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Flexible Work Arrangements in Greece: Theoretical Perspectives and Evidence from Employers and Employees

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A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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List of Abbreviations

EFILWC	European Foundation of Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
EU	European Union
EQLS	European Quality of Life Survey
EWCS	European Working Conditions Survey
FF	Family-Friendly
GDFW	Greek Dataset of Flexible Work
HRM	Human Resources Management
INE-GSEE	Institute of Employment- General Association of Hellenic Employees
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JQ	Job Quality
OB	Organisational Behaviour
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

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Declaration

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Abstract

The thesis examines Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs) in the Greek labour market and theoretical perspectives that may explain employers' and employees' perceptions of flexible working in Greece. Its objectives are: (1) to contribute to the sociology of work and labour economics literatures, by revisiting theoretical perspectives, applying them to the Greek labour context and adding empirical evidence on different FWAs; (2) to contribute to the literature on flexible working and new forms of management practices, by not only focusing on a context that has been neglected, but also by developing a two-level study of both employers' and employees' perspectives; (3) to assess potential implications of flexible working by focusing on the job quality of flexible workers and, in doing so, contribute to the growing literature on the impacts of new forms of work.

In Chapter 3, the datasets are presented. First, the fourth European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) and the second European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) are described and employed to benchmark employee use of FWAs in Greece. Second, a survey conducted in Greece during the period 2010-2011 is described. The resulting Greek Dataset on Flexible Work (GDFW) covers 40 companies and 492 employees.

The second part of the thesis reports three empirical studies. In Chapter 4, EWCS and EQLS show that the use of FWAs in Greece is significantly lower (compared to other EU countries) highlighting the question: why is the incidence of flexible working lower in Greece? Four FWAs forms are studied: part-time, temporary, telework and work from home as well as a hybrid category, "no contract". The findings suggest that part-time, temporary and "no contract" employees characterise a secondary labour market, while telework and work from home, though rare are more noticeable than previously observed in the literature and demonstrate characteristics of a primary labour market. Overall, this first empirical study enabled a reassessment of the research questions, data needed and

provided further insights into how chosen theoretical perspectives could be further explored to set hypotheses concerning employers' as well as employees' perspectives.

The first study (Chapter 5) analyses the GDFW through institutional theory. Its purpose is twofold: first, to examine at an organisational level the environmental factors that may impact on employer offer of FWAs. Second, to explore characteristics, that are directly associated with employee use of / interest in FWAs. Additionally, the relationship between FWAs with Work-Life Balance (WLB) and life satisfaction is examined. Results show that pressures coming from competition, EU, legislation and labour market are significant predictors of employer offer. With regard to employees, the results suggest that the use of FWAs and employee interest in FWAs are associated with: their role in the organisation, tenure and family obligations. Implications of these findings for human resource management, industrial relations and the spread of flexible working in Greece as well as future research are discussed.

The second study investigates FWAs quality in Greece through dual labour market theory (Chapter 6). Hypotheses are set and tested using the GDFW. Perceptions of employees and employers on FWAs show that these are associated with low job quality. Flexible workers are mostly females, younger employees and those with lower educational background, suggesting a segmented workforce and a distinction between full-time employees ("insiders") and flexible workers ("outsiders"). These inequalities are likely to remain, thus showing that convergence in the labour market is a distant European goal.

Chapter 7 summarises the research objectives of the thesis. It summarises the results obtained for the Greek case, and compares them to the European context. It further describes how findings may be generalised. Most importantly, it provides the practical implications of the thesis, acknowledges its limitations and addresses how what has been learnt by this research can foster future research.

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In a broad sense Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs) are described as working arrangements which allow employees to vary the amount, timing or location of their work (de Menezes and Kelliher, 2011), such as for example being able to reduce working hours, have flexible working hours or work remotely. Yet, FWAs may take different labels: e.g. contingent work (Polivka and Nardone, 1989), atypical employment (De Grip *et al.*, 1997), non-standard work arrangements (Felstead and Jewson, 1999), and have different connotations, as will be shown in this thesis.

Eight forms of FWAs are examined here, namely: part-time work, temporary contracts, phased return, shifts, working from home, job rotation, condensed hours and flexitime. Furthermore, three different dimensions of FWAs are considered: (1) FWAs employee use, which refers to the different forms of FWAs employees may utilise; (2) FWAs employee demand, which refers to the interest employees have in FWAs; (3) employer offer of FWAs, which refers to the different forms of FWAs that employers formally or informally make available to employees within their organisations.

Determinants of FWAs have been widely studied in the last thirty years, as scholars, governmental organisations and pressure groups examined how management and organisations reacted to the increasing female participation in the labour market, the ascendance of the work-life balance (WLB) and health agendas. These studies have shown work-life benefits, parenthood, equal opportunities and other employee rights to be associated with the adoption and/or offer of FWAs (see e.g., Allen, 2001; Evandrou and Glaser, 2003; Houseman, 2001; Kalleberg *et al.*, 1997, 2003; Kalleberg, 2000; Lewis *et al.*, 2009; Papalexadris and Kramar, 1997).

Yet, the benefits of FWAs to individuals and societies remain controversial. For example, Crosbie and Moore (2004) argued that when individuals worked from home, they internalised tensions and professional motivation, and their home was no longer a relaxed and safe place for the family. This lack of separation and imbalance between personal life and work was described as work intensification, which Sappey *et al.* (1999) described as a “social cost” of FWAs in Australia, while Taplin (1996) described as a “side effect” of FWAs. In the UK, a series of studies indicated that, when mothers returned to work as part-timers after childbirth, they suffered a pay penalty (Manning and Petrongolo, 2008; Gregory and Connolly, 2008). Moreover, FWAs have also been linked to inequality in the workplace and at home (e.g. Bardasi and Gornick, 2008; Felstead *et al.*, 2003; Sullivan and Smithson, 2007; Taskin and Bridoux, 2010; Vink *et al.*, 2012; Zeytinoglu and Cooke, 2008).

The adoption of FWAs varies widely between regions and different cultural backgrounds. Among the EU members, a comparison between northern and southern Europe highlights differences in regards to FWAs. Northern EU members appear to have responded faster to the adoption of FWAs and to handle their “side effects” more

efficiently. In the UK, the Employment Act of 2002¹ established equality among full-time and part-time employees and raised concerns in the area of medical insurance. The Netherlands have been described as “the first part-time economy” (Freeman, 1998:2; Visser, 2002:23), and is a successful example of the use of FWAs.

By contrast, studies of Mediterranean countries, such as Spain, Greece, Italy and Cyprus (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Crespo and Moreno, 2005; Giannikis and Mihail, 2010; Stavrou and Ierodiakonou, 2010; Stavrou and Kilaniotis 2010) demonstrate common labour market characteristics with regard to FWAs. For example, an association between female and youth employment with FWAs suggests that FWAs can be a “potential treatment” for unemployment: part-time and temporary positions are created in order to “host” the unemployed population. Secondly, there is weaker female participation in employment. Thirdly, maternal/female employment, wage and gender discrimination have been linked to FWAs (Bardasi and Gornick, 2008; Gannon *et al.*, 2007; Gregory and Connolly, 2008; Manning and Petrongolo, 2008; Sundstrom, 1991; Villagomez, 2005). In particular, the “maternal wall” (Crosby *et al.*, 2004; Williams and Segal, 2003) appears to apply to the Greek labour market and is consistent with this research (as shown in sections 6.3, 6.5 and 6.6). Characteristics identified in the Southern EU employment models should be further examined when addressing FWAs in the Greek labour market.

More specifically, FWAs in Greece are relatively understudied. In this context, it is noteworthy that the employee use of FWAs in Greece has been primarily informal (e.g. when covering family run businesses during peak demands, or as a supplementary income that is temporarily needed). Formal use of FWAs was only regulated in 1992 with Law 1982 (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997). FWAs frequencies have been stable since then:

¹Employment Act 2002 document , Available from: Office of Public Sector Information website www.opsi.gov.uk/acts/acts2002/ukpga_20020022_en_1 (Accessed 10 June 2009) and from: EUROFOUND website www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/2002/10/feature/uk0210103f.htm (Accessed 5 April 2002)]

part-time employment was 10%, temporary relatively higher (12.5%) due to the fixed-term contracts in the period 2000-2008 offered in the public sector (Lyberaki, 2010) and contracting and sub-contracting were frequent in certain industries (Voudouris, 2004). Given the current economic crisis and in order to assess potential reasons for the increase in FWAs' and further future increases in Greece, their determinants and potential consequences can no longer be ignored.

In the next chapters, FWAs in Greece are studied. Two theoretical perspectives emerge as fruitful directions for this research: institutional (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Scott, 2001, 2005) and dual labour market (Piore and Doeringer, 1975; Wachter, 1975; Fields, 2005) theories. First, empirical evidence on the Greek case is sought based on two European surveys (EWCS, EQLS) and motivates our primary data collection and further analyses. Secondly, the design and development of our survey instrument is reported, based on which each perspective is investigated in two separate studies. Finally, conclusions and implications are drawn.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

This thesis aims to understand FWAs in the Greek labour market and to identify potential determinants and implications, by examining employee use and employer offer of FWAs. Given that certain forms of FWAs have been reported to be rarely used in Greece (EWCS, 2005; EQLS, 2007; OECD, 2001, 2007), in this thesis we also examine plausible explanations for these low observed frequencies that have been reported in previous literature, by addressing internal (e.g. labour market characteristics, legislation and industrial relations) and external (e.g. EU membership) factors.

We draw on the literature in management, labour economics and the sociology of work and focus on institutional and dual labour market theories, which have been

previously used to examine employment issues in different settings, but have been rarely considered in the Greek labour context. Thus, potential predictors of FWAs are defined and investigated through two modes. First, through secondary data, which enables benchmarking with other EU countries, in order to refine the research design, as well as identify factors that might not have been previously addressed. Secondly, through a survey with two types of questionnaires, a database is created with information at both organisation and employee level, since the large surveys that are available and are here analysed do not cover the organisation level. It is noteworthy that multi-level studies are less common in the literature on FWAs, which tends to focus on employees, and the few previous analyses of the Greek case either focused on single-level data or were predominantly qualitative. By analysing the data collected, this thesis also aims to uncover the employers' perspective and to address any association with employee perceptions of FWAs. This matching as well as the identification of factors, which mediate or moderate any association between FWAs and employee perceptions, are ongoing research issues both in human resource management and organisational behaviour (Eby *et al.*, 2005) and may have implications to the wider society since work takes a significant proportion of peoples' lives.

To sum up, this thesis contributes to the scarce literature on FWAs in Greece through an initial cross-country comparison study, and by analysing the perceptions of employees and employers through two different theoretical perspectives.

1.3 Research rationale

There are several reasons that motivated this study. First and foremost the significant differences observed in the use of FWAs between Greece and the rest of the EU required explanations, especially when working norms within EU member states should converge.

Consequently, legislation and implementation of FWAs within Europe were reference points for this research.

The role of internal factors that frame Greek industrial relations require investigation, especially due to the turbulent times being faced by the Greek society. The potential impact of trade unions, labour legislation and the relatively late official establishment of part-time employment are factors that have been rarely examined together. Such an examination and its findings may help future efforts in understanding turbulent labour markets.

Employment issues that have been linked to FWAs, such as WLB, the participation of females and working mothers in the labour market, work intensification and the way these are tread through Greek institutions raise several questions, for example: what is new regarding Greek female attitude to work and family? How do Greek women respond to their WLB needs? Similarly, when considering the high Greek youth unemployment, one would question, do Greek students, like elsewhere, use FWAs to accommodate their need for income? What is the role of trade unions and the Greek Labour Law regarding policies to accommodate the needs of young people and parents?

Finally, this research focuses on the views of employers and employees regarding FWAs, irrespective of whether they offer or use FWAs, thus giving a broad view of the Greek labour market.

1.4 Research methodology

Two key considerations influenced our research design. Firstly, when examining official statistics on employee use of FWAs in Greece, it became crucial to explore their use in comparison to the rest of the EU members. Given the difference in observed frequencies between Northern and Southern EU members (and specifically Greece), as well as the pressure coming from the EU for convergence in the European labour markets, we

investigate the reasons for such divergence. Thus, in Chapter 4 an empirical study based on two European surveys is developed. Multivariate data analysis was used to assess statistical significance and factors that potentially explain the use of FWAs in Greece. SPSS software is used in this chapter.

Second, in order to capture both the individual employee and the organisational (employers) perspectives, data was collected in Greece, where 70 companies were initially targeted and finally 40 companies and 492 employees participated in total. Two questionnaires were developed. First, a questionnaire was addressed to the HR manager of each organisation, which focused on employer offers of FWAs, but also covered reasons for either offering or not offering FWAs. A second questionnaire was distributed to the employees in each participant organisation, which focused on their use and demand of FWAs and included potential determinants and outcomes of FWAs at the employee level. Multilevel models were estimated to test the hypotheses that follow from interpreting the relevant literature on institutional and labour market factors that can impact on FWAs and their quality within the Greek context (i.e. Giannikis and Mihail, 2010; Kouzis, 2001; Mihail, 2003, 2004; Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997; Voudouris, 2004). In Chapters 5 and 6, these hypotheses lead to two-level path regression analysis models, which were estimated using the MPlus software (Muthen and Muthen, 1998).

1.5 Contribution of the study

From an academic point of view, this thesis examines a neglected labour market, and perceptions of FWAs at two levels. Few empirical studies have been conducted on this topic and even fewer have attempted to provide a theoretical framework for flexible working in Greece. Previous studies in this context are either of a descriptive nature or focused on specific issues (e.g. contingency labour) or forms of FWAs (e.g. contracted

temporary work). Mediterranean labour markets might be seen as a cluster because they share common characteristics, such as high female and youth unemployment, low social assistance, the male breadwinner model (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Moreno and Crespo, 2005), seasonal peaks in agriculture or tourism (Amin, 1994; Harrison, 1994) and high no-contract employment. These characteristics are indeed common in Greece (OECD, 2007, 2010) and Italy (Venturini and Villosio, 1999; Venturini, 2008). Yet, there are also noticeable differences, as for example, concerning the size of the public sector, employer offer of FWAs and employee use of FWAs in family-run businesses.

Most recent studies of FWAs, irrespective of the context, have concentrated on the employee level rather than the employer. Few authors have jointly analysed the employer offer and employee use of FWAs. In this thesis, we have sharpened the conceptual thinking on FWAs from both sides, by combining two theoretical perspectives as well as empirically testing a set of proposed hypotheses. Furthermore, evidence on “bad jobs” is provided by defining and measuring the job quality of FWAs in Greece.

Regarding practical implications, this thesis contributes to the development of human resources management (HRM) practices in Greece, where WLB is very low (OECD, 2007), by illustrating that FWAs have been given low priority and are often misinterpreted by managers and agents who may impact on policy making. These may inform policy making, in a context where wealthy EU member states are concerned, about immigration from new and old Southern EU states. The thesis also highlights a concern, especially given the massive increase in FWAs in 2010 (Kopsini, 2010), and a need for investigation of how FWAs are used in economic crises.

Last, but not least, the thesis offers some insight on differences in organisational cultures, social norms, and employment relations between the Southern, Northern and Anglo-Saxon employment models. The next section describes the structure of the thesis.

1.6 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is organised into seven chapters.

Chapter 1 outlines the area of research, the aims, the rationale and the contribution of the thesis.

Chapter 2 illustrates how the literature has been broadly treating employee use and employer offer of FWAs. It also sets the theoretical background, by reviewing the literature on institutional and dual labour market theories. Finally, the hypotheses on which the thesis is focused are presented.

Chapter 3 describes the data, which includes two types of datasets: First, secondary data, based on two European surveys, i.e. the fourth European Work Conditions Survey (EWCS) and the second European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS). Second, it includes primary data collected in Greece. Data collection process and sampling, as well as the questionnaires used are presented.

Chapter 4 investigates the use of FWAs in Greece based on the two European Surveys described in the previous chapter, i.e. EWCS and EQLS. Comparison to the rest of the EU members is provided and the characteristics of employees who use FWAs in Greece are given.

Chapter 5 examines employee use and employer offers of FWAs in the Greek labour market through the lens of the institutional theory. The hypotheses that are based on institutional theory are set and results are presented.

Chapter 6 investigates the job quality of flexible workers in Greece using the dual labour market theory. Hypotheses based on dual labour market theory are set and results are reported.

In Chapter 7 conclusions are drawn, limitations of the thesis are presented and a future research agenda is suggested.

Chapter 2 – Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature and is structured as follows. In the first section the definition of FWAs is provided and the related literature is then summarised. More specifically, determinants of employee use of FWAs are reviewed and evidence of association between these potential determinants and employer offers of FWAs is also highlighted. The final section of the chapter concentrates on the theoretical perspectives found to be useful to this particular research. Reasoning for the choice of institutional and dual labour market theories is provided and their suitability in the examination of FWAs in Greece is explained.

2.2 Flexible Work Arrangements

Many definitions have been used in the literature when addressing FWAs, e.g.: flexibility in work environment (Hill *et al.*, 2008), flexible employment (Abraham, 1990), atypical employment (European Commission, 2001; Mihail, 2003), non-standard employment or contingent employment (Polivka and Nardone, 1989). Often these denominations relate to the element that mainly characterises the concept (type of FWA) studied. Nonetheless,

there are other factors that define the concept and should be considered, so that one can arrive at a general definition that is applicable to this research. An important factor is the source of the definition: this can be an academic journal, a European institution, labour law, or whether the definition given is driven by employees or employers.

We start with definitions that have been applied to the Greek case. FWAs, according to the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (EFILWC) and according to the Greek Labour Law legislations (Papadimitriou, 2007), include three dimensions that reflect different reasons why FWA's could be used:

1. Employers' desires: either as a change in numbers of hours of work or numbers of employees in order to meet demands for work (external, quantitative, numerical) or as a change in the tasks carried out by employees in order to increase productivity (internal, qualitative, functional).
2. Employees' desires: choice of working hours in order to meet private/domestic needs or WLB.
3. EU perspective: FWAs can also be regarded as a policy response to rigid labour markets.

According to Eurofound and Voudouris (2004), FWAs [(also found as 'market mediated' (Abraham, 1990)] refer to a system, where the hours worked within a day (including start and finish points) are not fixed (Eurofound). FWAs further encompass all types of contracts other than the *typical* one between the employee and an organisation for an indefinite duration and a fixed/normal working schedule (Voudouris, 2004). In a similar vein, labour law regulations (Georgetown University Law Centre on FWAs, 2010) for FWAs provide a definition that includes all work structures that alter the time and/or place of work on a regular basis and add flexibility in the scheduling of work hours, both

in quantity and location. Tregaskis *et al.* (1998) argue that a term used by the EU, *atypical employment*, is probably wrongly employed, as it implies that FWAs are unusual and perhaps less respectable. Mihail (2003) also uses *atypical* as a synonym to *non-standard* employment and adds two additional elements in his definition, namely: wage and salary; thus, he defines *atypical employment* as work relations outside regular, full-time, permanent, wage and salary employment.

Last but not least, the Greek Labour Law (Papadimitriou, 2007) defines *atypical work arrangements* as: contracts that do not link an employee permanently to an organisation, or fixed-term contracts that do not correspond to the full-time and permanent employment and do not necessarily have to take place within the organisation.

A related terminology which implies a different interpretation of FWAs is the term *contingent work* or *contingent employment arrangements*. Tregaskis *et al.* (1998) argue that the term contingent work clearly focuses on employers' requirements. Moreover, Polivka and Nardone (1989) describe contingent work more precisely, indicating that the mere operational definition as any form of work arrangement which differs from full-time, permanent, with contracted wage and salary, is insufficient. They argue that contingency includes an additional emotional element, which is the lack of attachment between the worker and the employer. For this particular reason, they introduce a different definition that includes three factors: 1. job security (contingent work includes a certain degree of insecurity and uncertainty, since it is on-demand employment), 2. variability in hours and 3. accessibility to benefits, since benefits are an important indicator of attachment to the employer and to the work environment.

Polivka and Nardone's (1989) definition is closer to the definition given by the Greek unions (INE-GSEE). According to Tregaskis *et al.* (1998), unions emphasise job

insecurity and employee vulnerability in their definition and fail to include that for some employees FWAs is a matter of choice. INE-GSEE defines FWAs as practices that aim to control labour cost and prioritise quantitative labour flexibility. In doing so, factors that contribute substantially to the productive processes of the companies (technology, organisational structure, personnel training) and which in fact constitute the qualitative labour flexibilities, are neglected. In all, flexibility of work has a multidimensional conceptualisation with social, economic, long-term and short-term consequences, both in the micro and macro levels (Kouzis, 2001).

2.2.1 Defining Flexible Work Arrangements in the thesis

Since different criteria have been used to define FWAs, it is important to highlight what FWAs mean in the current research context. Thus, we extend the definition provided by de Menezes and Kelliher (2011), and consider FWAs any working arrangements where employees vary the amount, timing or location of their work. First, we consider both temporal and spatial flexibility. Temporal flexibility refers to hours and therefore to work arrangements which vary in the number of hours worked in a week and/or what hours are worked (Kossek and Friede, 2006; Greenberg and Landry, 2011:1165), such as flexitime. Spatial flexibility refers to location and in particular to arrangements that enable an employee to work from a location outside the traditional office or worksite, such as working from home (Kossek and Friede, 2006; Greenberg and Landry, 2011: 1165).

Although we acknowledge the differences between FWAs and contingent employment, more specifically there is an element of choice or control that may imply differences between part-time and temporary employment (Parker and Allen, 2001; Smithson *et al.*, 2004) and other forms of FWAs, in this study we include part-time and temporary employment as forms of FWAs. In total eight forms of FWAs are examined

from an employee and an employer perspective, namely: part-time, temporary contracts, phased return to work, shifts, and working from home, job rotation, condensed hours and flexitime.

From an employee perspective, employee use of FWAs (i.e. the overall use of FWAs and the use of each type of FWA by individuals in the sample) is studied. In addition, employee demand for FWAs is assessed through their interest in any form of FWAs, irrespective of whether or not they work flexibly. From an employer perspective, we adopt the term employer offer, when we refer to the availability of FWAs to employees in the organisation that they work; we note that this offer may not constitute a policy, for in Greece most flexible working is informal.

Last, but not least, a distinctive aspect of FWAs that needs to be considered in the current context due to its high prevalence is illegal flexibility (i.e. no-contract or non-registered flexibility). This form of employment is frequently encountered in Greece and South EU member countries (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Crespo and Moreno, 2005) and has been associated with corruption and a hidden economy. Illegal flexibility is manifested either when the terms in an employment contract are violated or there are differences between the compensation agreed and the one specified by law. Another manifestation of illegal flexibility relates to relaxations of the legal rights of the employees (Kouzis, 2001).

2.3 Perspectives on the determinants of Flexible Work Arrangements

use

FWAs have been broadly associated with society's need for WLB, carer-friendly workplaces and healthier life-styles (Almer and Kaplan, 2002; Kim and Campagna, 1981; Schmidt and Duenas, 2002; Thomas and Gangster, 1995). Yet, from an employer's perspective, the link between FWAs and organisational performance remains to be

demonstrated (de Menezes and Kelliher, 2011). Consequently, there have been suggestions that employers offer FWAs due to societal pressures (Boxall, 2006; Goodstein, 1994; Osterman, 1994, 1995; Wood *et al.*, 2003), or as part of a benefits package aimed at attracting and retaining qualified labour (Capelli, 1995), or to reduce labour costs (Halpern, 2005; Galinsky and Stein, 1990).

Whether initiated by employers or employees, in this research we examine potential determinants with FWAs. Inspired by previous literature that addressed WLB and included some forms of FWAs, such as modern management or high performance practices, the thesis examines potential determinants of FWAs employers offer and employees use according to two main theoretical perspectives: the institutional and the economic.

Determinants based on the institutional perspective

The most prevalent societal pressure for FWAs that employers can feel within the organisation, as well as from the external environment via media and campaigning organisations, is the need for WLB (e.g. Bloom *et al.*, 2006; Bohen and Viveros, 1981; Hooker *et al.*, 2006; Kersley *et al.*, 2006; Nadeem and Metcalf, 2007; Smithson and Stokoe, 2005). WLB is one of the most important means to accommodate life needs and work obligations. Thomas and Gangster (1995), in one of the most cited articles in the literature, identified a number of work practices that were key to balance work and life and placed FWAs among those. In a similar vein, Clark (2000) in an effort to analyse a work and life border theory, placed FWAs as a facilitating factor for achieving reconciliation between work and personal life. In the Greek context, Papalexandris and Kramar (1997) and Giannikis and Mihail (2010) argued that employees associate better WLB with FWAs.

Caring responsibilities are well-known reasons for employees to request FWAs. Thomas and Gangster (1995) and Schmidt and Duenas (2002) highlighted the use of FWAs by employees with childcare needs. Brandth and Kvande (2001) identified the involvement of working fathers in childcare activities as a determinant of FWAs in the Norwegian context, thus differing from most studies that associate the use of FWAs for child caring with working mothers (Atkinson and Hall, 2009; Bardasi and Gornic, 2008; Gregory and Conolly, 2008; Manning and Petrongolo, 2008). Similarly, elder care has been found to be a reason for employees to opt for FWAs. Milliken *et al.* (1998) identified child and elder care as reasons why companies offer FF policies, including FWAs. Evandrou and Glaser (2003) also showed an association between FWAs and elder care, but also highlighted that pension and pay penalties are unwanted consequences. In this context, a growing body of literature suggests that companies with higher percentages of females and/or carers tend to offer more FWAs (e.g. Budd and Mumford, 2005; Goodstein, 1994; Osterman, 1995; Wood *et al.* 2003).

Better management of working time tends to be another reason for requesting FWAs (Kelliher and Anderson, 2008). In Greece, Papalexandris and Kramar (1997) highlighted the need for better control over the workday as a potential determinant for using FWAs. In addition, in the European context, Stavrou (2005) concluded that better management of working time is an important factor for employees to opt for FWAs. Through a wider international sample, Berg *et al.* (2004) compared how employees control their time in different countries, by examining the use of FWAs and, in doing so, assumed that the use of FWAs was indicative of control over the work undertaken.

Another category of determinants relates to the social context where the organisation operates. Potential drivers for employer offers of FWAs that have been identified in the literature are unionisation (union density), legislation and the role of the public sector in

establishing employment trends and cultural aspects. Unionisation and the presence of the unions may impact on employer offers of FWAs, although findings thus far have been controversial: some authors (e.g. Budd and Mumford, 2005; Kelly and Dobbin, 1999) showed that a stronger union presence might lead to more FF policies, including FWAs, while others found no association between unionisation and FWAs provision (e.g. Morgan and Milliken, 1992; Whitehouse *et al.*, 2007).

In a similar vein, legislation (labour law on FWAs) determines the rules for the employer offer of FWAs (Glass and Estes, 1997; Guthrie and Roth, 1999). Gaps in legislation, or lack of, impede the offering of FWAs. In the Greek context, Giannikis and Mihail (2010) highlighted that the rigid legislation protecting full-time employment hinders FWAs. Finally, FF policies and some FWA have often been associated with the public sector (e.g. Dex and Smith 2001, 2002; Osterman 1995; Wood *et al.*, 2003). This is an association, which in the Greek case calls for special attention, due to the public sector's large size and its strong presence in establishing employment trends.

The model of industrial relations and the role of the economy shed light on the way FWAs are offered and consequently used. FWAs used by choice are more frequently encountered in developed countries with stronger economies consistent with the Scandinavian model. Scandinavian countries and the Netherlands are showing high rates of flexible work, usually by employees who have to deal with high demands from outside work (e.g. mothers, single mothers, students, contractors, freelance labourers, etc.) (European Commission, 2001). Similarly, UK employees, especially females, extensively use these options to accommodate their work and life obligations (approximately 46% of working mothers are working part-time) (Gregory and Connolly, 2008; Manning and Petrongolo, 2008). By contrast, several authors and European studies (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Crespo and Moreno, 2005; European Commission, 2001; Stavrou, 2005; Stavrou

and Ierodiakonou, 2010) highlighted that in the Southern European model, FWAs use is still low and not necessarily beneficiary for employees.

Economic perspective determinants

Debates on the economic benefits of FWAs have been going on for the past few decades. Atkinson (1984, 1987, 1989) postulated that flexibility is a solution to labour rigidities, competitiveness and thus economic growth. He suggested three different forms of flexibility in his “flexible firm” model: functional (flexibility on the labour processes), numerical (flexibility in regards to the numbers of employees needed in the organisation) and financial (pay) flexibility (as a swift to new pay and remuneration systems), and two categories of employees: “core” and “peripheral”. Numerical flexibility would impact on the “peripheral” group, whereas, “core” groups would be linked to functional flexibility due to their skills. The model indicated FWAs as a deliberate employer practice.

Some years later, Pollert (1988) strongly criticised Atkinson’s model. By characterising it as an “old wine in a new bottle”, she argued that the recession, competitiveness and rigidity are not new issues for companies. Management is essentially concerned with increasing productivity and decreasing labour costs, thus flexibility can be a means for labour exploitation. She added that the categorisation between core and peripheral employees only polarises the labour force and reduces its power. Thus, for Pollert, the right term was “flexibilisation”.

A compromise between these two opposing views was proposed by Ackroyd and Proctor (1998), who introduced “the new flexible firm”, a model which acknowledged the transformative nature of labour and further explained that contemporary capitalism imposes labour utilisation. They argued that “the new flexible firm” is based on a better fit between the organisations and industrial relations practices, and works as a facilitator

or a compromise between employers and employees. Employers and employees may choose different FWA forms, and these choices need to be considered.

Following Ackroyd and Proctor (1998), scholars highlighted the debate on the *benefit issue* and indicated the need for a compromise between employer and employee choices of FWAs (Kalleberg *et al.*, 1997; Kalleberg, 2003; Berg *et al.*, 2003). Appelbaum *et al.* (2001) emphasised that employers gain significant business results from the offering of FWAs. Kalleberg (2003) argued that employers economically benefit from offering FWAs and further suggested that in many cases, it is in fact only the employers who gain from FWAs and not the employees. Zeytinoglu *et al.* (2008) shed light on these issues within the Canadian context; they showed that, although employers might offer FWAs as a way to promote WLB, employers end up gaining from this provision. The question that therefore emerges is for whom are FWAs offered? In this vein, Cooke *et al.* (2009) categorised FWAs as being either employee or employer-centred, the former accommodates employees' needs and voice, while the latter are initiated by the employers for their own benefit. The authors attempted to examine the benefits gained by each side and reported that in a competitive environment, FWAs certainly have positive effects on employers.

From a different perspective, Halpern (2005) identified cost reduction initiatives, such as the potential savings from health and medical costs, lower absenteeism and fewer sick leaves, as another economic determinant of FWAs for employers. In a similar vein, and focusing on benefits gained from lower absenteeism and turnover, Harrick *et al.* (1986) identified employees' turnover as an important reason for employers to offer FWAs.

In addition to the factors described above, the composition of the workforce needs to be considered. Especially in peripheral economies, FWAs can become a path for specific

social groups to enter or re-enter the labour market (e.g. students, females, women after childbirth that have left the labour market, older employees who might be interested in remaining in the labour market under a different status) (Voudouris, 2004). Furthermore, FWAs, in many cases, are attractive for low-skilled employees or employees who have weak attachment to employment, and who might seek employment from two or more sources depending on their pecuniary needs (e.g. by working per day or per project or per piece) (Piore and Doeringer, 1971, 1972).

Moreover, there is a growing body of literature which suggests that employer offer of FWAs is also aimed at attracting and retaining high skilled employees (Davis and Kalleberg, 2006; Osterman, 1995; Wood *et al.*, 2003). The implicit reasoning is that employers would envisage a pay-off from providing flexibility or discretion in terms of work arrangements when employees are qualified. More specifically, some authors have envisaged high commitment, high performance and high involvement work environments as determinants of FWAs (e.g., Berg *et al.*, 2003; Felstead and Gallie, 2004; Ortega, 2009; White *et al.*, 2003). FWAs in these types of organisations become a means to allow employees to compensate for the demands of what White *et al.* (2003) saw as new forms of work and to achieve more successful WLB. Implicitly, the authors connected employee wellbeing with performance and FWAs with wellbeing. Yet, when we consider Greece, the economic arguments of this high performance work system framework may not hold, as will be further described below.

2.4 Flexible Work Arrangements in Greece

In order to examine FWAs in Greece, certain characteristics of the Greek labour market, strongly related to employee use and employer offer of FWAs, are worth mentioning. Greek legislation is the first. Based on the Greek Labour Law, until 2010, part-time

employees did not have the same rights as their full-time equivalents. The law for part-time employment was officially adopted in Greece in 1990 (Law 1892), although unofficially part-time employment has been practiced since 1925 (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997). With the adoption of Law 1892, Eurofound² mentions that the Greek legislation is now “almost” harmonized with the rest of the EU. The word “almost” refers to the gap encountered in the Greek legislation: although Law 1892 regulates the rights of employees working under part-time contracts in a fragmented manner, it makes *no* provision regarding their collective rights. Prior to this legislation, which brought topics concerning FWAs within the scope of collective labour law, the main source of regulation was individual contracts of employment, notably fixed-term contracts, and (very rarely) organisation-level agreements.

This initial legislation was followed by Law 2639, passed in 1998, and Law 2874, from 2000, which respectively provide safety measures for part-timers in regards to work organisation, pay, and the possibility of employment to the public sector and pay incentives to the lowest paid part-timers (Mihail, 2004). In this context, it is noteworthy that, in 2007, Lampousaki wrote that Greece illustrated a two-digit (10%) unemployment rate (Lampousaki, 2007), which has since increased to 14.2% in January 2011 and to 21.8% in January 2012 (e-kathimerini, 2012).

Furthermore, the control of unemployment in Greece and in other Southern EU members has been strongly related to the adoption of FWAs (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Crespo and Moreno, 2005; Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997; Voudouris, 2004), through the use of temporary employment, and more specifically, fixed-term contracts used in the public sector, predominantly addressed to females and youths (Lyberaki, 2010). Another

² The definition of Eurofound on Labour Flexibility for Greece can be found at: <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/emire/GREECE/LABOURFLEXIBILITY-GR.htm>

option was via the hidden economy, as for example through the use of no-contract and unregistered employment. Examples are small family-run businesses, where the male (father or breadwinner) is the owner and the rest of the family contribute by working whenever needed. In a similar context, self-employed individuals who need seasonal help can rely on non-contractual employment, which can be predominantly covered by youths and women, who are available for such posts. In Mediterranean countries, particularly in Greece and Spain, FWAs have been associated with female and younger workforces: FWAs are a means to fight the unemployment rates in those groups that are most severely affected. Similarly, Kouzis (2011) argued that temporary and part-time employment can facilitate entry or re-entry to the labour market, as indeed was observed by Stavrou and Ierodiakonou (2011) in the case of Cypriot unemployed women. FWAs in Greece can allow a smooth entry or re-entry to the labour market, especially when considering difficulties in access that women experience, such as the gender gap and unequal opportunities, as observed by Gerhard *et al.* (2009) when analysing the job market, political decision-making and education in Greece.

Low pay is another factor that can influence the use and nature of FWAs in Greece. Another possible reason for FWAs (and especially part-time, temporary and shifts) being less common than elsewhere is their relatively low pay. These FWAs tend to reflect temporary needs of a business (i.e. seasonal work, additional shifts, overtime, temporary job before something else) (Kouzis, 2001). Secondly, FWAs have also been associated with those who are not the main breadwinners in most Greek households, such as students, women, young people who may need “pocket money”, since they do not earn a “proper living”, and are therefore considered to be the “dependants” (Lyberaki, 2010; Papalexandris and Kramer, 1997).

Moreover, the role of unions in the configuration of market indicators (such as wages and unemployment) and in the evolution of FWAs within the Greek labour market is not only powerful in the decision-making process concerning labour issues, but can in fact be a determinant. Similarly to other Mediterranean countries, unions in Greece fervently oppose FWAs by highlighting their potentially negative consequences, campaigning for protection and enhancement of full-time employment (Budd and Mumford, 2004; Hyman, 2004; Katsanevas, 1985; Kouzis, 2001; O'Reilly *et al.*, 1998; Waddington and Hoffman, 2000; Visser, 2002).

The public sector is an influential agent on employee use and employer offer of FWAs in Greece. During the past decade temporary employment in Greece became an alternative for re-shaping. The Greek public sector significantly raised its percentages of temporary employment from 6.5% in 1999 to 9% in 2006 [whereas in the private sector there was a significant decline from 17.5% in 1999 to 12% in 2006 (Greek National Statistical Society, Labour Force Survey, 2nd quarter 1999)] since it sought contractual flexibility through fixed-term contracts (Mihail, 2003). As Mihail (2003) discovered in his survey, about one out of four employees in public organisations were working under a fixed-term contract. This widely applied practice has been known in Greece as 'simvasiouhos', which means a civil servant on temporary contract (Mihail, 2003, p: 476). This practice has raised significant controversy, since employees move from one role to another, thus becoming in fact "almost" permanently employed, maintaining in that manner the "hydrocephalus" public sector.

Seasonal employment is another type of temporary employment flourishing in Greece in specific industry sectors, namely: tourism, agriculture and peak periods in the industry and services (Papalexandris and Kramer, 1997; Papadimitriou, 2007). As in

Italy, seasonal employment in tourism is mainly based on family labour within small family-run businesses (Amin, 1994; Harrison, 1994). As with Turkey (Onder and Durgun, 2008), seasonal employment reduces annual unemployment rates. In summary, Greece is one of the Mediterranean countries which have shown an increasing need for seasonal labour.

Illegal flexibility is frequently encountered in Greece, where its high incidence has been associated with high rates of corruption. Illegality is mainly due to either the violation of the terms of the contract signed in regards to the job profile, or differences between the compensation agreed versus the one indicated by the law, or in terms of legal rights of the employees (i.e. hiring employees who reside illegally in the country or who do not hold a work permit) (Kouzis, 2001). In contrast to other countries in Southern Europe, this phenomenon applies equally to Greek and non-Greek workers.

Similar to other Southern European countries, such as Italy, Spain, Cyprus and Portugal (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Crespo and Moreno, 2005; Lyberaki, 2010), the lack of social assistance and the establishment of a cultural norm, which keeps women at home for child and elder caring, shed light on why Greek women may also favour FWAs, and require further examination when exploring the determinants of FWAs. The determining role of the public sector in regards to temporary employment is also worth investigating (Lyberaki, 2010). The diverse driving forces encountered within the Greek labour market, on one hand hinder an increase in FWAs employee use and employer offer, such as trade unions (Budd and Mufford, 2004) and the lack of legislation on FWAs. On the other hand, pressures coming from the EU for increases in flexible work and labour elasticity within the labour markets (Stavrou, 2005) and the requests of employers for less rigidity within the Greek labour market (Giannikis and Mihail, 2010) are significant institutional

factors that need to be considered. These characteristics described above are indicated in Table 2-1, which summarises the contextual background that is linked to different forms of FWAs in Greece and sheds light on the different aspects of FWAs as defined in the current chapter.

Table 2-1: Summary of previous findings on the use of FWAs in Greece

Finding	Reference
• Greece shows less part-time employment when compared to other EU members. • Temporary employment though is higher and closer to the average of EU members.	(European Commission, 2001; Employment in Europe, 2008)
• Use of all FWAs is lower when compared to other EU OECD countries.	(European Commission, 2001; Employment in Europe, 2008; OECD, 2007,2010)
• FWAs have been used for many decades in Greece, but in an unofficial or ad hoc basis, in small family-run businesses and in cases of self-employed individuals.	(Papalexandris and Kramar,, 1997)
• Telework and work from home were practically non-existent until 2003	(Mihail, 2004)
• Temporary employees, fixed-term contractors and subcontractors are used in specific industries: construction, IT and manufacturing. • FWAs in Greece are a segmented labour market.	(Voudouris, 2004)
• FWAs in Greece are predominantly used by female employees. • FWAs are perceived to deliver positive outcomes to flexible workers, and to employees who are interested in achieving better WLB.	(Mihail and Giannikis, 2010)

In the next section, we review the theoretical backgrounds used in the thesis and focus on two perspectives that, given what has been examined so far, provide a framework for a

better understanding of the Greek case for FWAs. When focusing on Greece, previous theories that have been used to explain the dissemination of FWAs can be applied. Institutional theory remains a strong framework in light of the pressures from several institutional agents that have been discussed in this section. From the economic perspectives on determinants of FWAs, it can be observed that arguments based on high performance work systems and labour retention are less likely to be applicable to the Greek case than those that would describe FWAs as being employer centred.

2.5 Theoretical background

2.5.1 Institutional theory

Selznick (1949), founder of the “Old” Institutional Theory, advocated organisational distinctiveness and solid organisational cultures, arguing that they ensure organisations’ survival and responsiveness to internal and external environments. In his work, Selznick (1957) highlighted two key ideas: organisational character and competence. He suggested that, as organisations become more institutionalised, they achieve distinctive characters and competence or a built-in special capacity. Selznick (1948, 1949) described organisations as “tools that nevertheless have their own life” and institutionalisation as “the process by which an organisation develops a distinctive character” (Schumpeter, 1964; Scott, 1995:66; Stinchcombe, 1997).

Neo-Institutionalism

Forty years later, Selznick (1999) acknowledged the emergence of changes and identified several key ideas that form neo-institutionalism: legitimacy, adoption (isomorphism) and the effect of the environment and local characteristics. *Legitimacy* is emphasised as an organisational “imperative” for survival (Selznick, 1999).

Contrary to the argument of distinctiveness, neo-institutionalists (e.g. Meyer and Rowan, 1977; Scott, 2001, 2005; Zucker, 1983; Zucker and Tolbert, 1983) connoted

legitimacy to *adoption*. Zucker (1977) argued that isomorphic effects of the environment become part of organisations, ultimately achieving their main goal, i.e. legitimacy. Meyer and Rowan (1977) suggested that, due to interdependencies among organisations, they do not only tend to become isomorphic themselves but are also isomorphic to their environments. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) described adoption as a mimetic process that brings homogeneity in practices. They further maintained that the “process that best captures the process of homogenisation is ‘*isomorphism*’ ” (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983:149). Organisations tend to model themselves after similar organisations in areas they perceive to be more legitimate or successful. These mimetic forces become a “response to uncertainty” of the environment, thus suggesting that in many cases adaptation is more compulsive than problem solving.

With regard to *environment*, Meyer and Rowan (1977: 350-351) stressed that organisations respond to institutional pressures by “ceremonial conformity”, a process which is as follows a) organisations incorporate externally legitimate elements, b) employ external or internal criteria to define the value of these elements and finally c) depend on these external elements, which reduce turbulence and provide stability. Similarly, other neo-institutional theorists (e.g. DiMaggio and Powell, 1983) viewed environments as contexts that impose requirements and constraints (“institutional effects”). According to this view, organisations are obliged to conform to the demands of their institutional environment in order to ensure survival through the “internalisation” of external threats and pressures (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Scott, 1987). This assertion was modified by the mid-1980s, when neo-institutionalism examined environmental effects in larger societal contexts. Emphasis was then put on wider institutional orders (e.g. the economy, the state, kinship system, religion), which are seen as providers of an impetus for conflict

and change (Scott, 2004). Consequently, organisations are not only affected by local, but also by distant factors and forces.

2.5.1.1 Determinants of FWAs employee use and employer offer based on the institutional perspective

This research concentrates on five environmental factors that can affect the offer of FWAs, namely: legislation, labour market, EU, trade unions and competition. Rowan (1982) argued in favour of the importance of social agencies by stressing that their effect (such as legislation) constitutes the environment (here it is the Greek labour market), in which organisations operate. In a similar vein, unions have been considered a key determinant of the social environment, either facilitating or becoming an impediment to FWAs employers offer (Katsanevas, 1985; Budd and Mufford, 2004). The acknowledgement of larger social contexts, as well as consideration of distant social agents, such as the EU has been emphasised by a growing body of literature on FWAs (Papalexadris and Kramar, 1997; Tregaskis *et al.*, 1998; Stavrou, 2005, 2009). Finally, competition drives isomorphic tendencies and organisations start imitating each other's behaviour to achieve social legitimacy (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983).

Institutional pressures may also impact on the use of FWAs. Five employee characteristics are here examined: gender, number of children, being a student or manager. Previous studies have described 'dual-earnship' families, employees with children and therefore childcare needs (e.g. Kossek *et al.*, 1994), working mothers, employees who are students, seasonality in the industry (such as tourism and agricultural work), and long hours of work as potential determinants of FWAs in the HRM literature (e.g. Boxall, 2006). Yet, we lack evidence whether these hold in the Greek case.

Reducing parenting and employment barriers is a contemporary challenge and the underlying reason why employers invest in FF and WLB practices. Organisations may

blindly conform to such pressures and assess how these practices will facilitate and maintain acquisition of an efficient human capital (Goodstein, 1994). In effect, adoption of such practices does not only determine firms' responsiveness to the institutional environment, but it also constitutes a strategic choice to control environmental uncertainty (Goodstein, 1994). Given the low frequency of FF and WLB policies that have been reported in Greece, it is unclear what the extent of such pressures is and whether or not employers respond or intend to respond to them.

From the institutional predictors a question that emerges is: What are those social agencies and institutional factors that impact on FWAs in Greece? A number of hypotheses are set in Chapter 5. In particular, regarding the employer offer of FWAs, hypotheses on environmental factors (e.g. competition, trade unions, EU, legislation, labour market) are the main area of focus from the employers' perspective. As it concerns employees, hypotheses on individual characteristics (e.g. gender, age, marital status, and children) and their association to employee use and demand of FWAs are examined. Finally, the association between employer offer of FWAs, employee use of FWAs and WLB and life satisfaction is also hypothesised and examined through institutional theory.

Consistent with Fields (2005), institutional factors are one aspect of examining social and employment related issues. Another important aspect that needs to be considered, when examining the labour market and the forces that impact on it, is the economic aspect. Among the economic perspectives, dual labour market is the one better describing the Greek labour market and the employee use and employer offer of FWAs within it, as it is characterised by a duality. Two issues are particularly relevant to this study and illustrate the duality of the Greek labour market. First, the existence of a secondary market, which is unstructured, undeveloped and generates job *bipolarisation* and *occupational segmentation* (Wachter, 1974). Secondly, social groups (e.g. women, ethnic

minorities, teenagers and children) that *could not make* to the primary are in fact those that constitute the secondary. These issues will be further analysed in the sections that follow.

2.5.2 Dual labour market theory

For over a half century there has been interest in dual labour market theory at an interdisciplinary level. Dualism attracted sociologists earlier than economists. Boeke (1953; Ranis, 2003) was associated with sociological dualism and highlighted the differences of the economic culture and objectives between Western (industrial) and non-Western countries. Sir Arthur Lewis, an economist, emphasised that workers earn different wages according to the sector (formal/capitalist versus informal/subsistence) in which they can find work. Since not all workers can find work in the subsistence sector, a “surplus labour” is generated, and therefore discrepancies in wages and income result in the emergence of two different labour sectors. Lewis (1954) suggested that one economy can include two sectors: an advanced one (capitalistic) and a disadvantageous one (subsistence).

Gordon (1972), similarly to Piore and Doeringer (1971, 1972), described the division of the labour market into *primary* and *secondary*. The primary market includes all positive characteristics of employment i.e. high wages, good work conditions, stability, advancement, progress and efficient work administrative rules, while the secondary is characterised by the opposite. In contrast to Piore and Doeringer, Wachter (1974) suggested that the actual distinction is between jobs, i.e. “good versus bad jobs” rather than between good versus bad employees, and thus argued that the most important distinction between sectors is in regards to job quality. Yet, he identified the same negative characteristics (inferior employment, instability, unemployment, etc.) in the secondary labour market. He further specified four “sub-hypotheses” that characterise the

dual labour market: (1) a secondary sector *actually* exists; (2) wage determination is different in each sector; (3) there is little mobility between the two sectors; and (4) the most pervasive characteristic of the secondary sector is underemployment.

Fields (2004, 2005), a more contemporary dual labour market theorist, described that in order for labour dualism to exist, different wages must be paid in distinct sectors and most importantly *to comparable* workers. He also exemplified that three equilibrium forces tend to operate in the primary market: the behaviours of firms, of workers and of wages (Fields, 2005: 9). When market conditions change, these behaviours also change. Companies and workers are free to act on changes and influence labour supply and demand, and therefore wages will rise or fall accordingly.

Finally, Fields (2005), inspired by Lewis (1954), suggested that five institutional forces are important in different labour market settings: minimum wages, trade unions, public sector pay policies, multinational corporations and labour codes, which in some countries regulate labour policy, such as hiring and firing, payroll taxes on firms, employee benefits, etc. He argued that these five labour market interventions, although beneficial to workers, can have adverse employment and efficiency effects, and contribute to the informalisation of an economy (Fields, 2005:14), which can further emphasise the duality of the labour market.

2.5.2.1 Determinants employees use and employers offer of FWAs based on the dual labour market perspective

Consistent with the dual labour market theory, Greece is a peripheral, secondary market within the EU. As such, the Greek labour market is divided into two labour markets: a) a primary labour market, which includes the majority of the high quality full-time employment jobs, protected by the social agencies, such as the unions, and legislation throughout the past decades, as well as a limited number of jobs under high quality FWAs

(e.g. telework, work from home) on one hand and b) a secondary labour market, which includes low job quality positions and to a large extent the majority of the forms of FWAs, such as part-time, temporary employment, illegal flexibility, etc. Following expectations based on the writings of Piore and Doeringer (1972) and Wachter (1974), the majority of FWAs, as part of a secondary market, would host those disadvantageous employees that could not make it to the primary sector. Another part of the workforce that would be included in this secondary market are those social groups that demonstrate weaker attachment to employment, either for personal reasons or due to their lifestyles, such as women, women with children, youths and students, uneducated employees, or employees with lower skills.

A vicious circle may follow, where secondary labourers and disadvantageous employees have little choice but to be flexible workers. This would create negative employees' perceptions, stigmatising both the position offered under FWAs, as well as those employees being employed under FWAs. Moreover, from an employers' side and in conjunction with Kalleberg (2000, 2003) and McDonald *et al.* (2009), employers have great benefits in offering FWAs, such as savings in labour costs, better business-driven results, improvements in production, etc. and are therefore interested in increasing the use and offering of FWAs (Giannikis and Mihail, 2010). These arguments are revisited and a number of hypotheses are set and tested in Chapter 6.

By examining FWAs in Greece through dual labour market, the following questions can be addressed: do employers offer FWAs for their economic benefit? Are flexible workers secondary labourers? Is there a primary labour market? What is the job quality of flexible workers?

Table 2-2 summarises the predictors associated with the two different theoretical frameworks that will be used in the current thesis. Examples of international and Greek literature, based on which we draw these predictors, are included in the last column.

Table 2-2: Theoretical background and corresponding predictors and references

Theory	Predictors	References
Institutional	Individual characteristics (e.g. age, education, number of children, main contributor in the household, area of living and working)	Andreotti <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Crespo and Moreno, 2005; Boxall, 2006; Goodstein, 1994; Kossek <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Lyberaki, 2010; Scott, 2001, 2005; Stavrou and Ierodiakonou, 2010; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2009
	Social agencies (e.g. legislation, trade unions, EU, labour market) and organisational characteristics (e.g. size of the organisation, sector, ownership)	Budd and Mufford, 2004; Boyne, 2002; Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Erza and Deckman, 1996; Ichniowski, 1990; Kouzis, 2001; Osterman, 1994, 1995; Scott, 2001, 2005; Stavrou, 2005; Waddington and Hoffman, 2000; Wood <i>et al.</i> , 2003
	Life satisfaction	Almer and Kaplan, 2002; Kim and Campagna, 1981; Schmidt and Duenas, 2002; Thomas and Gangster, 1995
	Work-Life Balance	Giannikis and Mihail, 2010; Noonan <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Shockley and Allen, 2007
Labour market	Job characteristics and job quality (e.g. income, economic status, contract type, job title, occupation)	Kalleberg, 2000; Kalleberg <i>et al.</i> , 2003; McDonald <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Piore and Doeringer, 1972; Wachter, 1974
	Overall job satisfaction and job security	Dex and Scheibl, 1999; Glass and Finley, 2002; Kelliher and Anderson, 2009; Kelly <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Piore and Doeringer, 1972; Wachter, 1974
	Employers' and employees' perceptions of the quality of FWAs	Giannikis and Mihail, 2010; Kalleberg, 2000; Kalleberg <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Piore and Doeringer, 1972; Voudouris, 2004; Wachter, 1974

2.6 Summary

In the first part of this chapter, different definitions of FWAs were reviewed and assessed. As a next step, definition of FWAs as used in the current thesis and tailored to the Greek context, was provided. More importantly, this definition is broad so that it encompasses different aspects of FWAs in Greece: temporal (e.g. flexitime) and spatial (e.g. work from home) flexibility, contingent employment (e.g. part-time and fixed-term contracts), employee-centred (e.g. shifts, temporary employment) and employer-centred (e.g. work from home, telework) FWAs forms and illegal flexibility (non-declared or no-contract flexibility). Eight forms are examined: part-time, temporary, flexitime, work from home, shifts, phased return, job sharing and condensed hours. In addition, three terms are of significant importance to the terminology of FWAs in the current thesis: FWAs employee use, which addresses the use of the different forms of FWAs by employees, FWAs employee demand, which refers to the interest employees have in FWAs and FWAs employers offer, which refers to the FWAs which employers make available to employees in the organisations.

The contextual background of the Greek case and characteristics of the Greek labour market linked to the analysis that will follow in the next chapters through the empirical studies described. The chapter further analysed the two theoretical frameworks, where this thesis is based on: institutional theory and dual labour market theory. Determinants of employee use and employer offer of FWAs from each theory were discussed, thus identifying potential predictors that will be empirically investigated in the next chapters through different secondary and primary data, which are described in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 – Data and methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overall description of the datasets used in this thesis. It is divided into two parts according to the source of the data. In the first part, secondary data used to benchmark employee use of FWAs in Greece is described. Two large datasets: the fourth European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) and the second European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) are introduced, based on which analysis will be carried out in chapter 4.

In the second part, primary data used in subsequent chapters (Chapters 5 and 6) that were collected through fieldwork is presented: Greek Dataset on Flexible Work (GDFW). The data collection process began in April 2010 and lasted until January 2011. The sample includes employees and employers, who are based in Athens and at various other locations in Greece.

In the following sections, the datasets are presented.

3.2 Secondary data

3.2.1 The fourth European Work Conditions Survey (EWCS)

The fourth EWCS was conducted in the period September-November 2005 by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound). The survey aims at identifying the priorities, measuring and monitoring the changes and trends of work

and its conditions over the years. The survey portrays the work conditions in the EU and therefore aims to contribute to policy making and to the development of new research.

The dataset which is used here is part of a series, as similar surveys were conducted in 1991, 1995 and 2000. In total, 29,766 workers were interviewed in 31 countries (27 EU member states, two candidates for membership plus two members of the European Free Trade Association) (EWCS, 2005).

3.2.1.1 Sample and data collection

Approximately 1,000 workers were interviewed per country, with a number of exceptions due to smaller sized countries, as indicated in Table 3-1, which shows the exact numbers of respondents in each country. Three criteria were set for participants: the respondent should be in employment (employees and self-employed), aged 15 years and over and to be resident in each of the surveyed countries.

The sampling design of EWCS included three stages: a) face-to-face interviews were conducted in each country based on *random walk* in geographical areas stratified by region and urbanisation level; b) randomly assigned addresses where from the *random walk* would start; c) *random walks* during which random households were selected to participate; and d) finally a selection of the interviewees within the household with whom in-depth interviews were conducted (EWSC, 2005).

Table 3-1: Number of interviews after quality control

Country	Number of interviews	Country	Number of interviews
Austria	1009	Luxembourg	600
Belgium	1003	Malta	600
Bulgaria	1134	Netherlands	1025
Cyprus	600	Poland	1000
Czech Republic	1027	Portugal	1000

Denmark	1066	Romania	1063
Estonia	602	Slovakia	1024
Finland	1059	Slovenia	600
France	1083	Spain	1017
Germany	1018	Sweden	1059
Greece	1001	United Kingdom	1058
Hungary	1001		
Ireland	1009	Croatia	1011
Italy	1005	Norway	1000
Latvia	1003	Switzerland	1040
Lithuania	1017	Turkey	1015

Source: EWCS 2005

3.2.1.2 Response rate and weights

In total, 72,300 households were visited and 29,776 actual interviews were conducted. Response rates were calculated as the proportion of completed interviews to the total number of eligible cases (EWCS, 2005). Overall, the response rate was 48%. As indicated in Table 3-2, in most countries, the response rates were around an average of 50%. Specifically in Greece, the country of main interest to this research, the response rate was 49% (EWCS, 2005).

Three types of weights were used: a) probability of selecting respondents in smaller households, which was corrected by applying selection probability weights; b) non-response weights, which were corrected through the generation of a weight that corrects response rates in some key variables and; c) cross national weights, where the weight of all respondents was multiplied by the proportion each country represented in the total employed population of each country (EWCS, 2005).

Table 3-2: Response rates by country

Country	Response rate	Country	Response rate
Austria	0.61	Malta	0.47
Belgium	0.34	Netherlands	0.28
Czech Republic	0.69	Poland	0.35
Cyprus	0.57	Portugal	0.67
Denmark	0.42	Slovenia	0.37
Estonia	0.54	Slovakia	0.58
Finland	0.35	Spain	0.66
France	0.58	Sweden	0.47
Germany	0.61	United kingdom	0.34
Greece	0.49	Bulgaria	0.65
Hungary	0.51	Croatia	0.45
Ireland	0.51	Romania	0.67
Italy	0.49	Turkey	0.64
Latvia	0.65	Norway	0.57
Lithuania	0.64	Switzerland	0.32
Luxembourg	0.32	Malta	0.47

Source: EWCS 2005

3.2.1.3 Questionnaire

Questionnaires were translated into 27 languages. To enable the assessment of trends, existing questions from previous surveys were used. The questionnaire included thirty-one questions that can be found in previous editions, twenty-six questions, which were modified and six new questions. The questionnaire, which can be found in Appendix A, was 25 pages long and included questions on:

Employee personal data

Household numbers and members, economic status, citizenship, family life/social obligations and work fit, main contributor, social capital activities and demographics: age, gender, and education.

Organisation data

Industry, sector, size of the organisation.

Job data

Main job title, duration of paid employment, income and type of remuneration, number of years working for current employer, type of employment and contract, supervision, role, hours of work, days of work, other paid job, work monotony, work repetition, deadlines at work, unforeseen tasks at work, skills required, division of task, level of job satisfaction, considering keeping same job until the age of 60, uncertainty of current job, opportunity to grow at current job, performance, assistance in work, influence to others, interruption in work.

Working arrangements

Interest to work more or less, type of work arrangements.

Working conditions

Environmental conditions such as the time which the respondent has been working in the current job, travel time to work, whether the respondent works on Saturdays or Sundays, whether s/he works more than 10 hours per day or week, teamwork, training, violence at work, bullying at work, threats at work, harassment, discrimination, perceived risks at work, problems with boss, gender of boss, health and safety, health affected by work (various factors that can affect the employee are provided here) and special leaves.

3.2.1.4 Limitations

EWCS is a dataset that provides adequate and quality information for comparisons of work conditions between European countries. Yet, as with all large datasets, a number of limitations need to be acknowledged. First, a large percentage of questions and answers are the perceptions of employees and not actual facts and figures. Second, questionnaires are subject to translation and interpretation and may vary slightly between countries.

Third, the survey is designed to address 31 different countries and therefore is much more general than a survey that addresses only a specific country. This may imply that local factors are neglected.

In a similar vein, EWCS is designed to capture measures and trends of the general work conditions in the EU and lacks details on specific or local employment issues.

Last but not least, the survey includes only employees and does not consider companies or workplaces. Thus, the employer's perspective is not included.

3.2.2 The second European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS)

EQLS was also developed for Eurofound. It started on 20th September 2007 and finished, in most countries, on 20th November 2007 (EQLS, 2007). EQLS is slightly different with regard to its aims to EWCS: the survey's objectives are to measure and monitor the quality of life and employment as part of it, within the EU and to inform the social policy.

3.2.1.1 Sample and data collection

35, 634 respondents were interviewed in 31 different countries (27 EU members, plus three candidate members (Croatia, FYROM and Turkey) plus Norway). The 27 EU members were the same for both EWCS and EQLS, as indicated in Section 3.2.2.1. Eligible respondents were based on number of criteria, which do not fully overlap with ECWS and were: being more than 18 years old, having lived in the surveyed country for at least six months in a private household and being able to speak the national language(s). As indicated in Table 3-3, in 24 countries, the sample size was around 1,000 participants. In larger countries, such as Germany and Turkey, 2000 respondents were interviewed, whereas in Greece exactly 1,000 individuals were interviewed (EQLS, 2007). The same sampling design stages used for data collection of the ECWS and described in Section 3.2.1.1 were followed.

Table 3-3: Target and actual numbers of respondents in EQLS by country

Country	Actual number of interviews	Targeted number of interviews	Country	Actual number of interviews	Targeted number of interviews
AT	1000	1043	LT	1000	1004
BE	1000	1010	LU	1000	1004
BG	1000	1030	LV	1000	1002
CY	1000	1003	MT	1000	1000
CZ	1000	1227	NL	1000	1011
DE	2000	2008	PL	1500	1500
DK	1000	1004	PT	1000	1000
EE	1000	1023	RO	1000	1000
EL	1000	1000	SE	1000	1017
ES	1000	1015	SI	1000	1035
FI	1000	1002	SK	1000	1128
FR	1500	1537	UK	1500	1507
HU	1000	1000	HR	1000	1000
IE	1000	1000	MK	1000	1008
IT	1500	1516	TR	2000	2000
			NO	1000	1000
	Total actual	Total targeted			
Total	35000	35634			

Source: EQLS 2007

3.2.2.2 Response rate and weights

The overall response rate was 57.9%, measured similarly to EWCS. As indicated in Table 3-4, in Greece the response rate was lower than 40% (as in France and the Netherlands). The three types of weights previously described in EWCs were also repeated in EQLS due to the similarities the two datasets illustrate (EQLS, 2007).

Table 3-4: EQLS 2007 response rates by country (%)

Country	Response rate	Country	Response rate
RO	88.2	CZ	64.2
BG	88.2	EE	62.2
IE	81.7	CY	61.2
PT	78.6	BE	60.9
SK	77.2	LV	55.6
MK	74.7	SI	54.4
MT	73.3	FI	53.2
DE	71.6	HR	51.6
AT	66.4	LT	51.3
HU	65.1	NO*	45.2
CZ	66.4	ES	44.8
EE	65.1	BE	43.7
TR	64.2		

Note: Sweden not included. *In the Netherlands and Norway, the figures only pertain to the random route segment of the sample. The 20003 method of calculating the response rate was as follows: eligible sample minus the refusal rate. (The eligible sample is eligible households minus non-contacted target persons).

Source: EQLS 2007

3.2.2.3 Questionnaire

A pilot survey was conducted between the 7th and 15th of July 2007 in the UK and the Netherlands, and 100 interviews were carried out in each country. A number of questions were based in the previous version of EQLS and new questions, which had been adapted from similar national surveys, were included. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix B. It was translated into 30 different languages, was 20 pages long and the items included are demonstrated below:

Employee personal data

Household numbers and members, their economic status and contribution to household income, e.g.: characteristics of and demographics on the main contributor, accommodation standards, problems with accommodation, potential of leaving

accommodation within six months, things that the household can afford and demographics: age, gender, education, marital status, number of children, literacy, area of residence.

Organisation data

Sector and size of the organisation.

Job data

Main job title, current occupation, previous occupation, type of employment, type of contract, hours of work, work in agriculture.

Working conditions

Level of job control, pace and repetition of work carried out, job demand (e.g. predictability of work, deadlines), stress, and work-family conflict.

Attitudes/behavioural items

Participation in social capital activities, voting, religious practice, trust in institutions, views on: obeying the rules, tension between social groups in each country, treatment of immigrants by the government, institutions, the future, life expectations, society, being acknowledged by others, life satisfaction, contact with family/extended family members/friends/neighbours, friends who live in other countries, people who give support in difficult times, activities outside work (carer, housework, volunteer), hours on activities outside work, fair share in housework, activities on which time is spent daily, level of family life/education/job/standard of living/accommodation/health/social life satisfaction, importance of previous factors for individual, self-assessment of health, mental problems, feelings in the past six months, difficulty in seeing a doctor, use of internet, local neighbourhood, conditions in the neighbourhood, facilities in the neighbourhood, quality of public services.

3.2.2.4 Limitations

Similar to EWCS, EQLS provides comparative information on working conditions in various EU members and is subject to similar limitations. Given that the dataset includes life conditions, it is essential to acknowledge that although the sample is of adequate size for general analysis, it is relatively small to capture specific social groups (i.e. immigrants, youths and unemployed, single-parent families), whose life and work conditions need further examination (EQLS, 2007), especially with regard to FWAs.

3.3 Descriptive statistics for EWCS and ESQL

Initial descriptive statistics are summarised in Table 3-5, where the two datasets are compared, and this also allows us to compare Greece in relation to the rest of the EU. As indicated in the first row of each subsection in the Table (Gender), in both surveys, Greek respondents were predominantly female. Occupational groups were represented in two categories: professional and clerical/unskilled employees. Both in Greece and in the rest of the EU, the proportion of professionals was greater than of those in unskilled/clerical jobs. The two surveys included 6% of students and the largest percentage of the employees was educated up to secondary school (30.9%). Most participants were married (58% and 56% as indicated in the table) and 65% of them lived and worked in urban areas of Greece.

Regarding FWAs, percentages of use are similar in EWCS and EQLS; part-time employment is roughly 10%, temporary approximately 13%, whereas work from home and telework are 7.8% and 6.6% respectively. No-contract employment is particularly high in Greece (~29%), when compared to the rest of the EU.

Table 3-5: General characteristics of respondents in EQLS and EWCS between Greece and the rest of the EU

EWCS	n	Greece	Rest of the EU
Gender	29680	56.6% women	50.2% women
Occupation group	29680	30.9% professionals	43.5% professionals
Being a student	1507	6% students	6.4 % students
Marital status	29680	58% married	54% married
Area	29680	65% urban areas	59% urban areas
Education	29680	30.9% high school	33.3% high school
Contract type	29680	53.4% indefinite	77.5% indefinite
Part-time	4907	9.7%	17.9%
Temporary	3082	14.5%	13.7%
No-contract	2107	28.2%	8.1%
Work from home	3399	7.8%	21.6%
Telework	2577	6.6%	17.8%
EQLS	n	Greece	Rest of the EU
Gender	35634	56.4% female	56.9% female
Occupation group	35634	54.5% professionals	65% professionals
Being a student	1769	5.3% students	6.7% students
Marital status	35634	56% married	57% married
Area	35634	62.6% rural	48.1% rural
Education	35634	33.7% high school	39.4% high school
Contract type	35634	40.1% indefinite	73.4% indefinite
Part-time	4250	9.6%	14.3%
Temporary	3329	8%	10.6%
No-contract	3638	29.5%	10.4%

Note: n is the subsample size; the table indicates those groups that are the majority of the respondents; with regard to FWAs it shows the percentage of each form.

3.4 Primary data

Primary data collection was undertaken in Greece during the period from April 2010 to January 2011, i.e. five years after the EWCs and three years following the EQLS. The Greek Dataset on Flexible Work (GDFW) included two questionnaires, one for managers who represented the organisation, and one for the employees. 40 questionnaires from managers and 492 questionnaires from employees were collected in total.

3.4.1 Description of the sample

Initially, a list of companies from ICAP Group³ was acquired, which categorises companies by size. Telephone calls were then made to randomly selected companies, but this recruitment effort was unsuccessful. Given the cultural norms in Greece, access to companies requires a more personal relationship and relies heavily on social networks. Thus, the fieldwork had to adjust to these norms.

Based on the list of ICAP Group, a number of personal contacts were employed in order to ensure access to the companies. Seventy companies were approached directly or indirectly via these contacts. Out of these, forty agreed to participate. From these companies, 492 employees responded to the questionnaire.

Responses were collected from two groups. The first group was HR Managers or any other manager in charge of personnel matters that would be able to give information regarding employment standards and organizational aspects of the organisation. The second group were employees within these 40 participating companies, who completed a different questionnaire, which aimed at gathering employees' perceptions, as will be presented below.

A number of noteworthy obstacles emerged during the data collection. Apart from access, an impediment was the financial turbulence that the Greek market has been going through. In April 2010, the Greek crisis was in its early stages and most companies (especially the large ones) were very reluctant towards any kind of data exposure. More specifically, multinational companies were unwilling to participate in a survey on employee matters, given that their next steps in employment relationships were uncertain. Not surprisingly, the companies that appeared to be more negative towards engaging with

³ ICAP Group is a consultancy organisation that has expertise in market research. It has various datasets on business related topics and conducts various annual surveys on behalf of both the Greek government, but also for other companies both Greek and multinational. This information is available at: <http://www.icap.gr>.

this research were those in the banking sector, as these were the most severely affected and exposed to institutional pressures. Two financial institutions finally participated.

Another reason for lack of participation was the fact that some of the initial contacts (Human Resources Managers, General Managers, and Communications Managers) became redundant during the period of the survey. Similarly, some companies that had agreed to participate closed down or were facing serious financial problems and decided not to participate. In addition, due to Headquarters' policies in the cases of multinational companies or just due to concern over employees' responses and feedback, a number of companies did not participate.

A combination of the above reasons was not unusual. For example, in an organisation that did not participate, a manager explained that “despite being open to surveys, participation would be very difficult at this instance, since due to the recession management was *letting people go*, a fact that has caused a certain degree of disappointment to the employees, and the organisation would not want to this be either exposed or openly expressed”.

The sample was collected from various industries within the public and private sectors: Food and Beverages, Energy, Construction, Health, Agriculture, Tourism, Public Services, Bank and Finance, Education, Media and Publications, Heavy Industry and Commerce. A number of smaller-sized companies were also included in order to capture the use and offering of FWAs in such cases.

The initial part of the survey was conducted in Athens, the capital of Greece, which has 50% of the country's population. Other regions also included: from the northern part of Greece, (from Thessaloniki, the second biggest city of Greece) three companies participated. Volos, a medium-sized Greek city, was also part of the survey via ten

companies, and one organisation from Patras (another big city in Greece) participated as well.

A factor that needed to be considered was the limited use of technology within the work environment in the public sector that constitutes 50% of the sample and the participation of employees who do not have Internet access. Although the survey was designed to be online through Cass Business School web-survey system, Qualtrics, prior consideration that an internet-based questionnaire could exclude a large number of employees had to be made. Given that a significant amount of employees in the private sector and the majority of employees in the public sector had no email address and were not familiar with online questionnaire completion, many questionnaires were personally distributed to employees, who then completed them by hand.

3.4.2 Data collection process

3.4.2.1 Pilot study

A formal pilot survey was conducted in May 2010 at the first organisation that agreed to participate. As Oppenheim (1992: 62) notes, in principle, respondents in pilot studies should be as similar as possible to those in the main enquiry. Consistent with Oppenheim (1992), the first questionnaires were distributed online, initially to the HR Manager, and then they were forwarded to all the employees in the organisation, whose email addresses were available. The pilot study confirmed the need for additional paper-based questionnaires in order to avoid having biased samples. The organisation is a Greek miller and retailer of specialty flour operating in Greece and in various locations in central Europe (e.g. Macedonia, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, and Romania). The organisation has 240 employees, from which 40 are administrative employees located in the city of Volos, and the rest are in the production division. As agreed, the HR Manager distributed

the questionnaire to the twenty-one administrative employees, who were based in the same premises as her. All twenty-one employees completed the questionnaire electronically. The survey appeared to run smoothly, although few issues arose. First, regarding the open question “How old are you?” most of the respondents did not reply. The question was therefore changed, and age groups were given, which ensured responses to the question. Also, the HR Manager made some suggestions in regards to the reasons for offering FWAs that would be more appropriate in the Greek context (e.g. include knowledge acquisition and innovation transmission), which were therefore included. The employees’ questionnaire appeared to be clear and all employees responded fairly easy.

Two weeks later the necessary changes in the survey were made and the main data collection began.

3.4.2.2 Data collection

After an initial telephone communication with managers, a meeting was set. This meeting was generally in the premises of the companies that agreed to participate. In the meeting the concept of the survey was discussed with the HR Manager or the person in charge of the HR matters and the way the survey needed to be conducted: first a questionnaire that included the organisation’s policies on FWAs needed to be filled out and then another questionnaire addressed to employees needed to be sent or distributed. The letter of intention, which can be found in Appendix C, was given to the managers at this point along with the two questionnaires, one of which needed to be filled in by the relevant manager (Management Questionnaire can be found below, Table 3-6) and the other to be approved by the organisation’s senior management (Employee Questionnaire can be found below, Table 3-7). In most cases, a week after the first meeting, managers had completed their questionnaire and employees’ questionnaires had been distributed. A first

reminder email, which asked managers to remind or resend the questionnaires to their employees, was sent three weeks later and a second reminder followed two weeks after.

The second stage included the completion of the questionnaire by the employees. Motivation and willingness varied across companies. It is worth mentioning that in the cases of online questionnaires, the volume of responses was, largely, a matter of personal effort of the managers. Thus, in companies where managers were more interested in the survey, and were putting in more effort, more employees were responding and a larger sample from the organisation participated. In the cases of paper-based questionnaires this task was easier, as both the cultural context and personal interaction made questionnaire collection easier. Once approval of the employees' questionnaire was granted by senior management, the questionnaires were distributed. In the case of the paper-based questionnaires, employers told employees that questionnaires would be collected in a week. In many cases, a second visit, one week after the first, was necessary in order to make sure that the majority of the questionnaires were returned. Managers were informed that results after the completion of the research would be sent to them.

3.4.2.3 Response rate

Response rates were measured by the proportion of the number of completed surveys to the number of participants contacted. Seventy companies were initially contacted and forty companies participated, representing a response rate of 57.1% at employer level. The number of employees contacted by managers was estimated to be 817 and responses were obtained from 492, representing a response rate of 60.2% at the employee level. All 492 questionnaires were fully completed; consequently, there are no missing values in the data. Given the size of each organisation, participation targets were: in small companies (up to 200 employees) the targeted number of employees was from 7 to 25, whereas in large companies (200 and more) more than 30-50 employees were targeted. The only

exception was the National Corporation of Electricity, a huge organisation (22,000 employees approximately spread all over Greece), where even though a larger sample (70 employees) was targeted, the responses finally acquired were from 33 employees, thus showing a lower response rate, which however did not have a significant effect on the public/private composition of the sample, as will be seen in the descriptive statistics.

The same rules were applied to the paper-based questionnaires. Although one may think that personal interaction and the cultural context in Greece could imply that paper-based methods could facilitate data collection and lead to a higher response rate, this was not the case as we found no significant difference in response rates. Our experience may be supported by the literature on response rates, which suggests mixed results from paper-based methods. For example, Stanton (1998) reported significantly lower levels of missing or incomplete data with online web-based responses, when compared to paper-based methods. Yost and Homer (1998) found no differences in response rates by method (paper-based vs. Web option) and only minor differences in item means in general.

3.5 Questionnaires

The two questionnaires distributed are presented below in Tables 3-6 and 3-7. They were initially drafted in English and were then translated into Greek. The vast majority of the companies completed the questionnaires in Greek. The only exception was a publishing organisation, where most of its services include translations from English books and most of the employees are English speakers.

3.5.1 Management questionnaire

The management questionnaire included six parts and is shown in Table 3-6.

Its first part consisted of general information on the organisation. More specifically, questions on the size (number of employees), industry, ownership and sector of the

organisation were asked. This part was based on the Labour Trends Questionnaire for 2011, created by Alba University in Athens in collaboration with Eurobank in Greece that was distributed to various Greek and multinational companies during 2011 in order to capture the labour trends.⁴

The second part focused on employee composition and, more specifically, numbers of permanents, temporary, part-time employees, female and male employees, skilled, unskilled and no-contract employees. The third part concentrated on the offering of eight forms of FWAs (flexitime, job sharing, possibility to reduce and to increase work hours, work from/at home, shifts, condensed hours, phased return). Questions on the offering and possibility of offering these eight specific forms of FWAs were asked to managers. The next part was asking managers to rank reasons for which an organisation would offer FWAs and, similarly, reasons for not offering FWAs. The fifth part asked managers to predict the most important reasons why employees might be interested in FWAs and also to give their own opinion of how easy or difficult it is for a manager to manage employees under flexible working conditions in Greece.

The last part of the management questionnaire was also taken from the Labour Trends Questionnaire for 2011 and addressed contingent factors, such as the effect of the crisis on the organisation, the pressures the organisation perceives to have from various institutions, the unions' activity within the work environment and the benefits the organisation is offering to its employees.

⁴The questionnaire can be found at this website: <http://apollon1.alba.edu.gr/rci/newmain.asp>.

Table 3-6: Management questionnaire

A. Organisational characteristics

A.1 How many people does your organisation employ?

A. 2 Industry of the organisation

- a. Manufacturing
- b. Services
- c. Commerce/Trading
- d. Construction
- e. Telecommunications
- f. Banking (Financial Services)
- g. Logistics
- h. Media
- i. Health care/Pharmaceuticals
- j. Tourism and accommodation
- k. Education
- l. Food & Beverages
- m. Energy
- n. Public Sector Services
- o. Other:_____

A.3 This organization is:

- a. Greek
- b. Multinational

A.4 This organization is:⁵

- a. Private

⁵ Private-public partnerships were not common in Greece until 2011, as private sector companies avoided working with state owned institutions, due to bureaucracies and very different administrative structures. In addition, the public sector, due to different time schedules was not keen on partnerships. After 2011 however, the IMF and EU are encouraging public-private partnerships, resulting in significant opposition and demonstrations from the public sector.

- b. Public
- c. Non-profit

B. About the employees

B.1 Could you please provide the percentages in regards to this organization's workforce composition?

- a. Permanent employees:
- b. Indefinite contracts:
- c. Temporary employees:
- d. Fixed-term contracts:
- e. Full-time:
- f. Part-time:
- g. Male employees:
- h. Female employees:
- i. Administrative/clerical:
- k. Unskilled labourers:
- l. No-standard contract employees:

B.2 What is the percentage of the total number of employees who are working part-time?

C. About Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs)

We would now like to ask you about Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs). By FWAs we refer to any arrangements outside the normal 9 to 5 work schedules or continuous employment either within or outside the organization establishments, such as part-time employment, work from home, flexitime, etc.

C.1 Does your organisation have formal (written or documented) policies in place for flexible working?

- a. Yes, organisation-wide consistent
- b. Yes, but policy varies by location/business unit/department/ job class

- c. No, flexibility is only at ad hoc basis (manager's discretion)
- d. No, FWAs are not offered

C.2 Does your organisation have any plans to further develop formal policies or guidelines for FWAs?

- a. Yes
- b. No

C.3 Which kind of FWAs does the organization offer?

(Currently offered/Not offered but considered/ Never considered)

- a. Flexitime (where an employee has no set start or finish time, but an agreement to work a set number of hours per week or per month)
- b. Job sharing (sharing a full-time job with someone else)
- c. Ability to reduce your working hours (e.g. full-time to part-time)
- d. Ability to increase your working hours (e.g. part-time to full-time)
- e. Working at or from home in normal working hours
- f. Shifts [(ability to change shift patterns) (PLEASE GIVE SHIFT OPTIONS IN DETAIL)]
- g. Working the same number of hours per week across fewer days (e.g. 37 hours in four days instead of five)
- h. Phased return from leave (e.g. new mothers coming back)

D. About FWAs in your organisation

D.1 Among all the potential reasons for having FWAs, how according to your opinion would your organization rank the reasons below? (PLEASE INDICATE 1 for Strongly disagree and 5 Strongly Agree)

- a. It appears that they increase employee retention (e.g. buffer full-timers, fill in for absentees, cover for particular worker)
- b. They appear to enhance employee engagement
- c. They assist with recruitment (e.g. internal recruiting, screen for full-time positions)
- d. Competitors have these programs, so it would be advisable to follow
- e. It has been requested by employees
- f. Drive business results (e.g. Save or cut labour costs)

- g. They improve scheduling and covering (e.g. especially with handling temporary peaks)
- h. They ensure consistency in workplace flexibility arrangements across the organization
- i. They seem to be CEO or executive-driven within the organization
- j. They are used for innovation transmission
- k. They are used in order for the organisation to acquire the necessary knowledge (know-how).

D.2 What could deter your organisation from adopting FWAs?

- a. The workload is very big and would be constrained by the use of FWAs
- b. There would be inconsistent application of FWAs across the organisation
- c. FWAs face lack of support from senior leaders
- d. FWAs face lack of support from middle management
- e. FWAs face lack of support from employees
- f. Employees do not ask for the, so demand is too low in order to be offered
- g. Only certain types of FWAs are offered
- h. Technology that is needed is not owned by the organisation (e.g. equipment, software, telecommunications, etc.)
- i. There are additional costs (e.g. travel, overtime, equipment costs)
- j. There are legal concerns/gaps around FWAs
- k. FWAs face lack of support from HR
- l. There are in situations/social reasons that do not allow FWAs to be adopted (e.g. cultural restrains, unionization, etc.)
- m. None

E. FWAs and employees

E.1 Based on what you hear from your employees, what could potentially be the key reasons behind an employee request for FWAs?

- a. Work-life balance
- b. Life satisfaction
- c. Ability to cope better with children
- d. They can afford to work flexibly because they are not the main breadwinner
- e. They have other sources of income so they can work flexibly

- f. They are students and therefore their schedule does not allow them to work full-time
- g. They feel that they work more productively when they work flexibly
- h. They feel that they have more control over their workday
- i. Commute time takes them too long so they prefer to work less
- j. If they worked full-time the work hours would be very long

E.2 How easy/difficult do you believe it is for your organisation to manage employees who work under FWAs?

- a. Very easy
- b. Fairly easy
- c. Neutral
- d. Not quite easy
- e. Not at all easy

F. Contingency factors

F. 1 To what extent has the financial crisis affected your organisation?

- a. Not at all
- b. A little
- c. Not too much not too little
- d. Much
- e. Dramatically too much

F.2 To what percentage approximately does your organisation expect a change in the number of employees in the next six months?

- a. Decrease- more than 25%
- b. Decrease- less than 25%
- c. No change
- d. Increase-more than 25%
- e. Increase more that 25%

F.3 How optimistic/pessimistic does the future of your organisation appear in the next six months?

- a. Very Pessimistic
- b. Pessimistic
- c. Neutral
- d. Optimistic
- e. Very optimistic

F.4 Does management normally _____ trade unions about organisational policies?

- a. Negotiates
- b. Does not negotiate
- c. Consults
- d. Does not consult
- e. Informs
- f. Does not inform

F.5 Based on your opinion, has your organisation felt any kind of pressure from:

- a. Trade unions
- b. European Union
- c. Greek Labour Law regulations
- d. Headquarter policies
- e. Workforce demands
- f. Cultural aspects of Greece
- g. Greek society
- h. Greek Labour market

F.6 What kind of benefits does your organisation offer?

- a. maternity leave
- b. organisation cell phone
- c. pension scheme
- d. organisation car
- e. paternity leave
- f. sick days more than usual

- g. family-friendly policies
- h. more than normal 25 days holidays
- i. medical care plans
- j. bonuses
- k. nothing from the above

3.5.2 Employee questionnaire

The employees' questionnaire included four parts and is presented in Table 3-7 below. The questions of the employee questionnaire were predominantly based on the research objectives of the survey. The first and last parts were created based on the questions of the second EQLS and the fourth EWCS, which enable comparison between findings.

The first part included questions on the position the employee held. Thus, the years within the organisation, the status of the contract, the hours of work per day and the overtime, the role in the organisation, the hourly pay and the full-time or part-time employment were questions that were asked to the respondents in this part.

The second part included the questions on FWAs: a) awareness of and access to FWAs policies offered in the organisation, b) possibility of using the eight specific forms of FWAs (flexitime, job sharing, possibility to reduce and to increase work hours, work from/at home, shifts, condensed hours, phased return), c) interest on FWAs, d) reasons for being interested in FWAs and e) reasons for lack of interest on FWAs. The third part was centred around external factors that might influence FWAs and specifically the presence and activity of the unions and the effect of the recession, which were not addressed in the large EU surveys.

The final part included demographic questions, as these were taken from the EQLS and the EWCS. Thus, the gender, age, marital status, number of children, educational

level and year of completion of education, as well as the area where the respondent currently lives were asked.

Table 3-7: Employee questionnaire

A. About your job

A. 1 How many years in total have you been working at this organisation?

- a. Less than 1 year
- b. 1 to less than 2 years
- c. 2 to less than 5 years
- d. 5 to less than 10 years
- e. 10 years or more

A. 2 Which of the phrases below best describes your job here?

- a. Permanent
- b. Indefinite contract
- c. Temporary – with no agreed end date
- d. Fixed-term – with an agreed end date
- e. No standard contract
- f. None of the above

A. 3 How many hours, including overtime or extra hours, do you usually work in your job each week?

Hours per day: _____

A. 4 How many overtime and/or extra hours do you usually work each week?

Overtime/extra hours per week

A.5 Do you work part-time or full-time?

- a. Full-time
- b. Part-time

A.6 Which of the following best describes your role/job?

- a. Manager
- b. Junior Manager/Supervisor
- c. Technical/Professional
- d. Administrator/clerk/secretary
- e. Manual worker

A.7 It would be helpful if you could also tell us about your hourly pay. How much do you get paid per hour, before tax and other deductions are taken out?

- a. € 4,125 or less (€ 740 or less per month based on a 40-hour week)
- b. € 4,125- € 5, 50 per hour (€ 740 to €1100 per month based on a 40-hour week)
- c. € 5,50 - € 10 per hour (€1100 to € 2000 per month based on a 40-hour week)
- d. € 10 or more per hour (€ 2000 or more per month based on a 40-hour week)

B. About your organisation

We would now like to ask you about Flexible Work Arrangements (FWAs). When saying FWAs we refer to any arrangements outside the normal 9 to 5 work schedules or continuous employment either within or outside the organization establishments, such as part-time employment, work from home, flexitime, etc.

B.1 Are you aware if your organisation offers policies on FWAs?

- a. Yes
- b. No

B.2 If you personally needed any of the following arrangements, would they be available to you? YES NO ALREADY USE

- a. Flexitime (where an employee has no set start or finish time, but an agreement to work a set number of hours per week or per month)
- b. Job sharing (sharing a full-time job with someone else)
- c. Ability to reduce your working hours (e.g. full-time to part-time)
- d. Ability to increase your working hours (e.g. part-time to full-time)
- e. Working at or from home in normal working hours
- f. Shifts (ability to change shift patterns)
- g. Working the same number of hours per week across fewer days (e.g. 37 hours in four days instead of FIVE)
- h. Phased return from leave (e.g. new mothers coming back)

B.3 If no, would you be interested in any of the above?

- a. Yes (please go to question B. 5)
- b. No (please go to question B.4)
- c. Don't Know (DK)

B.4 If not interested, which of these options best describe your feelings towards FWAs?

- a. The pay is not worth
- b. In my household we need two full-time salaries
- c. The career prospects are not good enough
- d. I think they are a waste of time
- e. I am against flexible working
- f. FWAs are in fact underemployment
- g. I am too qualified to work under flexible schedule
- h. I am only interested in full-time employment

B.5 If interested, which of these options best describe your feelings towards FWAs?

- a. Work-life balance
- b. Life satisfaction
- c. Ability to cope better with children
- d. I can afford to work flexibly because I am not the main breadwinner
- e. I have other sources of income so I can work flexibly
- f. I am a student and therefore my schedule does not allow me to work full-time
- g. I feel that I work more productively when I work flexibly
- h. I feel that I have more control over my workday
- i. Commute time takes me too long so I prefer to work less
- j. If I worked full-time the work hours would be very long

B.6 How well do the work skills you personally have match the skills you need to do your present job? My own skills are:

- a. Much higher
- b. A bit higher
- c. About the same
- d. A bit lower
- e. Much lower

C. Contingency factors

C.1 Which of the following statements best describe unions or staff associations' activities at this organisation? Unions/staff associations here

- a. are taken particularly serious, because most employees are unionised
- b. are not particularly active, because most of the employees are not unionised

C.2 Do you believe your career prospects are influenced by the current economic crisis?

- a. Not at all
- b. A little
- c. Not too much not too little
- d. Much
- e. Dramatically too much

D. About you

D.1 Are you male or female?

- a. Male
- b. Female

D.2 How old are you?

- a. 18-25
- b. 26-35
- c. 36-45
- d. 46-55
- e. 55 +

D.3 Which of the following describes your current status?

- a. Single or living alone
- b. Married or living with a partner

D.4 Do you have any dependent children?

- a. No dependent children
- b. Yes, number_____

D.5 Would you consider the area in which you live to be...?

- a. The open countryside
- b. Village/small town
- c. Medium to large town
- d. City or city superb

D.6 What is the highest level of education that you have successfully completed?

- a. No education
- b. Primary education
- c. Secondary education
- d. Tertiary education

D.7 How old were you when you completed your full-time education?

- a. 15
- b. 16-19
- c. 20+
- d. Still studying
- e. No full-time education

The next section provides some initial descriptive statistics as indicated in the data.

3.6 Descriptive statistics

3.6.1 Management perspective

Out of the 40 companies that participated, 16 of them (41.6 %) were small (up to 200 employees) and 24 of them (58%) were large (more than 200 employees and up to 22,000). The vast majority of the companies were Greek (82%) and were privately owned (58%). Most of the participant companies were from different areas of Greece, other than Athens (51%).

The majority of the companies (22 companies) did not offer FWAs, a significant proportion (17 out of the 40 companies) offered FWAs only on an ad hoc and unofficial basis. Intention to offer FWAs was similarly low; the majority of the companies (65.5%) did not intend to offer FWAs in the near future.

With regard to forms of FWAs offered, flexitime was the commonest form offered on an ad hoc basis, whereas shifts were the commonest FWAs form officially offered. Among the leading reasons for offering FWAs, managers reported driving business results (80%), improving production scheduling (72%) and innovation acquisition (68%). The most significant reasons for avoiding offering FWAs were: lack of consistency among departments (47%) and the existence of legal gaps on FWAs (42%). Finally, the two most important factors pressurizing an organisation to offer FWAs were the Greek labour market (47%) and competitors (38%).

3.6.2 Employee perspective

The most popular type of contract was indefinite contracts (53%) and the average working hours are 8 per day. Most of the employees were unaware of whether or if forms of FWAs were offered within their work environment (59%), which indicates a general lack of interest in FWAs and in organisational policies in general. With regard to

workforce composition, the majority of the respondents were women (60%), which is similar to what was observed in the national surveys EWCS and EQLS.

In GDFW, the largest proportion of employees held a higher education/university degree (38.5%), which differs from what was observed in the national surveys and may reflect that its sample has a slightly higher proportion of medium and large companies. Concerning occupational groups, similar numbers of professionals (48.5%) and of clerical/unskilled employees (51.5%) participated in the survey.

As illustrated in Table 3-8 and contrary to EWCS and EQLS, very few students participated in the GDFW (only 1%), although 6.6% of the participants were still studying. 66% of the participants were married and 54% of the participants had at least one child. Finally, as shown in Table 3-8, in all three surveys, especially in GDFW where the proportion is much higher (96%), the majority of the respondents lived and worked in urban areas.

Regarding FWAs, which are the subject of this research, percentages were similar to those found in EWCS and EQLS: part-time employment is 10%; FWAs use is coming up to 12%, whereas FWAs interest is low. Shifts were the most frequent form used (2.9%), after part-time and temporary employment. Unlike EWCS and EQLS, where, as indicated in Table 3-8, work from home and telework were 7.8% and 6.6% respectively, the observed frequencies of these forms were significantly lower in the GDFW, where they reached just 1.4%.

The above findings are consistent with the fact that the majority of the employees, who participated in the GDFW (56%), stated that they were not interested in any FWA. Among the commonest reasons for lack of interest in FWAs, the main ones were that: their households needed two full-time salaries (40.6%), FWAs are synonymous with underemployment (28.6%) and the pay in FWAs is not worth working under flexible

contracts (26.8%). WLB was the primary reason for having an interest in FWAs (75%), which was followed by life satisfaction.

Contrary to the perceptions of employers regarding unions and their strong pressure, the majority of employees (61.9%) considered that unions were not active.

Table 3-8: Differences and similarities on Greek employee characteristics between GDFW, EWCS and EQLS

Employee	EWCS	n	EQLS	n	GDFW	n
Characteristic						
Gender	56.6% women	29680	56.4% female	35634	60% women	480
Occupation	30.9% professionals	29680	54.5% professionals	35634	48.5% professionals	482
Students	6% students	1507	5.3% students	1769	6.6% still studying ⁶	32
Marital status	58% married	29680	56% married	35634	66% married	80
Area	65% urban areas	29680	62.6% urban	35634	96% urban	481
Education	30.9% high school	29680	33.7% high school	35634	38.5% university graduates	481
Contract type	53.4% indefinite	29680	40.1% indefinite	35634	53% indefinite	483
FWAs						
Part-time	9.7%	4907	9.6%	4250	10%	49
Temporary	14.5%	3082	8%	3329	14%	68
No-contract	28.2%	2107	29.5%	3638	2.5%	12
Work from home	7.8%	3399	N/A	4250	1.4%	7
Telework	6.6%	2577	N/A	3329	1.4%	7

Note: n is the subsample size; the table focuses on those groups that correspond to the majority of respondents.

3.7 Summary

This chapter presented the datasets that are used in the empirical analyses that follow.

⁶ While the percentage of students in the GDFW reaches only 1%, there are people who are working and studying in the same time. These respondents did not identify as students, but as employees. Thus, while actual students are only 1%, overall the respondents who are still studying and working reach up to 6.6%.

The first part of the chapter concentrated on the secondary data used in Chapter 4 to benchmark employee use of FWAs in Greece. Two large European datasets were presented: First, the European Work Conditions Survey (EWCS) and second, the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS). Both surveys consisted of a sample of approximately 1000 respondents in 31 countries. Processes for securing a random sample were followed in both surveys and were very similar, as both surveys were conducted by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound).

Both questionnaires included more than 100 items on: demographics, employment status, income and information of the households interviewed. While EWCS concentrated on work related issues, such as health and safety in work environment, employment conditions and information on the organisation, EQLS included similar sets of questions (demographics, employment status, income) but also additional questions on life conditions and life satisfaction. With regard to FWAs, both surveys included part-time, temporary employment and no-contract percentages, yet EWCS further included information on work from home and telework.

In the second part of the chapter, primary data collection was presented, i.e. the Greek Dataset on Flexible Work (GDFW). The GDFW was conducted between April 2010 and January 2011. In total 40 companies and 492 employees participated. Two questionnaires were distributed to each group (employees and employers) in order to capture differences and similarities on perceptions and percentages of FWAs offered and used.

All three datasets seemed to be generally consistent in regards to FWAs. Thus, part-time was approximately 10% in all cases, temporary employment was approximately 13% and no-contract employment was approximately 30%, although was significantly higher

in EQLS. Finally, in GDFW telework and work from home was significantly lower (1.4%).

In the next chapters, different theories on FWAs in Greece will be tested using these datasets. In Chapter 4, EWCS and EQLS are used in order to analyse and benchmark employee use of FWAs in Greece. In Chapter 5 GDFW is used to address institutional factors and predictors of FWAs in Greece, while in Chapter 6, it will be used to measure and examine the job quality of FWAs in Greece.

Chapter 4 – The Use of Flexible Work Arrangements in Greece: empirical evidence from two European surveys

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 revised the literature on the determinants of FWAs and set the theoretical framework and the research questions to be addressed by this research. Chapter 3 presented the datasets used in this research.

In this chapter, the determinants of employee use of FWAs are examined based on two European surveys that include Greek adults and their perceptions of quality of life or working conditions (individual level data) and information on the following FWAs: part-time and temporary employment, telework and work from home. Data are also available on no-contract employment and illegal flexible work arrangements, which, as discussed in the previous chapters, are relevant in the Greek labour market context.

A central premise of this chapter is that flexible working is rare in Greece, when compared to the rest of the EU. Hence, a first objective is to investigate potential reasons that may be linked to lack of flexibility in work arrangements in the Greek labour market, and then to identify characteristics of Greek flexible workers. In doing so, we assess whether or not the expectations based on our theoretical analysis (Chapter 2) of the Greek context hold. By examining two sets of established secondary data at the individual

worker level, this chapter also aims to refine our research questions: 1) which are the environmental and individual factors that may impact on FWAs? And 2) what is the perceived quality and perceptions of the value of FWAs in Greece?

The next section compares FWAs in the EU and Greece and sets the contextual background for the analysis of possible determinants of FWAs in Greece. Data from the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) and the European Quality of Life are used for the empirical analysis. Results are reported, synthesised and compared between the surveys. Finally, conclusions and implications for this and future research are drawn.

4.2 Contextual background

The EU has been encouraging FWAs since the 1980s, and three main reasons for this encouragement have been identified in the literature: work flexibility can be a way to reduce unemployment; to increase European labour competitiveness; through directives and legislative systems coordination, similar implementations among members enable labour market integration and convergence (e.g. Stavrou, 2005; Tregaskis *et al.*, 1998; Tregaskis and Brewster, 2006). Despite EU efforts, convergence remains a challenge. Differences in industrial relations models, institutional, structural and societal factors are reasons, which resulted in different frequencies and models of flexibility across EU countries.

Broadly, three labour flexibility models are observed within the EU (Kouzis, 2001; Stavrou, 2005; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010): the quantitative model, traditionally encountered in the United Kingdom (Anglo cluster), uses flexibility mainly for cost reduction and labour crisis management reasons; the Nordic (qualitative model) concentrates on the human paragon and human capital; the Southern (i.e. South Italy, Greece, Spain) is characterised by illegal flexibility and is associated with corruptive

political systems or side-economies (Mitsopoulos and Pelagidis, 2009; Kouzis, 2001). For the year 2008, part-time employment in Europe covered 17% of all jobs in the EU, which were mainly occupied by women (31.1% versus 7.7%), mostly in services (health, hotels, restaurants) and the private sector. In the Netherlands, 48.6% of the working population worked part-time, whereas Eastern European countries showed significant lower levels (Employment in Europe, 2008). An increase of 1.6% of total employment (from 12.3% to 13.9%) during 2000-2005 indicated a stable use and increase of temporary employment, across ages (EWCS, 2006-2007) and was higher in Eastern EU countries, where mainly fixed-term contracts were observed.

Greece follows an industrial relations model, which shares common characteristics of the Southern model, i.e. maintenance of the male breadwinner household model, low female employment, low social assistance for child/elder carers, the family as the predominant welfare provider, long working hours and lack of satisfaction with respect to WLB. Consistent with what is observed in the more developed countries, FWAs have been reported to be predominantly used by women and in the public sector (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Moreno and Crespo, 2005; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; Lyberaki, 2010; Stavrou and Ierodiakonou, 2011; Giannikis and Mihail, 2011), which further supports the idea that the desire to have or provide WLB can be a main driver for FWAs. However, in Greece, temporary employment under fixed-term contracts, differently from what is seen in more developed economies, is the form of FWAs, which is mostly offered by the public sector (INE-GSEE Annual Report, 2007). Part-time work is significantly less observed and has been judged to be mostly on an involuntary basis (Employment in Europe, 2008). Furthermore, past studies have concluded that telework and work from home were extremely rare in Greece and thus their lack signalled an inflexible labour market with respect to the place of work (Mihail, 2003).

4.3 The empirical study

4.3.1 Data

Two surveys are used: the fourth European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) and the second European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS), which were described in Chapter 3. We start with the development of general measures, which are found in both surveys, but in subsequent sections, we consider each dataset separately. We first examine EWCS and then EQLS. Finally, we assess the overall findings and their implications.

4.3.2 Measures

In the section below dependent and independent variables are presented. Dependent variables include the different forms of FWAs examined here. Thus, consistent with the definition given in Chapter 2, both employer-centred (such as part-time and temporary employment) and employee-centred forms (such as work from home and telework) are examined. Furthermore, no-contract employment (as a form of illegal, unregistered employment found in Greece) is also examined.

Independent variables based on the two theoretical backgrounds described earlier in Chapter 2 are also examined. Based on the institutional perspective individual institutional factors of the employees, such as socio-demographic factors and the need for WLB and life satisfaction are examined; similarly economic aspects related to employees, such as financial factors, job related aspects and in particular job security and quality are further examined from a labour market approach.

Dependent variables – FWAs

FWAs in the EWCS

The uses of part-time, temporary, telework, and work from home are analysed, the questions based on which the respective measures are derived can be found in Table 4-1. Employees under no contract are examined in more detail, due to their high share in the Greek labour market (28.2%). These are dichotomous variables and are coded as binary: 1= use, 0= no use, and below we describe how they were derived.

Part-time: Respondents were directly asked whether they were working part-time or full-time.

Temporary employment: The following contract types were available in the data: indefinite, definite (apprenticeship/training period, training, temporary agency or just fixed-term contract) and no contract. The three categories under definite contract were grouped in order to create the variable temporary employment.

No contract: Similarly, this variable was created through the above contract types and refers to employees without formally written contracts, without registration and without receiving any benefits.

Telework and Work from home: The survey included questions which asked participants how frequently they telework or work from home. While the occurrence of these forms is currently increasing in Greece, the number of people who telework/work from home remains very low. In order to deal with the sparseness in the data, responses were recorded as binary variables that indicate the use (not use) of these FWAs.

FWAs in the EQLS

Fewer forms of FWAs were available in the EQLS, when compared to EWCS, as shown in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1: EWCS and EQLS questions used for dependent variables

Dependent variables	Variable type	EWCS No	EWCS question	EQLS No	EQLS question
Part-time	Binary	q15a.	Do you work part-time or full-time?	q6.	How many hours do/ did you normally work per week (in your main job), including any paid or unpaid overtime?
Temporary	Categorical	q3b.	What kind of employment contract do you have?	q4.	In your job, are/ were you...?
Work from home	Categorical	q11h.	Does your main paid job involve - working at home, excluding telework?	N/A	N/A
Telework	Categorical	q11g.	Does your main paid job involve - teleworking from home with a PC?	N/A	N/A
No-contract	Categorical	q3b.	What kind of employment contract do you have?	q4.	In your job, are/ were you...?

Source: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

Part-time: Unlike in the fourth EWCS, the question on part-time employment was indirect. Respondents were asked for their total working hours per week. According to the Greek Labour Law (Douka, 2004), part-time work is defined as up to 21 hours. However, in practice part-timers in Greece work up to 30 hours per week (Dendrinis, 2008). Two part-time variables were then constructed to address this difference.

Temporary and *no-contract* employment were created in the same way as described earlier in EWCS.

Independent variables

Various factors (independent variables) are considered, and follow from Table 2-2 in Chapter 2. Independent variables are presented in Table 4-2, which covers the overlap between the two surveys, and Tables 4-3 and 4-4 that cover each survey. The Tables

describe how independent variables are measured and provide the respective source question. These independent variables can be broadly characterised as follows:

Socio-demographic factors

Age, gender, education, household members, area, marital status and unionism; these enable an examination of institutional predictors as well as dual economy characteristics, such as where the average dependent household member is employed.

Financial factors

Income, economic status, whether respondents' households run out of money or whether their households make ends meet, and whether or not the respondent feels well paid, based on which wage and the perceived quality of work can be inferred.

Job characteristics

Contract type, occupation, job title and employed/self-employed.

Overall satisfaction with work arrangements and job security

Opportunity of career growth, satisfied with present life/job, might lose job in six months.

Need for WLB

Maternity/paternity/family reasons leave, social/family fit, household share/involvement, contact outside work hours, child/elder care enable us to have a view of societal pressures and “institutionalisation” that may reflect on the interaction between work and family environments through various ways that will be further explained in the next section.

Table 4-2: Independent variables based on common questions from EWCS and EQLS

Independent variable	Variable Type	EQLS No.	Survey question	EWCS No.	Survey question
Age	continuous	hh2b.	Age	hh2b.	Age
Sex	categorical	hh2a.	Sex	hh2a.	Sex
Education	categorical	q49.	Education level (ISCED)	ef1.	What is the highest level of education that you have successfully completed?

Household members	categorical	hh1.	How many people live in this household?	hh1.	How many people live in this household?
Contract Type	categorical	q4.	In your job, are/ were you...?	q3b.	What kind of employment contract do you have?
Job title	categorical	q2.	What is your current occupation?	q2a.	What is the title of your main paid job?
Unionisation	categorical	q20_1.	Attended a meeting of a trade union, a political party or political action group / Q20 Over the past year, have you...?	ef4.1b.	How many hours per day are you involved: Political/trade union activity
Income	categorical	q67.	Please can you tell me how much your household's NET income per month is? If you don't know the exact figure, please give an estimate.	ef5.	Presently, what is on average your net monthly income from your main paid job
Economic status	categorical	hh2d.	Economic status - Respondent	hh2d.	Economic status - Respondent
Employee/self-employed	categorical	q4.	In your job, are/ were you...?	q3a.	Are you mainly ...?
Sector	categorical	q5.	Do/ did you work in the...?	q5.	Are you working in the ...?
Well-paid	binary	q10_2.	I am well paid / Q10 How much do you agree or disagree?	q37b.	I am well paid for the work I do.
Opportunity for growth	binary	q10_5.	My job offers good prospects for career advancement / Q10 How much do you agree or disagree?	q37e.	At work, I have opportunities to learn and grow.
Might lose job in 6 months	binary	q9.	Using this card, how likely do you think it is that you might lose your (main) job in the next 6 months?	q37a.	I might lose my job in the next 6 months.
Stress	binary	q10_1.	My work is too demanding and stressful /	q33a_k .	Does your work affect your health: stress?

			Q10 How much do you agree or disagree?		
Child care	categorical	q56_4.	Child care services / Q56 In general, how would you rate the quality of each of the following PUBLIC services?	q36_1.	Caring for and educating children / Q36 How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work?
Elder care	categorical	q56_5.	Care services for elderly / Q56 In general, how would you rate the quality of each of the following PUBLIC services?	q36_3.	Caring for elderly/ disabled relatives / Q36 How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work?
Country	categorical	q69.	Are you a citizen of ... country?	q69.	Are you a citizen of ... country?

Source: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Condition

Table 4-3: Independent variables based on EQLS questions

Independent variables	Variable type	EQLS No	EQLS question
Running out of money	binary	q60.	Has your household at any time during the past 12 months run out of money to pay for food?
Household makes ends meet	binary	q57.	A household may have different sources of income and more than one household member may contribute to it. Thinking of your household's total monthly income, is your household able to make ends meet...?
Area	categorical	q52.	Would you consider the area in which you live to be...?
Marital status	categorical	q30.	Could I ask you about your current marital status? Which of the following descriptions best applies to you? Are you...?
Current occupation	categorical	q2.	What is your current occupation?
Occupation of main contributor	categorical	q13.	What is the current occupation of the person who contributes most to the household income?
Satisfied with present job	categorical	q40_2.	Your present job / Q40 Could you please tell me how satisfied you are with each of the following items, using a scale from 1 to 10 where [1] means you are 'very dissatisfied' and [10] means you are 'very satisfied'?
Satisfied with life	categorical	q40_3.	Your present standard of living / Q40 Could you please tell me how satisfied you are with each of the following items,

			using a scale from 1 to 10 where [1] means you are 'very dissatisfied' and [10] means you are 'very satisfied'??
Difficult to fulfil family responsibilities	categorical	q11_2.	It has been difficult for me to fulfil my family responsibilities because of the amount of time I spend on my job / Q11 How often has each of the following happened to you during the last year?
Household share	binary	q38.	Do you think that the share of housework you do is...?
Source: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions			

Table 4-4: Independent variables based on EWCS Questions

Independent variables	Variable type	EQL S No	EQLS question
Maternity/ Paternity leave	binary	q34a_ a.	In your main paid job, over the past twelve months, have you been absent for maternity or paternity leave?
Family reasons for leave	binary	q34a_ c.	In your main paid job, over the past twelve months, have you been absent for family-related leave?
Social/ family fit	binary	q18.	Do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well?
Work on Sundays	binary	q14c_ ef.	How many times a month do you work on Sundays?
Contact outside work hours	binary	q19.	In the past twelve months, have you been contacted, e.g. by email or telephone, in matters concerning your main paid job outside your normal working hours?

Source: European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions

Regional categorisation

Countries were categorised, based on cultural-geographic criteria, into six categories for both surveys: a. North_EU (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway, and the Netherlands), b. South_EU (Cyprus, Malta, Spain, Italy, and Portugal), c. Central_EU (Germany, France, UK, Ireland, Belgium, Luxemburg, Austria, and Switzerland), d. East_EU (Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Bulgaria, Croatia, and Romania) and e. Greece. Part of this categorisation draws from Stavrou and

Kilaniotis (2010) and is also found in the Globe project (House *et al.*, 2002), which used two categories for societal clusters of FWAs: the Nordic (Denmark, Finland, Sweden, Norway, and the Netherlands) and the Anglo-cluster (UK, USA, Australia). In the current study, these societal clusters were adapted to a wider European context (which is our focus). Thus, the Nordic cluster remained the same, based on similarities in the societal aspects, a central EU cluster was created and a South EU cluster, which includes most of the Mediterranean countries that, as explained earlier, share common characteristics in regards to the use of FWAs. Greece was treated separately, since it is the main focus of this research.

4.3.3 Analysis procedure

First the distributions of each form of FWAs across different EU regions were explored. Contingency tables together with Chi-Square tests were used to assess statistical independence. Secondly, factors that potentially explain the use (or lack of use) of FWAs by individuals in Greece were examined. Hence, dependent variables consisted of binary indicators of FWAs and independent variables were the demographic and socioeconomic factors (Tables 4-2, 4-3 and 4-4). The correlations were assessed between each FWA and these factors using the non-parametric (Spearman) correlations and Chi-Square tests of independence, since most variables used were either binary (binary) or categorical. Logistic regression models were then estimated in order to explore the multivariate association: forward and backward (Likelihood Ratio) stepwise procedures were used for model building to explore multivariate associations. In most cases these procedures returned the same model, but when in disagreement the final model from the backward procedure was chosen since it would have reduced the set of potential independent variables to the subset of significant predictors.

4.3.4 Results

4.3.4.1 Results based on EWCS

In the fourth EWCS, the percentages of the four forms of FWAs and the no-contract category differ across Europe. Part-time employment is approximately 25% in Central and Northern Europe as opposed to 9.7% in Greece, 13% in South EU and 10% in East Europe, as indicated in Table 4-5.

Table 4-5: Percentages of FWAs in different EU regions according to EWCS (N=1001)

	Telework	Work from Home	No contract	Temporary employment	Part-time Employment
North EU	29.7	31.4	3.0	12.3	25.0
South EU	8.9	12.9	17.9	17.4	13.1
Central EU	17.0	22.9	7.8	10.9	23.8
East EU	16.9	19.5	4.3	15.3	9.9
Greece	6.6	7.8	28.2	14.5	9.7
Total	17.8	21.2	8.6	13.7	16.7

With regard to temporary employment, Table 4-5 indicates that temporary employment is less dispersed, as it ranges from 10% in Central EU to 17% in the South EU, with Greece exhibiting 14.5%.

Differences between Greece and the rest of the EU are highlighted in Table 4-5. The most significant difference is in regards to no-contract employment, where Greece reports a much higher percentage, which is significantly different to the North EU cluster. By contrast, the two employee-centred forms of FWAs, i.e. telework and work from home, although particularly high in the Northern EU countries, are significantly lower in Greece. As suggested earlier, temporary employment is not low in Greece, when compared to other FWAs, potentially due to the higher offering of fixed-term contracts in the public sector, while part-time employment has the lowest usage when compared to the rest of the North and Central EU members. Indeed, Greece, in terms of part-time employment

appears to be closer to the eastern EU countries rather than the rest of the Mediterranean ones (South EU).

Table 4-5 also shows that telework and work from home reach 6.6% and 7.8% respectively, which suggests a significant increase from previous findings based on earlier data, that described these frequencies as zero (Mihail, 2003). These observed frequencies, though low, are significantly different from zero and are close to those observed in Central and North EU countries.

It is also noticeable in Table 4-5 that the percentage of employees under no-contract is much higher in Greece (28.2%) compared to 17.8% in the rest of South EU, which is more than twice of that in Central EU and 6.5 times that observed in Northern countries (3% North EU).

EWCS-Bivariate Associations: Who are the flexible workers?

Spearman correlations are reported in Table 4-6, which summarises the bivariate associations. Table 4-6 indicates that in Greece, part-time employment is predominantly female (p-value <.001), more frequent in less stable economic status (p-value <.001) (unemployed, homemakers and students) and employees, contrary to self-employed individuals who tend to work full-time. It is more common among those who started working in the organisation more recently (p-value <.001) and those with less opportunities to grow (p-value <.001) in their job. An interesting paradox is that part-timers are more frequently working under a contract, while full-timers are those more frequently found working without a contract. WLB seems to be positively associated with part-time employment: social and family responsibilities, housework and cooking appear to fit well, contrary to overtime and work in the evenings (p-value .016), which do not appear to affect part-timers.

Temporary employment is more frequent among women (p-value .001), younger ages (p-value .006), employees that have fewer years in the organisation (p-value <.001), and those with lower income levels (p-value <.001). In addition, temporary employees appear to work more frequently on Sundays (p-value .003).

Table 4-6 adds to the findings from Table 4-5 concerning telework and work from home, as it shows an association among these two forms: “teleworkers” seem to work from home (p-value <.001), and those who work from home seem to use computer and other technological facilities (p-value <.001). Moreover, in contrast with the other two types of FWAs, telework and work from home are used by skilled/high-skilled employees (p-value <.001), those who work mainly in the public sector (p-value <.001), or report high income (p-value <.001), or feel well paid (p-value .005), or see opportunity for growth in their careers (p-value <.001).

In the last row of Table 4-6, it can be observed that no-contract employees in Greece, are likely to work in the private sector (p-value <.001) and in unskilled jobs (p-value <.001), are newer to the labour market (p-value .007) and are often part-timers (p-value <.001). Moreover, having no-contract is associated with disadvantageous work conditions: lower incomes (p-value <.001) and lack of opportunities for advancement (p-value <.001). In relation to WLB, no-contract employees on average have a good fit between social or family life and their work responsibilities (p-value .002), tend to work less on weekends (p-value <.001), though are contacted more often outside normal work hours (p-value <.001). The overall picture does not differ from other EU countries, except for the fact that lack of a contract is far less frequently observed outside Greece.

Table 4-6: Spearman correlations based on EWCS (N=1001)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. Gender																					
2. Age	-.06																				
3. Economic status	.09	.13																			
4. Self-employed	.11	-.26	-.18																		
5. Sector	.07	.05	-.06	.33																	
6. Job title	-.11	.05	.04	.03	-.28																
7. Years in organisation	-.14	.59	.14	-.34	.10	.00															
8. Work evenings	-.12	.02	.03	-.39	-.22	-.10	.11														
9. Work Sundays	-.08	.09	.08	-.31	-.17	.03	.14	.47													
10. Telework	.03	.01	.02	-.03	-.12	.22	.06	-.01	.03												
11. Work from home	-.03	-.01	.01	-.03	-.14	.17	.04	-.02	.04	.58											
12. Work Saturdays	-.11	.00	.05	-.40	-.38	.15	.04	.44	.57	.07	.06										
13. Part-time	-.184	.01	-.15	-.06	.03	-.07	.14	.07	.03	-.00	.03	.05									
14. Family/ social fit	-.07	-.00	.00	-.24	-.25	.06	.05	.41	.38	.05	.04	.40	.06								
15. Contact out work hrs	.07	.02	.07	-.00	-.02	.13	.07	-.04	.08	.22	.18	.07	-.02	.01							
16. Family leave	.01	.04	.04	-.10	-.11	.03	.04	.01	.10	.05	.06	.09	-.02	.04	.09						
17. Growth opportunity	-.11	-.11	-.08	.01	.10	-.23	-.03	.04	-.06	-.16	-.10	-.06	.10	-.04	-.18	-.14					
18. Education	.06	-.26	-.15	.28	.32	-.48	-.22	-.11	-.27	-.26	-.24	-.34	.04	-.15	-.22	-.07	.28				
19. Main contributor	.49	-.25	.05	.07	.04	-.11	-.16	-.07	-.06	-.01	-.05	-.06	-.12	-.04	.00	-.04	-.02	.11			
20. Income	-.26	.12	-.09	.03	.30	-.30	.25	-.03	-.10	-.15	-.10	-.22	.28	-.03	-.16	-.04	.24	.36	-.15		
21. Temps	.13	-.10	.03	.	.01	.03	-.25	-.01	.12	.06	.05	.08	-.10	-.06	.07	-.01	.04	-.05	.13	-.18	
22. No-contract	.05	-.05	.02	.	-.18	.21	-.07	-.04	.11	.07	.09	.19	-.14	.12	.14	.12	-.13	-.19	-.05	-.27	-
																					.26

EWCS –Multivariate Associations: Who are the flexible workers?

Regression models are summarised in Tables 4-7 to 4-11. As indicated in Table 4-7, where the odds of different (extreme) categories that may be linked to part-time employment can be compared, part-time employment is on average higher within lower income groups, as shown by an odds ratio of 10.42 (p-value <.001).

Table 4-7: EWCS regression results on part-time employment (n=79)

Part-time employment	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Work obligations fit well family responsibilities *			
Very good fit vs Not good fit at all	0.29	0.43	1.34
Well vs Not well at all	0.01	0.39	1.01
Not well vs Not well at all	-0.71	0.44	0.49
Housework (Yes vs No) **	0.68	0.33	1.98
Income***			
Very low vs Very high ***	2.34	0.37	10.42
Low vs Very high	-0.61	0.67	0.54
High vs Very high	-1.00	0.67	0.36

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

Table 4-8 concerns temporary employment and shows that it is negatively associated with age, implying that older employees are less likely to be under temporary contracts. Temporary employment within those employees with lowest income is also higher; the odds in the former are 6.76 times higher than those in the latter (p-value <.001). Work on Sunday is a significant predictor of temporary employment (p-value .002), and in particular employees who work on Sundays are more likely to be employed on a temporary contract (odds ratio .046).

Table 4-8: EWCS regression results on temporary employment (n=85)

Temporary employment	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Age**	-0.65	0.26	0.52
Work on Sundays (Yes vs No) ***	-0.75	0.24	0.46
Income***			
Very low vs Very high***	1.92	0.51	6.79
Low vs Very high***	1.62	0.53	5.05
High vs Very high***	1.91	0.67	6.77

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

Predictors of the absence of contract in Greece are demonstrated in Table 4-9 and are whether one is employed in the private sector (sector), job title, the level of income and of stress. Specifically, the table indicates that the odds of no-contract are 2.55 times higher in the private sector (p-value .006) and .37 times lower in skilled jobs (p-value .007). The odds of no-contract among employees with the lowest income are more than five times higher (odds ratio 5.01) than the next highest. In short, those who lack contracts are more likely to be unskilled workers in the private sector.

Table 4-9: EWCS regression results on no-contract employment (n=114)

No-contract employment	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Sector (Private vs Public) ***	0.93	0.34	2.55
Job title**			
Skilled vs Unskilled	-0.054	0.35	0.94
Semi-skilled vs Unskilled ***	-0.97	0.36	0.37
Income***			
Very low vs Very high***	1.61	0.40	5.01
Low vs Very high***	1.12	0.42	3.09
High vs Very high*	0.71	0.39	2.04
Stress (Yes vs No) *	0.77	0.42	2.16

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

Tables 4-10 and 4-11 show that telework and work from home are associated with the public sector in Greece. Furthermore, the tables indicate that teleworkers and employees who work from home are 2.52 and 2.15 times higher respectively in having skilled jobs. Table 4-10 also illustrates that employees who telework are more likely to be temporary

(odds ratio .66) and also more likely to be involved in institutional agents, such as unions or political associations (odds ratio 2.23, p-value .012). Both teleworkers and employees who work from home are often contacted outside work hours (as relative odds ratios are 9.23 and 9.70). In addition, employees, who work from home, tend to have more stress (odds ratio .48; p-value .002) (Table 4-11).

Table 4-10: EWCS regression results on telework (n=48)

Telework	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Sector (Private vs Public) **	-0.57	0.29	0.56
Job title**			
Skilled vs Unskilled ***	0.92	0.33	2.52
Semi-skilled vs Unskilled	0.44	0.34	1.55
Contact outside work hours***			
Every day vs Never ***	2.22	0.64	9.23
At least once a week vs Never ***	1.94	0.55	6.96
Two times per month vs Never	0.59	0.54	1.81
Less often vs Never **	0.91	0.39	2.48
Temporary employment (No vs Yes)*	-0.41	0.46	0.66
Unionization (Yes vs No)**	0.80	0.32	2.23

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

Table 4-11: EWCS regression results on work from home (n=91)

Work from home	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Sector (Private vs Public) **	-0.69	0.49	0.49
Job title**			
Skilled vs Unskilled ***	0.76	2.15	2.15
Semi-skilled vs Unskilled	0.53	1.71	1.71
Contact outside work hours**			
Every day vs Never ***	2.27	9.70	9.70
At least once a week vs Never ***	1.73	5.67	5.67
Two times per month vs Never	-0.32	0.72	0.72
Less often vs Never ***	1.66	5.27	5.27
Stress (Yes vs No)**	-0.72	0.48	0.48

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

4.3.4.2 Results based on EQLS

Table 4-12 indicates that part-time employment in EQLS (up to 31 hours worked/week) is 21.4% and 19.5% in Central and Northern European countries respectively as opposed to 9.6% in Greece and 14.8% in South EU. Temporary employment, as indicated in Table 4-12, is 7.9% and appears to be more diversified. No-contract employees differ and interestingly EQLS shows at 29.5% in Greece, as this is also shown in Table 4-12.

Table 4-12: Percentages (%) of FWAs across different EU regions as found in EQLS (N=1000)

	No contract	Temporary employment	Part-time up to 31 hours	Part-time up to 21 hours
North EU	3.8	9.5	19.5	9.6
South EU	25.6	11.6	14.8	9.0
Central EU	10.5	10.3	21.4	12.0
East EU	7.4	10.9	7.1	4.0
Greece	29.5	7.9	9.6	4.2
Total	11.5	10.5	14.2	7.8

EQLS-Bivariate Associations: Who are the flexible workers?

Spearman correlations are reported in Table 4-13, which indicates that part-time employment in Greece is predominantly female (p-value <.001), encountered in older ages (p-value <.001) and associated with non-married (p-value .002) employees. Part-timers seem to be associated with temporary positions (p-value <.001), are educated to a higher level (p-value <.001), or remain in education (still students). Part-time employment is mainly found in big cities (p-value .009) and, consistent with findings based on the EWCS, part-timers are not the main contributors of the household (p-value <.001). With regard to WLB, part-timers rarely feel too tired to get involved in housework (p-value .002) or find difficulty in fulfilling family responsibilities (p-value <.001); moreover, they consider their share of housework to be fair (p-value .002).

Table 4-13: Spearman correlations for EQLS (N=1000)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Gender																	
2. Age	.03																
3. May lose job in 6 months	-.04	.16															
4. Career advancement	.07	.14	-.12														
5. Difficult to fulfil family	-.02	-.13	.09	-.22													
6. Main contributor	.58	-.22	-.04	-.03	.11												
7. Marital status	.03	-.29	-.04	-.08	.16	.13											
8. No of children	.06	.55	.06	.17	-.21	-.13	-.49										
9. Cooking and housework	.41	.17	-.12	.09	-.05	.25	-.23	.24									
10. Housework share	-.55	-.03	-.03	-.11	.05	-.38	.12	-.13	-.33								
11. Job satisfaction	-.04	-.00	.25	-.45	.28	.02	.03	-.02	-.09	.08							
12. Life satisfaction	-.01	-.16	.19	-.36	.22	.05	-.03	-.09	-.06	.00	.66						
13. Age when completed education	-.10	-.58	.06	-.35	.23	.06	.24	-.43	-.22	.05	.29	.27					
14. Area	-.02	-.19	-.01	-.12	.02	-.05	.10	-.18	-.22	.01	.10	.10	.31				
15. Makesends meet	.08	.21	-.21	.35	-.29	-.05	-.10	.26	.12	-.09	-.37	-.44	-.34	-.07			
16. Part-time	-.20	.15	.02	-.04	-.19	-.19	-.1	.09	-.03	.12	.00	-.07	-.17	-.09	.06		
17. Temporary	-.12	.21	.15	.00	-.10	-.13	-.16	.14	-.07	.00	.01	-.03	-.12	-.01	.00	.14	
18. No-contract	.04	-.20	-.07	-.12	.17	.03	.05	-.18	.01	-.01	.06	.12	.31	.20	-.16	-.05	-.30

The penultimate row of Table 4-13 also indicates that temporary employment is predominantly female (p-value .001), with fewer number of children (p-value <.001), and good educational level (p-value <.001). Temporary employment attracts the younger (p-value <.001) who are unlikely to be married (p-value <.001) or not the main household contributors (p-value .001). It is positively associated with part-time jobs (p-value <.001), thus confirming the similarities observed. Not surprisingly, their main concern is the possibility of losing their job in six months (p-value .001). Moreover, Spearman correlations in Table 4-13 also show that temporary employees can be older (40 to 49 years old) (p-value .001) with a lower educational level as they might have left school at 16 (p-value <0.001), work mainly in the private sector (p-value <.001) and more frequently in low-skilled positions (p-value <.001).

The last row of Table 4-13 demonstrates that no-contract employment is more frequent in smaller/medium size towns (p-value <.001). Financial concerns seem to affect no-contract employees, who appear to encounter difficulties in making ends meet (p-value <.001), not being satisfied with their standard of living (p-value <.001), and see a lack of professional prospect/career advancement in what they are doing (p-value .007).

EQLS-Multivariate Associations: Who are the flexible workers?

Regressions results for the Greek sample in the EQLS are summarised in Tables 4-14, 4-15 and 4-16, each of which focuses on a specific form of FWA.

Table 4-14 indicates that in Greece, part-time work is positively associated with gender (women), where the odds of part-time for female employees are .12 times (p-value .001) that of male employees. WLB-wise, part timers are less likely to have difficulties in fulfilling family responsibilities (odds ratio .19; p-value .002).

Table 4-14: EQLS regression results for part-time employment (n=25)

Part-time employment	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Gender (Male vs Female)***	-2.04	0.79	0.13
Age*			
18-24 to 50-64	-0.99	1.20	0.37
25-34 to 50-64	1.14	1.02	0.31
35-49 to 50-64	0.52	0.92	1.69
Difficult to fulfil family responsibilities (yes vs no)***	1.62	0.52	0.19
Married/living with partner vs not married/living alone***	1.79	0.74	0.16

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

Table 4-15 shows that temporary employees are more likely to lose their job within six months (p-value <.001 and odds ratio .51) and to be employed in lower skills jobs (p-value <.001 and adds ratio 13.35).

Table 4-15: EQLS regression results for temporary employment (n=13)

Temporary Employment	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Current occupation skills required ***			
High vs low/no skills***	2.59259	0.6010	13.35
Medium vs low/no skills***	1.44222	0.5353	4.14
Might lose job in 6 months	-0.66166	0.1616	0.52

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

Finally, the absence of a contract is illustrated in Table 4-16 and is related to whether one is employed in the private sector (sector), or whether one will lose his/her job in six months, the number of children they have and to their perceived standard of life. It is additionally linked to the occupations of both the respondent and the main household contributor: no-contract employees are in unskilled/lower skilled jobs (p-value<.001 and odds ratio .05), whereas the main contributor of the household is more likely to be self-employed or in a high-skilled job (odd ratios .05 and p-value .002).

Table 4-16: EQLS regression results for no-contract employment (n=44)

No-contract employment	B	S.E.	Odds Ratio
Current occupation skills required***			
High vs low/no skills	-0.99	0.80	0.37
Medium vs low/no skills ***	-2.96	0.63	0.052
Sector (Private vs Public) ***	2.58	1.17	13.19
Occupation of main contributor skills (Yes vs no)***	-0.55	0.18	0.57
Number of children*	0.50	0.27	1.64
Satisfaction/dissatisfaction of present standard of living***	-0.99	0.41	0.37
Might lose my job in next 6 months*	0.55	0.3	1.74

Note. — Levels of significance: 1 %(***), 5% (**) and 10% (*).

4.4 Discussion: what have we learnt from the analysis?

The surveys probed the use of four forms of FWAs: part-time, temporary, telework and work from home and confirmed the existence of a significant group of flexible workers, which are distinctive for having no-contract employment. Both datasets confirmed that FWAs are used less in Greece, when compared to the rest of Europe, but nonetheless show that some employees use them at varying degrees. Consistent with dual economy theory and the conceptualisation of FWAs in Greek literature (Papalexadris and Kramar, 1997; Kouzis, 2001; Voudouris, 2004; Douka, 2004), part-time and temporary employment *are in fact* forms of secondary employment and illustrate numerical flexibility in the Greek labour market, while telework and work from home (although of low usage) may be linked to an emergent primary sector, which however, is linked to the public sector.

Part-time, temporary and no contract, as secondary market forms, resemble contingent employment (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002) which can be defined as: “any job in which an individual *does not have an explicit or implicit contract* for long-term employment or one in which the minimum hours worked can vary *in a non-systematic*

manner” (Polivka and Nardone, 1989: 11). Three main characteristics defining contingency employment are associated with these three forms of FWAs:

- a. *Lack of commitment.* Consistent with Piore and Doeringer’s theory (1971, 1972), a secondary sector includes employees who demonstrate a weak attachment to employment, either due to personal reasons (e.g. motherhood) or due to lack of choice. This argument was supported by the data: first, through the association of part-time to “weak workforce members”, in particular female respondents and students, as indicated in the results from the regressions; second, due to part-time’s positive association with effectively dealing with non-work activities (family and household responsibilities), and finally to the involuntary nature of part-time positions which was observed.
- b. *Uncertainty of contingent employment.* Job insecurity and uncertainty were associated with temporary employees and were found to be their main concern (losing their job in the near future and more specifically with the next six months, as indicated in the results from the regressions).
- c. *Lack of job satisfaction.* The more disadvantageous category, i.e. no contract, is an extreme form of non-systemic employment. The results show that those within this category lack perspectives of advancement and career progress, are dissatisfied with their standard of living, economic status and professional life/future.

A novelty in the findings is the actual existence of teleworkers and employees who work from home. These two forms had been described as practically non-existent in Greece in 2003 (Mihail, 2003) and differ from other forms, as they are linked with skilled or high-skilled jobs, high income, the perception of being well-paid and opportunity for growth, describing a primary labour sector. In addition, the data suggests a successful fit between work obligations and family responsibilities. Finally, the lack of association with

gender suggests no obvious gender gap or segregation concerning these two primary sector forms.

In conclusion, it appears that the part-time, temporary employment and no-contract employment fell in the secondary sector and are employer-driven forms of FWAs, offered under specific cases and positions, mainly covering employers' needs. By contrast, telework and work from home may be considered employee-driven forms, therefore falling in the primary sector (Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010). A public/private divide is also suggested; while the first category (in particular, no-contract employment) seems to be associated with the private sector, the two forms falling into the primary market seem to be linked to the public sector.

An institutional factor for consideration in regards to low FWAs frequencies is unionisation (Mihail, 2003, 2004). More specifically, the role of the unions as an institutional pressure is not only an indicator of their power on Greek labour matters, but can be seen as a determinant. Socio-political factors explain their power. As Waddington and Hoffman (2000) describe, Greece is a unique case due to having had the largest drop in agricultural employment during the decades 1967-1997 in Europe, followed by a large population movement towards industry, and particularly, services (in 1967 agriculture was 46%, industry 22.5% and services 31.5%, whereas in 1996 the percentages were 20.4%, 23.2% and 56.4% respectively). Given the size of the Greek public sector, one concludes that a significant proportion of this move was to public services. Similar to most European countries, unionisation in the Greek public sector is better organised (Waddington and Hoffman, 2000) and more powerful owing to both the size and the monopolistic nature of certain public services (Katsanevas, 1985). Second, the paternalistic nature of the state towards unions (financing, direct and indirect intervention) created a controversial relationship between unions and Government,

especially since the first steps in the formation of Greek unions are associated with the success of the Bolshevik revolution and are therefore linked to the Communist party. Thus, unions-government relationships have wavered between dependency and a fight for “employment protection” from the employer, who in this case is mainly the government. Unions gained significant power, especially in the areas of collective bargaining and compulsory prior consultation between employers and employees’ representatives (Katsanevas, 1985). In a similar vein and under the umbrella of employment protection, Greek unions fervently oppose FWAs and tend to highlight their negative consequences (Kouzis, 2001), and have deterred their spread.

Another factor for consideration concerning the low FWAs frequencies in Greece is in regards to the different industrial relations models among EU members. The results found in the current chapter highlight three main areas of difference between the Southern and Nordic countries in regards to FWAs:

1. The Nordic system seems to have dealt with the main concern of flexible employees, namely *uncertainty*. Northern countries have significantly improved both in regards to the amount of flexibility offered and to the way this flexibility is offered (Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; Gupta, *et al.*, 2002). Thus, northern Europe is closer to providing the work flexibility that promotes WLB satisfaction and moderates uncertainty, by promoting employment protection of flexible employees (Figart and Mutari, 1997; Gupta *et al.*, 2000). By contrast, the most problematic area of the Southern flexible working model is lack of employment security, instability and underemployment.

2. *Gender differences* in society and employment play a significant role. In the Southern regime, (otherwise called conservative model) the breadwinner model is still part of the societal structure (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Moreno and Crespo, 2005; Stavrou and Ierodiakonou, 2011), followed by low female employment, retention of females at

home, and unequal division of the housework. In the Southern countries, females are primarily carers, predominantly in charge of the house and the children, rather than employees, demonstrating in this sense a weak workforce culture (Martin *et al.*, 1997; Stavrou and Ierodiakonou, 2011).

3. Finally, *institutional factors* illustrating the rigidity of the Southern labour market constitute another group of differences. More specifically, the predominance of family over the social welfare, sustain the deficiencies and weaknesses of the state. This fact enhances the typical “familism” as an intergenerational guarantee and social protection, applying equally to employment (Moreno and Crespo, 2005). Similarly, unions as a traditional institutional actor described earlier have a unique impact on employment. The rigid labour laws mainly protecting male employees, have as a consequence high female and youth unemployment rates (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001), which turns these two social groups into secondary modes of employment.

The aforementioned arguments highlight that FWAs have been better implemented in the Northern EU member countries, as illustrated through increased flexibility and stronger corporate culture of flexible employees. Consequently, differences between the two models lie on three institutional actors: employees, employers and society (state), which suggests that any study of FWAs should focus on at least two of these. In researching a specific country, one should therefore collect data on both employers and employees.

Other limitations of the present study need to be highlighted. First, union membership or a respondents' view on unionisation have been closely connected to FWAs use in Greece, but given the lack of data in the surveys could not be explored. Second, although the general conclusions from both surveys are consistent, the measures vary slightly. Finally, the lack of employer data in these surveys means that one cannot

gain insights at organisational level, as for example: why FWAs are or are not offered. In all, a multi-level analysis is needed and will be performed in the next chapters.

What are the implications for this thesis and the chapters that follow?

The analysis of secondary data sheds light on important differences in the use of FWAs between Greece and the rest of the EU. The most significant differences occurred between Greece and the Northern EU cluster, where Greece has high levels of no-contract employment and therefore FWAs and low employee-level FWAs (i.e. work from home and telework).

Both surveys were limited to four types of FWAs: part-time, temporary, telework, work from home and a hybrid category, no-contract employment, leaving room for examination of various other forms, such as flexitime, phased return, job rotation, shifts, condensed hours etc. In addition, very little information is deduced for the quality of FWAs used in the Greek context. Most importantly though, the surveys concentrated on the use of FWAs and therefore on the employee level of analysis, neglecting the employer-organisational level. Similarly, very little information is provided with regard to the perceptions on FWAs. Perceptions would reflect employees' opinions of FWAs in the Greek context and would indicate future intentions of both employees and employers and therefore the future of FWAs in the Greek labour market.

The aforementioned limitations triggered the need for primary data collection and were important factors to be considered towards the creation of the questionnaires, as well as for the questions that needed to be replied on the use and offering of FWAs in the Greek labour market. In Chapters 5 and 6, the use of telework and of various other types of FWAs, perceptions of employees and employers on FWAs, the job quality of FWAs in the Greek labour market will be further examined based on primary data.

4.5 Summary

The chapter examined employee use of FWAs based on two secondary datasets and specifically the EWCS and the EQLS. Bivariate associations (Spearman correlations) were assessed between the dependent and independent variables based on the two theoretical approaches. This was vital in order to initially assess which institutional factors appear to be important in regards to FWAs employee use and employer offers and to identify which employees and employers' perceptions appeared to be more prevalent within the Greek labour market in regards to FWAs.

The final step and the core of the methodological analysis is the use of two-level path regression analysis models. In order to capture both the organisational and individual level, two-level analyses are undertaken by estimating models that incorporate each theoretical perspective and research question, based on the hypotheses that are developed in the chapters that follow, i.e. Chapter 5, which is based on the institutional theoretical background and Chapter 6 on the dual labour market.

The empirical evidence is that FWAs were rare in Greece and concentrated around specific social groups. Part-timers were predominantly female and students, namely dependent household members. Temporary and no-contract employment were associated with uncertainty in the labour market and dissatisfaction. Two main issues are noteworthy. First, available positions in these forms of FWAs are tailored and segregated occupationally, thus characterising flexibility *of* employees rather than flexibility *for* employees (Alis *et al.*, 2006). Second, consistent with institutional theory, the *institutionalisation* of the Greek labour market does not allow for a healthy use of FWAs. Telework and work from home demonstrate primary labour market characteristics, although their use remains low in comparison to the EU and is predominantly found in the public sector.

Research Questions

So far the data analysis has concentrated on the individual level. It showed the tendencies of employees regarding the use of FWAs in Greece when compared to the rest of the EU, thus motivating further investigation on the organisational level and on the perceptions of both employees and employers on FWAs. Based on the two theoretical perspectives, the thesis therefore poses two different research questions in the two chapters that follow.

First, using the institutional theory the study aims at investigating both the organisation and individual level, following the gap highlighted by the current chapter. Thus, in the next chapters the thesis investigates on an organisational level those social agencies and organisational characteristics that may impact on the offering of FWAs. Similarly, the study examines those individual characteristics that may impact on the use of FWAs at an individual level.

Second, based on the dual labour market theory, as illustrated in the current chapter, FWAs use was associated with secondary characteristics. In the following chapters the thesis uses primary data both from employees and employers, and aims to identify the job quality of FWAs in the Greek labour market. The study further examines employees' and employers' perceptions as indicative factors of the job quality FWAs are considered to have within the Greek labour market.

Chapter 5 – The Institutional Perspective on Flexible Working Arrangements in Greece

5.1 Introduction

Analysis in Chapter 4 focused on the use of FWAs from an employees' perspective and highlighted the need for further research on an organisational level. Based on the GDFW, whose data collection was described in Chapter 3, the purpose of this chapter is to identify key institutional factors that may determine FWAs in Greece. Two sets of institutional predictors are examined: (1) environmental factors that are likely to affect the employer offer of FWAs; and (2) individual factors that may be linked to employees' use of FWAs and/or their demand for FWAs. Furthermore, different forms of FWAs are examined in this chapter, i.e. part-time and temporary employment, flexitime, phased return, telework and shifts. The chapter examines both employee and employer-centred forms as these have been defined earlier in Chapter 2, in order to identify those institutional factors for which individuals may be either more or less strongly associated with each of these forms. As described in Chapter 3, we recall that GDFW was collected from April 2010 to January 2011, and comprises data from 40 companies (multinationals and Greek within the private and public sectors) and their employees (N= 492).

In the next sections, the institutional perspective on FWAs is revisited, hypotheses are set and tested. Findings are then reported and their implications are discussed in the context of the present research and future avenues that may be pursued.

5.2 The institutional theory perspective on FWAs

Institutional theory has been a leading theoretical perspective in explaining why work-life practices and within these FWAs are offered (e.g. Goodstein, 1994; Guthrie and Roth, 1999; Kossek *et al.*, 1994; Milliken *et al.*, 1998; Osterman, 1994, 1995; Wood *et al.*, 2003). It assumes that environmental factors pressurise organisations to introduce modern management practices or new forms of work arrangements that may accommodate society's needs, regardless of whether they are profitable or fit to the firm's strategy. In this context, the offering of FWAs that may help individuals to achieve work-life balance or companies to deliver targets (e.g. performance, recruitment) can reflect an organisation's need to comply with societal pressures (e.g. Boxall, 2006: 61) in order to achieve or maintain social legitimacy (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). Local pressures (e.g. a higher proportion of mothers in the workforce, transportation constraints, and seasonal agriculture) can create the need for an organisation to adapt (Meyer and Rowan, 1977; Rowan, 1982; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Powell, 2007), thus making work flexibility more common, as described below.

We consider the three pillars of the institutional theory, as described by Scott (2001), in order to examine institutional predictors in the Greek labour market's case. As indicated in Table 5-1 below, the first pillar of the institutional theory consists of regulatory processes, which in the Greek case can include local legislation, EU directives and trade unions. Legislation is core to any analysis of determinants of FWAs, as it establishes and legitimises employee use of FWAs. The absence of adequate legislation on FWAs in Greece (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997) does not allow for a legitimate

establishment of FWAs as an equal to full-time employment, thus leading to the observed low frequencies of FWAs that have been reported in previous chapters. Similarly, the role of the EU as a regulatory agent can impact on FWAs, since it pressurises Greece as one of its member states for common regulations on FWAs, as part of its efforts towards an integrated EU labour policy. Unions, although lacking direct regulatory power, have a strong voice in Greece and can become an impediment to the legitimisation of FWAs. Historically, local unions have fought for and protected full-time employment, by opposing potential increases of FWAs, especially temporary and part-time employment (Giannikis and Mihail, 2011; Katsanevas, 1985). We therefore argue that Greek unions are an oppositional force to the spread of FWAs in Greece (Katsanevas, 1985; Budd and Mufford, 2006), rather than a catalyst.

The second institutional pillar is the normative, as also indicated in Table 5-1. Given the emphasis on normative rules that introduce an evaluative and obligatory aspect in social life (Scott, 2001:54), we consider competition as a mimetic process that generates and facilitates the diffusion of FWAs. Organisations, as logical actors, can imitate competitors that adopt FWAs. In fact, the adoption of FWAs determines firms' responsiveness and can be a strategy to control environmental uncertainty (Goodstein, 1994). The labour market is here defined as the environment where employers offer FWAs and employees use them. Financial conditions, such as economic crises, employment trends and norms are therefore labour market characteristics. In Greece, the labour market is defined by loose or highly informal employment relations (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Moreno and Crespo, 2005). FWAs often reflect illegal or non-declared employment, most commonly encountered in seasonal agricultural or family-run businesses (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997). Yet, employers argue that the current regulation is too rigid and request greater flexibility in wages and working hours

(Giannikis and Mihail, 2011; Katsanevas, 1985), and it is in their interest to become more available and frequent.

The cultural-cognitive pillar also provides a solid theoretical foundation to examine individual (employee) factors associated with FWAs in Greece. We recall that Scott (2001:57) argued that “internal” interpretive processes are shaped by “external” cultural frameworks. In the current study, gender, number of children and being a manager, are factors that are closely associated with the Greek breadwinner culture, where women have primarily a family-based role, which leads to low female employment across all sectors in the economy (Waddington and Hoffman, 2003). Despite small increases, the Greek female workforce remains lower (47% in 2009) than the average in OECD countries (57 % in 2009). Moreover, this cultural framework can also be linked to the observed higher use of FWAs by female employees, who are often judged to have weaker attachment to employment. Given the cultural dominance of the breadwinner model, the average Greek male is uncomfortable expressing any preference for working flexibly, as he is responsible for the family income (Fagan, 2001). Not surprisingly, and in contrast to the “dual-earnership” household that is more frequent in most OECD countries, in Greece, single income families are as common as dual-earners (OECD, 2010). Consequently, higher FWAs employee use and demand (particularly part-time work, temporary employment and phased return) would be seen as legitimately female, especially in the case of mothers with young children. In contrast, males, particularly managers, would avoid FWAs, or at most show an interest in flexitime or work from home on an ad hoc basis.

In order to test for expected associations that follow from Table 5-1, the present chapter adopts two levels of analysis (employer and employee). First, environmental factors associated with employer offers of FWAs are identified; secondly, institutional

factors that may impact FWAs employees use are considered. Given these objectives, in the next section hypotheses are formulated.

Table 5-1: The three pillars of Institutional Theory applied in the Greek case

Regulative aspects of FWAs in Greece		Normative aspects of FWAs in Greece		Cultural-cognitive aspects of FWAs in Greece	
Legislation	Gaps on FWAs	Competition	Organisations imitate each other	Gender	Male breadwinner model
EU	Increase of FWAs	Labour Market	Main environment	Number of children	Higher demand for FWAs
Trade unions	Oppose FWAs	Being a student		Being a manager	Lower demand for FWAs

5.3 Hypotheses

On environmental factors

There are arguments for various environmental factors that may impact employer offers of FWAs. In particular, we concentrate on the following social agencies and institutional actors: competition, unions, legislation, the EU and the labour market.

Wright and Snell (1998) define flexibility as an organisation's ability to restructure resources and to respond quickly. They further state that flexibility is a viable solution to competition of the surrounding environment (Stavrou, 2005). Competition motivates the mimetic process of isomorphism; once an organisation introduces a policy, others will imitate and thus the adoption of this policy spreads to an extent that having a policy may no longer differentiate an organisation from others in its sector (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). In the current chapter, competition is defined as a pressure imposed on organisations within the labour market: when competitors offer specific benefits, management is more likely to feel the need to offer similar benefits.

Unions in Greece have been traditionally opposing part-time working, flexitime and other FWAs under the argument of employment protection (Katsanevas, 1985; Kouzis, 2001; Budd and Mufford, 2006). Recent exogenous pressures, i.e. the recession, the increase of FWAs in the EU and the need for convergence, have highlighted the need for flexible work options. Furthermore, employers' arguments that current regulation is too rigid and greater flexibility in wages and working hours are required (Giannikis and Mihail, 2011) are triggering two reverse social pressures: on one side, unions oppose FWAs and on the other employers, the labour market needs and EU policy pressurise for higher FWAs frequencies.

Contrary to the Greek unions, the EU has been fostering work flexibility in Europe since the 1980s (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997; Stavrou, 2005; Tregaskis *et al.*, 1998) and, in parallel, regulating it (flexicurity). Various reasons explain the EU's interest in FWAs. First, FWAs, like reduced hours, have been used as an instrument to reduce unemployment and avoid business closures. Second, FWAs are means to facilitate WLB (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997) and improve employees' wellbeing. Third, there is a concept of a European labour market, and thus the EU can use FWAs as instruments to converge its directives across member states.

In the analysis that follows, the labour market is a central point, defined through a neo-institutionalists' lens, which have moved from being organisational-centric to more systemic levels of analysis by focusing on the wider environment (Scott and Davis 2007). For example, Zucker (1977) described institutional processes as invariably external to organisations, and defined the labour market as an institutional environment, where social actors (i.e. EU, unions) and social forces (i.e. recession, competition) pressurise employers for higher or lower offering of FWAs.

Last but not least, in order for FWAs to be institutionally established, they must be socially legitimate. In this context, Rowan (1982) identified various social control agencies and described legislation as the key. Zucker (1977) added that changes in an institutional environment (e.g. labour market) require new legislation in order to acquire social legitimacy.

We therefore expect that:

Hypothesis 1: Environmental factors impact on employer offers of FWAs.

More specifically,

The more the competitors of an organisation offer FWAs, the greater the likelihood that this organisation offers FWAs. In short, we have:

Hypothesis 1a: There is a positive association between an organisation's offer of FWAs and its perceptions of FWAs being offered by its competitors.

Since Greek unions oppose FWAs:

Hypothesis 1b. There is a negative association between union presence in an organisation and FWAs employers offer.

But at the same time there are EU efforts towards a common labour market:

Hypothesis 1c. The more intense EU pressures for increasing FWAs are perceived within an organisation, the higher the offer of FWAs in this organisation.

Hypothesis 1d. Legislative gaps concerning FWAs are linked to lower offer of FWAs.

Hypothesis 1e. The more intense the pressures coming from the labour market (need for flexibility and competitiveness) the more likely an organisation offers FWAs.

Moreover, it is reasonable to expect that for employees to use FWAs, these need to be available by employers. Hence, we also assume that employer offers of FWAs is antecedent of employee use and may also influence demand for (interest in) FWAs.

Hypothesis 2: Employer offer of FWAs is positively associated to employee use of FWAs.

On individual factors

Despite an increase in the past decade (INE-GSEE Annual Report, 2010), female participation in the Greek labour market remains low. The gender gap is as such that many women are kept out of the labour market (Gerhards *et al.*, 2009). Recently, perhaps following a European trend (OECD, 2010), part-time employment has relatively increased in Greece (Giannikis and Mihail, 2011; Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997). FWAs are expected to help working mothers to accommodate their family needs (Atkinson and Hall, 2009; Smithson and Stokoe, 2005) and we expect that more females will use FWAs. Similarly, the number of children in a family is expected to be associated with the need for flexible work options and consequently should be linked to use (Brandth and Kvande, 2001).

FWAs, such as part-time work, flexitime, shifts and work from home, are considered to provide an entry point to work (Try, 2004), a source of income as well as work experience to students (Canny, 2002). They are also seen as a means to gain specialised training and thus facilitate students to ascend the career ladder faster on one side and employers to gain flexible access to an often cheaper and educated workforce on the other (Canny, 2002). It is therefore expected that students will be linked to higher employee use and demand for FWAs. By contrast, given that in the Greek labour market full-time employment is seen as the norm, we would expect those at the higher end of the career ladder to be full-time employees, and thus managers would be unlikely to be flexible workers.

Institutional factors at an individual level include characteristics of the employee, such as gender and of personal life circumstances, such as for example, marital status and care responsibilities. A further individual factor is whether the employee is a manager,

whose constraints and responsibilities may influence the employee demand and use of FWAs.

Therefore we expect that

Hypothesis 3: Various individual factors impact on employee use and demand of FWAs.

More specifically, given that women might be more interested in FWAs in order to accommodate work and life obligations, we expect that

Hypothesis 3a. FWAs employee use and demand are positively associated with being a female and with the number of children in a family.

In a similar vein, students, due to their educational obligations, may be interested in combining work and studies through the use of FWAs. Thus,

Hypothesis 3b. FWAs employee use and demand are positively associated with being a student.

Finally, given the responsibilities positions higher in hierarchy have, we would expect that employees in higher positions would be more unlikely to opt for FWAs. We also expect that not many positions under FWAs would be offered in these levels. Thus,

Hypothesis 3c. FWAs employee use and demand are negatively associated with being a manager.

Work-life balance (WLB) and Life-satisfaction

FWAs offer various advantages with regard to work and family accommodation (Shockley and Allen, 2007). Parental leave, allowance for daytime family-related matters, domestic tasks and childcare and less commuting (Noonan *et al.*, 2007) are some of the practices organisations employ to improve WLB. It is therefore hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 4. Employer offer and employee use of FWAs are positively associated with WLB.

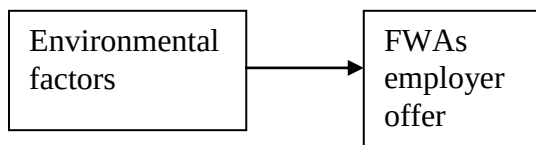
The association between life satisfaction and FWAs has been the subject of intense scrutiny and there seems to be support for a positive relationship (Almer and Kaplan, 2002; Kim and Campagna, 1981; Schmidt and Duenas, 2002; Thomas and Gangster, 1995). Almer and Kaplan (2001) argued that FWAs enable employees to reach higher job satisfaction and well-being levels and to keep low levels of exhaustion. Schmidt and Duenas (2002) added that FWAs accommodate employees' need for balance between their job and life in order to reach well-being. One step further, Thomas and Gangster (1995) concluded that offering of family-supportive policies help organisations to employ individuals whose attitudes and mental reactions are improved both inside and outside their working environments. Consequently,

Hypothesis 5. FWA employee use is positively associated with life satisfaction.

5.4 The proposed model

The above hypotheses can be summarised in a two-level regression model, where the employer offer of FWAs is linked to employee use. Employer offer may be explained by environmental factors. These include institutional factors and social agencies (competition, unions, pressure coming from EU, legislation), as hypothesised earlier. It is graphically illustrated at the organisation level in Figure 5-1a.

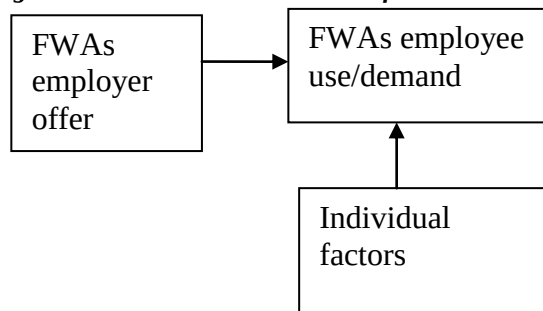
Figure 5-1a. The Organisational Level of an Institutional Model of FWAs in Greece



As a second step, we examine the relationship between employer offer of FWAs and FWAs use (and demand) by employees. Furthermore, at the employee level, FWAs use may depend on various individual factors, including gender, age, number of children, being a student or manager, as indicated in Figure 5-1b. We note that a similar model can

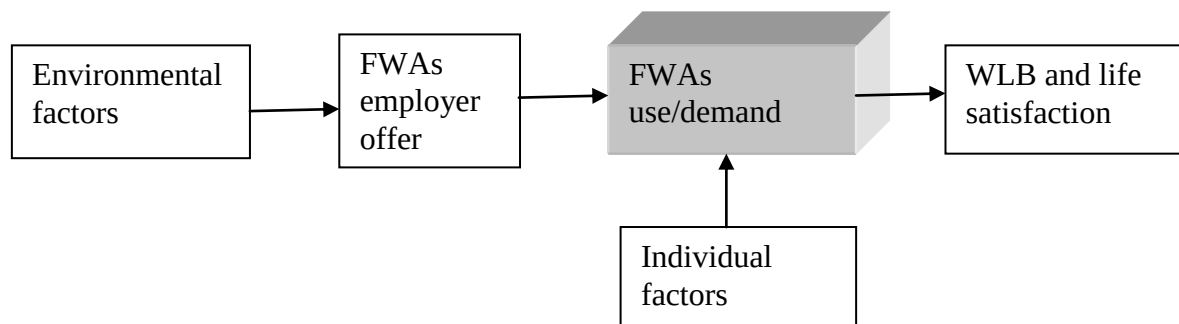
be envisaged when the variable employee use is replaced by the employee demand for FWAs, which can be measured by the extent to which employees are interested in FWAs.

Figure 5-1b. The Individual Level of an Institutional Model of FWAs in Greece



Finally, we join Figures 5-1a and 5-1b in a single two-level path regression model, thus covering both the environmental and individual factors, as well as WLB and life satisfaction as outcomes, as illustrated in Figure 5-1.

Figure 5-1. An Institutional Model of FWAs in Greece



Accounting for the effect of other factors (control variables) such as sector, size, area, age, educational level, and years in the organisation (Konrad and Mangel, 2000; Kossek and Lee, 2008) that may influence the dependent variables is also important. The model in Figure 1 can also be used to examine the demand for FWAs and therefore the variables considered in the third box, which is highlighted in the figure, and can vary in different specifications of the model: FWAs aggregate use (use of any form of FWA), FWAs aggregate demand (a respondent's interest in any form of FWA), use of specific FWA.

5.5 The empirical study

5.5.1 Data

The GDFW is used to test the model described above. The specific questions that correspond to the independent and dependent variables are described in Table 5-2, while control variables are shown in Table 5-3.

Table 5-2: Variables and corresponding questions in the GDFW

Independent variables	Variable type	Questions in the GDFW
Competition	binary	Among potential reasons for offering FWAs programs, how, high according to your organisation, would you rank the fact that competitors offer similar programs?
Unions	categorical	In your opinion, has your organisation felt any kind of pressure from unions?
EU	binary	In your opinion, has your organisation felt any kind of pressure from the European Union Labour Law regulations?
Legislation	binary	In your opinion, has your organisation felt any kind of pressure from Greek Labour Law regulations?
Labour market	binary	In your opinion, has your organisation felt any kind of pressure from the Greek labour market?
Gender	categorical	Are you male or female?
Number of children	categorical	Do you have any dependent children?
Being a student	binary	1) How old were you when you completed your full-time education? 2) I am interested in FWAs because I am a student and therefore my schedule does not allow me to work full-time.
Managers	binary	Which of the following best describe your role/job?
Students	binary	I am interested in FWAs because of better Work-life balance.
Life satisfaction	binary	I am interested in FWAs because of better life satisfaction.
Dependent variables	Variable type	Questions in the GDFW
FWAs employee use	categorical	If you personally needed any of the following arrangements, would they be available to you? YES/NO/ALREADY USE
FWAs employee	binary	If your organisation does not offer FWAs, would you be

demand		interested in any of the above?
FWAs employer offer	binary	What kind of FWAs does the organization offer?
Part-time	binary	Do you work part-time or full-time?
Temporary	categorical	Which of the phrases below best describes your job here?
Work from home	binary	I use already work from home.
Shifts	binary	I use already shifts.
Phased return	binary	I use already phased return.
Flexitime	binary	I use already flexitime.

Table 5-3: Control variables and corresponding questions in the survey

Control variables	Variable Type	Questions in the GDFW
Area	categorical	Would you consider the area in which you live to be...?
Sector	categorical	The organization is: Private/Public/Non-profit
Size	categorical	How many people does your organisation employ?
Years in the organisation	categorical	How many years are you employed in the current organisation?
Educational level	categorical	What is the highest educational level achieved?
Age	categorical	In which age group do you belong?

5.5.2 Measures

Dependent variables

FWAs employee use was measured by a binary variable that indicates whether employees use FWAs in any form (with 1 = use and 0 = not use), graphically represented in Figure 5-1b. In order to investigate different forms of FWAs, similar binary variables were created for part-time work, temporary employment, flexitime, shifts, work from home and phased return.

FWAs employee demand (i.e. interest in being able to work flexibly) was measured by a binary indicator, which was equal to 1, if the individual was interested in any form of FWAs, and 0 otherwise.

FWAs employer offer was measured by the number of different FWAs available to employees: 0 to 8, with 0 denoting no offer. That is, if we consider an organisation where three different types of FWAs are on offer to employees (e.g. part-time, shifts and temporary employment), this variable takes the value 3. By contrast, in an organisation where employees cannot work flexibly, this variable is equal to 0. We note that the offering of separate FWAs was not considered due to the restricted sample size (N=40, of which few use some forms of FWAs). Moreover, it is reasonable to argue that having an offer of any form of FWA can trigger employee use/demand.

Independent variables

As indicated in Figure 5-1a, independent variables that may be associated with the employer offer of FWAs are the following:

Competition, which was measured as a binary variable (0 denoting no competition) that was equal to 1 if competitors offered FWAs. In order to assess the potential impact of social agencies (*EU, trade unions, legislation and the labour market*), managers were asked whether or not the organisation felt any pressure from each of these agencies. Responses were yes/no, thus leading to binary indicators of managers' perceptions of pressures felt by the organisation.

Independent variables that may directly affect employee use of FWAs, as indicated in Figure 5-1b, include: age, number of children, students and managers. Being a *Student* was measured by combining responses to available options in two questions: (1) "If interested in FWAs, which of the options below describe your case", where the option "I am interested in FWAs because I am a student and my schedule does not allow me to work full-time" was chosen; (2) "How old were you when you finished your full-time education?", where the respondent chose was "I am still studying". The variable

managers was created from the question that related to the *role in the organisation*, which has two categories, namely: managers and junior managers.

Another set of independent variables were *WLB* and *life satisfaction*. The two variables cover a subpopulation of the dataset, i.e. those employees who declared that they are interested in FWAs. Thus, the two variables were measured when the two responses: “I am interested in FWAs in order to have better WLB” and “I am interested in FWAs in order to increase life satisfaction” were chosen.

Control variables

Control variables were: area, sector, size, age of the employee (measured in five age categories starting from 18 to 55 or more), highest educational level achieved and years in the organisation.

5.5.3 Data analysis procedure

The use of multilevel analysis (van Yperen *et al.*, 1999; Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992; Hox, 1994) is crucial in the current thesis because of the hierarchical structure of the data and hypotheses, i.e. employees (level 2) within companies (level 1). Multilevel analysis allows for fitting regression models at both levels simultaneously, as opposed to estimating the regression coefficients at each level separately.

First, by using a two-level model, one avoids the assumption of independence in level 2. Employees within the same organisation share some common characteristics that may potentially result in an association between them. Hence, the assumption of independence, which is made in traditional two-stage approaches or when variables at one level are aggregated or averaged so that a single regression can be estimated, may underestimate the variance at employee-level and falsely identify relationships. Multilevel approaches treat only employees at the same organisation as independent, and are therefore more robust. Second, dependencies between the two levels can be examined.

For example, as depicted in Figure 5-1b and stated in Hypothesis 2, the association between FWAs employee use and employer offer is core to our analysis. This association is estimated from the data in both levels; for each employee information on their use is available and, at the same time, information on their employer's offer of FWAs is also known.

Our two-level model is shown in Figure 5-1: Level 1 (known as the between model in statistical jargon) refers to the organisation level and Level 2 (known as the within model) refers to the employees. It is important to highlight at this stage that Figure 5-1 is used only to illustrate graphically the potential associations that are examined in the current research. Causality is neither implied nor tested here; the analysis that follows is cross-sectional.

The model, which is shown in Figure 1, was estimated with different variables at Level 2: employees' aggregate FWAs use, FWAs aggregate demand and specific forms of employee use (part time, temporary, phased return, flexitime, work from home, shifts). Estimation in MPlus (Muthen and Muthen, 1998), is performed by simultaneously maximising the joint likelihood from the regression equations at each level (Figures 5-1a and 5-1b). Goodness of fit statistics are computed, thus allowing for an omnibus (overall) assessment of fit. We note that our dataset consists of 40 companies, which is a sufficiently high number (Snijders and Bosker, 1993; van Yperen *et al.*, 1999) for multi-level analysis methods.

5.5.4 Results

We recall that Table 3-9 in Chapter 3 summarised the observed frequencies and subsample sizes in the GDFW. Below, descriptive statistics are shown in Table 5-4, which shows the observed frequencies of each variable. Table 5-5 summarises bivariate correlations.

Table 5-4: Observed frequencies and subsample sizes of main variables in this study

Dependent variables	Observed frequency	Environmental factors	Observed frequency	Individual factors	Observed frequency
FWAs Employer offer (n=483)	53.4% do not offer FWAs	Legislation (n=483)	38.1% feel pressure from legal gaps and do not offer FWAs	Gender (n=477)	60% females
FWAs Employee use (n=419)	19% employee use	EU(n=483)	14% feels pressure from the EU to offer FWAs	Number of children (n=481)	46.5% no children
FWAs Employer demand (n=480)	56% not interested	Trade Unions (n=483)	24.45 feel pressure from unions	Role in organisation (n=481)	45% are managers (senior and junior)
		Competition (n=322)	59% do not know whether competitors offer	WLB (n=173)	75% of those interested is for better WLB
		Labour market (n=483)		Life satisfaction (n=174)	43% of those interested in for life satisfaction

Note: For observed frequencies of other variables this chapter refer to Table 3.9

Bivariate analysis

Before estimating our models, we consider Table 5-5, which summarises the bivariate associations that give us insights into the hypotheses, but which do not take into account the two-level structure in the data.

Table 5-5: Spearman correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Years in organisation											
2.Competition	.17										
3.EU	.15	-.07									
4.Age	.59	.13	.23								
5.FWAs employee use	-.01	-.00	-.06	-.03							
6.FWAs employee demand	.21	.05	.02	.12	-.03						
7.Legislation	.01	.35	.32	.07	.12	-.00					
8.Union activity	.18	.00	.11	.17	-.08	.06	-.04				
9.Area	-.13	.39	-.19	-.08	.06	-.05	.36	-.13			
10.Role in the organisation	-.12	-.02	.04	-.17	-.01	.10	-.04	-.04	-.11		
11.Education	-.24	.00	-.04	-.15	.01	-.19	.05	-.07	.18	-.33	
12.FWAs employer offer	.03	.36	.45	.16	-.09	-.02	.46	-.00	.20	-.11	.12

We observe in the fifth row of Table 5-5 that the employee use of FWAs is negatively associated with the number of years that the employee has worked in the organisation (p-value .007). Younger ages and employees in urban areas (p-value .016) appear to use FWAs more (p-value .002). Regarding environmental factors, legislation (p-value <.001) and perceived EU pressures (p-value .006) imply lower FWAs employers offer (last row in Table 5-5). Less FWAs are made available when companies believe that competitors offer similar FWAs practices (p-value .028). FWAs demand is higher in the case of employees with more years in the organisation (p-value <.001). We further observe that employees whose roles are higher in hierarchy (p-value .022) and who are of older ages (p-value .006) are more interested in FWAs. The same applies to those employees who live in rural areas (p-value <.001). In one row before the last, we observe that employees who have completed higher education (p-value <.001) show higher demand for FWAs. Demand is also higher when the perceived union activity (p-value <.001) is lower.

Multivariate analysis

We consider two-level regressions of employer offer on employee use or demand and their potential outcomes (work life balance and life satisfaction). In this investigation we address three types of institutional factors, by considering: the relationship between FWAs employers offer and environmental factors described in the hypotheses (competition, labour market, legislative gaps, unions, EU); and, the relationship between employee use and the individual factors hypothesised (i.e. gender, number of children, being a student, being a manager).

General FWAs employee use

Table 5-6 consists of two columns, which represent regressions at two levels, where dependent variables are respectively employer offer at Level 1 and employee use in the second half of the table, at Level 2. We note that the model, as specified in Figure 1, also

assesses the link with employee outcomes, which will be reported later. We now focus on the hypothesised institutional predictors.

Table 5-6: Two level model on FWA employee use and employer offer

Level 1: Employer Offer		Level 2: Employee Use	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient
Labour market	2.011***	Employer offer	1.695***
EU	-1.102**	Age	-0.156***
Competition	-1.046**	Number of Children	0.171**
Legislation	-1.198**		
Fit summary (n=404)		RMSE: 0.053 , CFI: 0.996, TLI: 0.988	

Looking at the Level 1 (organisation level), Table 5-6 shows that most environmental factors impact on FWAs employers offer, providing support for Hypothesis 1. More specifically, competition was significantly, **but** negatively, associated with employer offer (coefficient equal to -1.046 and significant at level 5%), thus implying that the more likely competitors are to offer FWAs the less likely it is that an organisation offers FWAs and therefore contradicting our hypothesis. Thus, we reject Hypothesis 1a. When testing for the association with the perceived pressures of unions on employers, the table indicates that unions are **not** associated with FWAs employer offer (Hypothesis 1b) in the cases of FWAs employees use, thus rejecting Hypothesis 1b. When testing the relationship between perceived pressures coming from the EU and employer offers of FWAs (Hypothesis 1c). Table 5-6 indicates a negative association (coefficient of -1.102 significant at the 5% level), implying that companies feeling pressure from the EU are mainly those which do not offer FWAs. Hence, there is no evidence supporting Hypothesis 1c. Hypothesis 1d argues that companies perceiving more intensely the lack of legislation on FWAs (legislative gaps) are less likely to offer FWAs, which, as indicated in the table, is supported and accepted. Testing the perceived pressures from the labour market indicated that these pressures are always positively associated with

employer offers of FWAs (coefficient of 2.011, significant at level 1%), providing evidence in support of Hypothesis 1e, and therefore we accept the hypothesis.

The model fitted well to the data, as indicated by the following indexes: RMSEA: 0.053 (with a good goodness-of-fit considered between 0.05 and 0.08); Comparative Fix Index (CFI): 0.996 and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI): 0.998 (satisfactory fit is considered between when CFI is higher than 0.95) (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996; Hu and Bentler, 1999). Similar satisfactory goodness of fits were assessed and found for the rest of the models for the different FWAs forms.

We note that the second column of Table 5-6 addresses the employee level and shows that, as argued in Hypothesis 2, there is a significant association between employer offer and employee use. Thus, Hypothesis 2 is accepted.

Employee demand and use of different forms of FWAs

The model in Figure 1 was then specified so that the variable dependent variable at level 2, which is highlighted in Figure 1, varies. Hence, we consider the association between FWA employers offer and FWAs employee demand (top of Table 5-7), as well as specific FWAs forms (i.e. part-time employment, temporary employment, shifts, phased return, flexitime and work from home), which are found in subsequent parts of table 5-7. Overall, the evidence of association is weaker than expected.

Table 5-7: Two level model of FWA offer and different forms of FWAs

Level 1: Employer Offer		Level 2: Employee Demand (n=168)	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient
Labour market	2.052***	Employer offer	-0.234**
EU	-1.114**	Students	1.14***
Competition	-1.067**	Years in the organisation	0.068**
Legislation	-1.165**		
Level 1: Employer Offer		Level 2: Part-time employment use (n=168)	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient

Labour market	2.058***	Employer offer	0.312
EU	-1.109**	Manager	1.985***
Competition	-1.07**	Education	-0.56**
Legislation	-1.161**	Age	-1.076***
		Year in organisation	-0.44***
Level 1: Employer Offer		Level 2 : Temporary employment use (n=168)	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient
Labour market	2.058***	Employer offer	0.234
EU	-1.109**	Gender	1.727***
Competition	-1.07**		
Legislation	-1.161**		
Level 1:Employer Offer		Level 2 : Phased Return arrangement use (n=168)	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient
Labour market	2.051***	Employer offer	0.034
EU	-1.135**	Gender	0.132***
Competition	-1.087**	Area	0.126**
Legislation	-1.163**		
Level 1: Employer Offer		Level 2 : Flexitime arrangement use (n=168)	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient
Labour market	2.015***	Employer offer	0.916***
EU	-1.095**	Years in organisation	0.107**
Competition	-1.068**		
Legislation	-1.179**		
Level 1: Employer Offer		Level 2 : Work from home arrangement use (n=168)	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient
Labour market	2.068***	Employer offer	-0.68***
EU	-1.11**	Years in organisation	-0.369**
Competition	-1.066**		
Legislation	-1.15**		
Level 1: Employer Offer		Level 2 : Shifts use (n=399)	
On Variable	Coefficient	On Variable	Coefficient
Labour market	2.052***	Employer offer	0.101
EU	-1.136**		
Competition	-1.087**		
Legislation	-1.164**		

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

As the model at Level 1 remains the same, the results of Level 1, which are reported in Table 5-7, are similar to those of Table 5-6, thus implying that most environmental factors are likely to impact on FWAs employers offer.

With regard to individual factors that may affect employee use of FWAs, findings are summarised in the second column of Table 5-7 that focus on Level 2. Hypothesis 3 argues that a number of individual factors impact on employee use and demand of FWAs. This hypothesis is supported, as several coefficients in the last columns of Table 5-7 are significant (such as students and employee demand, temporary employment use and gender, part-time employment use and being a manager). In particular, gender (Hypothesis 3a) was positively associated with temporary employment (coefficient of 1.727 and significant at level 1%) and phased return use (coefficient of 0.132 and significant at level 1%), thus implying that Greek women in the sample are more likely to work flexibly under these forms of employment.

In a similar vein, concerning the second part of Hypothesis 3a, the number of children that a respondent has and its association to the use of FWAs and the demand for FWA were tested. As for the general use of FWAs, the model summarised in Table 5-6 shows that employees with three or more children are more likely to use FWAs (coefficient of 0.171 and significant at level 5%). Consequently, in general both parts of Hypothesis 3a are supported. Being a student was positively associated (coefficient of 1.14 and significant at level 1%), as indicated in Table 5-7, with FWAs employees demand, as hypothesised in 3b. It is noteworthy that our data included a small number of students (approximately 6% of the participants), yet this potential link was significant. Hypothesis 3b is therefore accepted.

Finally, contrary to Hypothesis 3c, which argues that being a manager would be negatively associated to FWAs employees use and demand, being a manager was found

to be positively associated with part-time use (coefficient of 1.985 and significant at level 1%), as indicated in Table 5-7. This non-finding is very important as it implies that different forms of FWAs and therefore different forms of employment are starting to intrude in companies. Non-standard and full-time employment traditionally associated with managerial positions seems to receive less evidence and managers are, as shown, associated to part-time employment within the Greek context.

Concerning the control variables, size and sector were not significant. Area was positively associated with phased return use, as shown in Table 5-7. Age was negatively associated with the aggregate FWA use, as shown in the top part of Table 5-6, where we observed that the significance level of the coefficient is 1%. Educational level was negatively associated with part-time, as also shown in Table 5-7 above. The number of years that an individual had been working in the organisation was significantly associated with the flexitime and work from home use of FWAs, as illustrated in Table 5-7.

Work-life balance and life-satisfaction

Finally, we consider the last box in Figure 1. The dependent variable WLB was neither linked to FWAs employers offer nor to any of the FWAs forms (p-values > 0.10), except part-time (p-value .019). Thus, there is no support for Hypothesis 4. Similarly, life satisfaction was neither associated with FWAs employer offer, nor positively associated with any individual form of FWA. The only association observed was a negative, and was between shifts and life satisfaction (p-value .039). The data therefore does not support Hypothesis 5.

5.6 Discussion

This chapter contributes to a scarce body of research (Giannikis and Mihail, 2011; Mihail, 2003, 2004; Voudouris, 2004) on the formal and informal institutional factors that may

affect FWAs in Greece. It provides more detailed background on environmental and individual factors that may have triggered the increase in demand for FWAs in Greece that has been recently reported in the media.

The first set of predictors focused on environmental factors that may impact on FWAs employers offer. Contrary to our expectations, in regards to competition, a paradox emerged: the more the competitors of an organisation offer FWAs, the less the chances for this organisation to offer or intend to offer FWAs. This suggests that competition in the Greek case not only does not promote FWAs employers offer, but can have a negative effect in disseminating FWAs. It might be that companies which do not offer flexible work options are seen as providers of more secure and stable employment. Hence, “good jobs” are associated with full-time or standard hours. Mimetic processes in that case would generate isomorphic tendencies towards not offering FWAs, thus creating a social structure that is supported by a model of low FWAs offering (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Meyer and Rowan, 1983), consequently socially legitimising a lack of FWAs in the labour market. This may partially explain the low FWAs rates in Greece compared to the rest of the EU and also confirm that FWAs in Greece are generally initiated by employers, possibly for the benefit of the organisation, and therefore are more negatively perceived.

The data supported the view that companies with management that offered less FWAs appeared to feel more pressurised from the EU to adopt such practices on one hand, but also felt more pressures from the legislation on FWAs on the other. These findings highlight that differences in culture, unionisation, legislation, employment, family structure, gender roles and other societal reasons have maintained low levels of convergence (Tregaskis *et al.*, 1998) in FWAs among EU members. However, political interdependencies emerging from wider institutional environments through non-local

events and “foreign actors” (Scott, 2004) have been pressurising for convergence in FWAs policies.

Labour market was defined as the institutional environment where organisations operate and employees are employed. In the past decade, local institutional characteristics of the Greek labour market include high unemployment (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997; Lyberaki, 2010), relatively low female participation, a deep gender gap (Gerhards *et al.*, 2009; Lyberaki, 2010), social legitimacy of unions that protect full-time standard employment (Katsanevas, 1985) and a huge and dysfunctional public sector. Changes in the institutional environment, including economic unrest, appear as external shocks to the system and have surprisingly strong effects on organisations (Zucker, 1977). As such, the financial crisis severely affected Greece in the first months of 2010 and may be interpreted by organisations as intense institutional pressure, implying a connection between labour uncertainty and an increase in the employer offers of FWAs. Consistent with Atkinson’s views (1985, 1987), unstable market conditions in a slow growth market generate uncertainty and create pressures for higher flexibility and demands for cheaper and easier labour. Not surprisingly, this period has been followed by an increase in levels of flexible working, especially in regards to part-time and job rotation offers (67.5 percent increase of part-time and job rotation contracts offered by employers for the years 2009-2010) (Kopsini, 2010) for the second half of 2010 and during 2011ⁱ that is expected to increase further.

Considering gender and contrary to a growing body of literature (Connolly and Gregory, 2008; Manning and Petrongolo, 2008; Visser, 2002), female employees were not associated with part-time employment, but with temporary employment. Given that a large proportion of Greek females remain outside the labour market, they do not turn to permanent reconciliation solutions that could be offered in part-time employment, but

may prefer temporary work. This implies that they may form a group with weaker attachment to employment and have weaker corporate culture (Atkinson and Hall, 2009; Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997; Zeytinoglu and Cooke, 2008). Additionally, the results align with our initial expectations for a gender-based demand in phased return by future working mothers (Davey *et al.*, 2005). These two cases suggest that specific forms of FWAs are associated with being a female employee, but not FWAs per se. Consequently, societal and institutional attributes play a significant role in the use of FWAs in Greece.

Contrary to initial expectations, a positive association between being a manager and part-time employment was observed, which together with the association between part-time employment and younger ages and tenure, might suggest higher awareness of younger managers to contemporary HRM practices and the need for reconciliation of work and life. Moreover, it might also reflect the position of educated women in the workforce, since part-time employment is predominantly female. In the GDFW one in three part-timers were educated females and worked as junior managers (32% among part-timers), which is possibly linked to the fact that data was mainly collected in urban areas. Since location was a significant control in the models, there is need for further examination of regional variations. Another possible explanation for age and tenure effects could be the fact that these results address junior managers, who have greater autonomy. This would be consistent with Ortega's (2009) reasoning in a wider European context, since he argued that in high autonomy working environments employees may be employed in more than one job or company. In the current study, this autonomy could be interpreted as work performed in multiple projects and maybe different companies on a part-time basis. In the GDWF, 44% of junior managers were among part-timers. Finally, the increase of part-time managers could also be associated with the early days of the

current recession in Greece, thus hinting at the radical increase of part-time employment that was mentioned earlier.

Taken together, the results suggest that employers, business managers and administrators would benefit from increasing awareness and access to FWAs within organisations. Consequently, we would agree with Stavrou's (2005) argument, that greater awareness would generate the establishment of policies on FWAs and facilitate their diffusion and legitimacy. Moreover, EU pressures stress the need for examining FWAs in a more international and open system model by recognising the pervasive significance of wider institutional environments for analysis (Scott, 2004). Most importantly, the need for a clear strategy regarding FWAs from organisations is vital in order to avoid a market divide between good and secure full-time jobs and bad flexible employment. Careful consideration is required from organisations in order to avoid overutilization and manipulation of flexibility, especially in the crisis that the Greek labour market is currently facing.

The chapter's main strength is that it considers FWAs at both the organisational and the individual level, offering insights on both FWAs employers offer and employee use. A possible weakness is that students were under-represented and urban workers might have been over-represented in the sample. In addition, two groups described above, i.e. managers, females and part-time employment require further examination. Following Atkinson (1985, 1987), who discussed the relationship between FWAs and crisis circumstances in labour markets, further examination of flexibility in uncertain environments and longitudinal analysis of Greek data may bring to light new issues and theories. Finally, the examination of FWAs in conjunction with economic aspects requires further research. Dual economy theorists like Fields (2004) would argue that in order to examine labour markets one should primarily consider four institutional factors:

wages, unionisation, (public/private) sector and multinational companies. The latter may be explored in future research.

5.7 Summary

This chapter has added evidence on FWAs in the Greek labour market by examining FWAs both at an organisational and employee level. The following FWAs were considered: part-time, temporary, flexitime, work from home, phased return and shifts. Associations of environmental factors (EU, competition, unions, legislation and labour market) with the employer offer of FWAs were examined. Competition in the labour market was shown to predict FWAs, but differently than expected: the more FWAs competitors offer, the less likely it is for an organisation to offer FWAs. Perceptions of FWAs in Greece suggest that FWAs are initiated by employers. Unions did not appear to be linked to FWAs offering, however, pressures from formal institutional factors, and specifically the EU, the labour market and legislation appear to be significantly associated with the offer of FWAs. With regard to individual factors, we record that temporary employment is generally female. Managers, contrary to initial expectations, are more likely to work part-time, when compared to non-managers. Considering WLB, perceptions of FWAs in Greece suggest that these are initiated by employers, a fact that may shed light on why WLB is not linked with FWAs. Nevertheless, our finding of an association between being a manager and working part-time contrasts with the social perceptions of the male breadwinner model and can shed some light on the adoption of new forms of employment in Greece.

Addressing the work life agenda remains a challenge to employers and employees, especially when in FWAs females predominate. In addition, the pressures coming from the EU, the Greek labour market and the employers in conjunction with the current crisis are challenges currently encountered in the Greek labour market and require attention.

Finally, the association between managers and part-time employment in Greece, contrasted social perceptions in regards to managers and the use of FWAs shed light on new forms of employment, as well as the relationship between FWAs and employees higher in hierarchy and with more autonomy is another area that requires further scrutiny.

The next chapter concentrates on employee use and employer offer of FWAs from the lens of an economic perspective.

Chapter 6 – Flexible Work Arrangements in Greece: an economic perspective on job quality

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters described the characteristics of FWAs in Greece that can be directly associated with a secondary labour market. We recall that in Chapter 4, data from two large-scale European surveys, EWCS and EQLS, showed that part-time and temporary employees in Greece have all the hallmarks of secondary employees. These FWAs were positively associated with jobs of lower skill and satisfaction, as well as with greater job uncertainty and insecurity. Results from Chapters 4 and 5 reinforced this theory, as females were found to be predominantly employed in temporary jobs. In addition, as previously discussed, recent Greek employment statistics showed a dramatic increase in FWAs. In this context, unions and labour associations have been highlighting a decrease in job quality, particularly for flexible workers.

Nonetheless, concern over the job quality of FWAs in Greece is not new. A body of literature (Felstead *et al.*, 2001; Kouzis, 2001; Mihail, 2003, 2004; Papalexadrakis and Kramar, 1997; Voudouris, 2004) has argued that, similarly to other countries like the USA, UK and Australia (Kalleberg, 1997, 2000, 2003; Kelliher, 2008; McDonald *et al.*, 2009), certain FWAs in Greece are in fact inferior to full-time employment and offer

lower job quality. While some exceptions do exist (e.g. cases of those who choose to work remotely or from home), FWAs in Greece are mainly perceived as being synonymous with inferior employment.

In order to better understand this perception, this chapter defines and measures job quality of FWAs in the Greek labour market, using recently collected data from forty organisations and their employees. Despite some literature on the quality of flexible working (e.g. Kalleberg 1997, 2003), relatively little research has been conducted on measuring and understanding the association between FWAs and job quality, especially in Greece. Voudouris (2004) has argued that the growth of FWAs in Greece has disassociated them from an initial categorisation as a secondary labour market and introduced the dual (segmented) labour market paradigm, which is the framework that is here adopted. She focused on three specific types of flexible labourers: temporary workers, subcontractors and independent contractors, but did not examine their perceptions of job quality. Kalleberg *et al.* (1997) examined labour segmentation, but concentrated exclusively on the organisational level and on the offering of FWAs. Kalleberg *et al.* (2000), however, investigated “bad jobs” by defining and measuring the job quality of FWAs in the American labour market. Yet, neither empirical evidence nor a dual labour market theoretical background has been offered that the present study aims to contribute to, but research based on a contextual analysis of low quality FWAs positions in the American labour market has been conducted.

Different forms of FWAs are attractive to distinct groups within the workforce (Kalleberg *et al.*, 1997). Employers can benefit from FWAs in various ways, such as improvements in productivity and performance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2000), reduced labour costs and more efficient use of resources (Kalleberg, 2003). Consequently, differences between employees’ and employers’ perspectives can be used to categorise FWAs as

employer or employee-centred (Alis, 2006; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010). To this end, employee-centred FWAs are those that allow employees to accommodate work and life obligations and thus achieve a better quality of life. By contrast, employer-centred FWAs are those usually imposed on employees with the expectation of benefits to the organisation (e.g. cost cutting/efficiency initiatives) (Alis *et al.*, 2006; Erza and Deckman, 1996; Stavrou, 2005; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010).

Keeping the above categorisation as a reference point, the present chapter examines why Greek employers offer FWAs and how their reasons can affect the use of FWAs and subsequently job quality. In the next section, using the dual labour market theory, it is argued that FWAs in Greece characterise a secondary labour market. A measure of job quality is then developed. Hypotheses are set and a model is proposed and empirically tested. Results are reported, and their implications discussed. Finally, conclusions and a future research agenda are drawn.

6.2 A segmented labour market

We recall that in comparison to most EU countries, in Greece FWAs were officially established relatively late (1990) with Law 1892 (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997), but were used, and still are, in a predominantly informal basis. Since then and up until early 2009, their use was low and stable: part-time was 9.5% (EWCS, 2005; Mihail, 2003; Papalexadris and Kramar, 1997; SQLS, 2007), temporary employment was higher (14.5%) (EWCS, 2007; Voudouris, 2004), telework and work from home, though rare (6.6% and 7.8%), were offered in specific circumstances (e.g. high skilled employees of older ages and of higher educational level employed on specific projects as consultants in a temporary basis) (Chapter 4).

Similar to the rest of the EU, part-time employment in Greece is mostly used by female employees, yet in most cases this is not a matter of choice, but rather a matter of what is available (Chapters 3 and 4; Employment in Europe, 2008). Furthermore, part-time work has been an instrument to fight youth and female unemployment (Mihail, 2010; Papalexadris and Kramar, 1997). Temporary employment is higher than average in the EU, mainly due to the extensive usage of fixed-term contracts in the public sector which has become noticeable since 2001 (Papalexadris and Kramar, 1997; Voudouris, 2004). Two factors have influenced FWAs in Greece:

- (1) the frequent use of flexible work in small-medium family run businesses to accommodate the owner's family needs (Papalexadris and Kramar, 1997);
- (2) the large number of self-employed individuals and independent contractors and sub-contractors, who have fixed-term contracts with multiple firms (Voudouris, 2004).

As previously discussed in Chapters 4, Greece follows the southern European labour model, along with Italy, Spain, Portugal and Cyprus (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001), which accommodates the seasonality and informality in the economy as well as its socio-cultural heritage. As such, in the European economic context, Greece is a peripheral or secondary economy (Lewis, 1954; Voudouris, 2004), a status that can be linked to the following:

a) *The male breadwinner model.* Traditionally and still “informally”, the adult male is the provider, who is financially responsible for the family (Moreno and Crespo, 2005). Greek labour law protects full-time careers that are generally taken by males, thus leaving little space for dual-earnership.

b) *Female participation in employment.* Recent OECD statistics show that in the last ten years, despite small increases (e.g. 8,040 more females in the labour force in 2009 than 2008) (INE GSEE Annual Report, 2010), female employment in Greece remains significantly lower (47%) than the average of OECD countries (57%). Low female

employment has been associated with low care assistance, which retain women at home as the main carers of children, the elderly and the frail (Papalexandris, 1997; Lyberaki, 2010). As argued by Stavrou and Ierodiakonou (2011:164), many Greek women are socially convinced that their role is to be a homemaker. Such conformity to the perceived subjective norms is reflected through weak attachment to employment.

c) *Youth unemployment.* “Youth cohabitation” with parents until their early thirties, a Greco-Italian contemporary phenomenon and currently also increasing in the UK and other EU countries, retains the extended dependant household model, which has been described by Andreotti *et al.* (2001).

d) *Rigidity of the labour market.* Labour laws have long normalised full-time employment and segmented the workforce. Additionally, a strong union presence, which opposes FWAs, reinforces full-time employment as the desired working mode (Chapter 3 and 4). Furthermore, corruption, as illustrated via high levels of no-contract employment and illegal flexibility, defines Greek labour relations and therefore FWAs (Kouzis, 2001).

Consistent with the dual labour market theory (Piore, 1971), which prescribes two well-defined labour sectors (good and bad jobs), Greece is characterised by having:

1. a full-time and permanent work-force, core employees, or “insiders” (both males and females);
2. a flexible workforce with weak attachment to employment, either due to personal reasons or lack of choice, who are the “outsiders” (Andreotti, 2001:55) and form the bulk of a secondary labour market (mainly females and youths).

The previous empirical studies (Chapters 4 and 5) have highlighted that FWAs in Greece are associated with lower skill jobs, higher insecurity and specific social groups (i.e. students and females) with weak attachment to employment and difficulties in entering the market, therefore characterising secondary labourers. Thus, a step that can

confirm the placement of FWAs into a secondary labour market is the examination of the job quality of flexible workers. We start by defining job quality.

6.3 Job quality

The literature presents several measures and definitions of job quality, which suggest mixed views on what it encompasses. Nonetheless, a broad consensus exists on one component: pay, measured in terms of hourly wages or annual earnings (Foley and Swartz, 2003; McDonald *et al.*, 2009).

Among the multidimensional scales proposed, Jencks *et al.* (1998), created a job quality scale from a U.S. survey based on characteristics, such as wages, education, training, vocation, control over hours and unionisation. Similarly, Loprest (1999), based on the National Study of America's Family (NSAF), used wages, hours of work, occupation, industry and benefits, just as Foley and Swartz (2003) concentrated on job attributes such as wages, weekly hours and job stability.

By contrast, Chalmers *et al.* (2005) argued that the length of service and commute, prestige/social class and similar characteristics related to the employee (McDonald *et al.*, 2009) are crucial when measuring job quality. Other job and individual components suggested in the literature heavily depend on the perspective of the study. Economists tend to concentrate on wage-related elements, whereas psychologists tend to focus on life/job satisfaction and self-fulfilment. The latter highlight employees' subjective satisfaction with their jobs and rely on self-assessed qualities and self-reported measures.

The difference in focuses suggests two-component measures: on one hand, objective measures, mainly dealing with the job itself (e.g. reported hours worked, wage, industry, sector), and on the other, subjective measures, heavily depending on employee's perceptions of the job (e.g. fulfilment, satisfaction, interesting activities). Extensive literature has been devoted to the significance of one group over the other. Although

Clark (2005) asserted that both subjective and objective components are crucial in order to measure job quality, some authors have also argued that the use of subjective well-being reports and self-reported job quality criteria (Burgess, 2005; Handel, 2005) is problematic when attempting to measure job quality. Following Foley and Swartz (2003), it is assumed that three main dimensions are needed to identify job quality:

- a) Nature of work and overall work environment
- b) Future job prospects
- c) Any kind of compensation employees receive for the work they do.

In the current study, objective components of job quality, which relate to the nature of job, compensation and the job itself are used. Thus hourly pay, role and years in the organisation and work hours are used to measure job quality.

6.3.1 Job quality and FWAs

The quality of flexible jobs is largely a product of the reasons for which FWAs are offered. A growing body of literature (Atkinson and Gregory, 1986; Kalleberg *et al.*, 2000; Kalleberg, 2003; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010) suggests that organisations benefit from adopting FWAs. However, not all outcomes of FWAs are of benefit to both employees and employers.

An employee-centred approach focuses on FWAs that facilitate employees to accommodate their needs and can create a positive organisational climate and solid employment relations. In this context, benefits to the organisation have also been identified: decreased turnover (Baylin *et al.*, 2001; Stavrou, 2005), higher retention of core employees (Kalleberg, 2003), employee engagement, improved productivity and performance (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2006). Employee-centred FWAs are usually a matter of choice and thus associated with desirable work conditions (Kalleberg *et al.*, 2000), which

in the Greek labour market have been linked to telework, work from home and flexitime, in positions of higher autonomy and pay (“free professionals”) (Mills, 1951).

By contrast, an employer-centred approach is heavily, or even solely, based on employers’ needs. Employers adopt FWAs mainly for productivity and performance enhancement, cost cutting and leaner initiatives. The problematic element is imposition (Albion, 2004) or lack of choice (de Menezes and Kelliher, 2011). In this context, negative outcomes for both sides have been observed, such as increased turnover, sense of “disposable employees”, unsuccessful selection due to inefficient recruitment processes (Kalleberg, 2003), unauthorised hiring, and in many cases non-contractual employment relations, job instability and insecurity. Most importantly, the polarisation between primary and secondary employees and thus between insiders and outsiders is highlighted (Kalleberg, 2003). Employer-centred FWAs are often “unsocial or anti-social” and thus comprise bad jobs or a secondary market (Piore, 1971; Kalleberg *et al.*, 2000). Common forms of FWAs that have been associated with a secondary labour market are shifts, loaded overtimes, job-sharing, and temporary contracts.

It would therefore be expected to see both categories of FWAs coexisting but linked to different employers’ perceptions. Hence, employer-centred forms would more likely reflect employers’ prioritising productivity, cutting labour costs and driving business outcomes, in relation to their employees’ WLB, engagement and retention. Employer-centred forms are then more likely to be associated with lower job quality, while employee-centred forms, which have been linked to job satisfaction (Dex and Scheibl, 1999; Glass and Finley, 2002; Kelly *et al.*, 2008), would be associated with good jobs (higher job quality and a primary sector). In a labour market, all forms of FWAs are available, but their proportion varies: in more developed economies, the primary market is larger and hence more employee-centred work arrangements are offered; in peripheral

economies, such as Greece and other southern EU countries, the reverse would be expected.

6.3.2 Job quality of FWAs in the Greek labour market

Improving job quality is a long-term EU objective and the variance in job quality across members has been raising concerns. According to the European Commission (2001), Greece has low levels of job quality, especially around FWAs, low job-satisfaction in part-time work, high volume of involuntary temporary contracts, high job insecurity and an over-representation in low pay/productivity and dead-end jobs (fixed-term or short-term contracts, informal contracts, without any employer-provided training). OECD (2007) showed that while in other EU members FWAs and specifically part-time employment were linked to positive results and employee satisfaction, in Greece this does not apply. Employment in Europe (2008) highlighted the increased volume of part-time and temporary contracts in an involuntarily basis and as a path to full-time employment.

Consistent with findings based on the aforementioned international surveys as well as the general literature on FWAs, the Greek labour market describes an employer-centred orientation, which appears to date from at least two decades. Part-time and temporary dominate FWAs (Papalexandris, 1997; Mihail, 2003, 2004). Given the seasonality in agriculture and tourism, temporary employment was covering peak labour demands (Papalexandris, 1997). Large numbers of family-run businesses and of self-employed individuals and sub-contractors have been increasing the temporary workforce across industries (Voudouris, 2004). Furthermore, the low frequencies of remote working and its predominance in the public sector suggest that better quality FWAs remain rare.

As described, Greece is a peripheral, secondary economy. Our expectation in regards to FWAs are summarised in the hypotheses below.

6.4 Hypotheses

In contrast to mature labour markets in the EU, where different forms of FWAs are more evenly distributed, the Greek labour market is largely divided into: (1) a primary market, characterised by full-time employment, and FWAs, perceived as employee-friendly, of higher quality, yet rare (telework and homework were described as non-existent (Mihail, 2004)); (2) a secondary market that together with bad full-time jobs includes the bulk of flexible working. As an immature labour market, employers would be expected to make FWAs available in order to optimise short-term business opportunities, rather than focusing on expected long-term benefit FWAs that are likely to be mediated by employee attitudinal outcomes (e.g. engagement, commitment, selection, personnel improvement). In such a context, we would expect companies to adopt FWAs mainly for their own short-term benefits. Therefore,

Hypothesis 1. Employers' reasons for adopting FWAs are predominantly centred on profit-making, increasing competitiveness and acquiring expertise.

Employers' reasons for offering FWAs influence the availability of FWAs in the labour market. Thus, we would expect:

Hypothesis 2. In Greece, most FWAs are employer-centred.

Furthermore, given the low satisfaction and lack of choice associated with certain types of FWAs (part-time and temporary) that Greek employees have expressed (European Commission, 2001; EWCS, 2007; EQLS, 2007), in Greece, we expect:

Hypothesis 3. Employees' perceptions of FWAs are negative.

Finally, in the secondary labour market that would follow from the previous hypotheses, we would also expect that in Greece,

Hypothesis 4. There is a negative association between employee use of FWAs and job quality.

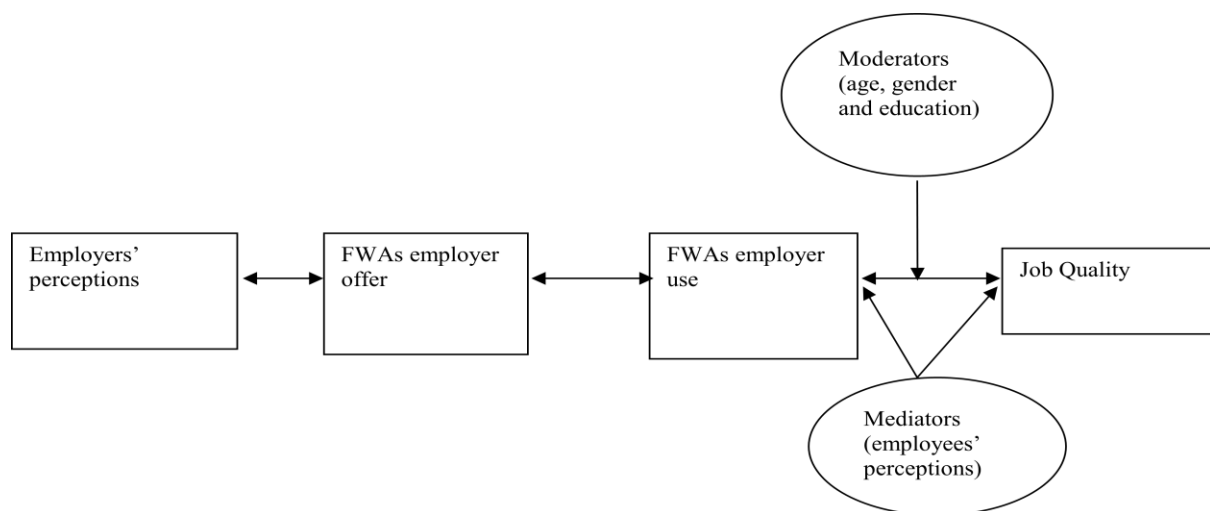
Hypothesis 4a. This association is mediated by employees' perceptions of FWAs.

Hypothesis 4b. The strength of this association varies for different groups of employees.

Hypothesis 4c. More specifically, flexible workers are those who have difficulties or perceive themselves as in difficulty to attract good jobs (unskilled, uneducated, newcomers to the job market among these youths and mothers).

Figure 6-1 graphically summarises the hypothesised associations and does not imply causality.

Figure 6-1. Summary of the Hypotheses



6.5 The Study

6.5.1 Data

Similar to Chapter 5, GDFW was used in this chapter. The questions of the survey that correspond to the dependent and independent variables are shown in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1: Independent and dependent variables

Independent variables	Type of variable	Questions in the GDFW
Sector	categorical	The organization is: Private/Public/Non-profit
Size	categorical	How many people does your organisation employ?
Gender	categorical	Are you male or female?
Marital status	categorical	Which of the following describes your current status?
Educational level	categorical	What is the highest level of education that you have successfully completed?
Age	categorical	How old are you?
Employees' perceptions	binary	Would you be interested in any of the FWAs above? If interested in FWAs, which of these options best describe your feelings towards FWAs? If not interested, which of these options best describe your feelings towards FWAs?
Employers' perceptions	binary	Among all the potential reasons for FWAs programs, how according to your opinion your organisation would rank the reasons below? Among the reasons for having temporary employees, how according to your opinion your organisation would rank the reasons below?
Dependent variables		Questions in the survey
FWAs employee use	categorical	If you personally needed any of the following arrangements, would they be available to you? YES/NO/ALREADY USE
Job Quality (JQ)	Latent variable	4 indicators: wage, hours worked, years in the organisation and role

6.5.2 Measures

Employers' reasons for adopting FWAs were classified into two categories: a) employer-centred reasons (drive business results, improve scheduling and covering, ensure

consistency, knowledge transmission, and innovation acquisition), and b) employee-centred reasons (retaining core employees, enhancing employee engagement, supported by CEO/Executives, assist with recruitment, requested by the employees and ensure consistency among the departments and employees of the organisation). Each reason was measured in a 5-point scale (1-strongly disagree; 5-strongly agree) that conveyed the manager's agreement with the statement.

FWAs employers offer was measured by the number of different FWAs available to employees: 0 to 8, with 0 denoting no offer. That is, if we consider an organisation where three different types of FWAs are on offer to employees (e.g. Part-time working, shifts and temporary employment), this variable takes the value 3. By contrast, in an organisation where employees cannot work flexibly, this variable is equal to 0.

FWAs employees use was measured by a binary variable that indicates whether employees use FWAs in any form (with 1 = use and 0 = not use), combining information from different forms of FWAs, namely part-time and temporary employment, job sharing, shifts, condensed hours, phased return, work from/at home, flexitime, increase/reduce working hours. We note that some FWAs were rarely used and the analyses of specific types would significantly restrict sample sizes.

Job Quality Indicators were a) hourly pay, where the amount of working hours was asked; b) number of years working in the organisation (How many years have you been working in the current organisation); c) role in the organisation (manual worker, admin/clerk/secretary, technical/professional, junior manager/supervisor, manager and finally d) hours worked per day excluding over-time.

Employees' perceptions of FWAs were inferred by their interest or lack of interest in FWAs. Binary variables indicated reasons for interest in FWAs (positive perceptions: better WLB, life satisfaction and coping with children, not the main breadwinner, student,

able to afford FWAs due to other sources of income, more productive when flexible, better control over the work day) and reasons for lack of interest (negative perceptions: household needs two full-time salaries, limited career prospects, pay is not worth, synonym to inferior employment, overqualified, waste of time, ideologically against flexible options).

Another group of independent variables describes individual characteristics of employees: *gender* (male-female), *age* (18-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 55 and above), *marital status* (married or living with a partner, single or living alone), *education level* (No education, Primary, Secondary, Tertiary education), *size of the organisation in which the employee works* (small companies had from 0 to 200 employees and large ones were from 201 to 20,000 employees) and *sector of the organisation in which the employee works* (public or private).

6.5.3 Data analysis procedure

Following Figure 6-1, we can decompose the hypotheses in a sequence of stages:

1:Examining employers' perceptions of FWAs

An initial examination of employers' perceptions of FWAs (Hypothesis 1) was undertaken through an ANOVA of employer's reasons for making FWAs available to employees. The aim was to compare the degree of agreement on benefits perceived by the managers among the two categories (employer versus employee-centred) and assess which category was considered more important. In order to account for the repeated observations per organisation, random (organisation) effects were included in the model, which was estimated using MPlus. As a second step, t-tests were utilised for the degree of agreement of each employers' perception to test whether their mean values were 3 (indifferent) or higher (4-agreement, 5-strong agreement). This was done in order to

ensure validity of the results and to gain an indication of the ranking for the degree of agreement regarding each perception.

2: Assessing the most common FWAs forms in Greece

A similar ANOVA examined whether FWAs were primarily employee- or employer-centred (Hypothesis 2). Since the questionnaire included indicator variables for the offering of ten forms of FWAs, they were categorised into two groups: employer-centred (i.e. temporary and part-time employment, job sharing, shifts, condensed hours and phased return) and employee-centred (namely: flexitime, work from/at home and employees' capability to increase/reduce work hours based on their needs). A binary variable was created for each form of FWA and logistic regressions were used to model the probability of offering FWAs. Again, organisation random effects were incorporated to handle potential clustering.

3: Examining employees' interest in FWAs in Greece

Whether employees had a negative perception of FWAs (Hypothesis 3) was assessed by comparing frequencies of interest/no interest in FWAs. In addition, frequencies of each separate reason for interest and lack of interest (positive/negative employee perceptions) in FWAs were examined separately in order to assess the reasoning behind the percentages of interest/lack of interest reached, thus validating the overall test.

4: Measuring Job Quality (JQ)

Core to our data analysis is the assessment of the association between FWAs and job quality. An initial step is the development of a measure of JQ, via a confirmatory factor analysis. In a one-factor model, the manifest variables (role, hourly pay, years in organisation, average hours worked per day) are assumed to be continuous, approximately normal and independent given a common factor JQ, which is therefore

responsible for the correlation between these manifest variables. The obtained scores on this common factor (JQ) for each employee in the sample were then used to assess the subsequent hypotheses. Goodness-of-fit was assessed via the following indexes: RMSEA, Comparative Fix Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996; Hu and Bentler, 1999).

5: Examining the association between FWAs employees use and Job Quality (JQ)

The estimated common factor (JQ) is used as the dependent variable in Figure 1, and the independent variables being FWAs employees use (Hypothesis 4) and employee characteristics (age, gender, education) (Hypotheses 4b and 4c). FWAs employees use is also a dependent variable, when the link with FWAs employers offer and the remaining covariates was assessed. Organisation random effects were also included in both path regression models to account for the variability across different companies.

6: Examining employees' perceptions as mediators to JQ and FWAs employees use

A separate path regression analysis was used to examine the mediating effect of employees' perceptions to JQ and FWAs employees use (Hypothesis 4a) in order to assess the effect of employees' perceptions as potential mediators, with age, gender and education included as potential moderators (Hypothesis 4b). The reason for addressing this aspect separately was that some perceptions were recorded for employees interested in FWAs and some for those not interested in FWAs. Hence, employees' perceptions refer to different subsets of the population.

7: Examining employees' characteristics as potential moderators of the association between JQ and FWAs employees use

Three individual characteristics were further tested as moderators in the relationship between JQ and FWAs employees use (Hypothesis 4b) via multiple group analysis with

the use of M-Plus. Multiple group analysis allows the use of different models for different groups (i.e. males versus females, older versus younger and higher versus lower educated employees) and the comparison between them in order to assess significances of each group. Therefore, the dataset was split according to:

- Age. Two groups were created, which were: respondents up to 44 years old and respondents over 44 years old. The categorisation was made based on the Greek literature on FWAs and dual labour market theory, which argue for differences between these age groups in regards to FWAs employees use and interest mainly due to family obligations (e.g. females considering FWAs due to children going to school and therefore having more needs or males interested in flexitime in order to accommodate during the workday both work obligations and family needs, such as picking up children from school, etc.). More specifically, a number of females around the age of 30 are leaving the market for childcare, especially in the countries of Southern Europe, such as Greece and Spain. It is expected that around the age of 40-45 (closer to 45 normally) females try to enter or re-enter the market as their children have grown up and have less needs (OECD, 2007, 2010). The age of 44 was therefore chosen as a benchmark, in order to capture the gap of these females and their effort to enter or re-enter the market.

- Gender (males versus females) was the second group to be assessed in regards FWAs employees use and job quality.

- Education was the third employee characteristic taken into consideration. The categorisation was based on employees who obtain basic (elementary and secondary) education and those who have university and postgraduate (higher) educations.

In order to assess the extent to which the above factors are moderators to the association between JQ and FWAs use, the procedure used essentially compares two

models. For example, if gender is a moderator, this would imply a model that allows for different JQ and FWAs use associations for males and females. On the other hand, a model that assumes that these associations are the same for males and females would not fit the data as well. Hence, in order to test for the moderating effect of gender, a comparison between a pair of models is made. A similar formulation is followed for age and education in each of the groups defined above (older versus younger employees and employees with basic education versus employees with higher/university education). In our analysis we conducted these tests via the DIFFTEST procedure in MPLUS that conducts a test on whether the two models mentioned above are equivalent. The results are presented in the next sections.

6.5.4 Results

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics are summarised below in Table 6-2, where numbers and percentages of the most important variables can be found.⁷

Table 6-2: Observed frequencies

JQ indicators	Percent	Negative Employees Perceptions	Percent	Positive Employees Perceptions	Percent	Reasons for offer	Percent
Role in organisation (n=481)	45% are managers (senior and junior)	Households need two full-time salaries (n=196)	40.6	WLB and life satisfaction	75	Improve scheduling and covering (n=339)	70.2
Working hours (n=483)	8 on average (35.6%)	Synonymous to inferior employment (n=138)	28.6	Better control over work day (n=60)	12.4	Retain core employees (n=204)	60
Hourly pay (n=479)	49.7% between 5,50-10 Euros	FWAs is not worth (n=129)	26.8	Cope better with children (n=55)	11	Drive business results (n=183)	42.2

⁷ Numbers and percentages of variables relevant to this chapter can also be found in Chapter 5, Table 5-4 (such as FWAs employee use and demand, FWAs employer offer, gender, WLB, life satisfaction, role in the organisation) and also in Table 3-9, Chapter 3.

Years in organisati on (n=489)	40% 10 years or more	Not good career prospects (n=71)	14.7	Employees do not request it (n=162)	33.5
				Enhance employee engagement (n=61)	12.6
				Competitors have it (n=19)	3.9

1: Examining employers' perceptions of FWAs

Employer-centred FWAs were more highly rated by managers than those perceived to be employee-centred. The former category showed an increase in degree of agreement (rating) of 0.24 (p-value .004) compared to the latter. We therefore accept Hypothesis 1. Table 6-3 shows t-tests of the average ranking (degree of agreement) per perceptions of why FWAs should be adopted. We recall that ratings are on a scale of 1-5, with 1 indicating strong disagreement, 3 indicating indifference, and 5 a strong agreement. Table 6-3 contains the results from one tailed t-tests where the alternative hypothesis was being greater than 3 for each FWA form. In line with the examination of employers' reasons for FWAs (Hypothesis 1), we note that positive and statistically significant t-values correspond to reasons that favour employers (e.g. Improve scheduling and covering and drive business results). In this context, the indifference towards employees' requests for FWAs emphasise a lack of concern towards the needs of employees.

Table 6-3: T-tests on employers' reasons for FWAs

Employers' reasons for offering FWAs	t-value	Sig. (1-tailed)
Retain core employees	3.268	.002
Enhance employee engagement	3.300	.001
Assist with recruitment	3.503	.001
Employees request it	.166	.435
Drive business results	5.648	.000
Improve scheduling and covering	6.688	.000
Ensure consistency	3.340	.001
CEO or executive-driven	-.205	.420
Expertise transmitting	1.899	.034
Innovation acquisition	2.547	.008

2: Assessing the most common FWAs forms in Greece

Employer-centred forms of FWAs were more likely to be offered or considered to be offered in the near future than employee-centred forms. Employer-centred FWAs were also more likely to be used by employees. As illustrated in Table 6-4 below, temporary employment was the most common form of FWAs used by employees (14.4%), part-time work was used by 10.1% of respondents, followed by shifts (3.1%), phased return (1.8%) and condensed hours (0.4%). Employee-centred forms were less common. For example, flexitime was offered on an ad hoc and informal basis in 6.6% of the companies, while employees were able to work from/at home in only 1.5%. Options to increase (0.7%) and decrease (0.4%) work hours were similarly low. These results illustrate a predominance of employer-centred forms both in employee use and employer offers. We therefore have evidence in support of Hypothesis 2.

Table 6-4: Frequencies of Use of FWAs - GDFW

FWAs form	Observed Frequencies of Use of FWAs
1. Employer-centered forms	
Part-time	10.1%
Temporary	14.4%
Job sharing	0.6%
Shifts	3%
Condensed hours	0.4%
Phased return	2.1%
2. Employee-centred forms	
Flexitime	6.2%
Telework or Work from Home	1.4%
Increase work hours	0.6%
Decrease work hours	0.2%

3: Examining employees' interest in FWAs in Greece

The majority of the employees who participated in the survey (56% of the respondents) stated that they were not interested in any FWA. An additional 16% could see some advantages of FWAs, but in the meantime various disadvantages. Among reasons for lack of interest in FWAs, the main were that: their households need two full-time salaries (40.6%), FWAs are synonymous with inferior employment (28.6%) and the pay of FWAs is not worth it (26.8%). These reasons are consistent with the main characteristic of a secondary labour market, i.e.: low pay. We therefore have evidence in support that employees' perceptions of FWAs in Greece are predominantly negative (Hypothesis 3).

4: Measuring Job Quality (JQ)

The measurement of JQ was obtained by a confirmatory factor analysis, which assumes that the correlations between the items are captured by – in this case – a single latent variable. In other words, the latent variable that is being modelled absorbs all the common features of the four items and therefore reflects JQ. Table 6-5 summarises this model and

goodness-of-fit. Table 6-5 indicates that the model is a good fit to the data, as judged by the following goodness-of-fit statistics: RMSEA: 0.027 (less than .05 thus indicating a very good fit); Comparative Fix Index (CFI): .984 and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI): .968 (both are higher than .95, thus confirming a good fit).

Table 6-5: JQ latent variable model: parameter estimates, standard errors, t-statistics and goodness-of-fit

	Estimate	S.E.	t	Two-tailed p-value
JQ BY				
Years in organisation	1.000	-	-	-
Role in the organisation	1.015	0.265	3.836	0.000
Hourly pay	2.091	0.442	4.727	0.000
Working hours	2.047	0.578	3.540	0.000
N= 483 CFI:0.984; TLI:0.968; RMSEA: 0.027				

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

5: Examining the association between FWAs employee use and JQ

As indicated in Table 6-6 below, overall the association between FWAs employees use and JQ is significant (at a 1% level) and negative (-.272), providing support for Hypothesis 4.

Table 6-6: Path regression model on FWAs employee use and JQ (n=475)

JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	SE
FWAs employee use ***	-0.272	0.067
Gender	-0.147	0.097
Age ***	0.255	0.052
Marital status *	-0.106	0.063
Education ***	0.279	0.068
Size	-0.014	0.131
Sector	-0.104	0.109
FWAs employee use (as dependent variable)		
FWAs employer offer ***	0.203	0.074
Gender **	0.331	0.164
Age **	-0.287	0.140

Marital status	0.258	0.185
Education	0.026	0.139
Size **	0.596	0.278
Sector	0.255	0.255

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

6: Examining employees' perceptions as mediators to JQ and FWAs employees use

With regard to Hypothesis 4a, the mediation effect of employees' perceptions was not supported in most cases. It is noteworthy at this point to mention that we examined for partial mediating effects. Hence, evidence for a mediating effect of an employees' perception on JQ and FWAs employees use would occur if there is a statistically significant association (either positive or negative) between a perception and JQ and, at the same time, a statistically significant association between this perception and FWAs employees use. This can be checked for each of employees' perception in Tables 6-7, 6-8, 6-9, 6-10, 6-11 and 6-12. It is important also to note that interest is concentrated on associations which show a stronger evidence of mediating effect, i.e. association, where the p-value is lower than 5%

Table 6-7 examines the mediating effect of positive employee perceptions on JQ and FWAs employee use between males and females. Although, no mediating effect is supported (as no perception is associated with JQ and FWAs employee use neither for males nor for females), important relationships are highlighted. More specifically, Table 6-7 indicates that for males, the job quality FWAs is linked to “work more productively during the workday”, whereas for females the job quality of FWAs is mainly associated to “better WLB”. Table 6-7 further shows that employee use of FWAs for females is associated positively (.888) with the perception “not the main breadwinners”.

Table 6-7: Path Regression Model for JQ and FWAs employee use with positive employee perceptions as mediators for males and females

Table Group: Males (n=133)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	SE
FWAs employee use	-0.109	0.106
Not the breadwinner *	-0.684	0.383
Other sources of income	-0.288	0.226
Work more productively ***	0.700	0.232
Better control over workday	0.188	0.180
Work-Life Balance	-0.176	0.235
Life satisfaction **	-0.466	0.198
Cope better with children ***	0.667	0.252
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
Not the breadwinner	2.235	1.897
Other sources of income	1.413	1.181
Work more productively	-0.027	0.339
Better control over workday	-0.202	0.460
Work-Life Balance	0.830	0.569
Life satisfaction	0.939	0.591
Cope better with children	-1.151	0.946
Group: Females (n= 177)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use **	-0.417	0.168
Not the breadwinner	0.096	0.264
Other sources of income	-0.291	0.184
Work more productively	0.213	0.256
Better control over workday	0.196	0.211
Work-Life Balance **	-0.264	0.125
Life satisfaction	0.234	0.163
Cope better with children	0.015	0.222
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
Not the breadwinner **	0.888	0.348
Other sources of income	-0.181	0.435
Work more productively	-0.021	0.265
Better control over workday **	0.563	0.263
Work-Life Balance	-0.340	0.336
Life satisfaction	0.081	0.261
Cope better with children	-0.475	0.360

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

Table 6-8 provides evidence of a mediating effect from negative perceptions, although this potential effect is not strong enough. As shown in the table, the perception “FWAs are synonymous to unemployment” is positively associated both with JQ (.277) and FWAs employee use (.744) in the group of females, thus demonstrating a mediating effect of this particular perception. However, evidence is not strong (p-value more than 5% for the association of this perception with JQ), and therefore cannot argue for complete and strong mediating effect of the perception.

Table 6-8: Path Regression Model for JQ and FWAs employee use with negative employee perceptions as mediators for males and females

Group: Males (n= 131)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	SE
FWAs employee use ***	-0.256	0.091
FWAs interest	0.282	0.254
Pay not worth	0.004	0.144
Household needs two salaries	-0.222	0.193
Bad career prospects	-0.051	0.176
Waste of time	0.088	5.907
FWAs synonymous to underemployment	-0.008	0.167
Too qualified for FWAs **	0.499	0.216
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs interest	0.155	0.465
Pay not worth	-0.155	0.472
Household needs two salaries	-0.282	0.365
Bad career prospects	0.087	0.409
Waste of time	-0.044	23.173
FWAs synonymous to underemployment	-0.255	0.273
Too qualified for FWAs	-0.328	0.483
Group: Females (n=142)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use ***	-0.466	0.112
FWAs interest	-0.015	0.149
Pay not worth	0.062	0.099
Household needs two salaries	-0.016	0.133
Bad career prospects	0.027	0.117

Waste of time	0.274	73.004
FWAs synonymous to underemployment *	0.277	0.150
Too qualified for FWAs	0.023	0.162
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs interest	-0.070	0.243
Pay not worth	0.139	0.171
Household needs two salaries	0.127	0.210
Bad career prospects	0.105	0.241
Waste of time	-0.151	156.733
FWAs synonymous to underemployment ***	0.744	0.186
Too qualified for FWAs	-0.081	0.327

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*)

Table 6-9 shows no mediation effect of perceptions between younger and older employees. However, an interesting finding reported in the table is with regard to the link between FWAs employees use and JQ in the group of older employees. Table 6-9 illustrates a negative association (-.355) between JQ and FWAs employee use in the case of older employees with a p-value less than 1%, whereas the evidence for this association when compared with employees of younger ages is less striking (p-value between 5% and 10%).

Table 6-9: Path Regression Model for JQ and FWAs employee use with positive employee perceptions as mediators for younger and older employees

Group: Young employees (n=138)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	S.E.
FWAs employee use *	-0.205	0.116
Not the breadwinner	-1.239	11.852
Other sources of income	0.066	0.397
Work more productively	0.314	0.252
Better control over workday	0.004	0.205
Work-Life Balance	-0.240	0.195
Life satisfaction	-0.117	0.184
Cope better with children	0.132	0.227
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
Not the breadwinner	0.264	60.040
Other sources of income	-0.015	0.430

Work more productively	-0.005	0.354
Better control over workday *	0.532	0.301
Work-Life Balance	-0.083	0.442
Life satisfaction	0.095	0.322
Cope better with children *	-0.998	0.533
Group: Older employees (n=123)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use ***	-0.355	0.130
Not the breadwinner	0.062	0.258
Other sources of income	-0.415	0.308
Work more productively *	0.530	0.287
Better control over workday	0.146	0.217
Work-Life Balance	-0.109	0.134
Life satisfaction *	0.286	0.165
Cope better with children	0.256	0.282
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
Not the breadwinner	0.530	0.490
Other sources of income	0.279	0.404
Work more productively	-0.128	0.261
Better control over workday	-0.196	0.440
Work-Life Balance	0.107	0.313
Life satisfaction	0.447	0.385
Cope better with children	-0.019	0.367

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*)

Table 6-8 indicates no mediating effect of the negative perceptions examined between younger and older employees. However, it is worth mentioning that in Table 6-10 once again for older employees, JQ is negatively associated with the FWAs employees use (-.295), indicating that older employees are those whose job quality of FWAs is lower. Furthermore, for the same group of employees, the perception “household needs two salaries” is negatively associated with JQ (-.258). In a similar vein, the perception “FWAs are synonymous to underemployment” is positively associated to FWAs employees use (.383), indicating that older employees who use FWAs consider themselves as being in positions of inferior employment.

Table 6-10: Path Regression Model for JQ and FWAs employee use with negative employee perceptions as mediators for younger and older employees

Group: Young employees (n=166)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	S.E.
FWAs employee use ***	-0.472	0.149
FWAs interest	-0.125	0.183
Pay not worth	-0.049	0.128
Household needs two salaries	-0.066	0.160
Bad career prospects	-0.156	0.188
Waste of time	0.138	33.399
FWAs are synonymous to underemployment	0.030	0.148
Too qualified for FWAs	0.326	0.209
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs interest	-0.004	0.426
Pay not worth	0.417	0.310
Household needs two salaries	-0.163	0.314
Bad career prospects *	-0.467	0.245
Waste of time	-0.082	71.884
FWAs are synonymous to underemployment *	0.534	0.274
Too qualified for FWAs	-0.273	0.367
Group: Older employees (n=92)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use ***	-0.295	0.068
FWAs interest	0.074	0.120
Pay not worth	0.096	0.094
Household needs two salaries **	-0.258	0.112
Bad career prospects	0.165	0.149
Waste of time	0.117	11.421
FWAs are synonymous to underemployment	0.124	0.181
Too qualified for FWAs	0.250	0.166
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs interest	0.080	0.297
Pay not worth	-0.149	0.226
Household needs two salaries	0.249	0.351
Bad career prospects *	0.569	0.312
Waste of time	-0.050	38.847
FWAs are synonymous to underemployment**	0.383	0.193
Too qualified for FWAs	-0.221	0.299

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

Table 6-11 does not provide support for mediating effect. Similar to the previous tables, interesting associations are reported in the table. More specifically, Table 6-11 shows that for those employees in basic (elementary/secondary) education, FWAs use is positively associated with WLB (.882), whereas the same relationship for employees of higher education the relationship is negative (-.391). Furthermore, the JQ of higher education employees is negatively associated with FWAs employees use (-.455), suggesting that employees of higher education are negatively associated with the use of FWAs.

Table 6-11: Path Regression Model for JQ and FWAs employee use with positive employee perceptions as mediators for employees with basic and employees with higher/university education

Group: Basic (elementary/secondary education) (n=30)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	S.E.
FWAs employee use	-0.254	0.183
Other sources of income	0.006	14765.03
Work more productively	0.541	0.765
Better control over workday	-0.282	0.954
Work-Life Balance	1.447	0.958
Life satisfaction	1.095	0.755
Cope better with children	0.306	0.469
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
Other sources of income	-0.028	38.567
Work more productively	-0.121	1.261
Better control over workday	-0.148	1.428
Work-Life Balance **	0.882	0.449
Life satisfaction	0.200	1.269
Cope better with children	-0.262	0.916
FWAs employer offer	0.137	0.216
Group: University and Higher education employees (n=143)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use ***	-0.455	0.165
Other sources of income	-0.205	0.166
Work more productively	0.407	0.266
Better control over workday	0.155	0.153
Work-Life Balance **	-0.391	0.160
Life satisfaction	0.040	0.135

Cope better with children	0.116	0.154
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
Other sources of income	0.181	0.272
Work more productively	-0.157	0.217
Better control over workday	0.249	0.260
Work-Life Balance	-0.088	0.232
Life satisfaction	0.325	0.219
Cope better with children **	-0.484	0.199
FWAs employer offer	0.135	0.108

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

Finally, Table 6-12 provides evidence for partial mediation of the perception “too qualified for FWAs”. For employees of higher education, the association of this perception appears to be negatively associated to employee use of FWAs (-.370) and also positively associated with JQ (.411), highlighting a mediating effect. However, the effect is not particularly strong with regard to FWAs employees use (p-values less between 5% and 10%), thus not supporting strong mediation.

Table 6-12: Path Regression Model for JQ and FWAs employee use with negative employee perceptions as mediators for employees with basic and employees with higher/university education

Group : Basic education employees (n=86)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	S.E.
FWAs employee use ***	-0.364	0.113
FWAs interest	0.156	0.345
Pay not worth	0.034	0.339
Household needs two salaries	-0.050	0.289
Bad career prospects	-0.216	0.368
FWAs are underemployment	0.459	0.310
Too qualified for FWAs	-0.153	16.947
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs interest	0.332	0.638
Pay not worth	-0.142	0.725
Household needs two salaries	0.126	0.530
Bad career prospects	-1.043	0.894
FWAs are underemployment ***	1.076	0.305
Too qualified for FWAs	-0.032	46.616

FWAs employer offer	0.159	0.157
Group: University and Higher Education employees (n=233)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use ***	-0.441	0.087
FWAs interest	0.030	0.126
Pay not worth	0.051	0.116
Household needs two salaries	-0.092	0.120
Bad career prospects	-0.095	0.139
FWAs are underemployment	0.031	0.122
Too qualified for FWAs **	0.411	0.170
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs interest	0.259	0.323
Pay not worth	0.008	0.179
Household needs two salaries	-0.057	0.183
Bad career prospects	0.195	0.182
FWAs are underemployment	0.305	0.202
Too qualified for FWAs *	-0.370	0.221
FWAs employer offer ***	0.278	0.067

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

The above table shows either weak or no mediation with regard to FWAs employees use, JQ and negative and positive employees' perceptions on FWAs. Thus, mediation is not supported. We therefore reject hypothesis 4a. However, the tables include important results on perceptions of employees on FWAs, as these have been described in this stage.

7: Examining employees' characteristics as potential moderators of the association between JQ and FWAs employees use

As for individual characteristics as potential moderators of the association between FWAs employees use and JQ, Diff. Tests based on the analysis of each nested group showed no evidence of variation in the strength of the association for gender, age and education. In particular, results were:

First, the Diff. Test on JQ and FWA employee use between males and females was .2723, providing no support for moderation, implying that for both groups the relationship between JQ and FWAs employees use is negative.

In a similar vein, Diff. Test for older and younger employees shows no moderation (Diff. Test=.503), as JQ was significant for younger and older employees and negatively associated with FWAs employees use.

Similar to the previous groups, education did not moderate the relationship between FWA employees use and JQ, as the Diff. Test was .2323.

Thus, due to no further evidence in support of Hypothesis 4b, we reject it.

With regard to Hypothesis 4c stating that flexible workers are those who have difficulties or perceive themselves as in difficulty to attract good jobs (unskilled, uneducated, newcomers to the job market among these youths and mothers). Tables 6-13 and 6-14 specifically highlight evidence for the hypothesis. More specifically, Table 6-13 indicates that for the group females, age is significant and negatively associated with FWAs employees use, which suggests that females, and in particular younger females, are more likely to use FWAs.

Table 6-13: Path regression model with gender as moderator

Group: Males (n=187)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	SE
FWAs employee use ***	-0.192	0.063
Age **	0.211	0.091
Marital status	-0.133	0.129
Education ***	0.333	0.108
Size	-0.169	0.204
Sector	-0.185	0.161
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs employer offer	0.114	0.132
Age	-0.225	0.201
Marital status	0.179	0.250

Education	0.188	0.210
Size	0.509	0.345
Sector	0.108	0.350
Group: Females (n=288)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use ***	-0.308	0.084
Marital status ***	0.280	0.058
Age	-0.083	0.094
Education ***	0.222	0.076
Size	0.092	0.160
Sector	-0.058	0.138
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs employer offer ***	0.248	0.068
Age*	-0.330	0.182
Marital status	0.293	0.275
Education	-0.137	0.174
Size *	0.635	0.332
Sector	0.301	0.310

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

It is also worth mentioning that in accordance with the categorisation suggested for age (groups were created for employees up to 44 and above 45), Table 6-14 indicates that for the group young employees the relationship between JQ and gender is significant and negative. This finding suggests that it is in fact younger females who have lower quality of work when compared to males. The table does not indicate the same for older employees, implying that the issue of quality is not a case for females (when compared to males) of older ages, demonstrating a difference most notably in the age group 40-44.

Table 6-14: Path regression model with age as moderator

Group: Young employees (n=176)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	SE
FWAs employee use ***	-0.310	0.080
Gender **	-0.296	0.127
Marital status	-0.091	0.111
Education ***	0.475	0.100
Size	0.091	0.195
Sector	-0.022	0.115
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs employer offer **	0.235	0.110
Gender	0.419	0.362
Marital status ***	0.546	0.184
Education	0.212	0.203
Size	0.438	0.397
Sector ***	0.985	0.348
Group: Older employees (n= 299)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use ***	-0.234	0.072
Gender	-0.103	0.124
Marital status	-0.060	0.088
Education ***	0.248	0.075
Size	-0.124	0.157
Sector	-0.168	0.144
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs employer offer **	0.154	0.067
Gender	0.403	0.249
Marital status	-0.094	0.230
Education	-0.066	0.161
Size **	0.696	0.288
Sector	-0.221	0.269

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

In Table 6-15 for the basic education group, variables gender and age are significant and gender is positively associated, whereas age is negatively associated. This suggests that the groups which are more likely to use FWAs are the unskilled females and youths, highlighting that females and youths, especially those of lower educational backgrounds,

are those social groups higher encountered at secondary employment as suggested by Hypothesis 4c. We therefore accept Hypothesis 4c.

Table 6-15: Path regression model with education as moderator

Group: Basic (elementary and secondary) education employees (n=107)		
JQ (dependent variable)	Estimate	SE
FWAs employee use ***	-0.303	0.071
Gender	-0.105	0.111
Age ***	0.257	0.048
Marital status	-0.074	0.075
Size	0.064	0.143
Sector	-0.079	0.130
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs employer offer **	0.195	0.084
Gender **	0.411	0.203
Age **	-0.280	0.138
Marital status	0.321	0.212
Size **	0.709	0.305
Sector	0.327	0.284
Group: University and higher education employees (n=368)		
JQ (dependent variable)		
FWAs employee use *	-0.160	0.096
Gender	-0.179	0.158
Age	0.148	0.192
Marital Status	-0.243	0.156
Size	-0.042	0.193
Sector	-0.249	0.222
FWAs employee use (dependent variable)		
FWAs employer offer *	0.247	0.129
Gender	0.036	0.236
Marital status	-0.307	0.253
Education	0.067	0.295
Size	0.363	0.346
Sector	0.032	0.310

Note. — Levels of significance: 1% (***), 5% (**) and 10 %(*).

6.6 Discussion

This chapter considered different forms of FWAs and how these are placed in a labour market. Differently from the rest of the literature in the Greek context, job quality is measured and its association with FWAs is analysed. In common with Voudouris (2004), it is argued that specific forms of FWAs are placed in the secondary market, namely employer-centred forms (e.g. part-time, temporary, job sharing, condensed hours, phased return), which are linked to low job quality. Employer-centred forms constitute most FWAs in Greece and as such they include all the characteristics of a secondary labour market. An examination of employers' perceptions and reasons for adopting FWAs showed that employers opt for FWAs in order to experience improvements in productivity and scheduling, business results (such as cost cutting) and technology and innovation acquisition. This in turn can trigger higher employer offering of employer-centred FWAs, implying higher availability of employer-centred flexible options and therefore higher employee use of those forms. Given this prevalence, FWAs in Greece are associated with low job quality, which is in line with similar studies conducted in more developed economies that associate FWAs with bad jobs (Kalleberg *et al.*, 2000; Brown and McDonald, 2008).

Not surprisingly, the majority of employees in the sample (56%) were not interested in FWAs. Two important factors can be associated with negative perceptions of FWAs from the employees' side: (1) the low pay/rewards; (2) a perception that FWAs are inferior employment.

Considering the Greek context, one potential reason for the prevalence of employer-centred forms of FWAs is the immaturity of the market itself. As described earlier, Greece is a peripheral economy with a rigid labour market (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001) that

lacks regulation of FWAs. In addition to a large public sector, which has created an organisational culture of lenient labour relations and work obligations, as well as low employee commitment (Lyberaki, 2010), there is a lack of robust organisational cultures in the private sector and a weak attachment to employment that can generate looser employment relationships and therefore looser working arrangements. The weak organisational identity in the southern labour markets implies higher uncertainty (Crespo and Moreno, 2001) with different implications for employees and employers. Uncertainty generates distinct attitudes: On the employers' side, FWAs facilitate the management of demand peaks, by either increasing or decreasing employment levels through part-time and temporary contracts. On the other side, employees similarly create a negative shell of perceptions around FWAs, as these are associated with high uncertainty and insecurity, further augmenting the characteristics of immature, peripheral economies. Full-time standard employment is then the desired norm and employees may trade flexibility and WLB for security.

Consequently, flexible workers form a minority who cover for, and protect, core employees who work full-time. This segmentation implies lower negotiation power, increases uncertainty and insecurity of work conditions and finally has as an outcome of lower job quality, as observed in our results. As expected, and similar to other countries of the EU, females and youths are more likely to use FWAs and therefore attract lower quality jobs. However, flexible employees do not appear to have specific characteristics. Contrary to expectations based on the dual labour market theory, FWAs do not appear to affect certain social groups, but indeed FWAs do cover bad jobs in the Greek labour market and this includes every employee accepting a flexible work option, regardless of gender, age, and educational background. Thus, FWAs constitute a matter of consideration and external factors (e.g. other income, not interested in career prospects,

etc.) for employees when accepting them. This fact could be attributed to the worsening of work conditions in Greece during the past year and therefore to the worsening of employment options. Young people who are well educated and try to enter the labour market appear to encounter most obstacles in finding entry point employment (Lampousaki, 2008; Andreotti *et al.*, 2001; Crespo and Moreno, 2001).

A wider gap between the two sides and thus the worsening of employment relationships is a negative consequence for the labour market as a whole. Finally, low job satisfaction reported in many national and international studies (EU Commission, 2001; EWCS, 2005; EQLS, 2007) by Greek flexible labourers is commonly expressed and stressed.

Yet, employers may encounter similar obstacles. As argued by Giannikis and Mihail (2010), employers request greater flexibility regarding wages and working hours and, most importantly, relaxation of the regulation on FWAs and the rigid settlement of full-time employment. The widening of the gap between employees' and employers' perspectives does not facilitate such de-regulating initiatives. Lack of solidly established regulations surrounding the offering of FWAs and existing gaps in the Greek labour law are factors to be taken into account. In a similar vein, stigmatisation of "bad employers" who offer FWAs versus the good ones that mainly offer full-time employment is expected to be an additional factor for consideration.

The implications of the chapter require the attention of managers, social policy administrators, employees, but most importantly governmental bodies, given the current Greek crisis and calls for regulation regarding future use by employees and availability of flexible employment. More specifically, the establishment of policies that would promote equal and fair payment with regard to flexible work options is a priority, as this factor seems to decrease their quality on one hand and also the interest of employees on the

other. Most importantly, new policies can break social norms, e.g. by enhancing the use of FWAs by specific individuals in the hierarchy, such as managers, directors and executives.

A limitation of the chapter concerns the components used to measure job quality. The chapter focused on objective components and did not include any kind of subjective or self-assessed components for measuring job quality. Another limitation is that since remote working is very rare and data was collected directly from companies, only a limited number of teleworkers or employees who work from home were included. Finally, despite our efforts to ask managers the exact number of employees under flexible employment, their tendency was to focus on the official forms of FWAs, namely part-time and temporary work and thus we were unable to assess the real extent of informal flexible working.

6.7 Summary

The chapter has added economy-wide evidence in regards to the employee use and employer offer of FWAs and their association with job quality in Greece. Employees' and employers' perceptions were considered and a dual labour market was identified, where full-time employment is the desirable norm and constitutes the primary market. Results confirmed a tendency to use FWAs within an employer-centred perspective, which is more common in southern European countries (Andreotti *et al.*, 2001). The clear message is: Greek flexible workers are secondary labourers who have low job quality.

Nonetheless, no evidence that individual characteristics (it does not vary based on gender, age and education) are influential in this negative association between flexible working and job quality was found: the quality of flexible working is generally poor. Moreover, employees' perceptions of FWAs are generally negative but do not appear to influence their use nor the association with job quality. In conclusion, as FWAs can be a

treatment for unemployment and are increasingly being utilised in Greece, the outlook for job quality is far from encouraging.

In the next chapter overall conclusions of this research are drawn, its contribution as well as its limitations are acknowledged, and a future research agenda is proposed.

Chapter 7 – Conclusions and Future Research

The main objectives of this research were: First, at a theoretical level, to contribute to the sociology of work, through revisiting theories that could identify the determinants of flexible work arrangements in peripheral economies. Second, the research aimed at contributing to the literature of human resource management, by identifying the demand and potential demand for flexible work arrangements, in a context where research is scarce and often neglected, but where flexible work arrangements are increasingly common. Third, the research aimed to explore and highlight challenges to a common EU labour market and thus inform managers, labour economists, trade unions and policy makers.

Based on the use of two European surveys (EWCS and EQLS), Chapter 4 confirmed initial assumptions of the literature that FWAs employees use in Greece is, in fact, low. In Chapter 4, four forms of FWAs were examined: part-time, temporary employment, work from home and telework. The research further introduced a new hybrid form that applies both to flexible and regular work options, no-contract employment. Evidence from the empirical study showed that part-time and temporary employment could be indicative of secondary employment and associated with specific social groups, i.e. females and students similar to other EU countries. However, and unlike other European countries, in the current research part-time employment was not associated with mothers, but was

positively associated to non-married females. This result was further supported by the results regarding WLB in Greece, which remain disappointing with employees declaring that WLB is still a challenge to be dealt with, especially when full-time is the norm.

The research demonstrated that telework and work from home, which were considered particularly rare in Greece, reach 6.6% and 7.8% respectively (Mihail, 2004). Contrary to the previous forms (part-time, temporary and no contract), these two forms demonstrate primary sector characteristics and are associated with higher incomes, higher skills and higher job satisfaction, predominantly encountered in the public sector and associated to older, more qualified employees. Finally, considering the cultural perspective, the surveys verified the existence and placement of FWAs in the Southern model (along with Spain, Italy, Cyprus), which was interpreted via an association of FWAs with higher job uncertainty, lower job satisfaction and a weaker attachment to employment.

Chapter 4, while providing significant information on the use of FWAs from an employees' perspective, triggered the need for further research at the organisational level and generated important questions concerning the social and environmental factors that may be linked to employee use and employer offers of FWAs. Two theoretical frameworks were found useful to the understanding of FWAs in Greece, and accordingly the following research questions were to be addressed:

- a) which environmental factors impact on the employer offer of FWAs on one side, and which individual characteristics impact on the use of FWAs?
- b) what are the employee and employer perceptions on the quality of FWAs and what is in fact the level of quality of FWAs?

In order to examine these questions, primary data collection was essential. The Greek Dataset on Flexible Work (GDFW) was collected in Greece during the period April 2010 to January 2011 and 40 companies and 492 employees participated in total. Two empirical studies were developed. Chapter 5 concentrated on the first question and examined the effect of environmental factors (competition, EU, labour market, legislation and trade unions) on FWAs employers offer. Further, in the chapter we explored those characteristics that are directly associated with FWAs employers use and demand at an individual level (i.e. gender, number of children, being a students or manager). Additionally, the relationship between FWAs (employer offer and employee use) with WLB and life satisfaction was examined.

The research suggested a paradoxical outcome with regard to competition: the more the competitors of an organisation offer FWAs, the less likely this organisation is to offer or intend to offer FWAs. Pressures coming from the EU, the legislation and from the labour market appear to have an effect on the offering of FWAs, whereas unions did not appear to have any effect. In particular, the research suggested that companies feeling pressure from the EU are mainly the ones not offering FWAs, illustrating a negative association between EU pressures and the offering of FWAs.

Individual characteristics of employees and FWAs use showed that, unlike the two European surveys, females were not associated with part-time employment, but with temporary employment. Working mothers (or future mothers) appear to be keen on using phased return, whereas students expressed a general demand of (interest in) FWAs. Two findings were of particular interest, as they oppose general European trends with regard to FWAs: First, employees working under FWAs are generally not satisfied. This can be further supported by the fact that perceptions of FWAs in Greece suggest that these are initiated by employers. Consistent with such perceptions, no link with WLB and life

satisfaction was observed. Second, contrary to initial expectations and given that full-time employment is the norm in Greece, managers are more likely than professionals to use part-time working arrangements.

The analysis of Chapter 6 was based on the GDFW and focused on the second question asked, which was related to the quality of FWAs and underlying perceptions. In this chapter, the theoretical background used was the dual labour market theory. Although a growing body of literature exists in regards to the job quality of the FWAs in various countries, there are few results concerning the measurement and definition of the job quality of FWAs and even fewer in the Greek labour market. Based on the creation of a latent variable (explained in detail in Chapter 6) the research defined and measured the job quality of FWAs in the Greek labour market.

Next we examined the perceptions of employers and employees regarding the offer and use of FWAs in the Greek labour market, where literature concentrating on both is thin. Results demonstrated that employers' perceptions are predominantly oriented towards the achievement of business-driven results, higher productivity and innovation acquisition when offering FWAs. Employer-centred forms of FWAs are the majority of FWAs available in the Greek labour market. Disadvantageous employees of the secondary market, who find difficulty in entering the primary market, are therefore employed in the bulk of FWAs. Employees' perceptions of FWAs are thus negative, as these jobs are associated with low pay/rewards and a perception that FWAs are inferior employment, a fact that illustrates a secondary labour market. The relationship between job quality and FWA use is negative. The research further examined the moderating effect of a number of individual characteristics (gender, age and education) in the relationship between job quality and FWA use. However, no significant evidence (no moderation) suggested that this negative association is influenced by these individual

characteristics, highlighting that the quality of FWAs in the Greek labour market is generally low. Moreover, the mediating effect of employees' perceptions between the job quality of FWAs and FWA use was examined. Although no strong evidence for a mediating effect was found, employees' perceptions of FWAs are generally negative, but as explained do not appear to influence their use or their association with job quality.

The thesis contributes both from an academic and a practical perspective. Regarding its academic contribution, the research sheds light in a rather understudied area of the Greek labour market. Through a scarce literature on FWAs (Papalexandris and Kramar, 1997; Kouzis, 2001; Mihail, 2003, 2004; Voudouris, 2004; Mihail and Giannikis, 2010) the research takes FWAs one step further: the research allows the generalisation of a model of FWAs that can be applied in most Mediterranean countries. Most importantly though, the research becomes a benchmark for what it is to follow: the massive increase of FWAs in Greece and potentially in the Southern EU (European parliament, 2013; Kopsini, 2010) during the crisis and the use of FWAs in economic crises. Given the similarities of the Southern EU industrial model, as found in Cyprus, Spain, Italy and Portugal and given the similar financial problems due to the economic crisis some of those countries go through, the research sets a benchmark on the employee use of FWAs in a period of crisis.

Generalisation of the results is currently not only applicable to the Southern EU, but is found in developed countries, such as the UK. More specifically, the increase of the use of FWAs in order to fight youth and female unemployment, previously not being a case in the UK, is currently an area of research as it is believed to be increasing. In a similar vein, the use of temporary or fixed-term contracts for young people is increasing not only in South EU members, but lately in various EU members, including the UK through the form of apprenticeships and an increase in fixed-term contracts.

Second, the thesis offers the opportunity to investigate the perceptions of employees and employers on FWAs. Most importantly the research offers insight via two level models, allowing the examination of both the individual and organisational level, which is rarely the case in the literature and even less frequently for the Greek labour market. Finally, the research is contributing to a general literature on FWAs through the identification of moderators and mediators in the relationship between FWAs (employee use, employer offer) and job quality.

Regarding its practical contribution, this study requires the attention of managers, social policy administrators, employees, but most importantly governmental bodies given the current Greek crisis. The thesis further offers practical aspects on the HRM practices in Greece, such as working hours in the Greek private and public sector and the offering of FF policies in the two sectors. Last but not least, the research draws attention to problematic areas of the Greek labour market, as indicated through large European and international surveys, such as low WLB of the Greek employees, low job satisfaction and low life satisfaction in general.

Practical implications of the thesis with regard to the current economic crisis appear to have a high impact. The massive increase of FWAs in Greece and the massive decrease of their remuneration signify a hazardous case for alert. Policy implications and the role of policy makers is particularly important at this stage. The significance of the policy implications with regards to FWAs is not new. In the late 1980s, Atkinson (1985, 1987) postulated that unstable market conditions create pressures for higher flexibility and demands for cheaper and easier labour and therefore will result in higher availability of FWAs. Pollert (1988) suggested that one of the many flaws of Atkinson's model was the neglect of policy implications. In particular, policies on different "flexibilities" that would allow choices for employees and would also avoid the legitimacy of employers'

assertions that FWAs need to be considered given the current circumstances. Furthermore, labour deregulation, which may be linked to lack of employment protection, highlights the need for negotiation between employers, employees and unions. These issues remain open and require attention from policy makers and the government. Moreover, new forms of FWAs (e.g. phased return for new mothers, employees working in different companies and in different countries) impose the need for new policies, such as on diversity and equality in the workplace.

Limitations and future research

A potential limitation of the survey is the limited number of companies in the sample. This limitation has been highlighted in Chapter 6, where the employer offer of separate FWAs was not examined due to the restricted number of companies, of which few employees use some forms of FWAs).

In a similar vein, social groups (e.g. students, unemployed, immigrants) may have been under-represented. The no-contract category of employees constitutes a good example in that case. Thus, whereas in EWCS and EQLS no-contract employment reached 28.2% and 29.5% respectively, in GDFW no-contract employees were only 12 (i.e. 2.5%). This could be due to the sample, which was collected from companies and employees. Thus, no-contract respondents could not be accessed, as these would be mostly expected to be self-employed rather than found in an organisational framework. In a similar vein, specific groups and forms of FWAs, such as managers and part-time employment found in Chapter 5, as well as the use of temporary employment from Greek female employees requiring further examination. The urbanity of the dataset can also be considered as a limitation of the research. The data was mainly collected in urban areas, so rural areas can be considered underrepresented. In Chapter 5, WLB and life

satisfaction were not measured by using multi-item scales showing potential for future research on FWAs and WLB.

Another limitation, as it appears in Chapter 6, concerns the components used to measure job quality. The study used objective components and did not include any kind of subjective or self-assessed components for measuring job quality. Furthermore, the limited number of teleworkers or employees who work from home is another limitation. Despite the effort made to ask managers the exact number of employees under various flexible work options, only the exact numbers of officially offered forms (part-time and temporary) were consistently accumulated. Although having an indication of forms offered in every organisation, it was not always possible to obtain the exact numbers of employees who use each form.

Furthermore, issues of the randomness of the sample of the collected data may also occur, especially in regards to the employee data, as employees that participated were selected by senior management. This may imply that only specific groups of employees may have been represented (i.e. those who have internet access, higher in seniority and salary, employees known to be more satisfied, etc.). However, during the data collection process, in order to confirm that employees in all levels would have been represented, more data from each organisation was requested based on more diversity.

Last but not least, similar to EWCS and EQLS, an issue that cannot be ignored is the translation process of the questionnaire from the GDFW, where information may be slightly changed and potentially modified for the needs of the translation.

Various questions regarding the crisis were asked to the participants in both the management and employee questionnaires. However, these were not included in the data analysis, as it would have been difficult to assess the crisis impact in the absence of data prior to its onset. We note here, however, that managers (for the year 2010 and first

months of 2011) when responding to the question: “To what extent has the financial crisis affected your organisation?”, they responded that they were quite concerned, stating that their companies have been affected quite a lot (61.5%), but they were not considering reducing the number of employees at that point (62.7%) (when asked “To what percentage approximately does your organization expect a change in the number of employees in the next six months?”). In line with these numbers, the majority of employees stated that they were affected, at least moderately, by the crisis (38.5%), when asked: “Do you believe your career prospects are influenced by the current economic crisis?”. Keeping these results in mind, and considering Atkinson (1987, 1989), future research needs to focus on the use and offering of FWAs in turbulent periods such as the current financial crisis in Greece. The significance of the topic does not lie only on the fact that employment is severely affected in Greece, but also covers future research avenues with regard to implications and modifications regarding the future of employment in other EU countries that are also facing economic crises. A longitudinal survey, including data before and after recession, would be required to answer such questions. Some recent figures regarding FWAs in Greece, indicate that during the last quarter of 2010 part-time employment almost doubled in relation to the previous year (from 89,380 during the last quarter of 2009 to 168,164), whereas switching from full-time contracts to part-time also showed a high increase (from 10.512 in the last quarter of 2009 to 11.800) (Kopsini, 2010). Thus, the thesis opens new directions to future research that need more in-depth examination and that will influence the future of employment in the EU, as well as highlight potential differences and similarities between EU members.

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Appendices

Appendix A. EWCS questionnaire

Household data

(NEW)

HH1. I'd like to start by asking you a few questions about your household.
Including yourself, can you please tell me how many people live in this household?

Number of people living in household:.....

--	--

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(NEW)

HH2.

INTERVIEWER: NOW OBTAIN INFORMATION THAT YOU NEED TO ENTER ON
HOUSEHOLD GRID ON NEXT PAGE, STARTING WITH THE RESPONDENT

- a. (INTERVIEWER.: CODE GENDER OF RESPONDENT IN GRID BELOW)
- b. Starting with yourself, how old are you?
- c. (INTERVIEWER.: SKIP FOR RESPONDENT)

SHOW CARD D

- d. What is your principal economic status?

(NEW)

HH3.

INTERVIEWER: FOR SECOND HOUSEHOLD MEMBER, START WITH THE OLDEST
MEMBER OF THE HOUSEHOLD. REPEAT GRID QUESTIONS A-D FOR ALL OTHER
HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS.

Now thinking about the other members of your household, starting with the oldest ...

- a. Could you tell me whether this is a male or a female?
- b. How old is he/she?

SHOW CARD C

- c. What is this person's relationship to you? Is he/she your ...?

SHOW CARD D

- d. And what is this person's principal economic status?

HOUSEHOLD GRID

		A		B	C	D
		INTERVIEWER: Code for respondent		Age	Relationship to respondent	Principal economic status?
		Male	Female		Code from list below	Code from list below
1	Respondent	1	2			01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
2	Person 2	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
3	Person 3	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
4	Person 4	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
5	Person 5	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
6	Person 6	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
7	Person 7	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
8	Person 8	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
9	Person 9	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99
10	Person 10	1	2		01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 88 99	01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 88 99

888 - DK/No opinion
(spontaneous)
999 - Refusal
(spontaneous)

RELATIONSHIP CODES [CARD C]	ECONOMIC STATUS CODES [CARD D]:
01 - spouse/partner 02 - son/daughter 03 - parent, step-parent or parent in law 04 - daughter or son in law 05 - grandchild 06 - brother/sister (incl. half and step siblings) 07 - other relative 08 - other non relative 88 - DK/No opinion (spontaneous) 99 - Refusal (spontaneous)	01 - at work as employee or employer/self-employed 02 - at work, on child-care leave or other leave 03 - at work as relative assisting on family farm or business * 04 - unemployed less than 12 months 05 - unemployed 12 months or more 06 - unable to work due to long-term illness or disability 07 - retired 08 - full time homemaker/ responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home 09 - in education (at school, university, etc.) / student 10 -other 88 - DK/No opinion (spontaneous) 99 - Refusal (spontaneous) * If paid a formal wage or salary for work in family farm or business, code as 1 ('at work as employee')

Main questionnaire

(MODIFIED)

Q1A Are you a citizen of ...(country where the survey is being carried out)?

1 - Yes ----- > **GO TO Q2A**

2 - No ----- > **CONTINUE WITH Q1B.**

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) ----- > **GO TO Q2A**

9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > **GO TO Q2A**

☐

(MODIFIED)

Q1B Are you a citizen of ...?

1 - Another EU member state [IN NON-EU COUNTRIES: An EU member state]

2 - One of the EU candidate countries (i.e. Romania, Bulgaria, Turkey, Croatia)

3 - Another country

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(TREND)

Q2A What is the title of your main paid job? By main paid job, we mean the one where you spend most hours.

INTERVIEWER.: ASK AND WRITE IN FULL DETAILS - PROBE FOR AS MUCH INFORMATION AS POSSIBLE WITH VIEW TO OBTAINING ACCURATE 2-DIGIT ISCO CLASSIFICATION

.....

.....

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--

(TREND)

Q2B How old were you when you stopped full-time education?

Age:

77 - if still studying

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--

(NEW)

Q2C How many years have you been in paid employment since the age at which you stopped full-time education?

Number of years:.....

77 - if still a full time-student

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--

(TREND)

Q2D How many years have you been in your company or organisation?

Number of years:

00 - if less than 1 year

77 - not applicable

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--

(TREND)

Q3A Are you mainly ... ?

SHOW CARD Q3A - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

1 - Self-employed without employees ----- > GO TO Q4

2 - Self-employed with employees ----- > GO TO Q4

3 - Employed ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q3B

4 - Other ----- > GO TO Q4

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q4

9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q4

--

(MODIFIED)

Q3B What kind of employment contract do you have?

SHOW CARD Q3B - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

1 - An indefinite contract ----- > GO TO Q4

2 - A fixed term contract ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q3C

3 - A temporary employment agency contract ----- > GO TO Q4

4 - An apprenticeship or other training scheme ----- > GO TO Q4

5 - No contract ----- > GO TO Q4

6 - Other (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q4

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q4

9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q4

--

(TREND)

Q3C What is the exact duration of the contract in number of years and months?

INTERVIEWER.: IF LESS THAN 1 YEAR, CODE '00' IN BOX 'YEARS' AND ENTER THE NUMBER OF MONTHS IN BOX 'MONTHS' - IF "DK/NO OPINION", CODE '88' IN BOTH BOXES. IF THE FIXED-TERM CONTRACT DOES NOT HAVE AN EXACT DURATION CODE '77' IN BOTH BOXES

Number of years:

00 - if less than 1 year

77 - no exact duration

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--

Number of months:

77 - no exact duration

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--

(TREND)

Q4 What is the main activity of the company or organisation where you work ?

INTERVIEWER.: ASK AND WRITE IN FULL DETAILS - PROBE FOR AS MUCH INFORMATION AS POSSIBLE!

--	--

.....
88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(MODIFIED TREND) (EF2000)

Q5 Are you working in the ...?

1 - private sector
2 - public sector
3 - joint private-public organisation or company
4 - non-for-profit sector, NGO
5 - other
8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--

(TREND)

SHOW CARD Q6

Q6. How many people in total work in the local unit of the establishment where you work?

01 - 1 (interviewee works alone)
02 - 2-4
03 - 5-9
04 - 10-49
05 - 50-99
06 - 100-249
07 - 250-499
08 - 500 and over

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--

(TREND)

Q7 How many people work under your supervision, for whom pay increases, bonuses or promotion depend directly on you?

..... Number of people:

0000 - none
8888 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
9999 - Refusal (spontaneous)

--	--	--	--

(TREND)

Q8a How many hours do you usually work per week in your main paid job?

INTERVIEWER: EXCLUDING LUNCH BREAK AND EXCLUDING TIME SPENT TRAVELLING TO AND FROM WORK - IF 30 MINUTES OR MORE, ROUND UP TO NEXT HOUR

Number of hours per week:

888 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

999 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(NEW)

Q8B How many days per week do you usually work in your main paid job?

Number of days per week:

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(MODIFIED)

Q9A Besides your main paid job, do you have any other paid job(s)?

(IF YES) Is it / are they...?

SHOW CARD Q9A - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

1 - No other paid job ----- > **GO TO Q10**

2 - Yes, regular ----- > **CONTINUE WITH Q9B**

3 - Yes, occasional ----- > **GO TO Q10**

4 - Yes, seasonal ----- > **GO TO Q10**

5 - Other (spontaneous) ----- > **GO TO Q10**

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) ----- > **GO TO Q10**

9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > **GO TO Q10**

(MODIFIED)

Q9B How many hours a week on average do you work in job(s) other than your main paid job?

INTERVIEWER: IF 30 MINUTES OR MORE, ROUND UP TO THE NEXT HOUR

Number of hours:

888 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

999 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(MODIFIED)

Q10 Please tell me, using the following scale, are you exposed at work to ...?

SHOW CARD Q10 WITH SCALE - ONE ANSWER ONLY PER LINE!

"R"	READ OUT -ROTATE - MARK IN COLUMN "R" WHERE YOU START ASKING WITH AN "X" MARK	All of the time	Almost all of the time	Around ¾ of the time	Around half of the time	Around ¼ of the time	Almost never	Never	DK	Ref.
	A - Vibrations from hand tools, machinery, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	B - Noise so loud that you would have to raise your voice to talk to people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	C - High temperatures which make you perspire even when not working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	D - Low temperatures whether indoors or outdoors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	E - Breathing in smoke, fumes (such as welding or exhaust fumes), powder or dust (such as wood dust or mineral dust) etc. (MODIFIED)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	F - Breathing in vapours such as solvents and thinners (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	G - Handling or being in skin contact with chemical products or substances (MODIFIED)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	H - Radiation such as X rays, radioactive radiation, welding light, laser beams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	I - Tobacco smoke from other people (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	J - Handling or being in direct contact with materials which can be infectious, such as waste, bodily fluids, laboratory materials, etc (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

(MODIFIED)

Q11 Please tell me, using the same scale, does your main paid job involve ...?

SHOW SAME CARD (Q10) WITH SCALE - ONE ANSWER ONLY PER LINE!

"R"	READ OUT - ROTATE - MARK IN COLUMN "R" WHERE YOU START ASKING WITH AN "X" MARK	All of the time	Almost all of the time	Around 1/3 of the time	Around half of the time	Around 2/3 of the time	Almost never	Never	DK	Ref.
	A - Tiring or painful positions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	B - Lifting or moving people (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	C - Carrying or moving heavy loads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	D - Standing or walking (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	E - Repetitive hand or arm movements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	F - Working at company / organisation premise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	G - Teleworking from home with a PC	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	H - Working at home, excluding telework	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	I - Working in places other than home or company/ organisation premises, e.g. client's premises, on the road	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	J - Dealing directly with people who are not employees at your workplace such as customers, passengers, pupils, patients, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	K - Working with computers: PCs, network, mainframe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	L - Using internet / email for professional purposes (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	M - Wearing personal protective clothing or equipment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

(MODIFIED)

Q12 Regarding the health and safety risks related to performance of your job, how well informed would you say you are?

- 1 - Very well informed
2 - Well informed
3 - Not very well informed
4 - Not at all well informed

- 7 - Not applicable (spontaneous)
8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(TREND)

Q13 In total, how many minutes per day do you normally spend travelling from home to work and back?

Number minutes per day:.....

--	--	--

888 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

999 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(TREND)

Q14A Normally, how many times a month do you work at night, for at least 2 hours between 10.00 pm and 05.00 am?

Number of nights per month:.....

--	--

00 - never

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(TREND)

Q14B And how many times a month do you work in the evening, for at least 2 hours between 6.00 pm and 10.00 pm?

Number of evenings per month:.....

--	--

00 - never

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(TREND)

Q14C And how many times a month do you work on Sundays?

Number of Sundays per month:.....

--	--

00 - never

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(TREND)

Q14D And how many times a month do you work on Saturdays?

Number of Saturdays per month:.....

--	--

00 - never

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(TREND)

Q14E And how many times a month do you work more than 10 hours a day?

Number of times the person works more than 10 hours a day:.....

--	--

00 - never

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(MODIFIED)

Q15A Do you work part-time or full-time?

- 1 - Part-time ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q15B
2 - Full-time ----- > GO TO Q16A
9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q16A

☐

(MODIFIED)

Q15B Would you like to work...?

- 1 - Full-time
2 - More hours but not full-time
3 - The same number of hours
4 - Less hours
8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(MODIFIED)

Q16A Do you work...?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - The same number of hours every day	1	2	8	9
B - The same number of days every week	1	2	8	9
C - Fixed starting and finishing times	1	2	8	9
D - Shifts	1	2	8	9

IF Q16A_D "SHIFTS"=1 "YES" GO TO Q16B, ALL OTHERS GO TO Q17A

(MODIFIED)

Q16B Do you work...?

SHOW CARD Q16B - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

- 1 - daily split shifts (with a break of at least 4 hours in between)
2 - permanent shifts (morning, afternoon or night)
3 - alternating / rotating shifts
4 - Other (spontaneous)
8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(MODIFIED)

Q17A How are your working time arrangements set?

SHOW CARD Q17A - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

- 1 - They are set by the company / organisation
with no possibility for changes ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q17B
- 2 - You can choose between several fixed working
schedules determined by the company/ organisation ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q17B
- 3 - You can adapt your working
hours within certain limits (eg. flexitime) ----- > GO TO Q18
- 4 - Your working hours are entirely determined by yourself ----- > GO TO Q18
- 8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q18
- 9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q18

(MODIFIED TREND)

Q17B Do changes to your work schedule occur regularly? (IF YES) How long before are you informed about these changes?

SHOW CARD Q17B - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

- 1 - No
- 2 - Yes, the same day
- 3 - Yes, the day before
- 4 - Yes, several days in advance
- 5 - Yes, several weeks in advance
- 6 - Other (spontaneous)
- 8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
- 9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(TREND)

Q18 In general, do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work very well, well, not very well or not at all well?

- 1 - Very well
- 2 - Well
- 3 - Not very well
- 4 - Not at all well
- 8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
- 9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(NEW)

Q19 In the past twelve months, have you been contacted, e.g. by email or telephone, in matters concerning your main paid job outside your normal working hours?

SHOW CARD Q19 - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

- 1 - Every day
- 2 - At least once a week
- 3 - A couple of times a month
- 4 - Less often
- 5 - Never
- 8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
- 9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(MODIFIED)

Q20A Please tell me, does your job involve short repetitive tasks of less than...?

INTERVIEWER: IF NECESSARY, SPECIFY THAT WE MEAN TASKS AND NOT MOVEMENTS SUCH AS CLICKING THE MOUSE BUTTON!

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - 1 minute	1	2	8	9
B- 10 minutes	1	2	8	9

(TREND)

Q20B And, does your job involve ...?

SHOW CARD Q20B WITH SCALE -ONE ANSWER ONLY PER LINE!

"R"	READ OUT - ROTATE - MARK IN COLUMN "R" WHERE YOU START ASKING WITH AN "X" MARK	All of the time	Almost all of the time	Around 3/4 of the time	Around half of the time	Around 1/4 of the time	Almost never	Never	DK	Refusal
	A - working at very high speed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	B- working to tight deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

(TREND MODIFIED, C to include 'or performance')

Q21 On the whole, is your pace of work dependent, or not, on...?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - the work done by colleagues	1	2	8	9
B - direct demands from people such as customers, passengers, pupils, patients, etc.	1	2	8	9
C - numerical production targets or performance targets	1	2	8	9
D - automatic speed of a machine or movement of a product	1	2	8	9
E - the direct control of your boss	1	2	8	9

(TREND)

Q22A How often do you have to interrupt a task you are doing in order to take on an unforeseen task?

SHOW CARD Q22A - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

- 1 - Very often ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q22B
 2 - Fairly often ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q22B
 3 - Occasionally ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q22B
 4 - Never ----- > GO TO Q23
 8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q23
 9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q23



(TREND)

Q22B For your work, are these interruptions...

SHOW CARD Q22B - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

☐

- 1 - Disruptive
- 2 - Without consequences
- 3 - Positive
- 7 - Not relevant (spontaneous)
- 8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
- 9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(TREND)

Q23 Generally, does your main paid job involve, or not ...?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - meeting precise quality standards	1	2	8	9
B - assessing yourself the quality of your own work	1	2	8	9
C - solving unforeseen problems on your own	1	2	8	9
D - monotonous tasks	1	2	8	9
E - complex tasks	1	2	8	9
F - learning new things	1	2	8	9

(TREND)

Q24 Are you able, or not, to choose or change...?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - your order of tasks	1	2	8	9
B - your methods of work	1	2	8	9
C - your speed or rate of work	1	2	8	9

(MODIFIED)

Q25 For each of the following statements, please select the response which best describes your work situation.

SHOW CARD Q25 WITH SCALE - ONE ANSWER ONLY PER LINE!

READ OUT	Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Almost never	DK	Refusal
A - You can get assistance from colleagues if you ask for it	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
B - You can get assistance from your superiors / boss if you ask for it (MODIFIED)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
C - You can get external assistance if you ask for it (MODIFIED)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
D - You have influence over the choice of your working partners	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
E - You can take your break when you wish	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
F - You have enough time to get the job done	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
G - You are free to decide when to take holidays or days off	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
H - At work, you have the opportunity to do what you do best (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
I - Your job gives you the feeling of work well done (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
J - You are able to apply your own ideas in your work (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
K - You have the feeling of doing useful work (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
L - You find your job intellectually demanding (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9
M - You find your job emotionally demanding (NEW)	1	2	3	4	5	8	9

(MODIFIED)

Q26A Does your job involve rotating tasks between yourself and colleagues?

1 - Yes ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q26A.1.

2 - No ----- > GO TO Q26B

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) -- > GO TO Q26B

9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q26B

☐

(NEW)

26A.1 Do the tasks require different skills?

1 - Yes

2 - No

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(NEW)

26A.2 Who decides the division of the tasks?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - Your boss / manager	1	2	8	9
B - Decided by people who are rotating tasks	1	2	8	9

(MODIFIED)

Q26.B Does your job involve doing all or part of your work in a team?

1 - Yes ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q26.B1.

2 - No ----- > GO TO Q27

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q27

9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q27

☐

(NEW)

Q26B.1 Do the members of the team decide by themselves...?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - ...on the division of tasks	1	2	8	9
B - ...who will be head of the team	1	2	8	9

(MODIFIED)

Q27 Which of the following alternatives would best describe your skills in your own work?

SHOW CARD Q27 - READ OUT - ONE ANSWER ONLY!

☐

1 - I need further training to cope well with my duties

2 - My duties correspond well with my present skills

3 - I have the skills to cope with more demanding duties

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(MODIFIED)

Q28 Over the past 12 months, have you undergone any of the following types of training to improve your skills or not?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal	IF YES, indicate total number of days... 888 - DK 999 - Refusal
A - Training paid for or provided by your employer, or by yourself if you are self-employed	1	2	8	9	
B - Training paid for by yourself (NEW)	1	2	8	9	
C - On-the-job training (co-workers, supervisors) (NEW)	1	2	8	9	
D - Other forms of on-site training and learning (e.g. self-learning, on-line tutorials etc) (NEW)	1	2	8	9	
E - Other (SPONTANEOUS)	1	2	8	9	

(MODIFIED)

Q29 Over the past 12 months, have you or have you not, personally been subjected at work to...?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - threats of physical violence	1	2	8	9
B - physical violence from people from your workplace	1	2	8	9
C - physical violence from other people	1	2	8	9
D - bullying / harassment (MODIFIED)	1	2	8	9
E - sexual discrimination / discrimination linked to gender (MODIFIED)	1	2	8	9
F - unwanted sexual attention	1	2	8	9
G - age discrimination	1	2	8	9
H - discrimination linked to nationality	1	2	8	9
I - discrimination linked to ethnic background	1	2	8	9
J - discrimination linked to religion	1	2	8	9
K - discrimination linked to disability	1	2	8	9
L - discrimination linked to sexual orientation	1	2	8	9

INTERVIEWER, QUESTIONS Q30 AND Q31 SHOULD BE ASKED TO EMPLOYEES ONLY!
IE. THOSE WHO ANSWERED "3" TO Q3A

(TREND 1995)

Q30 Over the past 12 months, have you, or not...?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - Had a frank discussion with your boss about your work performance?	1	2	8	9
B - Been consulted about changes in the organisation of work and / or your working conditions?	1	2	8	9
C - Been subject to regular formal assessment of your work performance? (NEW)	1	2	8	9
D - Discussed work-related problems with your boss?	1	2	8	9
E - Discussed work-related problems with an employee representative?	1	2	8	9

(TREND)

Q31 Is your immediate boss a man or a woman?

1 - A man

2 - A woman

7 - Not applicable (spontaneous)

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

ASK ALL!

(TREND)

Q32 Do you think your health or safety is at risk because of your work?

1 - Yes

2 - No

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(MODIFIED)

Q33 Does your work affect your health, or not?

1 - Yes ----- > CONTINUE WITH Q33A

2 - No ----- > GO TO Q34a

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous) --- > GO TO Q34a

9 - Refusal (spontaneous) ----- > GO TO Q34a

☐

(MODIFIED)

Q33A How does it affect your health?

SHOW CARD Q33A - READ OUT – MULTIPLE ANSWERS POSSIBLE!

	Mentioned	Not mentioned	DK	Refusal
A - hearing problems	1	2	8	9
B - problems with your vision	1	2	8	9
C - skin problems	1	2	8	9
D- backache	1	2	8	9
E - headaches	1	2	8	9
F - stomach ache	1	2	8	9
G - muscular pains in shoulders, neck and/or upper/lower limbs (MODIFIED)	1	2	8	9
H - respiratory difficulties	1	2	8	9
I - heart disease	1	2	8	9
J - injury(ies)	1	2	8	9
K - stress	1	2	8	9
L - overall fatigue	1	2	8	9
M - sleeping problems	1	2	8	9
N - allergies	1	2	8	9
O - anxiety	1	2	8	9
P - irritability	1	2	8	9
Q - other (SPONTANEOUS)	1	2	8	9

(MODIFIED)

Q34A In your main paid job, over the past twelve months, have you been absent for any of the following reasons?

READ OUT	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
A - Maternity or paternity leave	1	2	8	9
B - Educational leave	1	2	8	9
C - Family-related leave	1	2	8	9
D - Health problems	1	2	8	9
E - Other reasons	1	2	8	9

IF "YES"
CONTINUE
WITH Q34B

IF Q34A.D = "1" CONTINUE WITH Q34B, ALL OTHERS GO TO Q35.

Q34B Over the past 12 months how many days in total were you absent from work for reasons of health problems?

Number of days:.....

888 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

999 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(MODIFIED)

Q34C Of the days of absence indicated above, can you indicate how many days were attributable to the following:

READ OUT	Number of days	DK	Refusal
C1 - Accident(s) at work		8	9
C2 - Health problems caused by your work		8	9

ASK ONLY IF RESPONDENT IS BELOW 60 YEARS OF AGE.

(TREND)

Q35 Do you think you will be able to do the same job you are doing now when you are 60 years old?

1 - Yes, I think so

2 - No, I don't think so

3 - I wouldn't want to

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(TREND)

Q36 On the whole, are you very satisfied, satisfied, not very satisfied or not at all satisfied with working conditions in your main paid job?

1 - Very satisfied

2 - Satisfied

3 - Not very satisfied

4 - Not at all satisfied

8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)

9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

(NEW)

Q37 How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements describing some aspects of your job?

SHOW CARD Q37 WITH SCALE - READ OUT – ONE ANSWER PER LINE!

READ OUT	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	DK	Refusal
A - I might lose my job in the next 6 months	5	4	3	2	1	8	9
B - I am well paid for the work I do	5	4	3	2	1	8	9
C - My job offers good prospects for career advancement	5	4	3	2	1	8	9
D - I feel myself 'at home' in this organisation	5	4	3	2	1	8	9
E - At work, I have opportunities to learn and grow	5	4	3	2	1	8	9
F - I have very good friends at work	5	4	3	2	1	8	9

Demographics

(MODIFIED)

EF1 What is the highest level of education or training that you have successfully completed?

Note: LFS question; additional explanation of ISCED classification and correspondence to local qualifications will be provided in each country

- 1 - No education
- 2 - Primary education (ISCED 1)
- 3 - Lower secondary education (ISCED 2)
- 4 - Upper secondary education (ISCED 3)
- 5 - Post-secondary including pre-vocational or vocational education but not tertiary (ISCED 4)
- 6 - Tertiary education – first level (ISCED 5)
- 7 - Tertiary education – advanced level (ISCED 6)
- 9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(TREND)

EF3 Are you, in your household, the person who contributes most to the household income?

- 1 - Yes
- 2 - No
- 3 - Both equally (SPONTANEOUS)
- 8 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
- 9 - Refusal (spontaneous)

☐

(MODIFIED)

EF4 How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside work

SHOW CARD EF4 WITH SCALE- READ OUT – ONE ANSWER PER LINE!

INTERVIEWER: IF FOR ANY OF THE ITEMS FROM 'A' TO 'G' IN QUESTION EF4 THE ANSWER IS "everyday for 1 hour or more", CONTINUE WITH EF4.1.

(EF4A-EF4G=1 CONTINUE WITH EF4.1)

EF4.1. How many hours per day are you involved in any of the following activities outside work?

READ OUT	EF4.										EF4.1.		
	Everyday for 1 hour or more	Everyday or every second day for less than 1 hour	Once or twice a week	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a year	Never	Not applicable	DK	Refusal		Number of hours	DK	Ref.
A - Voluntary or charitable activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		88	99	
B - Political/trade union activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		88	99	
C - Caring for and educating your children	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		88	99	
D - Cooking and housework	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		88	99	
E - Caring for elderly/disabled relatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		88	99	
F - Taking a training or education course	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		88	99	
G - Sporting, cultural or leisure activity outside your home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		88	99	

(TREND)

EF5 Presently, what is on average your net monthly income from your main paid job?

SHOW CARD EF5 - READ OUT!

INTERVIEWER.: IF NECESSARY, EXPLAIN NET MONTHLY INCOME IS THE INCOME AT ONE'S DISPOSAL AFTER TAXES AND SOCIAL SECURITY CONTRIBUTIONS!

01 - A
02 - B
03 - C
04 - D
05 - E
06 - F
07 - G
08 - H
09 - I
10 - J
11 - K
12 - L

88 - DK/no opinion (spontaneous)
99 - Refusal (spontaneous)

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INTERVIEWER: QUESTION EF6. SHOULD BE ASKED ONLY TO THOSE WHO ARE NOT SELF-EMPLOYED!

IF Q3A =3 OR Q3A =4!

(MODIFIED)

EF6 What does your remuneration include?

SHOW CARD EF6 - READ OUT - MULTIPLE ANSWERS POSSIBLE!

	Mentioned	Not mentioned	DK	Refusal
A - Basic fixed salary/wage	1	2	8	9
B - Piece rate or productivity payments	1	2	8	9
C - Extra payments for additional hours of work/overtime	1	2	8	9
D - Extra payments compensating for bad or dangerous working conditions	1	2	8	9
E - Extra payments compensating for Sunday work	1	2	8	9
F - Other extra payments	1	2	8	9
G - Payments based on the overall performance of the company (profit sharing scheme) where you work	1	2	8	9
H - Payments based on the overall performance of a group	1	2	8	9
I - Income from shares in the company your work for	1	2	8	9
J - Advantages of other nature (for instance medical services, access to shops, etc.)	1	2	8	9
K - Other (SPONTANEOUS)	1	2	8	9

GOTO
EF6G_1

GOTO
EF6H_1

If EF6.G=1

Thinking about the payments based on the overall performance of the company (profit sharing scheme):

	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
EF6G_1 - Are the payments based on the overall performance of the company calculated according to a predefined formula?	1	2	8	9
EF6G_2 - ... do you receive these payments on a regular basis?	1	2	8	9

If EF6.H=1

Thinking about the payments based on the overall performance of a group:

	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
EF6H_1 - Are the payments based on the overall performance of a group calculated according to a predefined formula?	1	2	8	9
EF6H_2 - ... do you receive these payments on a regular basis?	1	2	8	9

INTERVIEWER: END OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE UNLESS THE PERSON IS SELF-EMPLOYED.

QUESTION EF7. SHOULD BE ASKED ONLY TO SELF-EMPLOYED PEOPLE!

IF Q3A =1 OR Q3A =2!

(MODIFIED)

EF7 What does your remuneration include?

SHOW CARD EF7- READ OUT - MULTIPLE ANSWERS POSSIBLE!

	Mentioned	Not mentioned	DK	Refusal
A - Income from self-employment such as own business, profession or farm	1	2	8	9
B - Payments based on the overall performance of the company (profit sharing scheme) where you work	1	2	8	9
C - Payments based on the overall performance of a group	1	2	8	9
D - Income from shares in the company your work for	1	2	8	9
E - Other (SPONTANEOUS)	1	2	8	9

If EF7.B=1

Thinking about the payments based on the overall performance of the company (profit sharing scheme):

	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
EFB_1 - Are these payments based on the overall performance of the company calculated according to a predefined formula?	1	2	8	9
EF7B_2 - ... do you receive these payments on a regular basis?	1	2	8	9

If EF7.C=1

Thinking about the payments based on the overall performance of a group:

	Yes	No	DK	Refusal
EF7C_1 - ... are these payments calculated according to a predefined formula?	1	2	8	9
EF7C_2- ... do you receive these payments on a regular basis?	1	2	8	9

P14 Thank you for participating in the fourth European Foundation Working Conditions survey. The Foundation is planning to conduct a small number of follow-up interviews (length: maximum one hour) with respondents over the coming six months.

Would you be willing to participate in such a follow-up Interviewers?

- 1 - Yes
2 - No

☐

Interview protocol

P.1 Date of the interview: Day: Month:

P.2 Time of the beginning of the interview: Hour: Minutes:
USE 24 HOUR CLOCK

P.3 Number of minutes the interview lasted: Minutes:

P4 Number of persons present during the interview, including interviewer.

- 1 - Two (Interviewer and respondent)
- 2 - Three
- 3 - Four
- 4 - Five or more

P5 Respondent cooperation

- 1 - Excellent
- 2 - Fair
- 3 - Average
- 4 - Bad

P6 Size of locality (LOCAL CODES)

P7 Region (LOCAL CODES)

P8 Postal code

P9 SAMPLE POINT NUMBER

P10 INTERVIEWER NUMBER

P11 WEIGHTING FACTOR

P12A Fixed telephone available in the household?

- 1 - Yes
- 2 - No

P12B Mobile telephone available in the household?

- 1 - Yes
- 2 - No

P13 Language of interview

Appendix B. EQLS questionnaire

QUALITY OF LIFE – MAIN INTERVIEW

HH0. (INT: ENTER THE INTERVIEW NUMBER ON THE CONTACT SHEET)

CONTACT SHEET NUMBER: _____

HH1. I'd like to start by asking you a few questions about your household.

Including yourself, can you please tell me how many people live in this household?

(INT: WRITE DOWN THE EXACT NUMBER OF PEOPLE LIVING IN YOUR HOUSEHOLD)

HH2. (INT: NOW OBTAIN INFORMATION THAT YOU NEED TO ENTER ON HOUSEHOLD GRID ON NEXT PAGE, STARTING WITH THE RESPONDENT)

a. (INT: CODE THE GENDER OF THE RESPONDENT IN GRID BELOW)

b. Starting with yourself, what was your age last birthday?

c. (INT: SKIP FOR RESPONDENT)

d. (INT: SHOW CARD C) Which of these best describes your situation?

HH3. (INT: FOR SECOND HOUSEHOLD MEMBER, START WITH THE OLDEST MEMBER OF THE HOUSEHOLD. REPEAT GRID QUESTIONS A-D FOR ALL OTHER HOUSEHOLD MEMBERS.)

Now thinking about the other members of your household, starting with the oldest ...

a. Could you tell me whether this is a male or a female?

b. What was this person's age last birthday?

c. (INT: SHOW CARD C) What is this person's relationship to you? Is he/she your ...?

d. (INT: SHOW CARD C) Which of these best describes your situation?

HOUSEHOLD GRID

		A		B	C	D
		INT: Code for respondent		Age	Relationship to respondent	Principal economic status?
		Male	Female		Code from list below	Code from list below
1	Respondent	1	2			
2	Person 2	1	2			
3	Person 3	1	2			
4	Person 4	1	2			
5	Person 5	1	2			
6	Person 6	1	2			
7	Person 7	1	2			
8	Person 8	1	2			
9	Person 9	1	2			
10	Person 10	1	2			

RELATIONSHIP CODES (CARD C) 1 spouse/partner 2 son/daughter 3 parent, step-parent or parent-in-law 4 daughter or son-in-law 5 grandchild 6 brother/sister (incl. half and step siblings) 7 other relative 8 other non relative
--

ECONOMIC STATUS CODES (CARD D): 1 at work as employee or employer/self-employed 2 employed, on child-care leave or other leave 3 at work as relative assisting on family farm or business * 4 unemployed less than 12 months 5 unemployed 12 months or more 6 unable to work due to long-term illness or disability 7 retired 8 full time homemaker/ responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home 9 in education (at school, university, etc.) / student 10 other ** * If paid a formal wage or salary for work in family farm or business, code as 1 ('at work as employee') ** If child is of pre-school age, code as 10 AFTER FILLING IN ALL MEMBERS OF THE HOUSEHOLD IN THE GRID, THEN IF: ————> CODES 1-2 FOR RESPONDENT GO TO Q2 ————> CODES 3-10 FOR RESPONDENT GO TO Q3
--

Q1. (INT: ASK IF RESPONDENT IS NOT IN PAID WORK (CODES 3-10 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID))

Have you ever had a paid job?

- 1 ☐ Yes → Ask Q3
 2 ☐ No → Go to Q1.2
 3 ☐ Don't Know → Go to Q1.2

Q2. (INT: ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID))

What is your current occupation?

(INT: SHOW CARD Q2 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q2)

Q3. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAD PAID WORK (CODE 1 AT Q1)

What was your last occupation?

(INT: SHOW CARD Q2 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW UNDER Q3)

	Q2 current occupation	Q3 last occupation
SELFEMPLOYED		
Farmer	1	1
Fisherman	2	2
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect etc.)	3	3
Owner of a shop, craftsman, other self-employed person	4	4
Business proprietor, owner (full or partner) of a company	5	5
EMPLOYED		
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	6	6
General management, director of top management (managing director, director general, other director)	7	7
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	8	8
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	9	9
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (sales person, driver, etc.)	10	10
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fire fighter, etc.)	11	11
Supervisor	12	12
Skilled manual worker	13	13
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	14	14

Q4. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER HAD PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

In your job, are/were you ...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ On an unlimited permanent contract
- 2 ☐ On a fixed term contract of less than 12 months
- 3 ☐ On a fixed term contract of 12 months or more
- 4 ☐ On a temporary employment agency contract
- 5 ☐ On an apprenticeship or other training scheme
- 6 ☐ Without a written contract
- 7 ☐ Other
- 8 ☐ (Don't know)

Q5. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER HAD PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

Do/did you work in the...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Private sector
- 2 ☐ Public sector
- 3 ☐ Joint private-public organisation or company
- 4 ☐ Non-for-profit sector, NGO
- 5 ☐ Other
- 6 ☐ Don't know
- 7 ☐ Refusal

Q6. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID) OR IF EVER HAD PAID JOB (CODE 1 AT Q1)

How many hours do/did you normally work per week (in your main job), including any paid or unpaid overtime?

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW)

Q7. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

Apart from your main work, have you also worked at an additional paid job or business or in agriculture at any time during the past four (working) weeks?

- 1 ☐ Yes → Go to Q8
 2 ☐ No → Go to Q9
 3 ☐ Don't know → Go to Q9

Q8. ASK IF 'ADDITIONAL PAYED JOB' CODE (1) IN Q7

About how many hours per week did you work in this additional job or business or in agriculture? Please give an average figure for the last 4 working weeks.

(INT.: ENTER HOURS PER WEEK OR 999 FOR DON'T KNOW) _____

Q9. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q9)

Using this card, how likely do you think it is that you might lose your job in the next 6 months?

- 1 ☐ Very likely
 2 ☐ Quite likely
 3 ☐ Neither likely, nor unlikely
 4 ☐ Quite unlikely
 5 ☐ Very unlikely
 6 ☐ (Don't know)

Q10. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q10)

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

(INT.: READ OUT THE STATEMENTS)

	(1) Strongly Agree	(2) Agree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Disagree	(5) Strongly disagree	(6) (Don't know)
a. My work is too demanding and stressful.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. I am well paid.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. I have a great deal of influence in deciding how to do my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. My work is dull and boring.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. My job offers good prospects for career advancement.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. I constantly work to tight deadlines.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. I work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q11. ASK IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK (CODES 1-2 AT D IN HOUSEHOLD GRID)

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q11)

How often has each of the following happened to you during the last year?

(INT.: READ OUT THE STATEMENTS)

	(1) Several times a week	(2) Several times a month	(3) Several times a year	(4) Less often/ rarely	(5) Never	(6) (Don't know)
a. I have come home from work too tired to do some of the household jobs which need to be done	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. It has been difficult for me to fulfil my family responsibilities because of the amount of time I spend on the job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. I have found it difficult to concentrate at work because of my family responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q12. ASK IF HOUSEHOLD HAS 2 PEOPLE OR MORE (HH1)

In your household, do you contribute the most to the household income?

- 1 ☐ Yes → Go to Q15
- 2 ☐ No → Go to Q13
- 3 ☐ I contribute about the same as others in my household → Go to Q15
- 4 ☐ Don't know → Go to Q15

Q13. ASK IF CODE 2 AT Q12

What is the current occupation of the person who contributes most to the household income?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q13 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW Q13 'current occupation')

Q14.

ASK IF CODE 2 AT Q12 AND CODE 11 – 14 AT Q13 (not working)

Did he/she do any paid work in the past? What was his/her last occupation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q13 AND CODE IN THE GRID BELOW Q14 'last occupation')

	Q13 current occupation	Q14 last occupation
NOT WORKING		
Responsible for ordinary shopping and looking after the home, or without any current occupation, not working	11	
Student	12	
Unemployed or temporarily not working	13	
Retired or unable to work through illness	14	
SELF EMPLOYED		
Farmer	1	1
Fisherman	2	2
Professional (lawyer, medical practitioner, accountant, architect etc.)	3	3
Owner of a shop, craftsman, other self-employed person	4	4
Business proprietor, owner (full or partner) of a company	5	5
EMPLOYED		
Employed professional (employed doctor, lawyer, accountant, architect)	6	6
General management, director or top management (managing director, director general, other director)	7	7
Middle management, other management (department head, junior manager, teacher, technician)	8	8
Employed position, working mainly at a desk	9	9
Employed position, not at a desk but travelling (salesman, driver, etc.)	10	10
Employed position, not at a desk, but in a service job (hospital, restaurant, police, fireman, etc.)	11	11
Supervisor	12	12
Skilled manual worker	13	13
Other (unskilled) manual worker, servant	14	14
NEVER DID ANY PAID WORK	19	

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q15. How many rooms does the accommodation in which you live have, excluding the kitchen, bathrooms, hallways, storerooms and rooms used solely for business?

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OF ROOMS OR 99 FOR DON'T KNOW) _____

Q16. Which of the following best describes your accommodation?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q16 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Own without mortgage (i.e. without any loans)
- 2 ☐ Own with mortgage
- 3 ☐ Tenant, paying rent to private landlord
- 4 ☐ Tenant, paying rent in social/voluntary/municipal housing
- 5 ☐ Accommodation is provided rent free
- 6 ☐ Other
- 7 ☐ (Don't know)

Q17. Do you have any of the following problems with your accommodation?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1) Yes	(2) No	(3) Don't know
a. Shortage of space	☐	☐	☐
b. Rot in windows, doors or floors	☐	☐	☐
c. Damp or leaks in walls or roof	☐	☐	☐
d. Lack of indoor flushing toilet	☐	☐	☐
e. Lack of bath or shower	☐	☐	☐
f. Lack of place to sit outside (e.g. garden, balcony, terrace)	☐	☐	☐

Q18. How likely do you think it is that you will need to leave your accommodation within the next six months because you can no longer afford it? Is it... [INT: READ OUT]

- 1 ☐ Very likely
- 2 ☐ Quite likely
- 3 ☐ Quite unlikely
- 4 ☐ Very unlikely
- 5 ☐ Don't know

Q19. There are some things that many people cannot afford, even if they would like them. For each of the following things on this card, can I just check whether your household can afford it if you want it?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1) Yes, can afford if want	(2) No, cannot afford it	(3) Don't know
1 Keeping your home adequately warm	☐	☐	☐
2 Paying for a week's annual holiday away from home (not staying with relatives)	☐	☐	☐
3 Replacing any worn-out furniture	☐	☐	☐
4 A meal with meat, chicken or fish every second day if you wanted it	☐	☐	☐
5 Buying new, rather than second-hand, clothes	☐	☐	☐
6 Having friends or family for a drink or meal at least once a month	☐	☐	☐

Q20. Over the past year, have you ... ?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't know (3)
1 Attended a meeting of a trade union, a political party or political action group	☐	☐	☐
2 Attended a protest or demonstration, or signed a petition, including an e-mail petition	☐	☐	☐
3 Contacted a politician or public official (other than routine contact arising from use of public services)	☐	☐	☐

Q21. Some people don't vote nowadays for one reason or another. Did you vote in the last (country) national election held in (month/year)?

- 1 ☐ Yes
- 2 ☐ Yes, but I spoiled my ballot/left my ballot blank
- 3 ☐ No
- 4 ☐ Not eligible to vote
- 5 ☐ (Refusal)
- 6 ☐ Don't know

Q22. Apart from weddings, funerals and other important religious events (e.g. baptisms, Christmas/Easter, or other specific holy days), about how often do you attend religious services?

(INT: SHOW CARD Q22 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Every day
- 2 ☐ More than once a week
- 3 ☐ Once a week
- 4 ☐ Once or twice a month
- 5 ☐ A few times a year
- 6 ☐ Once a year
- 7 ☐ Less than once a year
- 8 ☐ Never
- 9 ☐ (Don't know/refusal)

Q23. Generally speaking, would you say that most people can be trusted, or that you can't be too careful in dealing with people? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means that you can't be too careful and 10 means that most people can be trusted.

(INT: ENTER SCORE OR 11 FOR 'DON'T KNOW') _____

Q24. To what extent do you think that most people in [OUR COUNTRY] obey the rules when it comes to...?

[INT: READ OUT:]

	1. Do not obey the at all	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10. Obey rules completely
a. Paying taxes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
b. Traffic laws	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
c. Showing consideration for others in public places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Q25. In all countries there sometimes exists tension between social groups.

In your opinion, how much tension is there between each of the following groups in this country?

(INT: SHOW CARD Q25 AND READ OUT)

	(1) A lot of tension	(2) Some tension	(3) No tension	(4) (Don't know)
a. Poor and rich people	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Management and workers	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Men and women	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Old people and young people	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Different racial and ethnic groups	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Different religious groups	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q26. How about people from other countries coming here to live? Which one of the following do you think the government should do?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q26 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Let anyone come who wants to
- 2 ☐ Let people come as long as there are jobs available
- 3 ☐ Put strict limits on the number of foreigners who can come here to work
- 4 ☐ Prohibit people coming here to work
- 5 ☐ Don't Know

Q27. Please tell me how much you personally trust each of the following institutions.

[INT: READ OUT:]

	Do not trust at all									Trust completely	
a. [NATIONALITY] parliament	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
b. The legal system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
c. The press	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
d. The police	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
e. The government	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
f. The political parties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	

Q28. Please tell me whether you strongly agree, agree, neither agree or disagree, disagree or strongly disagree with each statement.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q28 AND READ OUT)

	(1) Strongly agree	(2) Agree	(3) Neither agree nor disagree	(4) Disagree	(5) Strongly disagree	(6) (Don't know)
a. I am optimistic about the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. On the whole my life is close to how I would like it to be	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. In order to get ahead nowadays you are forced to do things that are not correct	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. I feel left out of society	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Life has become so complicated today that I almost can't find my way	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. I don't feel the value of what I do is recognised by others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. Some people look down on me because of my job situation or income	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q29. All things considered, how satisfied would you say you are with your life these days? Please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10, where 1 means very dissatisfied and 10 means very satisfied.

(INT: ENTER SCORE OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW) _____

Q30. Could I ask you about your current marital status? Which of the following descriptions best applies to you?
Are you ...?

(INT: READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Married or living with partner
- 2 ☐ Separated or divorced and not living with partner
- 3 ☐ Widowed and not living with partner
- 4 ☐ Never married and not living with partner
- 5 ☐ (Don't know / No answer)

Q31. How many children of your own do you have?

(INT: ENTER NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN, IF NONE ENTER '00') _____

Q32. On average, thinking of people living outside your household how often do you have direct (face-to-face) contact with...

(INT: SHOW CARD Q32 AND READ OUT)

(INT: IF E.G. SEVERAL CHILDREN THEN ANSWER FOR THE ONE WITH WHICH THE RESPONDENT HAS THE MOST CONTACT)

	(1) More than once a day	(2) Every day or almost every day	(3) At least once a week	(4) Once or twice a month	(5) Several times a year	(6) Less often	(7) (Don't have such relatives)	(8) (Don't know)
a. Any of your children	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Your mother or father	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Any brother, sister or other relative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Any of your friends or neighbours	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q33. And on average, how often do you have contact with friends or family living outside your household by phone, e-mail or by post?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q33 AND READ OUT)

(INT.: IF E.G. SEVERAL CHILDREN THEN ANSWER FOR THE ONE WITH WHICH THE RESPONDENT HAS THE MOST CONTACT)

	(1) More than once a day	(2) Every day or almost every day	(3) At least once a week	(4) Once or twice a month	(5) Several times a year	(6) Less often	(7) (Don't have such relatives)	(8) (Don't know)
a. Any of your children	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Your mother or father	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Any brother, sister or other relative	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Any of your friends or neighbours	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q34. Do you have any friends who have come to live in [country of interview] from another country?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Yes, a lot
- 2 ☐ Yes, a few
- 3 ☐ No, none at all
- 4 ☐ (Don't know)

Q35. From whom would you get support in each of the following situations?

For each situation, choose the most important person.

(INT: SHOW CARD Q35 AND READ OUT)

	(1) Partner/ spouse	(2) Other family	(3) Work colleague	(4) Friend	(5) Neighbour	(6) Someone else	(7) Nobody	(8) (Don't know)
a. If you needed help around the house when ill	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. If you needed advice about a serious personal or family matter	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. If you needed help when looking for a job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. If you were feeling a bit depressed and wanting someone to talk to	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. If you needed to urgently raise €1000* to face an emergency	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

* In 12 New Member States (joined EU in 2004 and in 2007) & 2 candidate countries, €500 equivalent in national currencies

Q36. How often are you involved in any of the following activities outside of paid work?

(INT: SHOW CARD Q36 AND READ OUT)

	(1) Every day	(2) Several times a week	(3) Once or twice a week	(4) Less often than once a week	(5) Never	(6) (Don't know)
a. Caring for and educating children	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Cooking and housework	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Caring for elderly/ disabled relatives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Voluntary and charitable activities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q37.

ASK IF CODE 1,2,3 or 4 AT Q36

On average, how many hours in a week do you spend on these activities?

(INT.: ENTER NUMBER OF HOURS, IF DON'T KNOW ENTER '99') _____

- a. Caring for and educating children _____ hours
- b. Cooking and housework _____ hours
- c. Caring for elderly/ disabled relatives _____ hours
- d. Voluntary and charitable activities _____ hours

Q38

ASK IF HOUSEHOLD CONSISTS OF AT LEAST 2 PEOPLE AGED 18 OR OVER

(SEE HOUSEHOLD GRID) Do you think that the share of housework you do is...

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ More than your fair share
- 2 ☐ Just about your fair share
- 3 ☐ Less than your fair share
- 4 ☐ (Don't know)

(INT.: ASK Q39 ITEM 1 IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK CODE 1 OR 2 IN HH2D)

Q39.

I am going to read out some areas of daily life in which you can spend your time.

Could you tell me if you think you spend too much, too little or just about the right amount of time in each area.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q39 AND READ OUT)

	(1) Too much	(2) Just right	(3) Too little	(4) (Not applicable)	(5) (Don't know)
a. My job/paid work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Contact with family members living in this household or elsewhere	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Other social contact (not family)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Own hobbies/ interests	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Taking part in voluntary work or political activities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(INT.: ASK Q40 ITEM 2 IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK CODE 1 OR 2 IN HH2D)

Q40. Could you please tell me on a scale of 1 to 10 how satisfied you are with each of the following items, where 1 means you are very dissatisfied and 10 means you are very satisfied?

(INT: READ OUT; FOR EACH ITEM ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

- 1 Your education _____
- 2 Your present job _____
- 3 Your present standard of living _____
- 4 Your accommodation _____
- 5 Your family life _____
- 6 Your health _____
- 7 Your social life _____

(INT: ASK Q41 IF RESPONDENT HAS PAID WORK CODE 1 OR 2 IN HH2D)

Q41. I am going to read out a list of things that some people say are important in their quality of life. Please tell me how important each of these is in your quality of life.

	(1) Very important	(2) Important	(3) Neither important nor unimportant	(4) Not important	(5) Not at all important	(6) (Don't know)
1 A good education	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2 A good job	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3 A good standard of living	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4 Good accommodation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5 A good family life	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6 Good health	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7 A good social life	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q42. Taking all things together on a scale of 1 to 10, how happy would you say you are? Here 1 means you are very unhappy and 10 means you are very happy.

(INT: ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW) _____

Q43. In general, would you say your health is ...

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q43 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Very good
- 2 ☐ Good
- 3 ☐ Fair
- 4 ☐ Bad
- 5 ☐ Very bad
- 6 ☐ (Don't know)

Q44. Do you have any chronic (long-standing) physical or mental health problem, illness or disability?

- 1 ☐ Yes → Go to Q45
- 2 ☐ No → Go to Q46
- 3 ☐ (Refusal) → Go to Q46
- 4 ☐ Don't know → Go to Q46

Q45. (INT.: ASK Q45 IF 'HAS CHRONIC HEALTH PROBLEM' CODE 1 AT Q44)

Are you hampered in your daily activities by this physical or mental health problem, illness or disability?

- 1 ☐ Yes, severely
- 2 ☐ Yes, to some extent
- 3 ☐ No
- 4 ☐ (Refusal) → Go to Q46
- 5 ☐ Don't know → Go to Q46

(INT.: ASK ALL)

Q46. Please indicate for each of the five statements which is closest to how you have been feeling over the last two weeks.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q46 AND READ OUT)

<i>Over the last two weeks</i>		All of the time	Most of the time	More than half of the time	Less than half of the time	Some of the time	At no time
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1	I have felt cheerful and in good spirits	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I have felt calm and relaxed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	I have felt active and vigorous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	I woke up feeling fresh and rested	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	My daily life has been filled with things that interest me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q47. On the last occasion you needed to see a doctor or medical specialist, to what extent did each of the following factors make it difficult for you to do so?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q47 AND READ OUT)

	(1) Very difficult	(2) A little difficult	(3) Not difficult at all	(4) (Not applicable/ never needed to see doctor)	(5) (Don't know)
a. Distance to doctor's office/ hospital/ medical center	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Delay in getting appointment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Waiting time to see doctor on day of appointment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Cost of seeing the doctor	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q48. How old were you when you completed your full-time education?

(INT.: IF STILL IN FULL-TIME EDUCATION ENTER 99) _____ years old

(INT.: IF NEVER IN FULL-TIME EDUCATION ENTER 98)

Q49. What is the highest level of education you completed? Is this ...?

(INT.: SHOW CARD 49 AND READ OUT, FILL IN THE CORRESPONDING CODE)

- 1 ☐ No education completed (ISCED 0)
- 2 ☐ Primary education (ISCED 1)
- 3 ☐ Lower secondary education (ISCED 2)
- 4 ☐ Upper secondary education (ISCED 3)
- 5 ☐ Post-secondary including pre-vocational or vocational education but not tertiary (ISCED 4)
- 6 ☐ Tertiary education – first level (ISCED 5)
- 7 ☐ Tertiary education – advanced level (ISCED 6)
- 8 ☐ (Don't know/no answer)

ASK Q49o IF 'OTHER', CODE 98 IN Q49

Q49o. Which other?

(WRITE DOWN THE ANSWER- CODE AT THE OFFICE- ONE ANSWER ONLY)

Q50. How well do you read English?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q50 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Very well
- 2 ☐ Quite well
- 3 ☐ Not very well
- 4 ☐ Not at all
- 5 ☐ (Don't know)

Q51. Which of the following best describes your use of the internet over the past month?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q51 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Used the internet every day or almost every day
- 2 ☐ Used the internet a couple of times a week
- 3 ☐ Used the internet occasionally (once a month or less)
- 4 ☐ Did not use the internet at all
- 5 ☐ (Don't know)

Q52. Would you consider the area in which you live to be...?

(INT.: READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ The open countryside
- 2 ☐ A village/small town
- 3 ☐ A medium to large town
- 4 ☐ A city or city suburb
- 5 ☐ (Don't know)

Q53. Is your local neighbourhood an area where...?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q53 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Almost nobody is of a different race or ethnic group from most people in [OUR COUNTRY]
- 2 ☐ Some people are of a different race or ethnic group from most people IN [OUR COUNTRY]
- 3 ☐ Many people are of a different race or ethnic group
- 4 ☐ (Don't know)

- Q54.** Please think about the area where you live now – I mean the immediate neighbourhood of your home. Do you have very many reasons, many reasons, a few reasons, or no reason at all to complain about each of the following problems?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q54 AND READ OUT)

	(1) Very many reasons	(2) Many reasons	(3) A few reasons	(4) No reason at all	(5) (Don't know)
a. Noise	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Air pollution	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. Lack of access to recreational or green areas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. Water quality	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. Crime, violence or vandalism	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. Litter or rubbish in the street	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

- Q55.** Still thinking about your immediate neighbourhood, are there any of the following facilities available within walking distance?

	Yes (1)	No (2)	Don't know (3)
a. A food store or supermarket	☐	☐	☐
b. Post office	☐	☐	☐
c. Banking facilities	☐	☐	☐
d. Cinema, theatre or cultural centre	☐	☐	☐
e. Public transport facilities (bus, metro, tram, etc)	☐	☐	☐
f. Recycling facilities	☐	☐	☐

- Q56.** In general, how would you rate the quality of each of the following PUBLIC services in [OUR COUNTRY]?

(INT.: READ OUT; FOR EACH ITEM ENTER SCORE GIVEN OR 11 FOR DON'T KNOW)

- a. Health services _____
- b. Education system _____
- c. Public transport _____
- d. Child care services _____
- e. Care services for elderly _____
- f. State pension system _____

- Q57.** A household may have different sources of income and more than one household member may contribute to it. Thinking of your household's total monthly income: is your household able to make ends meet....?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q57 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Very easily
- 2 ☐ Easily
- 3 ☐ Fairly easily
- 4 ☐ With some difficulty
- 5 ☐ With difficulty
- 6 ☐ With great difficulty
- 7 ☐ (Don't know)

- Q58.** Has your household been in arrears at any time during the past 12 months, that is, unable to pay as scheduled any of the following?

(INT.: READ OUT)

	(1) Yes	(2) No	(3) Don't know
a. Rent or mortgage payments for accommodation	☐	☐	☐
b. Utility bills, such as electricity, water, gas	☐	☐	☐

- Q59.** Is total housing cost a financial burden to the household?

- 1 ☐ Yes, a heavy burden
- 2 ☐ Yes, somewhat a burden
- 3 ☐ Not a burden at all
- 4 ☐ (Don't know)

- Q60.** Has your household at any time during the past 12 months run out of money to pay for food?

- 5 ☐ Yes
- 6 ☐ No
- 7 ☐ Don't know

- Q61.** In the past year, has your household helped meet its need for food by growing vegetables or fruits or keeping poultry or livestock?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q61 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ No, not at all
- 2 ☐ Yes, for up to one-tenth of the household's food needs
- 3 ☐ Yes, for between one-tenth and half of household's food need
- 4 ☐ Yes, for half or more of the household's needs
- 5 ☐ (Don't know)

Q62. In the past year, did your household give regular help in the form of either money or food to a person you know not living in your household (e.g. parents, grown-up children, other relatives, or someone not related)?

- 1 ☐ Yes
 2 ☐ No
 3 ☐ Don't know

Q63. In the past year, did your household receive regular help in the form of either money or food from a person not living in your household (e.g. parents, grown-up children, other relatives, or someone not related)?

- 1 ☐ Yes
 2 ☐ No
 3 ☐ Don't know

Q64. Have you or someone else in your household received any of the following types of income over the past 12 months? Please tick 'yes' or 'no' for each source of income.

(INT.: READ OUT)

	Yes	No	Don't know
	(1)	(2)	(3)
a. Wages or salaries	☐	☐	☐
b. Income from self-employment or farming	☐	☐	☐
c. Pension	☐	☐	☐
d. Child benefit (inc. alimony)	☐	☐	☐
e. Unemployment benefit, disability benefit or any other social benefits	☐	☐	☐
f. Other income (e.g. from savings, property or stocks, etc.)	☐	☐	☐

(INT.: ASK Q65 IF 'YES' CODE (1) HAS BEEN TICKED AT LEAST TWICE IN Q64)

Q65. Which of your sources of income is the largest?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q65 AND READ OUT)

- 1 ☐ Wages or salaries
 2 ☐ Income from self-employment or farming
 3 ☐ Pension
 4 ☐ Child benefit (incl. alimony)
 5 ☐ Unemployment benefit, disability benefit or any other social benefits
 6 ☐ Other income (e.g. from savings, property or stocks, etc.)
 7 ☐ Refusal
 8 ☐ Don't know

Q66. If you add up the income from all sources for all the members of the household, do you know what your household's total net monthly income is, that is, the amount that is left over after taxes have been deducted?

- 1 ☐ Yes → Ask Q67
 2 ☐ No → Go to Q68
 3 ☐ (Refusal) → Go to Q68

(INT.: ASK Q67 IF RESPONDENT KNOWS THE TOTAL NET MONTHLY INCOME OF THE HOUSEHOLD)

Q67. Please can you tell me how much your household's NET income per month is? If you don't know the exact figure, please give an estimate.

Net monthly income amount in national currency: _____

(INT.: ASK Q68 IF RESPONDENT DOES NOT KNOW THE TOTAL NET MONTHLY INCOME OF THE HOUSEHOLD)

Q68. Perhaps you can provide the approximate range instead. What letter best matches your household's total net income (SHOW CARD 68)? Use the part of the show card that you know best: weekly, monthly or annual income.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q68)

(INT.: PLEASE CIRCLE THE CODE THAT MATCHES THE RESPONDENT'S ANSWER / LETTER)

SHOW CARD Q68 Please tell me the letter that corresponds with your net household income? Use the part of the card that you know best: weekly, monthly or annual net income.

Code	WEEKLY	MONTHLY	YEARLY
D	Less than €12	Less than €50	Less than €600
B	€ 12 to € 24	€ 50 to €99	€ 600 to €1,199
I	€ 25 to € 35	€100 to €149	€ 1,200 to €1,799
O	€ 36 to € 49	€ 150 to €199	€ 1,800 to €2,399
T	€ 50 to €74	€ 200 to €299	€ 2,400 to €3,599
G	€ 75 to €99	€ 300 to €449	€ 3,600 to €5,399
P	€ 100 to €124	€ 450 to €549	€ 5,400 to €6,599
A	€ 125 to €149	€ 550 to €674	€ 6,600 to €8,099
F	€ 150 to €199	€ 675 to € 899	€ 8,100 to € 10,799
E	€ 200 to €249	€ 900 to € 1,124	€ 10,800 to € 13,499
Q	€ 250 to €299	€ 1,125 to € 1,349	€ 13,500 to € 16,199
H	€ 300 to €349	€ 1,350 to € 1,574	€ 16,200 to € 18,899
C	€ 350 to €399	€ 1,575 to € 1,799	€ 18,900 to € 21,599
L	€ 400 to € 449	€ 1,800 to €2,024	€ 21,600 to € 24,299

Code	WEEKLY	MONTHLY	YEARLY
N	€ 450 to € 499	€ 2,025 to € 2,249	€ 24,300 to € 26,999
R	€ 500 to € 599	€ 2,250 to € 2,699	€ 27,000 to € 32,399
M	€ 600 to € 699	€ 2,700 to € 3,149	€ 32,400 to € 37,799
S	€ 700 to € 799	€ 3,150 to € 3,599	€ 37,800 to € 43,199
K	€ 800 to € 899	€ 3,600 to € 4,049	€ 41,200 to € 48,599
U	€ 900 to € 999	€ 4,050 to € 4,499	€ 48,600 to € 53,999
V	€ 1,000 or more	€ 4,500 or more	€ 54,000 or more
22	(Refusal)		
23	(Don't know)		

Q69. Are you a citizen of this country [OUR COUNTRY]?

- 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ (Refusal)

Q70. You personally, were you born...?

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q68)

- 1 ☐ In this country (OUR COUNTRY)
2 ☐ In another country that is today a Member State of the European Union
3 ☐ In Europe, but not in a country that is today a Member State of the European Union
4 ☐ In Asia, in Africa or in Latin America
5 ☐ In North America or in Oceania
6 ☐ (Refusal)
7 ☐ (Don't know)

Q71. Please describe where your parents were born.

(INT.: SHOW CARD Q69)

- 1 ☐ Your mother and your father were born in this country (OUR COUNTRY)
2 ☐ One of your parents was born in this country (OUR COUNTRY) and the other was born in another country that is today a Member State of the European Union
3 ☐ Your mother and your father were born in another country that is today a Member State of the European Union
4 ☐ At least one of your parents was born outside of the European Union
5 ☐ Refusal
6 ☐ Don't know

YOU HAVE REACHED THE END OF THE INTERVIEW - THANK RESPONDENT FOR HIS/HER TIME.

Appendix C. Letter of intent

Letter of intent

To Whom It May Concern:

What is the survey about?

This survey is part of series of academic studies on different types of working arrangements in the European Community conducted in Cass Business School, City University of London by individual researchers of the University. The purpose of this specific study is to understand the use of different types of work arrangements in Greece and how these arrangements are perceived by employees and organisations, to what extent they are used/not used within organisations in the Greek region and for what reasons employees and/or employers might avoid them or adopt them. The study also aims to identify trends in industrial relations regarding the current economic crisis and its impact on work arrangements under crisis circumstances.

Your participation is extremely important as it is the only way that consistent and accurate data can be obtained.

Who will see my answers?

- The information you provide will be treated as strictly confidential and anonymity is guaranteed (you do not give neither your name nor the name of your organisation in any section of the questionnaire). We personally guarantee that no one apart from our research team will ever have access to your responses.
- We will analyse the findings in a way that no individual or organisation may be identified. Each respondent replies on line and individually. Replies go straight to a pool that only we have access to, without though being able to distinguish between respondents.

How do I complete the questionnaire?

Although we understand that you may feel reluctant to answer a specific question, please do not omit questions as they form a unity that needs to be analyzed. There are no development questions, but only multiple choices and rankings. The questionnaire is very short and takes less than 10 minutes.

The study is conducted for City University a non-profit institution and in accordance with normal academic practice. City University has a Code of Practice for Research that has been designed to encourage good conduct in research and help prevent misconduct. It provides general principles and standards for good practice in research, applicable to individual researchers, groupings or departments who carry out, fund, host or are otherwise involved in research at City University. Publications and other forms of media communication, including media appearances, press releases and conferences, will, with your consent, acknowledge the support received from your organization. For example, articles published in journals, or deposited in institutional or subject-based repositories, the acknowledgement of support will take the form of a sentence as in the following example, “this work was supported by XXXX”. Results will be made available through PhD thesis, Cass Knowledge Transfer Centre and academic journals. A copy of the summary of findings can be sent to the organisations involved after certain period of time necessary for analysis and interpretation (expected time is approximately in two years).

Thank you very much in advance.

We sincerely appreciate your participation.

IouliaBessa

PhD Candidate

Faculty of Management

Cass Business School

Lilian M. de Menezes

Professor of Decision Sciences

Faculty of Management

Cass Business School

Appendix D. Descriptive statistics of the Pilot Study using data from the pilot survey

Indicative employee characteristics

Years in company	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
less than a year	1	11.1	11.1	11.1
2 to 5	1	11.1	11.1	22.2
5 to 10	3	33.3	33.3	55.6
10 or more	4	44.4	44.4	100.0
Total	9	100.0	100.0	

Full-time/Part-time	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Full-time	9	100.0	100.0	100.0

Hourly pay	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
4,125- 5, 50 (740 to 1100 Euros)	4	44.4	44.4	44.4
5,50- 10 (1100 to 2000 Euros)	1	11.1	11.1	55.6
10 or more (2000 Euros or more)	4	44.4	44.4	100.0
Total	9	100.0	100.0	

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	7	77.8	87.5	87.5
Female	1	11.1	12.5	100.0
Total	8	88.9	100.0	
Missing -999	1	11.1		
Total	9	100.0		

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 26-35	1	11.1	12.5	12.5
36-45	2	22.2	25.0	37.5
46-55	5	55.6	62.5	100.0
Total	8	88.9	100.0	
Missing -999	1	11.1		
Total	9	100.0		

Education level	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Lyceum	5	55.6	55.6	55.6
Technical Education Institute	2	22.2	22.2	77.8
Higher Education Institute	2	22.2	22.2	100.0
Total	9	100.0	100.0	

Regarding FWAs

Interest on FWAs	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	5	55.6	55.6	55.6
No	4	44.4	44.4	100.0
Total	9	100.0	100.0	

Awareness on FWAs	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	3	33.3	33.3	33.3
No	6	66.7	66.7	100.0
Total	9	100.0	100.0	

Reasons against FWAs

Pay not worth		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	3	33.3	75.0	75.0
	Yes	1	11.1	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	44.4	100.0	
Missing	-999	5	55.6		
Total		9	100.0		
Household needs two salaries		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	2	22.2	50.0	50.0
	Yes	2	22.2	50.0	100.0
	Total	4	44.4	100.0	
Missing	-999	5	55.6		
Total		9	100.0		

Not good career prospect		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	3	33.3	75.0	75.0
	Yes	1	11.1	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	44.4	100.0	
Missing	-999	5	55.6		
Total		9	100.0		

FWAs are synonymous to underemployment		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	3	33.3	75.0	75.0
	Yes	1	11.1	25.0	100.0
	Total	4	44.4	100.0	
Missing	-999	5	55.6		
Total		9	100.0		

Reasons for FWAs

Better control over workday		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	11.1	20.0	20.0
	Yes	4	44.4	80.0	100.0
	Total	5	55.6	100.0	
Missing	-999	4	44.4		
Total		9	100.0		
Work-Life Balance		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	3	33.3	60.0	60.0
	Yes	2	22.2	40.0	100.0
	Total	5	55.6	100.0	
Missing	-999	4	44.4		
Total		9	100.0		

Cope better with children		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	1	11.1	20.0	20.0
	Yes	4	44.4	80.0	100.0
	Total	5	55.6	100.0	
Missing	-999	4	44.4		
Total		9	100.0		

Appendix E. List of Participating Companies

Industry	Sector
Food and Beverage	Private
Energy	Public
Food and Beverage	Private
Energy	Private
Health	Private
Agriculture	Public
Consulting	Private
Consulting	Private
Food and Beverage	Private
Tourism	Private
Education	Public
Energy	Public
Public services	Public
Construction	Private
Education	Public
Public services	Public
Public services	Public
Health	Private
Logistics	Private
Banking	Private
Energy	Public
Press	Private
Banking	Private
Education	Private
Heavy Materials	Private

Press	Private
Education	Private
Commerce	Private
Education	Private
Public services	Public
Public services	Public
Public services	Public
Public services	Public
Public services	Public
Tourism	Public
Tourism	Private
Food and Beverage	Private
Press	Private
Public services	Public
Construction	Private
