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on Measurement of the Quality of Employment
(Geneva, 3-5 May 2000)

Topic 1

**JOB 'QUALITY' AND FORMS OF EMPLOYMENT:
CONCEPTS AND THE UK STATISTICAL EVIDENCE**

Invited paper submitted by the Office for National Statistics, United Kingdom¹

INTRODUCTION

1. European leaders are agreed on the need to create more jobs and reduce unemployment. The recent summit of European Union leaders at Lisbon agreed the goal of increasing the European Union employment rate (defined as the number of people in employment as a percentage of the population of working age) from its current level of 61 per cent to as close to 70 per cent as possible by 2010.

1 Mark Beatson*, Employment Relations Directorate, Department of Trade and Industry

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2. Underpinning this debate is an assumption that the quantity of jobs is a variable that can be rank ordered, i.e. other things being equal, high employment levels are preferable in general to low employment levels, especially when there is unemployment.

3. Can a similar approach be taken to the 'quality' of employment? Is it meaningful to talk about the overall 'quality' of any job? And is it possible to rank jobs in terms of their 'quality'?

4. These are the questions addressed in this paper. The next section examines the conceptual issues. The following sections turn to empirical issues, setting out the range of information on employment that is available from official UK statistics and other sources, before presenting some of the data. The paper also considers an alternative approach to measuring 'quality', based on job satisfaction, before concluding.

CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

5. Any job is made up of a whole number of different characteristics. These are the different features of a job that make it unique. There are many ways in which these characteristics can be described and sub-divided. Below, however, is one basic and inevitably arbitrary set of sub-divisions. The principal differentiation made is between the extrinsic and intrinsic characteristics².

a) Extrinsic job characteristics

1) Financial rewards The main component would be pay, but other forms of financial reward feature too, such as bonuses, pensions, health benefits, company cars, share options etc. The relative importance of these elements and how they are described will vary from country to country³.

2) Working time This is not just the number of hours worked over a week, month or year. It also includes the amount of paid annual leave, when hours are worked, and the extent to which working time is flexible to employee needs.

² This differentiation resembles one sometimes made in the literature between the 'economic contract' – the agreed and articulated relationship between effort and reward – and the 'psychological contract' – those aspects of the employment relationship that tend not to be written down but are nevertheless essential in making it work. For example, rates of pay and output targets would be part of the economic contract. Expectations of reasonable behaviour on the part of both parties, on the other hand, would form part of the psychological contract. These implied terms, although not usually written down, can form the basis for litigation under UK common law.

³ For example, the provision of health insurance coverage will in general be of greater importance to US employees than to UK employees because of the different ways in which the two countries' healthcare systems are financed.

3) Work/life balance policies Workers will be interested in aspects of the employment relationship that help them combine work and other aspects of their life. These conflicts tend to be especially acute for those with caring responsibilities for children, the disabled or the elderly. The length and organisation of working time – covered above – is likely to be of great significance here. However, there may also be aspects of the employment relationship which are relevant, in particular the extent to which employers are able to tailor terms and conditions to fit the needs of their employees. Practical issues covered by this heading would include assistance with child care or elder care, the opportunity to work at or from home, and the ability to take time off from work at short notice to cope with domestic emergencies.

4) Job security This is in part a matter of contractual relationship (e.g. whether an employment contract is open-ended or for a fixed period, whether the work has employee or self-employed status). Security, however, will depend on more than contractual terms. It will depend on employer policies and economic conditions.

5) Opportunities for advancement The employment relationship will include a dynamic as well as static element, reflecting expectations on both sides about the future. For employees, this heading includes opportunities for future earnings growth and for advancement both in the particular job and more widely in the labour market. This will be a function of the training and development offered, promotion prospects etc.

a) Intrinsic job characteristics

1) Job content There is the (apparently) simple issue of how interesting the job is to the worker performing it, whether it makes appropriate use of his/her skills etc. Another influence may well be the 'value' that the worker places on the job. This may in turn be influenced by the perceived value to society of the work in question, whether it contributes to the 'public good' etc.

2) Job intensity This set of characteristics is slightly different as it reflects the demands that may be placed on the worker regarding the pace of work, its variety etc. The degree of stress that workers face is also relevant.

3) Risk of illness or injury Largely self-explanatory.

4) Relationships with others Most jobs involve interaction with others, be they customers/clients, colleagues or managers. The extent and nature of these relationships are likely to be a material factor affecting most workers' perceptions of their employment.

6. This very diverse range of job characteristics means it is not possible to rank jobs in terms of their 'quality'. This is for two reasons:
- (i) Across the population as whole, it is not possible to reduce many of these job characteristics to one or more single-dimension variable(s). Consider two jobs, identical in every way except that job A offers a higher salary than job B. Few would disagree that job A is a 'better' or 'higher quality' job than job B. Now consider another example. Again two jobs identical in every respect except that job A involves working each day Monday to Friday from 7 a.m. to 3 p.m., whereas job B involves working each day Monday to Friday from 1 p.m. to 9 p.m. Here there is no 'obvious' job ranking. Person X may prefer job A because they prefer to rise early, or because it enables them to pick their children up from school in the afternoon. Person Y may prefer job B because they are a late riser, or because these are the only hours when they can obtain child care. **In general, individuals may rank job characteristics quite differently, depending on their personal circumstances and preferences.** It follows that, in most cases, jobs can only be ranked along these characteristics if value judgements are imposed. And the imposition of value judgements implies over-riding the preferences of at least some individuals in the population.
 - (ii) Even if it was possible to rank jobs along each of these various characteristics, there is still the issue of trade-offs between one dimension and another. What if job A offers higher pay than job B, but is also associated with a greater risk of injury? Individuals, either consciously or sub-consciously, evaluate these trade-offs in making their employment decisions. But it is not clear how this can be done at a societal level – unless, again, value judgements are imposed about whether it is permissible to trade off one aspect of a job against another, and what that trade-off should be.
7. The implication of this section is that 'quality' of employment is not a concept that can be described 'scientifically' or 'objectively'. All jobs are made up of a bundle of different characteristics. These cannot be reduced to a single variable called 'quality' unless subjective value judgements are imposed on which characteristics are desirable and which are not, and how these characteristics are to be weighed against each other.
8. Of course, societies sometimes make value judgements of this kind. All advanced economies have regulatory frameworks that, in effect, set minimum standards for various job characteristics. Many OECD economies, for example, have some form of statutory minimum wage. ILO conventions and European Directives often set such standards. Minimum standards of this kind can be used to address imperfections in the labour market or to reduce inequality. The point, however, is that decisions on employment standards are political judgements.
9. The remainder of this paper covers empirical issues associated with the measurement of employment characteristics. One point that emerges clearly is that statistical evidence on some of these job characteristics is at a premium. However, where empirical evidence is available, it tends to support the

conclusions drawn in this section.

OVERVIEW OF UK DATA SOURCES MEASURING EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC JOB CHARACTERISTICS

10. Annex 1 presents, for each of the nine sets of job characteristics listed above, an overview of information available from UK sources. This is sub-divided into data available from official UK statistics, i.e. those collected on a regular basis by the government, and information available from other sources, mainly one-off or periodic surveys of individuals or businesses conducted on behalf of government or research organisations.

11. The main source of information from official statistics is the Labour Force Survey, although the New Earnings Survey also provides detailed data on earnings. In the UK context, though, the category termed 'other sources of information' is also important. This refers to ad hoc and periodic social surveys. The periodic Workplace Employee Relations Survey (WERS), last conducted in 1998, is an important source of data here, particularly as it collects data from both employers and employees that can be matched. Two regular surveys of individuals – the British Social Attitudes Surveys and the British Household Panel Study⁴ - are also significant.

12. It is clear from Annex 1 that there are significant gaps in the information available on job characteristics, especially in the official statistics produced by government. The official statistics tend to provide more detailed information for those aspects of the employment relationship that they measure; in contrast, some of the regular social surveys have a wider remit. In other words, the inevitable trade-off between depth and breadth. It is also clear that more information is available for extrinsic job characteristics than for intrinsic job characteristics. This could create problems if the policy debate on job 'quality' was to focus solely on what is measured at present or can be measured easily.

UK DATA ON JOB SECURITY

13. This section presents some of the available UK data on job characteristics. It does not attempt to provide a comprehensive overview of all the areas covered in the previous sections and summarised in Annex 1. Instead – as an illustration – it presents basic data on those aspects of employment covered in this conference session, 'forms of employment, types of contract, job and social security'. Within the framework set out above, this corresponds broadly to the category of extrinsic job characteristic referred to as 'job security'.

4 The BHPS serves as the UK component of the European Community Household Panel.

14. **Contractual relationships** There are two key distinctions that can be made from the available statistics. The first is whether someone in work is an employee or whether they are self-employed. The second distinction, for employees, is the terms of their contractual relationship: whether this is open-ended or limited in some way.

Chart 1 presents a time series of numbers of employees and self-employed, drawn from the Labour Force Survey.

Chart 1: Numbers of employees and self-employed, 1984-1999



UK, millions, not seasonally adjusted.

Source: Spring Labour Force Surveys.

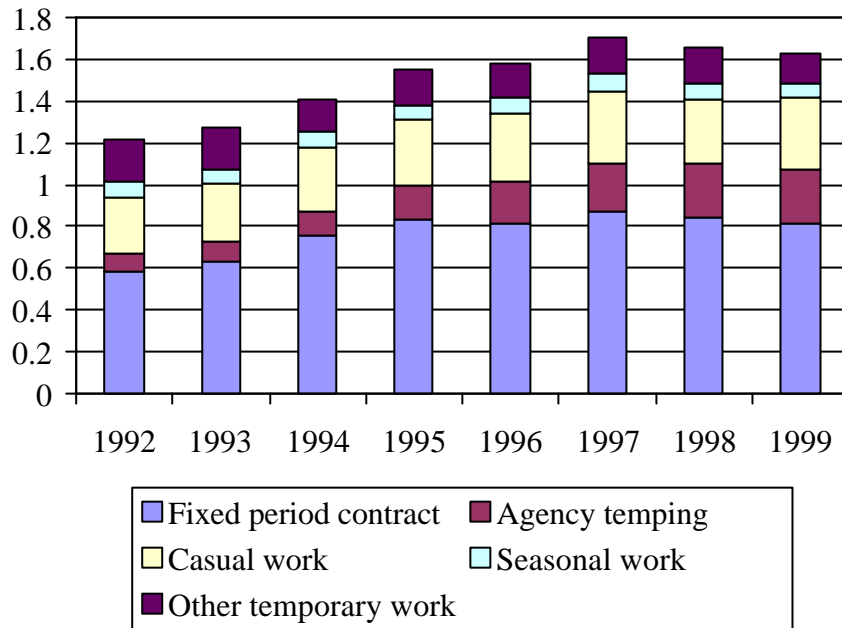
15. The numbers of self-employed grew strongly during the 1980s, by a third between 1984 and 1990. However, during the 1990s, the number of self-employed has remained below its 1990 peak level. If there is a cyclical pattern, it is that self-employment tends to fall when the labour market is less buoyant.

16. It is important to note that employment status here is self-defined. How people define themselves may not match their legal status under tax law or employment law⁵.

5 A recent quantitative and qualitative study (Burchell, Deakin and Honey, 1999) explored this issue in more depth. Taking a random sample of all in employment, as many as 30 per cent were found to have some potential uncertainty or ambiguity surrounding their status under employment law. The proportion where self-defined status is likely in fact not to match their legal status will be much smaller.

Chart 2 presents a time series setting out the proportion of employees who said that their work was temporary in some way, again drawn from the Labour Force Survey.

Chart 2: Numbers of temporary employees, 1992-1999



UK, not seasonally adjusted, millions.

Source: Spring Labour Force Surveys.

17. The overall number of employees who described their job as temporary in some way increased from around 1.2 million in 1992 to just over 1.7 million by 1997. Prior to 1992, the proportion of employees in temporary work had been very stable at between 5 and 6 per cent. The proportion in temporary work, just under 7 per cent in 1999, is still relatively low compared to most other EU Member States. The growth in temporary work since 1992 has mainly been due to greater use of fixed term contract employees and agency workers⁶.

18. The LFS also asks temporary workers why they have a temporary job. A substantial minority (35 per cent in 1999) would prefer permanent work, but nearly as many (32 per cent) said they did not want a permanent job, with the remainder giving other reasons. Explicitly temporary posts are likely to suit particular groups such as students.

⁶ There is evidence that the Labour Force Survey tends to underestimate the number of people in the UK who find work through private employment agencies.

19. The available research on employer motivations suggests that temporary workers tend to be used in quite specific circumstances, such as where a job is likely to have only a limited duration, or where the employee is filling in for an absent employee (see McGregor and Sproull, 1991; Hunter and McInnes, 1991; Cully *et al.*, 1999). Factors associated with cost or the ability to evade employment protection legislation were not significant motivations for using temporary employees.

20. **Job tenure** Another approach to the measurement and analysis of job security is to focus on job turnover and job duration. Turnover is not an easy phenomenon to measure because it is a flow concept, whereas most of the available data measures the stock of people in employment at any particular time. Moreover, the reasons behind job separations matter. The rate of 'involuntary' job turnover (i.e. through dismissal or redundancy) may be regarded by individuals as more relevant to their perceived job security than 'voluntary' job separations (i.e. where the employee decides to quit the job).

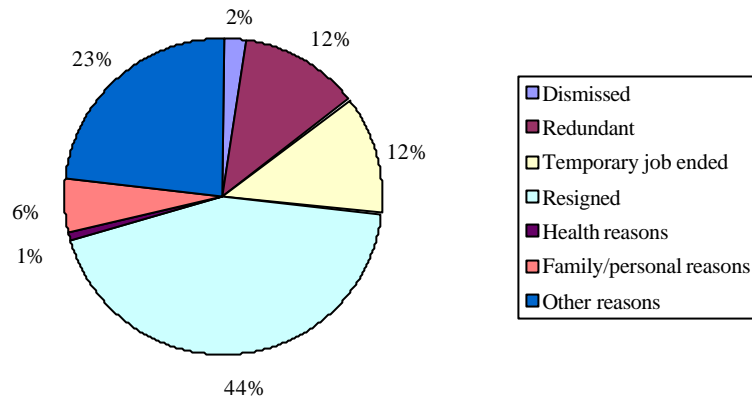
21. A recurring current of popular debate in the UK is that job tenure has fallen significantly during the 1990s, so that there is no longer such a thing as a 'job for life'. The available statistics suggest this may be over-exaggerated. There has been some decline in average job tenure since the 1970s, however the measured decline has been relatively small⁷. The experience of men and women has been different. Job tenure for men and women without dependent children – whether measured in terms of average job duration or of the proportion of employees who have been with their employer for a long time – has fallen. In contrast, job tenure for women with dependent children has increased. This is probably due to an increase over time in the proportion of women who return to their previous employer following maternity leave⁸.

22. The LFS also asks people who have left their job in the three months preceding the survey their reason for doing so. Data from the Spring 1999 survey are summarised in Chart 3.

7 Gregg and Wadsworth's (1999) analysis of the UK Labour Force Survey suggests a 2-5% decline in mean job tenure between the mid 1970s and the late 1990s.

8 The proportion of women of women returning to work who went back to their previous employer increased from 76 per cent in 1988 to 85 per cent by 1996 (Callender *et al.*, 1997). Note that the proportion of women returning to employment within a short time of childbirth also increased significantly over this period, from 45 per cent to 67 per cent.

Chart 3: Reasons for leaving the last job, Spring 1999



UK, not seasonally adjusted.

Base is all respondents who left their job within the last three months.

Source: UK Labour Force Survey.

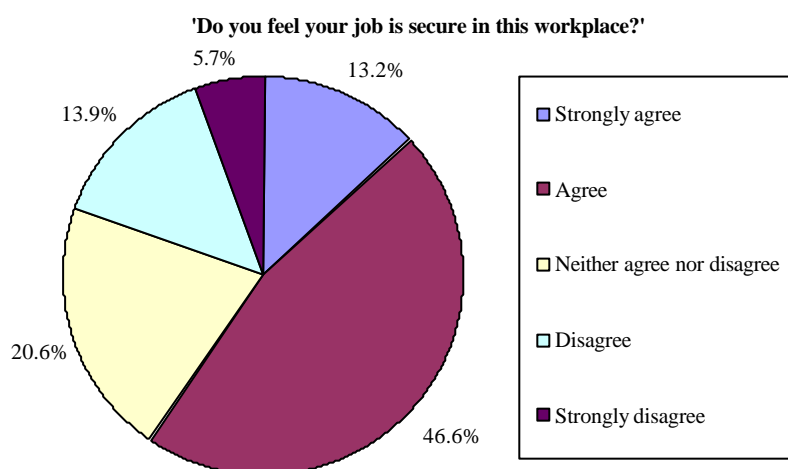
23. From this single question, it is difficult to establish precisely how many job separations were ‘voluntary’ and how many ‘involuntary’. No doubt many job separations are partly voluntary and partly involuntary. Note that the number who said they were dismissed is very small, only 2 per cent of the total, while the number who said they were made redundant – which may include people who were declared redundant at their own request – amounted to 12 per cent of the total. Resignations and departures for ‘other reasons’ dominate. The number of job separations – 665,000 – was higher than four years previously (527,000 in Spring 1995). Most of the increase was due to an increase in the number of resignations, which itself reflects the more buoyant labour market of 1999.

24. The 1998 WERS collected turnover data from employers. In 1998, the average workplace with 25 or more employees in Britain lost 14 per cent of its employees in the year preceding the survey through voluntary resignations. The number of dismissals equated to 1.5 per cent of employees (which suggests that the LFS – based on self-response – underestimates the numbers of people dismissed). These proportions had not changed substantially since the 1990 survey.

9 Time series studies (for example, Burgess and Nickell, 1990) suggest that the majority of job separations are due to people quitting their job rather than being dismissed, made redundant or laid off. The turnover rate is also pro-cyclical.

25. **Perceived job security** Another technique is to measure job security directly, by asking employees. This was attempted in the 1998 WERS. Employees were asked a single attitudinal question 'Do you agree or disagree that you feel your job is secure in this workplace?' Respondents were given a choice of five responses ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The responses – which can be interpreted as being statistically representative of all employees who worked in establishments with 10 or more employees – are summarised in Chart 4.

Chart 4: Perceived job security, 1998

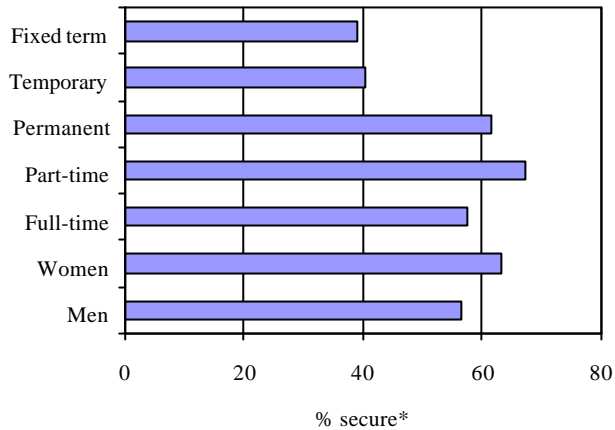


Great Britain, employees employed in workplaces with 10 or more employees
Source: 1998 Workplace Employee Relations Survey.

26. A majority (60 per cent) felt their job was secure whereas less than one in five (19 per cent) admitted feeling insecure. A review of recent studies (Guest and Conway, 1999) suggests that the WERS results are in line with those from other surveys of employees.

27. Chart 5 presents data on how perceived job security varied across sub-groups in the labour market. Women felt more secure in their jobs than men. Part-time employees felt more secure than full-time employees. Permanent employees felt more secure in their jobs than temporary or fixed term contract employees.

Chart 5: Perceived job security across employees, 1998



Great Britain, employees employed in workplaces with 10 or more employees

* Respondents who agree or strongly agree with the question ‘Do you agree or disagree that you feel your job is secure in this workplace?’

Source: 1998 Workplace Employee Relations Survey.

28. The integrated nature of the WERS survey means that employee perceptions of job security can be matched with the policies of their employers. Employers were asked whether they had a policy of guaranteed job security for non-managerial employees. In total about one sixth of employees were covered by these policies. However, the presence of a policy of guaranteed job security made no difference to perceived job security¹⁰. In contrast, those workplaces which had seen a reduction in employment in the year preceding the survey did show lower levels of job security than workplaces where employment had not been cut back (53 per cent compared to 64 per cent).

29. There are conflicting opinions on whether job insecurity has increased in the UK during the 1990s¹¹.

¹⁰ The percentage of employees agreeing that their job was secure was 58.9 per cent where the workplace had a policy of guaranteed job security, and 59 per cent where no such policy was in place.

¹¹ Guest and Conway (1999) argue there is little evidence of any noticeable increase in perceived insecurity. In contrast, Burchell *et al.* (1999) and OECD (1997) both conclude that insecurity increased between the 1980s and the 1990s.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JOB CHARACTERISTICS

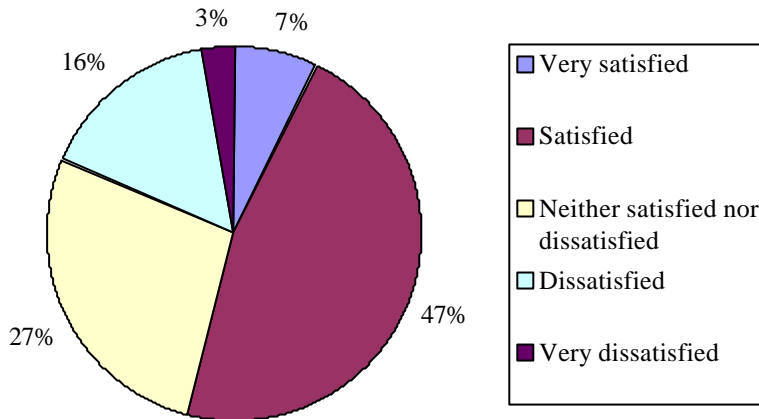
30. Any single job is a bundle of different job characteristics. Analysing trends in how jobs have changed over time – or how they are distributed across the working population – has to take account of how these job characteristics combine.

31. One way of presenting this information is to compare groups in the labour market in terms of the different job characteristics set out in this paper. Annex 2 does this for two groups: men and women; and for part-time and full-time employees. The comparisons focus on the average position, i.e. whether, on average, men have higher pay than women, or longer working hours, or better job security etc. Across most sets of job characteristics, there are differences between men and women, and between full-time and part-time employees. But these differences often point in different directions. On the basis of this evidence alone, it is not possible to say whether, on average, men have higher ‘quality’ jobs than women, or whether full-time jobs tend to be of higher ‘quality’ than part-time jobs.

DIRECT MEASURES OF JOB SATISFACTION

32. There are alternative approaches to measuring job ‘quality’. One is to ask people directly how satisfied they are with their job. The answers to these questions can be interpreted as a summary assessment by the individual of all the different characteristics of their job, and how they weigh up one against another, taking account of their personal circumstances and preferences. No external value judgements are, on the face of it, required to construct aggregate measures for the working population as a whole – responses are simply added up.

33. Official UK statistics do not collect data on job satisfaction. However, these questions are included in a number of regular social surveys including the British Social Attitudes Survey and the British Household Panel Study. The 1998 WERS, the first in this series to include a survey of employees, collected attitudinal data from which a measure of job satisfaction could be compiled. The WERS data is summarised in Chart 6.

Chart 6: Employee job satisfaction, 1998

Great Britain, employees employed in workplaces with 10 or more employees

Job satisfaction is a composite measure based on answers to three separate questions (see Cully *et al.*, 1999 for details).

Source: 1998 Workplace Employee Relations Survey.

34. Overall, 54 per cent of employees could be regarded as being either very satisfied or satisfied with their job. There were significant differences among sub-groups in the labour market. Women had higher levels of job satisfaction than men and part-time employees had higher levels of satisfaction than full-time employees. Interestingly, temporary and fixed term contract employees recorded higher levels of job satisfaction than permanent employees.

35. Guest and Conway (1999) compared the WERS results with those from other large-scale representative surveys of the working population. Taking account of differences in question design, they concluded that the available data was presenting a consistent picture. The majority of workers are satisfied with their job but there is a sizeable minority, perhaps of the order of 20 per cent, who express dissatisfaction. The studies surveyed in their report did not suggest any noticeable change in the degree of job satisfaction over time.

36. A recent analysis of the BHPS by Rose (2000) has looked at job satisfaction across occupational groups at a very detailed level. Of interest is that some of the most satisfied occupations – people working in childcare, cleaners, petrol pump forecourt attendants – tend to be associated with low levels of pay and other benefits. In contrast, the least satisfied groups include professional groups who often score highly on these measures.

CONCLUSIONS

37. The starting point for this paper was the idea that any single job is a combination of many different characteristics. How these characteristics combine, how workers perceive them, and how they should be interpreted by the analyst, are all complex questions. Job 'quality' as a cut-and-dried concept is not feasible unless one is prepared to make value judgements about how important different job characteristics are in relation to each other. There would also appear to be links between the measurement of different characteristics of employment and the issues arising from the Resolution of the 1998 International Conference of Labour Statisticians on Time-Related Underemployment and Unsatisfactory Employment Situations.

38. UK users of labour market statistics have not expressed any interest in measures of the overall 'quality' of employment. There is, however, considerable interest in statistics on the characteristics of employment¹².

39. The UK Office for National Statistics is working in collaboration with users on a programme of continuous improvement to UK labour market statistics. This includes a number of recent and proposed improvements to the information available on employment conditions:

- Improvements to short term earnings data following a review of the Average Earnings Index;
- Improved LFS questions on paid annual leave (introduced in autumn 1999);
- New questions on employee take-up of parental leave (these are being tested this year and, if successful, will be introduced into the main survey in 2001);
- The proposed module on Lengths and Patterns of Working Time that is being added to the 2001 Labour Force Surveys in EU Member States.

40. In taking this work forwards, UK experience suggests that clarity of concepts, definitions and measurement methods is vital. International co-operation and exchange of national experience is vital in developing robust measures. The UK looks forwards to contributing to future international developments.

¹² The ONS publication *Labour Market Trends* includes a *Labour Market Spotlight* feature that publishes material in response to user enquiries to the ONS Labour Market Statistics Helpline. As an illustration of user concerns, this feature has in the last year published information on full-time and part-time work, temporary work, working time and annual leave entitlements, teleworking, flexible working practices and, most frequently, employers' provision of job-related training.

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ANNEX 1: UK SOURCES OF DATA ON JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Job characteristic	Information available from UK official statistics	Information available from other sources	Overall assessment
a) Extrinsic characteristics			
Financial rewards	<p>Quarterly earnings data from Labour Force Survey (LFS)</p> <p>Annual earnings data annually from New Earnings Survey (NES). Also contains question on occupational pension coverage.</p> <p>Monthly Average Earnings Index produced based on an employer survey.</p> <p>Basic earnings data in other major household surveys (General Household Survey, Family Expenditure Survey)</p>	<p>Ad hoc and periodic social surveys of individuals usually collect basic earnings data, e.g. British Social Attitudes Survey (BSAS); British Household Panel Survey (BHPS).</p> <p>One-off studies of coverage of occupational pensions.</p> <p>1998 Workplace Employee Relations Survey (WERS) collected data from employers on non-wage benefits and earnings data from employees.</p>	<p>Good data on earnings (although gaps in coverage even here – especially for the low paid) but less systematic data on other forms of compensation.</p>
Working time	<p>Quarterly data from LFS on number of hours worked, paid and unpaid overtime, number of days worked, times of day worked, certain types of flexible working patterns.</p> <p>Annual data from LFS on paid annual leave.</p> <p>Basic data on paid hours from NES.</p>	<p>Most labour market related social surveys of individuals collect basic data on number of hours worked.</p> <p>1998 WERS collected data from employees on numbers working long hours and why they did so.</p>	<p>Broad range of data collected.</p>
Work/life balance policies	<p>Quarterly data from LFS on whether (female) respondent has taken maternity leave.</p> <p>Quarterly data from LFS on working from home.</p>	<p>1998 WERS collected data on employer provision of ‘family friendly’ policies as well as employee take-up.</p> <p>A number of government sponsored surveys have collected data from employers and employees.</p>	<p>Reasonable range of data collected.</p>

Job security	Quarterly data from LFS on job tenure, employee/self-employed status, permanent/temporary status (both self-defined).	A number of social surveys have collected <u>attitudinal</u> data on employee perceptions of job security. 1998 WERS collected attitudinal data from employees and data on business policies from employers. Turnover data also collected from businesses.	A reasonable range of data on turnover collected. Issues surrounding complex contractual relationships less well covered.
Opportunities for advancement	Quarterly data from LFS on whether employee received job-related training in previous 3 months and basic data about that training.	More detailed data on training available from periodic employer and employee surveys. 1998 WERS collected basic data from employers and employees. Some social surveys have asked employees directly for their assessment of promotion opportunities.	Satisfactory on training but less available on career progression more generally.
b) Intrinsic characteristics			
Job content	No information collected.	Some ad hoc social surveys collect attitudinal data on employees' perceptions of their job.	Limited information available.
Job intensity	No information collected.	1998 WERS asked employees a small number of attitudinal questions. Similar questions in a number of other social surveys.	Limited information available.

<p>Risk of illness or injury</p>	<p>Health and Safety Executive statistics record reported fatal and non-fatal injury accidents. Annual data from LFS on work-related injuries and illnesses (self-defined).</p>	<p>1998 WERS collected basic injury and work-related illness data. BSAS occasionally asks questions about working conditions including exposure to various hazards. European Foundation EPOC surveys ask employees in EU Member States about working conditions.</p>	<p>Extensive data on injuries and illnesses although some weaknesses (HSE non-fatal injury statistics suffer from under-reporting; LFS data is self-reported). More importantly, does not measure actual <u>risk</u> involved in any particular job.</p>
<p>Relationships with others</p>	<p>No information collected.</p>	<p>1998 WERS collects data from employers, employees and worker representatives on relationships between management and employees. Similar information collected from other social surveys.</p>	<p>Good information on management-employee relations.</p>

ANNEX 2: COMPARISONS OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS

Job characteristic	Comparisons of men and women	Comparisons of full-time and part-time employees
Financial rewards	Men are better paid (average female hourly earnings 80% of males). Men are more likely to have access to other financial benefits.	Full-time employees are better paid are more likely to have access to other financial benefits.
Working time	Men work longer hours (even for full-time employees only). Women are more likely to have flexible working arrangements. Women have longer average paid annual leave (full-time employees).	By definition, those working part-time work fewer hours. Full-time employees <i>pro rata</i> have longer paid annual leave.
Job security	Men are more likely to be self-employed. Women are slightly more likely to be in temporary employment. Men have longer job tenure. Women have higher perceived job security.	Full-time employees are more likely to have permanent jobs. Full-time employees have longer job tenure. Part-time employees have higher perceived job security.
Opportunities for advancement	Men are more likely to have received job-related training.	Full-time employees are more likely to have received job-related training.
Job content	No information available.	No information available.
Job intensity	Women are slightly more likely to say their job means they have to work hard.	Full-time employees are more likely to say their job means they have to work hard or to report stress.
Risk of illness or injury	Men are much more likely to suffer work-related injury than women. Picture for work-related illness more variable.	Given the industrial and occupational composition of part-time employment, part-time employees are almost certain to suffer less work-related injuries and illness.
Relationships with others	Women are more likely to rate management-employee relations at their workplace as 'very good' or 'good'.	Part-time employees are more likely to rate management-employee relations at their workplace as 'very good' or 'good'.