrants work in and where do potential re-entrants want to work (% of re-entrants)?

Successful re-entrants				Potential re-entrants			
Sector prior to exit				Sector upon re-entry			
	education				education		
All	h	i	l	all	h	i	l
bus.svc. (17.5)	hlthcr (26.0)	bus.svc. (20.0)	bus.svc. (16.6)	bus.svc. (18.3)	hlthcr (28.6)	bus.svc. (20.3)	bus.svc. (17.4)
hlthcr (17.5)	tch (24.6)	hlthcr (19.8)	industry (14.3)	hlthcr (16.6)	bus.svc. (18.2)	hlthcr (20.3)	industry (15.8)
trade (12.3)	bus.svc. (14.6)	industry (12.0)	trade (14.2)	industry (12.4)	tch (13.0)	gov't (12.1)	trade (12.7)
industry (12.3)		gov't (12.0)	hlthcr (13.9)	gov't (11.9)	gov't (13.0)		hlthcr (11.8)
gov't (10.9)			gov't (10.6)				tch (11.8)
Sector prior to exit				Sector upon re-entry			
	education				education		
All	h	i	l	all	h	i	l
hlthcr (18.1)	tch (24.9)	bus.svc. (20.4)	hlthcr (17.2)	bus.svc. (29.3)	gov't (29.9)	bus.svc. (37.9)	bus.svc. (24.8)
bus.svc. (13.3)	hlthcr (17.8)	hlthcr (19.8)	bus.svc. (16.2)	hlthcr (25.0)	hlthcr (28.6)	gov't (29.1)	hlthcr (23.9)
gov't (10.6)	gov't (16.6)	gov't (13.1)	trade (13.0)	trade (11.9)	bus.svc. (27.3)		gov't (19.7)
trade (10.4)	bus.svc. (13.6)		industry (12.5)		tch (24.7)		trade (15.8)

Source: Own analysis of data from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000. Education: h=higher vocational/higher education; i=intermediate vocational/higher secondary/pre-university/high school; l=lower vocational/intermediate secondary education; bus.svc. = business services; hlthcr = health care; tch = teaching; gov't = government

The majority of successful re-entrants work in four sectors and it does not seem to matter what sector they worked in prior to exiting the workforce. More than 60% of the women who re-enter the health care, government or other such sectors worked in another sector prior to exiting the workforce. The same patterns can be observed in the desires of potential re-entrants. This probably means that education and work experience are applied in a way that is more generalised than specialised. The number of years of work experience might be important, but the degree of specialisation in that work experience is less so. The same can be true for education. The level achieved can be relevant but the discipline might be less so. Another possible connection between qualifications and success in finding a job is that re-entrants possess qualifications that complement the qualifications already present in the existing labour supply. It is conceivable that re-entrants have more patience and better social communication skills than the

employed labour force who, from the mid-eighties onwards, were educated and became employed under an educational establishment that is more oriented towards efficiency and speed of performance. Moreover, there is probably a greater proportion of entrants with typing certificates, which may well decrease their risk of RSI.

A comparison between successful and potential re-entrants from the FNV survey of re-entrants shows us that a much smaller percentage of potential re-entrants view the healthcare sector as a desirable sector for re-entry (11% of potential re-entrants compared to 21% of successful re-entrants). Those who do view the healthcare sector as desirable for re-entry, though, were

Table 42 Successful re-entrants classified according to the sector they work in and sector in which they worked prior to exiting the workforce

Current sector	Health care	Business Svcs.	Government	Trade
Sector upon exit	%	%	%	%
Construction	2.5	0	2.1	2.2
Trade	9.9	9.1	8.5	35.5
Financial services	9.5	7	7.1	9.4
Health care	38.3	15.2	11.4	14.5
Hotel and catering	2.1	2.2	1.4	1.5
Industry	9.9	9.6	9.9	8.7
Agriculture & horticulture	0.4	0.9	0.7	0.7
Teaching	3.7	2.6	7.1	2.9
Government	6.2	12.6	29.1	9.4
Business services	12.8	36.1	17.7	10.9
Other	7	4.8	4	4.4
Total	100	100	100	100
N	243	230	141	138
N total=1178	21%	20%	12%	12%

Source: Own analysis of data from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000. Selection of the sectors in which the most re-entrants work; 140 of the 1,178 successful re-entrants indicated 'Other' as the sector they work in.

Table 43 Potential re-entrants classified according to the sector they want to work in and sector in which they worked prior to exiting the workforce

Desired sector	Health care	Business Svcs.	Government
Sector upon exit	%	%	%
Construction	0.0	1.2	1.0
Trade	9.1	9.6	9.7
Financial services	6.1	8.4	7.8
Health care	45.5	11.4	13.6
Hotel and catering	0.0	0.6	1.0
Industry	7.6	6.0	9.7
Agriculture & horticulture	1.5	1.8	1.0
Teaching	0.0	2.4	4.9
Government	1.5	14.4	29.1
Business services	15.2	38.3	14.6
Other	13.6	6.0	7.8
Total	100	100	100
N	66	167	103
N (total)=590	11%	28%	18%

Source: Own analysis of data from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000. Selection of the sectors in which the most potential re-entrants want to work; 140 of the 590 potential re-entrants indicated 'Other' as the sector they work in.

more likely to have had their last job in this sector than the successful re-entrants (45% of potential re-entrants compared to 38% of successful re-entrants).

There were 746 women who responded to the Work & ICT 2001 questionnaire. It asked them what sector they found their first job in and what sector they now worked in or wanted to work in. The definition of 'sector' was modified because such a large percentage of women in the FNV survey had filled in the 'other' category. The different method of phrasing the question led to only 6% of people checking the 'other' category. Most women had their first job in 'shops, department stores, supermarkets, retail trade' (19%), followed by 'hospitals, handicapped care, other health care' (18%); after that, 8% of the women worked in teaching and 7% in industry. The distribution across the other sectors was very even (between 1.7 and 4.5%).

The following picture takes shape with regard to the sectors in which women worked, or wanted to work, when they filled out the questionnaire. Women who are not employed are more eager to work in welfare service or in shops and department stores than women who are already employed. Women who are already employed would much more prefer to work in teaching, and somewhat more in hospitals, than women who are not employed would like to.

Table 44 Current sector or desired sector where more than 10% of the women work or want to work

Sector where women work (or want to)	Now employed	Not employed
Shops, department stores, retail trade	8.6	14.4
Teaching	11.4	4.6
Hospitals, handicapped care	20.0	18.1
Welfare service	6.7	16.9

Source: Work & ICT 2001

There are also shifts taking place among people who worked in health care but are now employed (or want to be) in business services and vice versa. It is beyond the scope of this research to analyse what determines why women want to continue, or quit, working in health care and teaching or what determines why women who had worked in other sectors now choose to work in health care, teaching or government. Such research would be necessary for providing guidance upon re-entry and to offer sector-specific guidance after re-entry.

The discussion in Table 45, quoted from an interview on the Women's Vocational School (VVS), reveals that some women want to work in another sector because they were not stimulated 'in the past' or made a wrong choice. Re-training takes customisation, especially if it takes place when 'it has to be provided'. Every year, 1,500 women receive training at the VVS. The target group now comprises 40% immigrants; the average age

is between 25 and 35. The VVS is a national network of five schools that provide courses for a wide range of commissioning agents: local authorities, social services, employment services private companies and sector organisations. It is the commissioning agents who pay for the training. There is no subsidy from the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports and the women themselves contribute no more than NLG 200 to the costs.

Table 45 Women's Vocational School (VVS) offers re-entrants one last probability at a fun job

Hardly any dropouts during the training and everyone finds a job at the end. The secret: personal supervision and pedagogy that is adapted to the life experience of the women and, most importantly, their motivation. Fear of exams and a lack of stimulus. By devoting attention on an individual basis to organisational matters like 'What arrangements are you going to make for the children?', the VVS integrates the school into the women's lives. In addition to professional subject matter, students learn to make plans and they are prepared on how to combine work and care. Lesson times are adapted to school hours and the VVS can arrange for a place in a day care centre nearby. The VVS looks at several things before accepting a commission to train women: Is there a good match between the women and the job functions? Are there opportunities for promotion or transfer? Are the working conditions good? Is part-time work an option? And, finally, is the pay good? Vocational training at a regional education centre (ROC) takes four years. You cannot find any women re-entering the workforce who can, or want to, take four years to go to school. The courses at VVS last a maximum of one year. There are also options for orienting yourself towards professions other than those that are traditionally women's professions. A problem that arises with almost one third of the students who apply is that the government benefits agency refuses to give its permission.

Source: NRC-handelsblad (*business daily*) from 9 September 2000

9.4 Time and location preferences of female re-entrants

From the findings of the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000 we know that most of the successful re-entrants have a working week of 12-20 hours. When they exited the workforce, most women were working full-time. The data in table 46 shows that there is no connection between the length of the working week upon exiting the workforce and that of the current working week. This is also true, though to a lesser extent, for the type of contract.

Table 46 *Current working week length and working week length upon exiting the workforce*

Length of working week upon exit	N	<12	12-20	21-31	32+	Full-time	Total
Current working week							
12-20 hours per week	552	5.3	18.1	10.3	15.9	50.4	100.0
21-31 hours per week	286	3.5	12.6	11.2	15.4	57.3	100.0
32 or more hours per week	222	3.6	11.3	7.2	20.3	57.7	100.0
Fewer than 12 hours per week	199	4.5	24.1	5.5	20.1	45.7	100.0
Variable hours per week	69	5.8	14.5	13.0	13.0	53.6	100.0
Potential re-entrants	594	6.1	21.9	13.1	13.8	45.1	100.0

Source: *Own analysis of data from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000*

Table 47 *Current type of contract and type of contract upon exiting the workforce*

Contract upon exit	N	Permanent	Temporary	Flexible	None	Other	Total
Current contract							
Temporary contract	472	75.9	10.8	4.5	7.0	1.9	100.0
Permanent contract	471	80.3	7.9	5.1	5.1	1.7	100.0
Flexible contract	272	75.0	8.5	7.0	6.6	2.9	100.0
No contract	55	69.1	10.9	5.5	10.9	3.6	100.0
Potential re-entrants	594	59.6	17.3	11.8	7.2	4.0	100.0

Source: *Own analysis of data from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000*

The FNV re-entrants survey, 2000 included questions about the conditions women placed on accepting a paid job. Once again they listed the criteria that had already become evident from previous research: time preferences and location preferences (see Table 48). Far and away the most frequently given condition is that the job be part-time. A second condition is that women want to work close to home. A third condition is that they want to work during school hours. We might presume that women who are still looking for work stipulate more conditions and have therefore not yet found a job. But this appears, at first glance, to hardly be the case. In terms of the three most frequently named conditions, there is no significant difference between working and job-seeking women. Women in the latter group do more frequently have requirements such as that the job be enjoyable or affordable child care and they are more likely to weigh the costs against the benefits.

Table 48 *Percentage of re-entrants who place respective conditions, divided into successful and job-seeking re-entrants (N=1926)*

Condition	has work	looking for work	Condition	has work	looking for work
Part-time	33.1%	36.5%	Say in working hours	13.9%	13.3%
Close to home	31.5%	36.2%	Other	6.2%	7.4%
During school hours	23.3%	24.2%	Same level as previously	5.0%	5.9%
Enjoyable job	18.0%	24.6%	Affordable child care	1.5%	5.2%
Costs vs. benefits	14.3%	20.0%			

Source: *Own analysis of data from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000*

We did analyses of which women stipulate which conditions. The four most frequently named conditions were analysed to determine which factors best predicted whether a woman stipulates a given condition.

The most frequently given condition is that of wanting to work part-time. Over a third of the women stipulate this as a condition. The analysis indicates that the age of the women is important: older women are more likely to want a part-time job. Women who stopped working prior to 1995 are more likely to want to work in a part-time job, as are women who are married or cohabiting versus those who are living alone. Another issue of importance is the level of education: the higher the level of education, the more likely women are to want to work part-time. Even though Table 43 showed no difference between working and job-seeking women, this analysis revealed that there is a difference: job-seeking women stipulate a part-time job as a condition for working more frequently than women who have already found a job. We also looked at whether the age of the youngest child played a role, but that does not appear to be the case. So that factor was kept out of the analysis.

The second most frequently named condition is that of wanting to work close to home. The analyses revealed that it is primarily the age of the youngest child that is important here: women with a child under the age of ten are more likely to want to work close to home than women with older children. Women who already have work stipulated the condition of working close to home less frequently than job-seeking women. Other factors, such as the age of the women themselves, their domestic situation or their level of education do not appear to play a role.

The third condition is that of wanting to work during school hours. Here again, the age of the youngest child is important. Women with children under the age of ten are much more likely to want to work during school hours than women with older children. Women who recently stopped are less likely to have a desire to work during school hours. The level of education also plays a role: the lower their level of education, the more likely women are to want to work during school hours. This can probably be partly attributed to the fact that women with a lower education tend to make less use of child care (Tijdens, Van der Lippe and De Ruyter, 2000). Presumably, the cost of child care is mostly too high in relation to the hourly wage these women can earn. The survey of women re-entering the workforce contained insufficient data to test this hypothesis.

Our final analysis was of the condition that the job must be enjoyable. There seem to be few factors that provide a good explanation for this except the age of the youngest child. To the extent that women have young children, they are more likely to say that they want their work to be enjoyable. It is worth noting that working women give this as a condition must less

frequently than job-seeking women. It is possible that the argument of only wanting enjoyable work is a rationalisation for a situation whereby, because of their young children, they see too few opportunities to combine having a job with caring for the children. A young child is probably a new, desirable experience that is also enjoyable and competes with enjoyable work.

Table 49 Factors that determine the likelihood of placing a condition on accepting a job. Logit coefficients and 't' values in parentheses

	B	t-value	sign
Condition: part-time job			
Age group (up to 35 is ref.)			
36-45	0.112	0.904	
46 and older	0.282	2.336	*
Stopped after 1995	-0.426	-3.098	**
Level of education (lower secondary is ref.)			
Intermediate	0.321	2.917	**
Higher	0.709	4.778	***
Has work	-0.289	-2.616	**
Married / cohabiting	0.823	5.938	***
Constant	-1.402	-7.820	***
Condition: work close to home			
Age of youngest child (>15 is ref.)			
0-10	0.387	3.322	**
11-15	0.023	0.187	
Has work	-0.234	-2.194	*
Constant	-0.670	-6.493	***
Condition: work during school hours			
Stopped after 1995	-0.411	-2.562	*
Level of education (lower secondary is ref.)			
Intermediate	-0.196	-1.537	
Higher	-0.753	-3.551	***
Age of youngest child (>15 is ref.)			
0-10	3.639	10.556	***
11-15	2.541	7.187	***
Constant	-3.778	-11.140	***
Condition: fun work			
Age of youngest child (>15 is ref.)			
0-10	0.441	3.043	**
11-15	0.736	5.185	***
Has work	-0.405	-3.267	***
Constant	-1.488	-11.994	***

Source: Own analysis of data from the FNV re-entrants survey, 2000

9.5 Conclusions

Of all of the groups from the labour supply, women without paid work are the least likely to have taken a course. Those who are actively looking for paid work but have not yet been successful, such as the potential re-entrants polled in the FNV survey, have, to a great extent, taken a course. In general, it appears that the human capital of re-entrants is not sector specific.

The proportion of women (and men, too) who took a course in the past two years is much smaller among non-participants than among unemployed or

job-seekers. The percentage of women who have taken a course is considerably higher among women with paid work than among women without paid work and the difference is particularly great between working women with children age 13-17 and 6-17 and women without paid work with children in these age groups. Women with a child under the age of five without paid work have, to a great extent, participated in courses.

Future policy could thus be tailored to finding which women want to retrain for which sector. Sectors will have to be informed about which women want to flow into the sector in question. If women do not re-train, what is the loss of human capital upon re-entry into another sector? And what specific learning needs with regard to ICT are there among potential workers? And can re-training occur by means of ICT that already constitutes part of the daily lives of women without paid work?

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Appendix 1 Summary of studies on exiting the work force in the Netherlands

Study	Subject	Data	Research contribution
Bureau Meesters and Oudejans (1999)	Leaving a job in the health and welfare sector	Health and welfare (1997)	Possibility of leaving is related to satisfaction in work which, in turn, is determined by the intrinsic satisfaction of the job. Autonomy and variety are important as is the link between education followed and the work.
Groot & Maassen van den Brink (1997)	Quitting work	Survey in September/October 1996 among 1906 women that bore their first child in 1991/1992 Survey among 300 companies where the women worked before they had their first child. Net response 72%	22% of the women that went to work after giving birth to their first child quit the labour market after a short period.
Gustafsson, Kenjoh and Wetzels (2001b)	The impact of level and duration of education on the age at which women have their first child. Comparison of cohorts in Germany, Great Britain, Netherlands & Sweden.	Household panel data: for Germany (GSOEP: 1996), for Great Britain (BHPS: 1991-1998, retrospective 1980-1990); for the Netherlands OSA (1985-1996) and for Sweden (HUS 1984-1998)	This study lays the relationship between delay in having children with extending the duration of education. By delaying having children, these women exit the work force later in life.
Gustafsson, Kenjoh and Wetzels (2002)	Transitions in and out of the labour market after the birth of the 1 st child with a comparison of the transitions in the eighties and nineties. The four-country comparison aimed to explain the behaviour through the policy on combining work and care.	Monthly data from household panel data: for Germany (GSOEP: 1983-1996), for Great Britain (BHPS: 1991-1997, retrospective 1980-1990); for the Netherlands OSA (1985-1996, plus retrospective 1980-1985) and for Sweden (HUS 1984-1996 plus spell file 1996-1998)	3/4 of the months start in paid work in Swe., 1/3 in GB and Ger. And 43% in NI. In GB, Ger. and NI. Exiting was largely in the 1 st year, in Swe. When the first child is 2-2.5 years old. (Re)entry in GB is mainly in the 1 st year. In Ger. The same for full-timers, with part-timers a little longer. Most transitions to p-t work occur after avge. 49 months after birth of 1 st child. In Swe. no entry in p-t in 1 st year. More entry and less exit in GB and Swe. in nineties than in eighties. For Ger. This cannot be observed. In NI. fewer exits but no more entries.
Gustafsson, Wetzels, Vlasblom and Dex (1996)	Transitions in and out of the labour market at birth of 1 st , 2 nd and 3 rd child	Household panel data: for Germany (GSOEP: 1983-1992), for Great Britain (BHPS: 1991-1993, retrospective 1980-1990); for the Netherlands OSA (1985-1996) and for Sweden (HUS 1984-1993)	80% of the women who have a 1 st child participate in paid work 12 months prior to 1 st born. 3 months prior to 1 st born is around 70% and in GB 50%. % of women in paid work 3 months before and 24 months after 1 st born in Ger. 33, GB 23, NI 33 and Swe. 47. After 2 nd child Ger. 36.1, GB 38, NI 40, and Swe.: 73
Van Vonderen and Zeeuwen (1987)	Exit and care arrangement (Over)load on working mothers	Women with 1 st child born in 1985, remaining in work for minimum 15 hours per week. 4 measuring moments: 1) Just starting maternity leave; 2) Just starting work 2 months after delivery; 3) 7 months after delivery; 4) December 86/January 87. Eindhoven region, own registration, diverse channels used for disclosure. N=122. Avge age 30 with avge 10 years' work experience.	Time management following the birth of the baby. Partner takes partial care, but this reduces if the employer demands it from the partner. Women estimate the probability of getting the same job after career break of 1 year as very small. Half the women suggest that they will quickly lose knowledge and experience if they stop work.

Appendix 2 Summary of studies on re-entry the work force in the Netherlands

Study	Subject	Data	Research contribution
All potential re-entrants			
Allaart & De Voogd-Hamelink (1994)	Female re-entrants	OSA (1990, 1992) Representative random selection of the Dutch labour force	Comparative research. Number of female re-entrants increased strongly during the eighties. Around 1990 annually 4% of the female labour force. In the beginning of the nineties around 100,000 female re-entrants per year, a quarter of whom indicated prior to re-entry that they were no longer seeking work. Another proportion would first register as seeking work.
De Jong (1994)			The probability of re-entering increases the older the youngest child. This probability is 15% if the child is a baby or infant and rises to 30% when the child reaches secondary school age. A higher educational level also increases the probability of re-entry.
Dessens, Van Doorne Huiskes and Mertens (1991)	Change in job orientation of women: a comparison between successive generations.	Phone survey by Intomart in 1988 amongst 808 women: not in day education, not older than 60, weighted for level of education according to CBS AKT 85.	The personal characteristic that contributes to the explanation whether a woman re-enters is the level of education.
Loozen (1997)	Re-entrants	CBS EBB 1996 Re-entry based on subjective set of questions to persons older than 25, who had not been in paid work of 12 hours or more per week 1 year prior to the survey and at the moment of the survey were working or wanting to work 12 hours or more per week, of considered themselves as re-entrants.	In 1996: 240,000 re-entrants. Avge age 40, 4/5 women; 1/5 indigenous; 60% partner+child; relatively many single parents. 40,000 successful re-entrants.
Van de Valk and Vogels (1990)	Women prepared to take on work without actively seeking it and actively seeking	CBS 1987-1989	For re-entrant women with children the youngest child is relatively often between 4 and 11. Relatively few search channels are revealed and of the female re-entrants seeking work, 64% sought work of more than 20 hours in 1989.
Specific group			
Acquest (1993)	Women 45+, and the labour market in the healthcare sector		
Brouwer, Winter de, Theeuwes(1999)	Female re-entrants in the healthcare sector	CBS EBB 1994-1996	In 1997 there were some 85,000 female re-entrants, with a good quarter going into health care. It is expected that the number of female re-entrants will reach 20,000 in the healthcare sector, half of whom are in the 35-45 age category. The increasing work participation will be concentrated amongst those with a low level of education because their level of participation is still rather low. 20% is in the 45-54 age range. The number of female re-entrants younger than 35 will continue to fall.
Gustafsson, Kenjoh and Wetzels (2002a)	Transitions in and out of the labour market after the birth of the 1 st child with a comparison of the transitions in the eighties and nineties. The four-country comparison aimed	Monthly data from household panel data: for Germany (GSOEP: 1983-1996), for Great Britain (BHPS: 1991-1997, retrospective 1980-1990); for the Netherlands OSA (1985-1996, plus retrospective 1980-1985) and for Sweden (HUS 1984-1996 plus spell file 1996-1998)	¼ of the months start in paid work in Swe., 1/3 in GB and Ger. And 43% in NI. In GB, Ger. and NI. Exiting was largely in the 1 st year, in Swe. When the first child is 2-2.5 years old. (Re)entry in GB is mainly in the 1 st year. In Ger. The same for full-timers, with part-timers a little longer. Most transitions to pt work occur after avge. 49 months after birth of

	to explain the behaviour through the policy on combining work and care.		1 st child. In Swe. No entry in pt in 1 st year. More entry and less exit in GB and Swe. in nineties than in eighties. For Ger. This cannot be observed. In NI. fewer exits but no more entries in the nineties than in the eighties.
Wetzels (2001)	Transitions in and out of the labour market in the period after of 1 st , 2 nd and 3 rd child	Household panel data: for Germany (GSOEP: 1983-1996), for Great Britain (BHPS: 1991-1997, retrospective 1980-1990); for the Netherlands OSA (1985-1996) and for Sweden (HUS 1984-1998 plus spell file 1996-1998)	
Gustafsson, Wetzels, Kenjoh (2001d)	Career break after first born of women whose first child was born in the 80s and 90s, related to delay in having children.	Household panel data: for Germany (GSOEP: 1983-1996), for Great Britain (BHPS: 1991-1997, retrospective 1980-1990); for the Netherlands OSA (1985-1996) and for Sweden (HUS 1984-1998)	No difference in career break in the 80s and 90s in NI and Sweden. In the 90s longer in Ger, shorter in GB. Level of education has positive effect on shortening the career break. GB, NL and Swe became more similar during the 90s, Ger has a longer career break: 32 months at home after birth of 1 st child.
Knol and de Voogd (1991a, b)	Mobility and potential re-entry of nursing /care staff	2 small random surveys of nursing and care staff	
Til Van, Kanters and Bloemendaal (2001)	From exit to re-entry; nurses and care staff not working in health care and their conditions for returning.	8,000 questionnaires to qualified nurses in the Individual Healthcare register and 4,500 to PGGM (healthcare pension fund) 'sleepers' database: persons temporarily not active in the PGGM due to a break or termination of employment contract.	Size of unused potential is 84,500 people up to the age of 50, half of whom are nursing staff and half of whom are trained care workers. In the 51-65 age range, there is unused potential of 7000 nursing staff, of whom 2,750 are possible female re-entrants and 6,750 care workers, 3,000 of whom may re-enter.
Tijdens (1996)	Work participation of 25-45 year-old women: stayers, female re-entrants and housewives;	Work and Care 1993; Telephone survey random sample of random telephone numbers dialled, N=1420 women, aged 25-45. Some questions about partner	
Vogels and Portegijs (1992)	Wanting to work, seeking work and already working	Regional Selection	1 in 5 female re-entrants works in a job at a higher level than before, 1 in 5 at a lower level and the rest at the same level.
Wolf de (1993)	Work possibilities for black and migrant women in North-Holland Age 15-65	Ethnic minority women in the Labour market ((AVA) 1991-1992) N=600 black and migrant women, aged 15-45 from 9 local authorities in North-Holland (excl. Amsterdam) Moroccan women, - via snowball method (n=106); Turkish women aselect (n=261); Surinam women (n=119) and Antillean women (n=64) approached by loc. auth. Selection of 6 work sectors. Selection criterion: minimum 10% of 1 of the groups of women are/want to be in work: administrative, commercial, medical, caring, service and industrial.	Work possibilities connected to personnel shortage (ps) and required education (ed.). Low ed. & ps: hire relatively many ethnic minority women already work, but not by preference. Ps & high ed.: 2 nd generation S&A women with high level of ed. work here. Opportunity for other ethnic min. women if they have high ed. Rising. No ps & not such high ed. Preference but absence of ps. results in few opportunities. Also greater opportunity at larger organisations and in the subsidised sector and in government.

Appendix 3 Re-entry characteristics from quantitative research

Study	Age on exit (x years)	Age on re-entry (x years)	Career break period (x years)	Duration of work (x hpw)	Ed. =<lbo/mav o (%)	Re-entry as: (%)		
General					Admin.	Nurse /care	Health Care	
Acquest (1993)		41	13					37
Allaart and De Voogd- Hamelink (1994)	25 - 26 (beginning of the 80s) 28 (beginning of the 90s)	35.5 (1980-92) lowest in 1985: 33.5	11 (beginning of the 90s) - 9 (beginning of the 80s) based on avge age at entry and exit per cohort	>50%<20	60	23	20	25
Tijdens K.G. (1996)	24	33	7	28% <16	41	18	28	43
CBS (1992)	28.5 (expected 2000)							
Specific Healthcare Sector								
Knol and de Voogd (1991a,b)	25 26 - 28	33	(a) expected Finished c.b.:6 (b) 6.5 incl. incomplete duration;					
Van Til et al (2001)	Avge age now:40; avge 7 years out of healthcare sector	Nurse. 52.7% <=40 Care.51.4% <=40	Last c.b.: nurse. 7.5 care. 6.7	Nurse, 28 Care. 27.7	45			
Vogels/Portegijs (1992)	26	36 after 1986 rise	10	28% <20	47	50	22 in services	

The data on which the studies are based is given in Appendix 2. Nurse/care: nursing or caring staff. Admin.: administration work; serv=services; c.b.=career break.

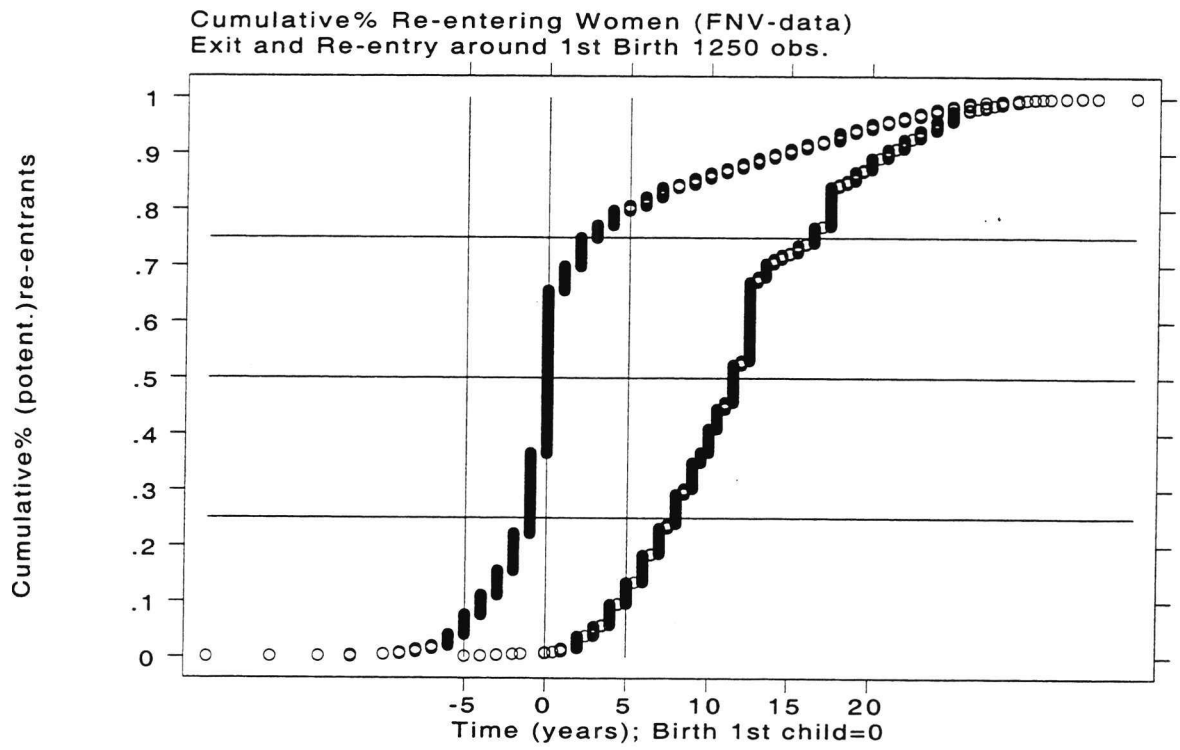
Appendix 4 Graphs with Chapter 7

Graphs on Exit and Re-entry of women in years around first birth

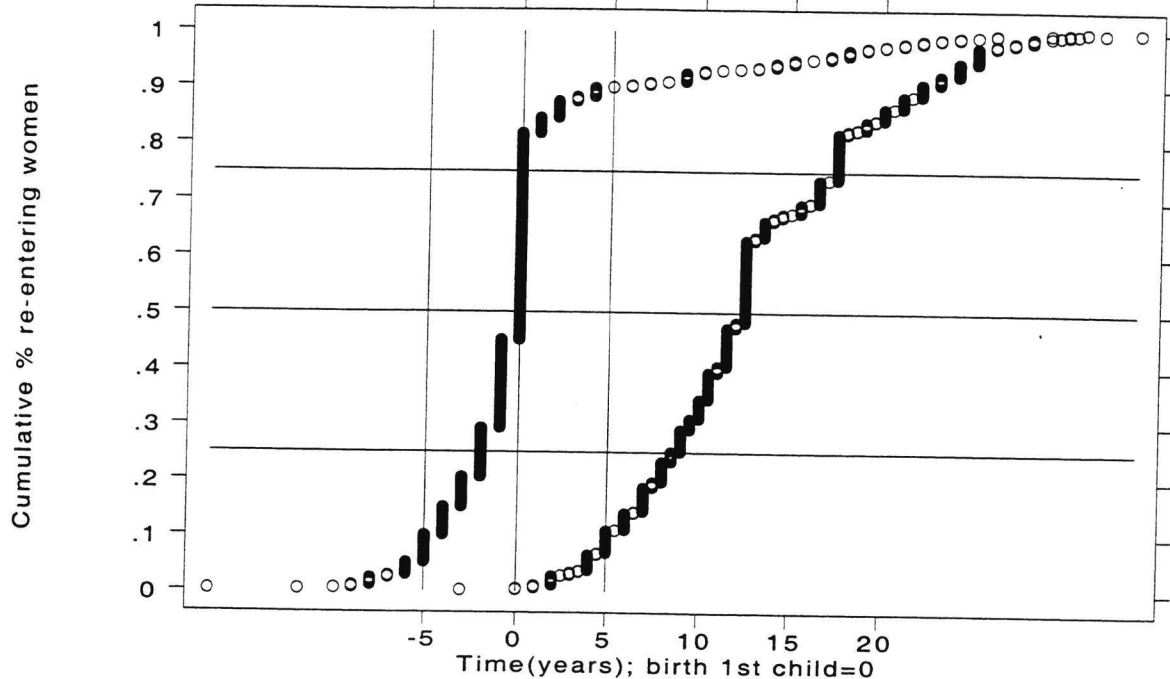
- Successfull and potential re-entering women
- Successfull re-entering women according to education level: low, medium and high
- Successfull re-entering women according to women's birth cohort: 1940-1949, 1950-1959 and 1960-1969

- Successfull and Potential re-entering women according to education level: low, medium and high
- Successfull and Potential re-entering women according to women's birth cohort: 1940-1949, 1950-1959 and 1960-1969

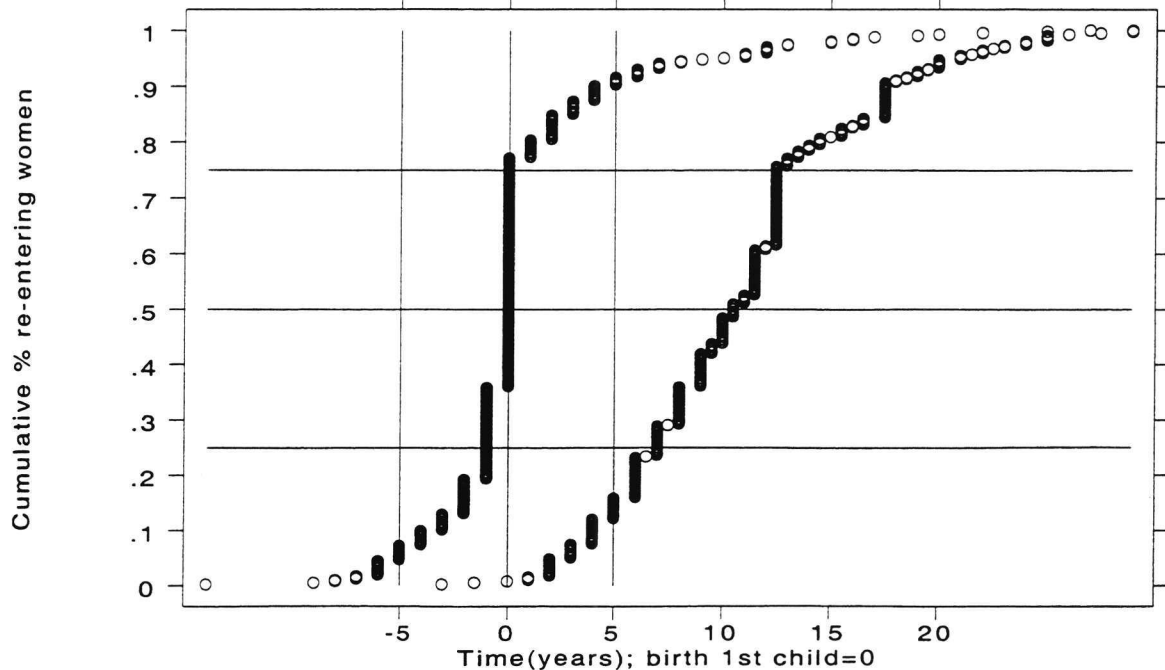




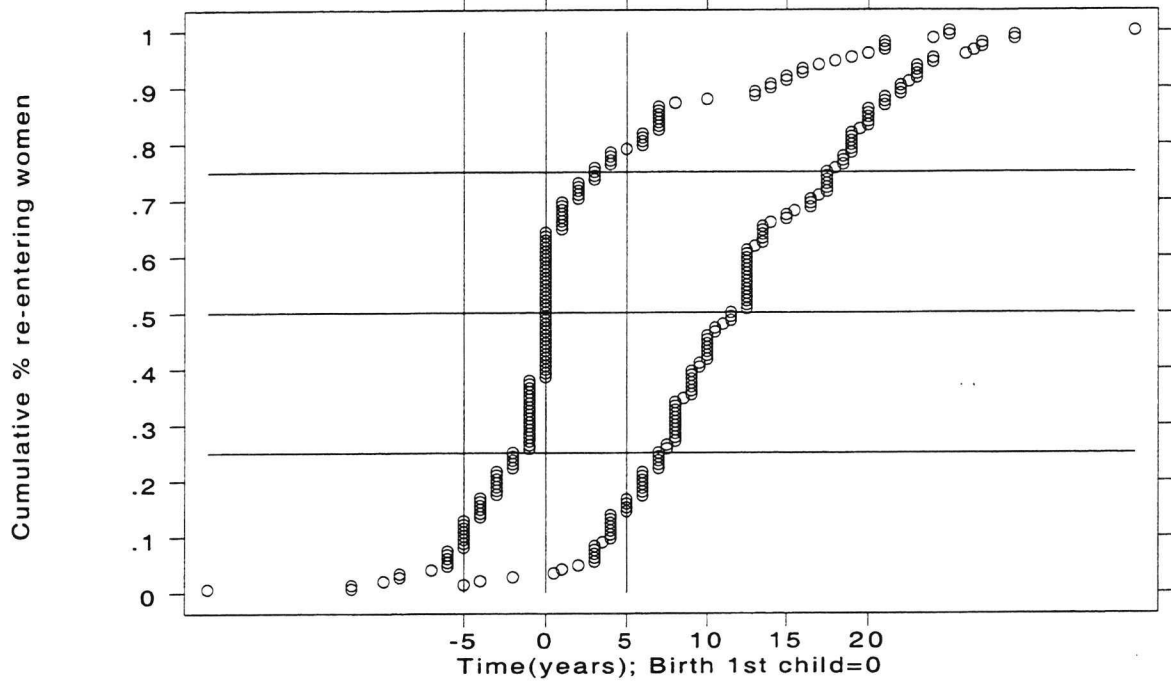
Cumulative% Re-entering low educated women (FNV-data)
Exit and re-entry around 1st birth



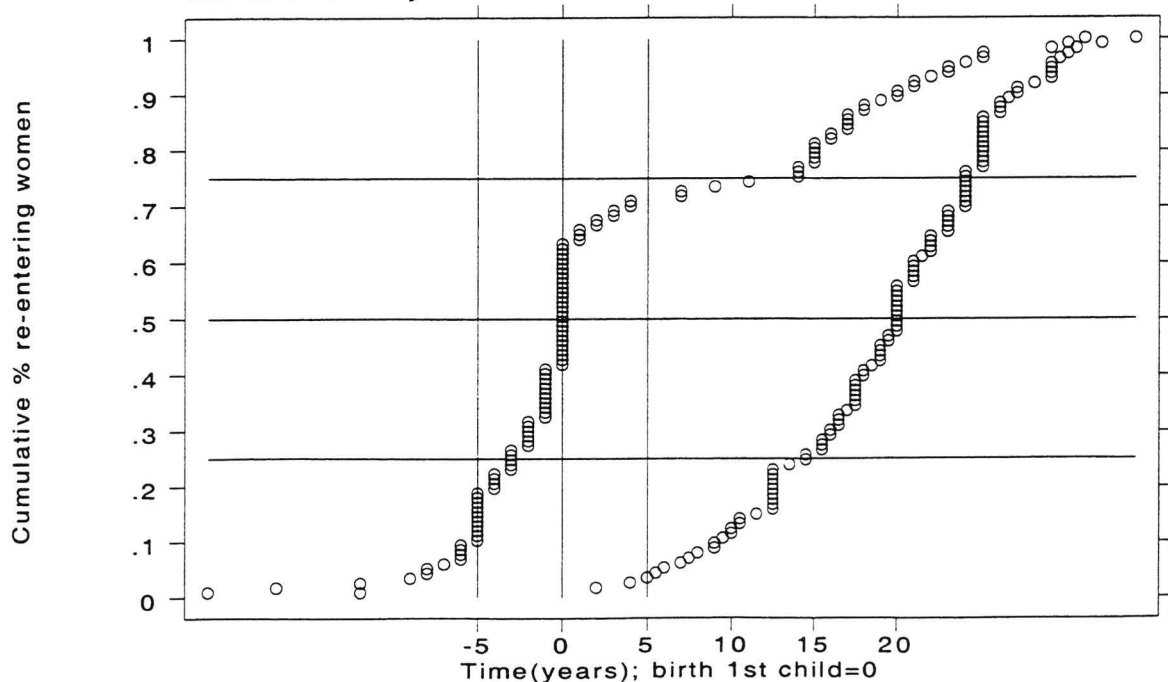
Cumulative% Re-entering medium educated women (FNV-data)
Exit and re-entry around 1st birth



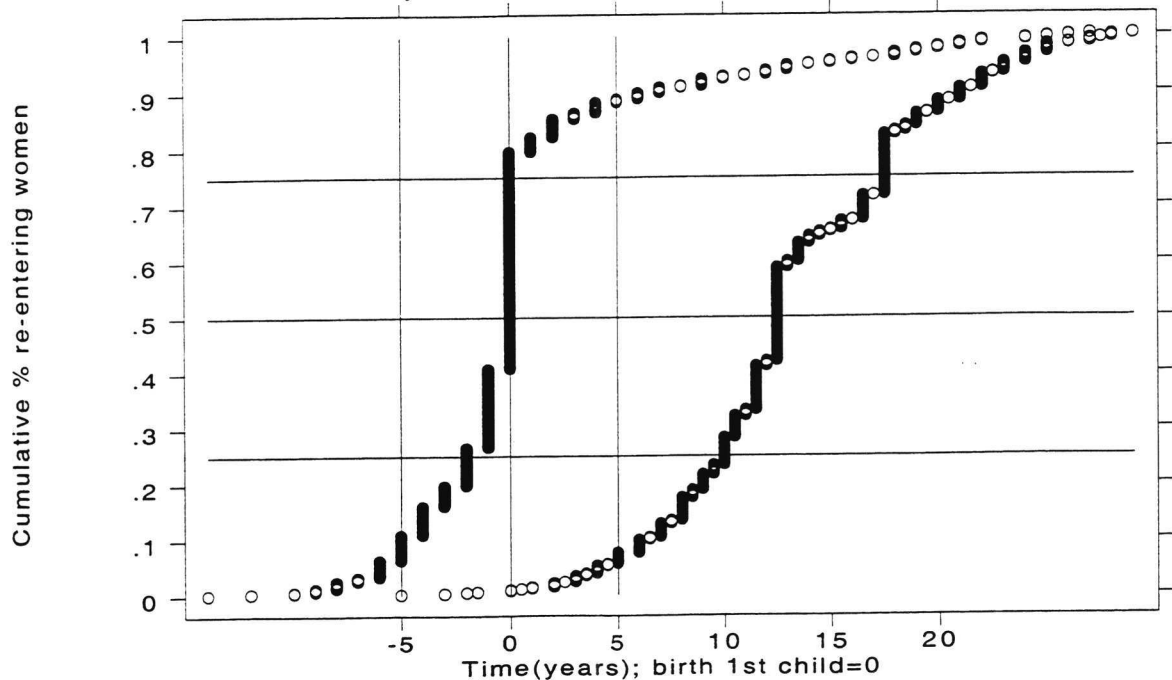
Cumulative% Re-entering highly educated women (FNV-data)
Exit and re-entry around 1st birth

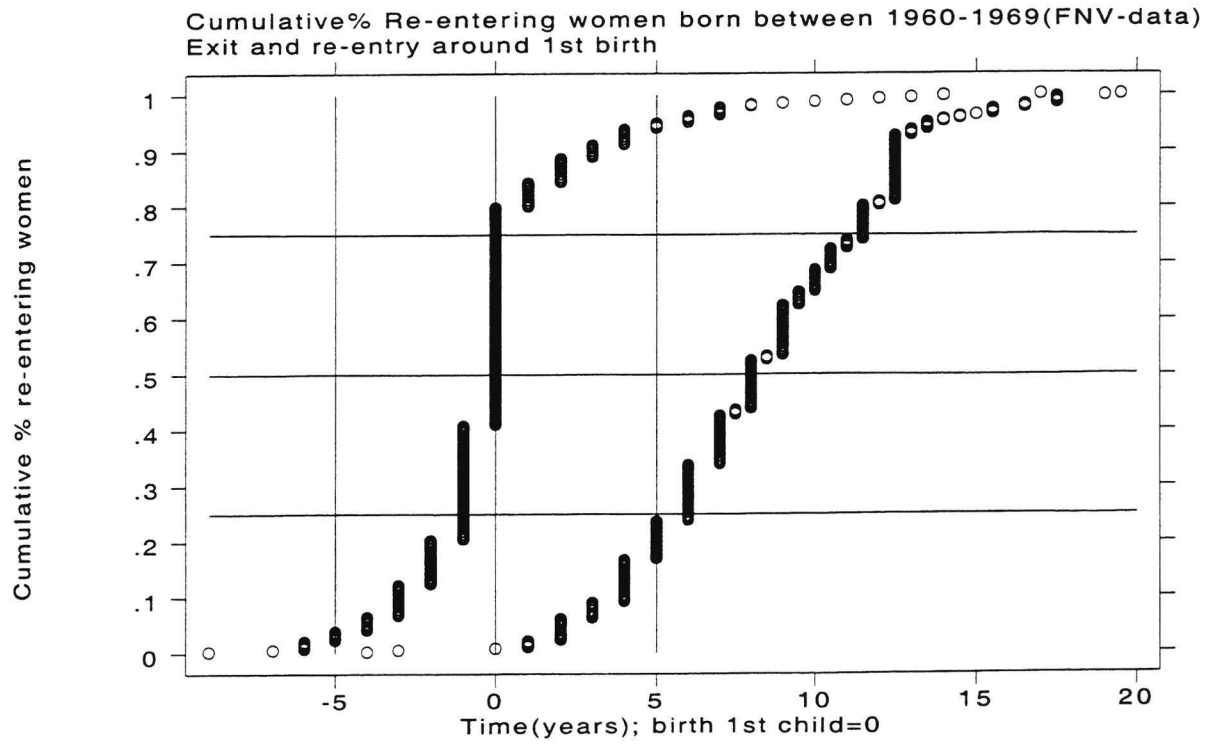


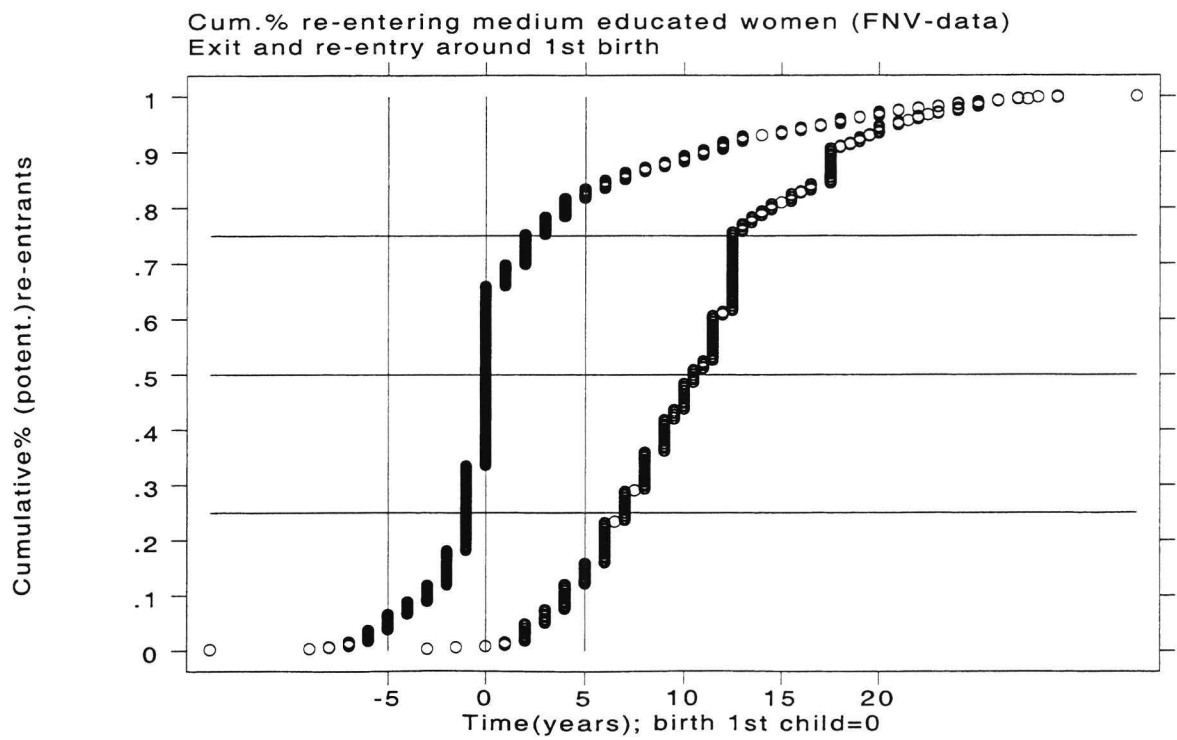
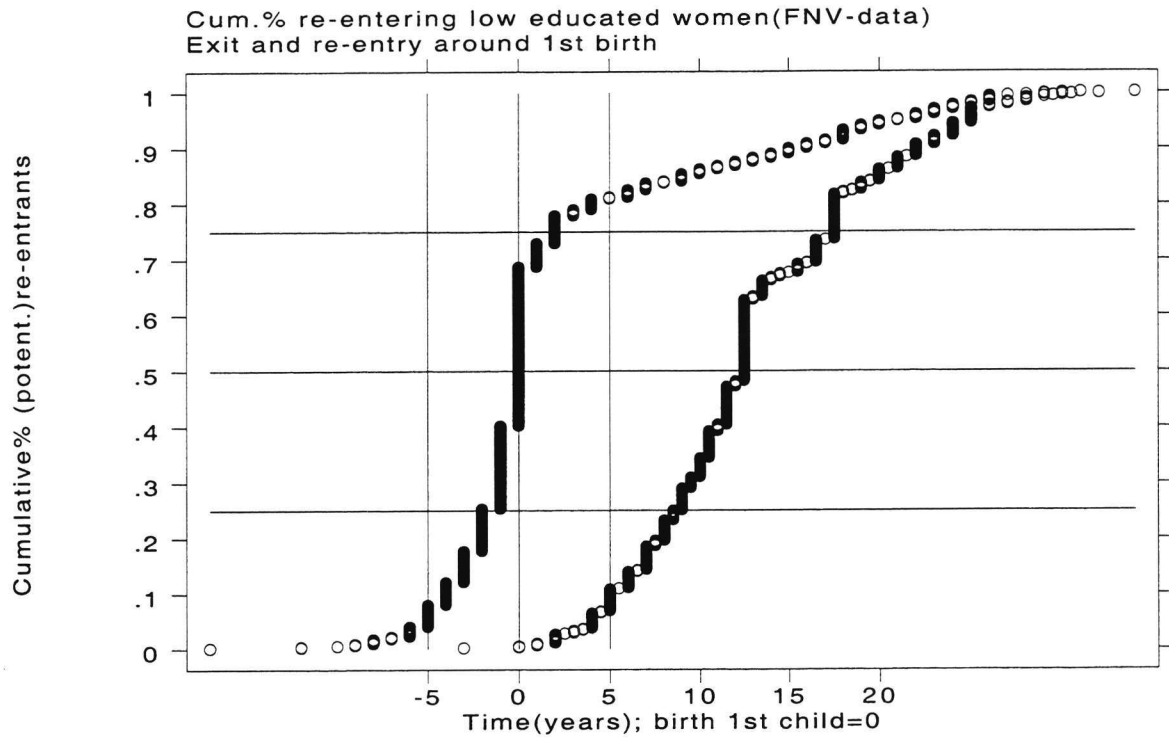
Cumulative% Re-entering women born between 1940-1949(FNV-data)
Exit and re-entry around 1st birth

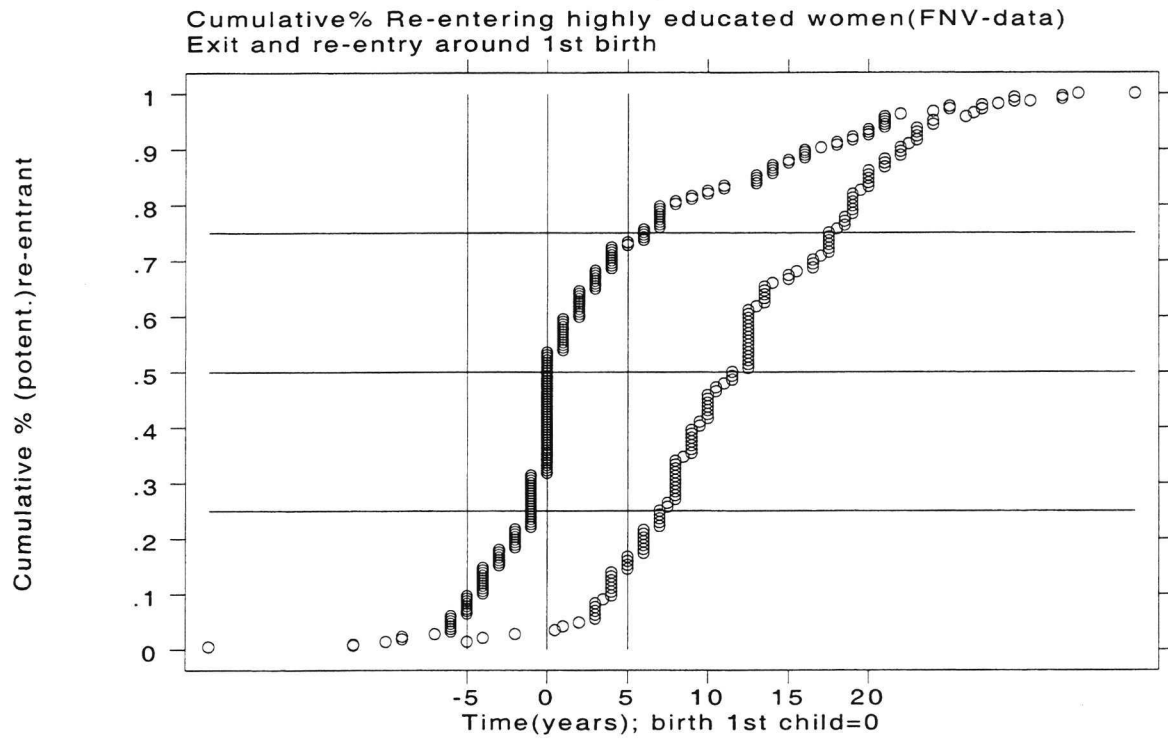


Cumulative% Re-entering women born between 1950-1959(FNV-data)
Exit and re-entry around 1st birth

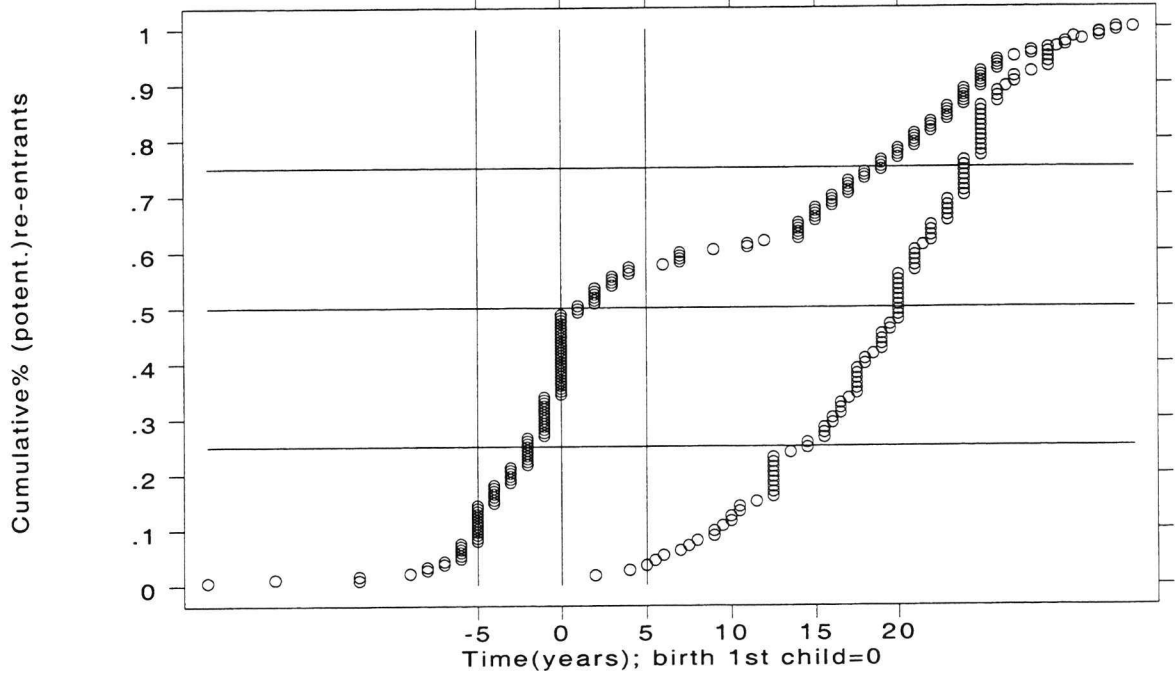








Cumulative% Re-entering women born between 1940-1949(FNV-data)
Exit and re-entry around 1st birth



Cumulative% Re-entering women born between 1950-1959(FNV-data)
Exit and re-entry around 1st birth

