

Chapter 1: Patterns of flexibility

1. Background variables

In the survey of the 1008 respondents, 53.5 per cent were women and 46.5 per cent were men. The largest number of households by size were households with four members (29.7 per cent) followed by households with three members (23.1 per cent), households with two members (19.9 per cent) and those with five or more members (19.5 per cent); there were only 7.1 per cent of one member households. Probably the most important family typology is the division into households with and those without children. In the Slovenian survey, the share of households with children under 15 years is 31.1 per cent; the share of households without children under 15 years is 68.9 per cent.

Respondents were classified by age into four groups. Of the 1006 respondents 46.5 per cent fell into the age group 26-50, 21.4 per cent into the age group 51-65, 16.6 per cent were older than 65, and 15.5 per cent belonged to the age group 18-25 years. With respect to urban/rural situation, 56 per cent of the respondents came from urban and 44 per cent from rural environment.

The economic standard of the households is analysed here in terms of ownership of dwellings, ownership of permanent goods in the households and by household income (sextiles). With respect to the ownership of dwellings, about 78 per cent of the respondents live in their own dwellings; an additional 13 per cent are not paying rent. More than 98 per cent own a washing machine, a refrigerator, and a colour TV, 95 per cent possess telephones and about 90 per cent of households own a car and a freezer. For this group of products there is little differentiation. However, there is a significant relationship between income and Internet access, PC, satellite dish/cable TV and ownership of a second dwelling (house or flat).

For the variable 'social group of respondent', we are here using an additional variable, which was available in the joint survey in Slovenia and thus dividing the respondents into three social groups: working class (31.5 per cent), middle class (51.9 per cent) and upper middle class (5.9 per cent) – 10.5 per cent of respondents do not fit in those three classes. As far as work typology is concerned, in the next section a more detailed explanation is provided of how a provisional categorization of flexibility groups was defined.

2. A provisional categorization of flexibility

In this section we shall discuss a provisional categorization of the survey respondents in different categories of flexibility. This grouping will serve the purpose of initiating some hypotheses as to how certain aspects of flexibility could be arranged in broader groups that could be more subject to further empirical analysis. There are many aspects of flexibility, the broadest subdivision probably being the flexibility concerns of enterprises and flexibility concerns of households. For our study the latter is more important, although the actual implementation of policies and realizations of intentions of both sides happen only in interaction with the labour and product markets.

One possible approach for an operational definition of flexibility is that flexibility is contrasted to the standard form of arrangements. In terms of work flexibility, the standard form of employment, which is seemingly also the most desirable form from the point of view

of job security in Slovenia, is a permanent contract for full time employment with a regular working schedule. In combining the empirical prevalence of such cases with the prevailing subjective preference, we will form the first of the three major categories of employment as those employed full time, with regular working schedule and only one economic activity. This category will be labelled 'standard pattern of employment'. This means that the rest of cases could be labelled flexible forms of employment. Such a dichotomous variable has an advantage of being simple, but the simplicity is outweighed by at least two disadvantages. One disadvantage is that the highest level of aggregation of various flexibility forms encompasses too many diverse categories. In general, the higher the level of disaggregation, the more specific conditions can be taken into account; but the price for using many categories is small cell sizes (especially in surveys) and problems of using the results to generalize for policy purposes. It is difficult to find the proper balance between these two aspects. The second disadvantage is related to the fact that some forms of flexibility are very desirable from the point of view of the respondent, while some other forms of flexibility might be imposed on him/her as unfavourable conditions, which he/she has to accept to get the job.

In this report we have used several subdivisions of flexible (non-standard) employment forms. One was to break down these forms into eight subcategories. There were advantages in doing so, but in many cases it was difficult to draw statistically significant conclusions. Therefore, we have broken down the flexible (non-standard) employment forms into two major groups: flexible employment A and flexible employment B. The flexible employment B category was formed by adding together several forms of flexibility that entail some negative elements. Of course, it is not possible to be sure whether the breakdown into eight categories used in this process (see Tables 5.1a and 5.1b) is appropriate or not, without knowing the subjective evaluations of the persons involved. However, as a first approximation one can start from such assumptions and in a later analysis repeat the exercise with a more refined categorization. In the flexible employment B category there are those who work shift-work, those who work irregular hours, those working with fixed contracts, part time employees, casual workers and those employed but laid off. One can call these forms 'involuntary' or 'undesirable' forms of flexibility. The flexible employment category A encompasses flexible people employed full time with more than one economic activity or having a possibility of flexitime, or self-employed, or students with additional jobs as well as the retired doing additional jobs. This approximation is meant to indicate the likelihood of 'voluntary' or 'desirable' forms of flexibility.

In the empirical analysis, this categorization into three groups - flexible employment A, flexible employment B and full time regular schedule - provided interesting results that could be helpful in planning further work on the national reports or on analysis of surveys and possibly later in the comparative stage of the research across nations. The initial results can be helpful in searching for a more precise, yet pragmatic definition of flexibility at this level of analysis. With this categorization several interesting significant differences between the three groups were established from the Slovenian survey data, which will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

3. Patterns of time flexibility

The normal pattern is the 40 hour working week in the main activity, as shown by the modus of the distribution, and this can be considered as the standard against which the non-standard patterns of hours of work can be discussed. A clear majority of all answers refer to that exact

figure of 40 hours per week. If we take a slightly wider class from 37 to 42 hours, about 57 per cent of all fall into this category, 11 per cent work less than 36 hours and about 32 per cent work 43 or more hours. It is to the groups below and above the standard working hours that the analysis of the time flexibility has to pay more attention. If we take into consideration all activities (i.e. some respondents work in more than one activity), then the share of those working 43 or more hours increases to nearly 40 per cent. Table 1.2 adds some information on hours of work for family members of the respondents. For this group the share of the 'standard' working week (37-42 hours) is 70 per cent, which is considerably higher than for the main activity of the respondents.

Table 1.1 Hours of work in main activity and all activities for respondents

Hours of work	Main activity		All activities		Main activity *		All activities *	
	N	%	N	%	M (%)	F (%)	M (%)	F (%)
Less than 36 hours	63	10.8	58	9.9	7.9	14.3	7.3	13.1
From 37 to 42	330	56.7	296	50.7	50.3	64.3	42.3	60.7
From 43 to 50	106	18.2	113	19.4	23.1	12.4	23.7	14.2
More than 50 hours	83	14.3	117	20.0	18.7	9.0	26.8	12.0
Total	582	100	584	100	100	100	100	100

Significance level of chi-square tests: * 0.01.

Table 1.2 Distribution of hours of work (male and female) for family members

Distribution of hours of work (male and female)	M	F	Total
	n=552	n=456	n=1008
Less than 36 hours	6.9	10.3	8.4
From 37 to 42	66.8	72.8	69.5
From 43 to 50	14.7	12.1	13.6
More than 50 hours	11.6	4.8	8.5

Men are working more hours in employment per week than women. In the group of respondents with one or more economic activities, when analyzing the hours of work for the main activity, 42 per cent of men work more than the standard hours, and only 21 per cent of women. If hours of work in all activities are taken into account, the difference is even greater, 50 per cent of men work more than standard hours; the corresponding number for women is 26 per cent. On the other hand, the percentage of women in the category less than 36 hours is higher than that for men. Thus, the gender differences with respect to hours of work, both in the main activity and in all activities, are statistically significant at the 1per cent significance level. Cross-tabulation of hours of work with age groups shows that the age group of 26 to 50 years is concentrated in the standard category 37-42 hours; younger and older respondents show a wider distribution, i.e. they work shorter or longer hours.

Table 1.3. Hours of work for all activities by three flexibility categories (per cent) (n=565)

	Flexibility group A	Flexibility group B	Standard group C
Less than 36 hours	14.8	11.9	1.7
From 37 to 42	21.4	55.0	75.7
From 43 to 50	23.1	16.8	18.8
More than 50 hours	40.7	16.3	3.9

The most interesting variables related to hours of work of the respondents are income of the individual and of the household, urban-rural disaggregation, working schedule and preferences for fewer, more or the same hours of work.

Table 1.4 Hours of work for all activities: urban – rural (n=584)

Hours of work	Urban	Rural	Total
Less than 36	11.9	7.4	9.9
From 37 to 42	48.9	52.9	50.7
From 43 to 50	20.2	18.3	19.3
More than 50 hours	19.0	21.4	20.0

A higher than the average share of persons working 36 or fewer hours is observed in urban areas, most probably as a result of the greater availability of non-standard work possibilities. The fact that the lowest sextile of personal income distribution shows a distinctly higher share of people working fewer hours per week than other sextiles is also very pronounced. On the other hand, the highest class of personal incomes shows the highest share of persons working more than the average number of hours, while 52 per cent of those from the highest group of income work more than 43 hours in all activities (45 per cent in the case for hours of work in the first activity), which is much higher than in the lowest groups of personal income. These differences are somewhat less pronounced when the cross-tabulation of hours of work is done with household income, but the pattern is still very clear.

In addition to hours of work, working schedule is an important variable in analysing the time flexibility. About 45 per cent of respondents work regular working hours, which were in the survey defined as the pattern of working Monday morning to Friday afternoon. Flexitime was defined as the possibility that while working regular working hours one can start or finish work earlier or later. About 10 per cent of men and 12 per cent of women are in this category. Shift work is important for a substantial minority – 21 per cent of men and 24 per cent of women. The numbers with an irregular working schedule are also substantial, about 18 per cent of men and 15 per cent of women.

Table 1.5 Working schedule by gender

Working schedule by gender	Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Regular working hours (Monday morning to Friday afternoons)	147	47.1	113	43.3	260	45.4
Shift work	64	20.5	63	24.1	127	22.2
Flexitime	30	9.6	32	12.3	62	10.8
Other regular schedule	16	5.1	12	4.6	28	4.9
Irregular, it varies	55	17.6	39	14.9	94	16.4
DK/NA	0	0.0	2	0.8	2	0.3
	312	100	261	100	573	100

Table 1.6 Preference for hours of work in main activity by gender

Preference for hours of work in main activity by gender	Male		Female		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
The same hours	197	62.7	167	63.7	364	63.2
More hours	16	5.1	9	3.4	25	4.3
Fewer hours	91	29.0	75	28.6	166	28.8
DK/NA	10	3.2	11	4.2	21	3.6
Total	314	100	262	100	576	100

A very interesting pattern of expressed preferences is presented in Table 1.6. A very clear majority of both men and women (about 63 per cent) prefer to work the same hours as they are working now. Even more interesting is the division of expressed preferences between working more or fewer hours. The predominant preference is for working fewer hours (about 29 per cent of both men and women) while only about 4 per cent indicate that they would prefer to work more hours.

While the reasons for choosing to work fewer hours or the same hours were broken down in eight categories in the questionnaire, it is of interest that other reasons than those suggested in the first seven categories are also important (23 per cent of reasons for working fewer hours and 14 per cent of reasons for working the same number of hours). As the most important reason for wanting to work the same number of hours, 25 per cent of men and 36 per cent of women indicate that in such a way they can meet their domestic commitments and spend time with their family. An important reason (about 20 per cent for both men and women) is that they would not like (or are not able) to work more hours. It is also interesting that 25 per cent of men and 9 per cent of women indicate that they are earning enough by working the present number of hours.

As mentioned above, among those who would prefer a change in the number of hours of work, those preferring to work fewer hours outnumber those who would prefer to work more hours by at least 6:1. The most important reason for working fewer hours is their preference to spending more time with their family (or fulfilling domestic commitments); 30 per cent of men and 44 per cent of women who would prefer to work fewer hours stated that reason. The next category of expressed reason in line is other reasons (24 per cent of men and 21 per cent of women) followed by the wish not to work long hours. About 7 per cent would like to work fewer hours in order to undertake education or training (see the respective tables in the appendix).

4. *Patterns of place flexibility*

The most frequent arrangement for place of work is found in the category 'different locality to which one commutes': 39 per cent of men and 50 per cent of women fall into this category. This means that there is a high percentage of workers in Slovenia who daily commute to a place of work that is outside of the locality in which they live. Slovenia does not have a very high concentration of population in the capital city; the pattern of population settlement is not very concentrated. This means that people have to commute to the place of work, the distribution of which is more concentrated than the distribution of population settlement.

Table 1.7 Distribution of place of work by gender

Place of work	Male		Female		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
At home	20	6.4	13	4.9	33	5.7
Combined at home and elsewhere	20	6.4	7	2.6	27	4.7
Within the locality where you live	104	33.2	103	38.9	207	35.8
Within a different locality to which you commute	123	39.3	133	50.2	256	44.3
Abroad	5	1.6	1	0.4	6	1.0
Always changing	40	12.8	8	3.0	48	8.3
Other situation	1	0.3	0	0.0	1	0.2
Total	313	100.0	265	100.0	578	100

Obviously, the greatest difference is between urban and rural areas; 56 per cent of employed from the urban areas work in the same place as they reside; another 4 per cent of them work at home. In contrast, 68 per cent of employed from rural areas work in a place other than the settlement in which they live. As far as gender differences are concerned, 13 per cent of men as against 3 per cent of women always change their place of work. As far as social groups are concerned, 49 per cent of respondents from the working class work in a different locality to which they commute, as against only 30 per cent of the upper middle class. The category of workers who always change their place of work is pronounced, with 15 per cent in the upper middle class, followed by 11 per cent of the working class and 5 per cent of the middle class falling into this category. As far as the combination of age and place of work is concerned, older people are much more inclined to work at home than younger people and less inclined to commute. The highest percentage of those commuting is to be found in the 18-25 year and the 26-50 year groups with 53 per cent and 46 per cent, respectively, as opposed to only 29 per cent of workers older than 50 years. The differences with respect to the place of work are not related to household income; across all sextiles the differences in percentages are not pronounced. Differences are slightly higher for personal income, a higher percentage of the lower two sextiles that work at home is most probably an indication that they could not find another job.

With respect to changing place of work for the main activity, profound differences are found in comparing men and women; 85 per cent of women and 55 per cent of men stated that they never vary the place of work in their main activity. Again, nearly 19 per cent of men vary the place of work every day as against 2 per cent of women. As far as social groups are concerned, about 70 per cent of those belonging to the working class and to the middle class, never change the place of work, as against only 44 per cent for the upper middle class. Lower income groups seem to experience less flexibility as far as varying the place of work is concerned.

Table 1.8 Main activity - work in varying places by gender (n=569)

	Male (n=310)	Female (n=259)
	%	%
Never	55	85
Varies some other way	9	4
According to seasons	4	1
Each month	5	2
Each week	9	7
Each day	19	2

Table 1.9 Who decides on the place of work by gender (n=549)

	Male (n=305)	Female (n=244)
	%	%
I decide	24	16
Employer decides	55	69
Employer and I decide together	10	7
It is outside our control	12	9

An important point with respect to the flexibility of place is who decides about this flexibility. About 20 per cent respondents can decide on the place of work by themselves, 24 per cent of

men and 16 per cent of women. The prevailing trend is that the employer decides on the place of work and this is the case for 55 per cent of men and 69 per cent of women. When the flexibility of decisions with respect to the place of work is analysed across the three social groups, the percentage of those who decide by themselves is the highest in the upper middle class and lowest in the working class, while the direction is of course reversed for the percentage of those whose place of work is decided by the employer, which is much higher for the working class than for the middle or the upper middle class.

Table 1.10 Decision on the place of work by social groups (n=512)

	Working class (n=170)	Middle class (n=309)	Upper middle class (n=33)
	%	%	%
I decide	14	23	30
Employer decides	72	59	42
Employer and I decide together	5	9	15
It is outside our control	10	9	12

5. *Patterns of flexibility of conditions*

The conditions of work can be studied from many angles, including the hours and place of work, which were discussed already in the previous two sections. Further possibilities for analyzing the conditions of work are employment status, form of contract, number of activities worked and different sources of income. In the survey the respondents had the possibility to answer the question about different sources of income as a multiple response question. The results are presented in Table 2.2 in Chapter 2. The most important sources of income were wage or salary (52 per cent of cases), pensions (30 per cent of cases) and additional job (10 per cent of cases).

Table 1.11 shows the employment status of respondents. The two most important groups in these categorizations are those employed full time (about 40 per cent of total answers) and retired from paid work (about 27 per cent of all answers). There are about 7 per cent of unemployed family members, which is very close to the aggregate figure for unemployment in Slovenia by the ILO definition. As this question about employment status was also a multiple response question, 425 of respondents were employed full-time, which is about 42 per cent of 1008 respondents in the survey.

Table 1.11 Employment status of respondents

	N	%
Employed full time	425	39.6
Employed part time	10	0.9
Employed on fixed contract	62	5.8
In employment but temporarily laid off	4	0.4
Self employed	42	3.9
Casual worker (working from on a day to day arrangement)	36	3.4
Farmer	22	2.1
Pupil/student in education or training	87	8.1
Government training scheme	0	0.0
Unpaid worker in family business	4	0.4
Unemployed	60	5.6
Retired from paid work	279	26.0
Housekeeper	30	2.8
Sick or disabled	9	0.8
Other	3	0.3
Total	1073	100%

The share of those retired from paid work is about 28 per cent, which is high, but in agreement with the results of the Household Expenditure Survey for 1998, where this share was close to 30 per cent. This high percentage of pensioners was influenced by a high level of retirements at a lower age in the trough of the depression in the beginning of 1990s, when the average age of those retiring fell by two years for men and for 3 years for women (Stanovnik, 2001).

Table 1.12 Types of contract that respondents have with their employer in the MAIN activity

Type of contract	n	%
Permanent contract	365	64
Fixed term	69	12
Self employed	45	8
No contract	30	5
With a temporary work agency	16	3
On a fee only basis	13	2
Contract but with reduced or no working time	12	2
"On call" subject to requirements of employment	11	2
On a work experience project	2	0
Don't know, no answer	10	2
	573	100

When analyzing the group of respondents who had at least one economic activity in the last twelve months it is shown that the predominant pattern of contract in Slovenia is still a permanent contract, with 64 per cent of respondents giving this response. When asked the reason, 2.5 per cent responded that they could not get a permanent contract and another 3.6 per cent indicated that they could only get a contract for a shorter time. Those who responded that they did not wish to have a permanent contract (only 1.2 per cent) mentioned that the main reason for this is the wish to continue their education.

Having a fixed-term contract is reported by 12 per cent of the respondents, who answered the question as to what sort of contract they had with their employer in their main activity. This category is second most important after the prevailing category of a permanent contract. The fixed-term contract, however, has been increasing as a form of contract in recent times, as many people who are entering new employment are offered this rather than a permanent contract. The figure is close to about 10 per cent of persons with temporary employment as a percentage of all persons in employment in 1998 in the Household Expenditure Survey. It is of interest to observe that the share of people in temporary employment is declining from the lowest to the highest income deciles for both men and women (Stanovnik, 2001). In terms of international comparisons, the 12 per cent share of contracts of limited duration in Slovenia is very close to the EU15 average and to the situation in the Netherlands and Sweden, while the share in the UK is considerably lower. Also the gender distribution of temporary jobs is quite similar to that in the Netherlands and Sweden.

Part time employment results show a very different picture. Firstly, as seen in Table 1.11, only 1 per cent of the respondents answered that they are employed part time, even in a multiple response question. Here the results of the HWF survey are very different from the percentage reported in the statistics on part time employment by SORS. The statistical office namely defines part time employment as employment of less than 36 hours per week. In such a way Slovenia is then quoted in international comparisons with part time employment of about 6 per cent of total employment in 2000 (European Commission, 2001). The corresponding percentage arising from the HWF survey is about 2 per cent. Thus, part time employment is in Slovenia probably much lower than shown in the official statistics. Secondly, whether one or the other estimate is taken into account, in Slovenia part time employment is much lower than in the EU countries participating in the HWF project (the Netherlands, Sweden and the UK).

Employment status was also the main, though not the exclusive criteria for the provisional flexibility categorization into the three groups explained in section 2 of this chapter and further elaborated in Chapter 5. When sources of income are cross-tabulated with the three flexibility categories, it can be observed that the situation is quite different among these three flexibility categories. The group 'full time and regular schedule, one economic activity' is practically exclusively dependent on wages and salaries (100 per cent of responses), with the addition of other social transfers, which do not depend on the condition of work but on the social security conditions. Flexible employment group B is substantially more diversified with respect to the sources of income, but still very much concentrated in the wage or salary category (82.8 per cent of responses). Flexible employment group A has a much higher incidence of different and additional incomes: wage and salary is reported by 51.6 per cent of respondents as being the main source of income, 34 per cent of respondents report income from additional jobs. There are also important income sources among Group A flexibility respondents (self employed earnings for 17.6 per cent of responses and profit from a business for 8.0 per cent of respondents) which are practically negligible in the other two groups.

Table 1.13 Different incomes of respondent by flexibility category (n=578)

	Flexibility group A (n=188)	Flexibility group B (n=209)	Standard group C (n=181)
	%	%	%
Wage or salary *	51.6	82.8	100
Self employed earnings *	17.6	2.9	
Income from additional jobs (can be occasional and / or casual work) *	34.0	11.5	2.2
Income from own farming or agricultural production (including produce) *	9.0	3.8	
Pension *	13.3	1.4	0.6
Unemployment benefit *	0.5	3.8	
Grant or scholarship for education and training, including loans *	9.6		1.1
Income from investments, savings or rents from properties *	6.4	0.5	1.7
Profit from a business *	8.0	1.0	1.1
Private transfers (e.g. alimony, or payment from others such as parents) *	9.6	0.5	0.6
Other sources	9.0	3.8	3.3
Other social transfers (e.g. child allowance, parental leave)	14.9	12.4	21.0
None, the respondent had no income last month	0.5	0.5	

Significance level of chi-square tests: * 0.01.

6. Patterns of career flexibility

In the first decade of transition, employment opportunities changed radically. Indeed, the changes in the labour market were much more profound than the changes in the levels of production. The general trends are discussed in the Country Context Report for Slovenia. In this section the changes of the respondents in their occupational life in the last decade are presented. About 19 per cent entered employment for the first time and about 16 per cent retired from employment. In a considerable number of cases, retirement was due to the deteriorating economic situation and the corresponding problems in the employment field that were shortsightedly alleviated by early retirement schemes. About 13 per cent reported that they lost employment once and 12 per cent reported that they changed employment more than once. When one adds those who started to work in a second job (7 per cent) or started private business (6 per cent), it is obvious that considerable changes have taken place during the transition.

Table 1.14 Changes that have occurred in the occupational life of the respondents since 1989

Changes	%	n
Changed employment only once	20	918
Entered employment for the first time	19	927
Retired from employment	16	926
Promoted to a higher position	16	920
Lost employment only once	13	917
Changed employment more than once	12	923
Changed profession only once	11	914
Started to work in a second job	7	912
Started private business	6	919
Changed profession more than once	5	911
Lost employment more than once	3	912
Demoted to a lower position	3	909

What is of interest, however, is that the most frequent answer to two questions, describing the most characteristic factor for the present situation and describing the reason for the last

change in employment, were ‘other situation’ (20 per cent) and ‘other reason’ (41 per cent). That means that several categories offered as answers to these questions did not cover the range of reasons for changing jobs.

Table 1.15 If the respondent’s employment changed, which of the following possibilities best describes his/her present situation? (n=562)

Situation	%
Other situation	20
Retired	19
Went to a different company that existed in some form already prior to 1990.	16
Works basically in the same place, but the firm has been reorganized or privatized.	13
Went to a different company, which was established in or after 1990.	8
Started your own business.	6
Unemployed (looking for a job)	6
Stays at home	5
Does casual work (where and when you find it)	3
DK/NA	3
Went to work in agriculture	1

The most important specific reason was retirement (19 per cent), followed by change to a different company, which had existed already prior to 1990 (16 per cent), working in the same place in a firm that has been reorganized or privatized (13 per cent) and working for a different company established after 1990 (8 per cent). The rest reported that they had started their own business (6 per cent), are unemployed and looking for a job (6 per cent), decided to stay at home (5 per cent), do casual work (3 per cent), or went to work in agriculture (1 per cent).

Table 1.16 The main reason for the respondents’ last change in employment (n=525)

Reasons	%
Other reason	41
The company was closed or reorganized	20
Offer of a more interesting position	12
Production was cut down, economies were introduced /they were made redundant	9
Unsatisfied with the employment	8
DK/NA	6
Wanted to become self employed	4

Some of these changes in employment were forced upon the respondents (the company was closed or reorganized or they were made redundant or were working in unsatisfactory employment). On the other hand, some of them wanted to become self-employed, or were offered a more interesting position. Many describe negative rather than positive reasons for their last change in employment. However, firm conclusions are difficult to draw because 41 per cent of respondents cited ‘other reasons’ as the main reason for their last change in employment.

7. Perceptions of flexibility

Firstly, the answers about subjective satisfaction with the main work activity and various aspects of work will be analysed. In general, the answers to the question ‘how satisfied are you with your main work?’ show that the respondents are quite satisfied with their main work: 14 per cent are very satisfied and 57 per cent are somewhat satisfied, with another 20 per cent neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. This leaves about 7 per cent of those that are somewhat dissatisfied and about 2 per cent that are very dissatisfied.

When asked about their satisfaction with various aspects of work, it is of interest to observe that the highest degree of satisfaction was expressed for location of work and duration of contract. These two categories are followed by satisfaction with stability of work and hours of work; and the least satisfaction is expressed with respect to the earnings from the work.

Tables 1.17 How satisfied are you in general with your main work?

	In general with your main work	Stability of your work	Duration of your contract	Your hours of work	Your location of work	Your earnings
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Very satisfied	14.2	13.5	16.6	8.5	19.7	5.7
Somewhat satisfied	56.8	51.3	49.3	58.2	63.9	32.2
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	20.4	17.5	6.4	17.4	10.9	31.1
Somewhat dissatisfied	6.6	10.4	4.7	12.6	3.3	20.2
Very dissatisfied	1.7	3.1	2.8	2.4	1.2	8.8
Not applicable	0.2	2.4	17.8	0.5	0.9	0.7
Don't know, no answer	0.2	1.7	2.4	0.3	0.2	1.2
N	579	577	578	579	579	578

In Table 1.7 it was established that 39 per cent of men and 50 per cent of women work in a different locality to which they commute. Notwithstanding that, 20 per cent of the respondents were very satisfied with their location of work, and 64 per cent somewhat satisfied with their location of work, while less than 5 per cent were somewhat or very dissatisfied. It seems that there is a high degree of tolerance with respect to traveling to work. In a survey by the Statistical Office in 1999 the answers showed that about 60 per cent of employed persons would be prepared to commute to work. This percentage included also employed persons who were already commuting and would be prepared to spend more time doing so. For unemployed persons this share was a lot higher, about 94 per cent of them were prepared to commute to work (SORS, 1999, p.11).

With respect to the expressed satisfaction with the duration of the contract, nearly one half of the respondents were somewhat satisfied and one sixth were even very satisfied, which may be the consequence of the fact that about 64 per cent of the respondents, who were answering the question about the sort of contract that they have with the employer in their main activity, had a permanent contract. It will be of interest to see what the expressed satisfaction with the duration of contract is with those segments of respondents who had contracts of fixed duration or other non-permanent arrangements. The situation with the satisfaction with stability of work shows similar results: about two thirds of the respondents were somewhat satisfied or very satisfied with the stability of work. The interesting difference is that there is a higher percentage of those somewhat dissatisfied with stability of work (about 10 per cent) than with

the duration of the contract (about 5 per cent). Even a slightly wider distribution was observed with the satisfaction with hours of work. Nearly two thirds of the respondents were somewhat satisfied and very satisfied with hours of their work, but there were a higher number (about 13 per cent) of those who were somewhat dissatisfied with their hours of work.

In sharp contrast with the results with respect to the other four aspects of job satisfaction asked (where the combined categories of somewhat satisfied and very satisfied represented nearly two thirds or more, and the category of somewhat satisfied was between 49 per cent and 64 per cent), the satisfaction with the earnings is much lower. The category of very satisfied falls to about 6 per cent and somewhat satisfied to 32 per cent, neither satisfied or dissatisfied comes to 31 per cent, while somewhat dissatisfied amounts to whole 20 per cent and very dissatisfied to about 9 per cent. There are several elements that can be of relevance for explaining the higher level of satisfaction of work and lower level of satisfaction with earnings. Firstly, in general opinion surveys in Slovenia, it has been shown that work is an important element in the value system of the Slovenians. Secondly, it is obvious that if one compares the earnings in Slovenia with those in the EU countries, the disparity is large and this may also have influenced the expression of lower satisfactions with earnings.

Secondly, in addition to the questions about subjective satisfaction with various aspects with main work activity the respondents were asked to express preparedness for job changes under certain conditions, i.e. whether they would be willing to accept certain conditions in a situation where they would have no job. In Table 1.18 the results show a different degree of willingness to accept various conditions in such a situation. The ranking of positive responses with respect to the five explicitly asked conditions is very interesting. The respondents would be most willing to accept the condition that they would work more than 40 hours per week: 53 per cent of them would be always prepared to accept such a condition and only 23 per cent would never be willing to do so. Next in line is the willingness to learn a new foreign language: 49 per cent would be always willing to do so and only 26 per cent would refuse such a condition. Retraining for another profession is less acceptable but still substantial: 40 per cent would be always willing to do so, 32 per cent maybe and 28 per cent never.

Table 1.18 Expressed preparedness for job changes under certain conditions

	Work more than 40 hours per week	Learn a new foreign language	Retrain for another profession	Move (migrate) to another settlement	Accept less attractive work conditions
	%	%	%	%	%
Yes	53	49	40	26	24
Maybe	24	26	32	29	40
No	23	26	28	45	37
N	911	918	907	910	839

While the preparedness for accepting the three above-mentioned conditions is considerable, the two other mentioned conditions, accepting less attractive work conditions and moving (migrating) to another settlement, is less in favour with Slovenians. Even if they were without a job, only 24 per cent would always accept less attractive work conditions and 37 per cent would never do that. Seemingly, the possibility of moving (migrating) to another settlement is presenting the greatest cost in such benefit-cost considerations. A whole 45 per cent of the respondents would never consider moving or migrating to another settlement and only 26 per cent of people without a job would be always willing to do so. There may be several elements

that could explain such an attitude. On the one hand, in Slovenia only 8 per cent of the respondents are paying rent, all other respondents possess their own dwelling (55 per cent their own house and 23 per cent their own apartment) and about 13 per cent stay with their parents or have another arrangement so that they are not paying rent. The percentage of ownership is very high in international comparisons, which is very beneficial for the welfare of the population, but is seemingly a detriment to the willingness to move or migrate to another settlement. On the other hand, there is a high degree of tolerance to commute to a different location to work, which to a certain degree increases the flexibility of people with respect to the place of work even if they do not wish to move or migrate to a different settlement.