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AMSTERDAM INSTITUTE FOR ADVANCED LABOUR STUDIES

DIVERSITY IN WORK: THE HETEROGENEITY OF WOMEN'S LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION PATTERNS

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ABSTRACT

Employment patterns are gender-driven, yet analyses of women's employment often fail to recognize the heterogeneous patterns evident within women's labour market participation itself. This article examines the variation in women's labour market participation in light of Hakim's heterogeneity argument. It focuses on the effects of individual differences in educational level, marital status, motherhood and cohorts in the Netherlands, Germany and the UK for the period 1992-2002, disregarding Hakim's focus on individual attitudes and preferences as the cause of this heterogeneity. Results from a quantitative study using panel data show that women's labour market participation patterns vary greatly, and that educational level and motherhood are the strongest determinants of this variation. At the same time, cross-country variation is evident. Not only do the results of this study confirm the variation in women's employment patterns, they raise questions about the theoretical understanding of women's labour market participation. Therefore, this article also considers the consequences for future theoretical discussions of gendered labour markets given these significant individual differences among women both in and out of paid work.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Higher rates of female labour market participation are now a fact in many western European countries, yet no consensus exists regarding the consequences of this increase in labour market activity, particularly for our understanding of women's employment. At the height of the feminist movement and the fight for equal employment opportunities regardless of gender, many people assumed women's labour market participation would eventually rival male levels. Nonetheless, female labour market participation has stabilised in many countries, at levels often well below men's labour market participation. Moreover, in many cases high female labour market participation rates are misleading given high rates of part-time work among women. Yet despite the obvious variety in female employment patterns, we still know little about the causes of this heterogeneity. A brief look at the current situation provides some clarity - women in many Western European societies exhibit a variety of employment patterns. But what causes this variation? And what are the implications of this heterogeneity for our theoretical understanding of women's employment? This article attempts to answer the former while commencing a discussion of the latter.

The changes in women's labour market participation and female employment spawned a vast amount of social science research (See Bruegel, 1996; Bruegel and Perrons, 1998; Creighton, 1999; Crompton and Harris, 1998a; Daly, 2000; Ginn et al,. 1996; Hakim, 1995, 1996a, 1996b; Lewis, 1992; Rubery et al., 1998; Rubery, Smith and Fagan, 1998). More recently, scholarly efforts have focused on explaining the growth of part-time work (See Daune-Richard, 1998; Delsen, 1998; Drew et al., 1998; O'Reilly and Fagan, 1998; Pfau-Effinger, 1998; Plantenga, 1997; Tijdens, 2002; Visser, 2002) the combination of paid and domestic work, and policies that surround such issues (See Ackers, 2003; Crompton, 2002; Drew et al,. 1998; den Dulk, 2001; Hakim, 2000; Hantrais and Ackers, 2005; Higgins et al,. 2000;Kirby, 2003; Knijn and van Wel, 2001; Plantenga, Schippers and Siegers, 1999). The focus here is on the results from a quantitative study centred on women's labour market participation, specifically concentrated on the labour market participation patterns of women both inside and outside the labour market. The analysis centres on the role played by individual and household constraints in explaining women's labour market heterogeneity and is limited to the Netherlands, Germany and the United Kingdom, for the period 1992 to 2002.

This article puts forth that to provide a comprehensive perspective of women's labour market participation, it is imperative to analyse women both in and out of the labour market simultaneously. Here, panel data is used to provide a quantitative analysis in the form of multinomial logit models. These models allow for a variety of outcomes, and the probability of being in a particular pattern (e.g. part-time work) is measured in comparison to a woman who works full-time. Multinomial logit models allow a complete analysis of women's labour market participation while ensuring that data are not lost by analysing women in separate categories. The results presented in this article are based on a cluster of three years of panel data: 1992, 1998 and 2002. Although data are available for a time period of eleven years, it is more desirable to cluster a small number of years of data, thereby producing more accurate results.

The basis for this article is a closer reading of Hakim's preference theory (2000), in which Hakim posits that women differ more from each other in their labour market behaviour than they do from men. Hakim attributes this variation to the individual preferences and attitudes of women, which this article does not. Rather, the heterogeneity of women's employment patterns is examined and the results are considered in terms of possible consequences for our theoretical understanding of women's employment.

2 GENDER AND HETEROGENEITY

As researchers, it has shown to be difficult to find a theoretical framework that allows us to consider the unique nature of women's working patterns. Theories of work still fail to capture the heterogeneity of women's labour market participation (Becker, 1981; Dickens, 1993; Abbott, 1997; Hantrais and Ackers, 2005). Common theoretical approaches often examine labour market behaviour either from a supply perspective or a demand perspective, ignoring the influence of gender (O'Reilly and Fagan 1998). In turn, gendered and feminist theories often fail to account for the heterogeneity in women's labour market participation patterns (Abbott and Wallace, 1997).

Yet gender is a crucial factor when considering women's labour market patterns because labour markets are not gender neutral (See Beechey, 1988; Daly, 2000; Lewis 1992b; O'Reilly and Fagan, 1998; Pfau-Effinger, 1998; Tijdens, van Doorne-Huiskes and Willemsen, 1997; Tijdens, 1998; Tijdens, 2002). Gendered theory recognizes that variation occurs and needs to be studied. However, neither feminist nor gendered theory has created a grand theory capable of explaining the variation and similarities in women's work within and across countries. As Daly argues, (…) even if the earlier neglect of this aspect of cross-national variation has been overcome, we still lack models of how particular effects occur and theoretical terms with which to imagine them, (2000, 5). In this study, gender is accounted for by focusing on the unique nature of *women's* labour market participation patterns, namely, their heterogeneity. And while Hakim's preference theory (2000) attempted to provide a theoretical basis for understanding women's employment, including the concept that these patterns are heterogeneous, the sole focus on individual choice ignores the constraints women face based either on individual differences or policies present in a given country that may limit their opportunities in the labour market (see Fagan, 2001; McRae, 2003; Procter and Padfield, 1999). However, we should not entirely ignore Hakim's arguments, as women's labour market participation patterns do seem to reveal heterogeneity, suggesting a myriad of both opportunity and choice.

Hakim argues, among other things, that women's working patterns and preferences are heterogeneous and that this heterogeneity causes conflict among women. The debate on

individual preferences aside, investigating this heterogeneity and understanding what causes it can help us further the theoretical debate, an issue I return to in the final paragraphs. Moreover, to focus on women's heterogeneity, one need not concur with Hakim's argument that women's orientations to work differ from those of men (see Hakim, 1995; Ginn et al, 1996; Hakim, 1996a; Hakim, 1996b; Bruegel, 1996; Crompton and Harris, 1998a; Crompton and Harris, 1998b; Daly, 2000; Procter and Padfield 1999). Rather, women's employment is analysed in relation to various individual and household characteristics. The results from this quantitative study are presented below.

3 WOMEN'S LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION PATTERNS: CONSTRAINED CHOICES

Aggregate statistics on women's labour market participation (employment, unemployment and inactivity) for Germany, the Netherlands and the UK show that women's working patterns are heterogeneous indeed (OECD 2004; Yerkes 2006). Not all women choose to take up paid work, and of those who do, there is a significant amount of variation in working hours. Yet this variation requires a closer examination. In this section, the results of a quantitative study of women's labour market participation are presented. For these analyses, panel data has been used.[i] Panel data are one form of longitudinal data, in which an original random sample of respondents is interviewed at regular intervals. The data here are clustered by respondent for three points in time: 1992, 1998 and 2002.

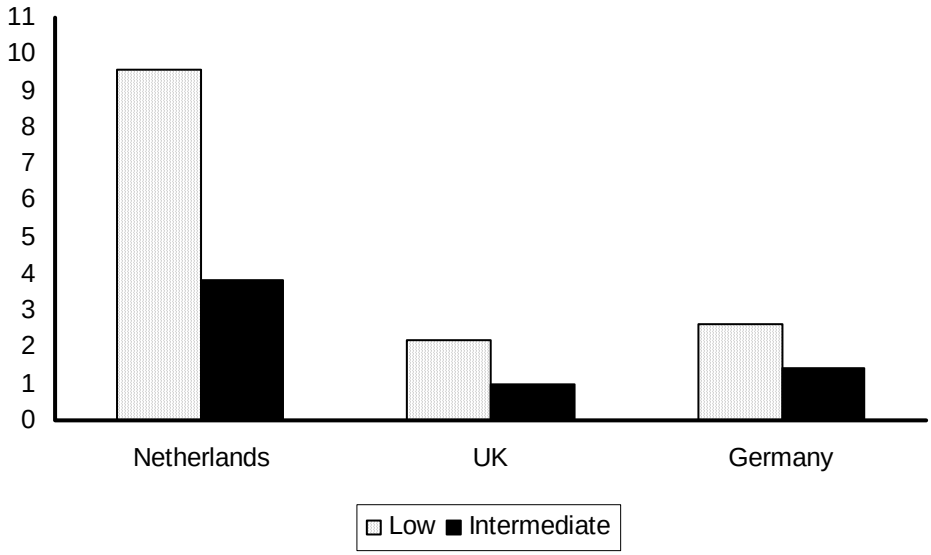
The dependent variable is categorized into six labour market patterns: four definitions of working hours (0-11 hours, 12-19 hours, 20-34 hours and full-time/35+ hours, with full-time work as the reference category), and the categories of inactive[ii] and unemployed. The category of inactive is based on the self-reported labour force status of individuals, but excludes full-time students and retirees older than 64. Women's labour market participation is expected to be dependent on a combination of a woman's educational level (in relation to human capital), her marital status (as a sign of economic independence), motherhood (as a proxy for the acceptance of mothers working outside the home and the policies that support this) and her cohort (relating to generational differences in labour market participation). It is expected that women with lower educational levels are more likely to be found outside the labour market or in short-hours part-time jobs, with the same being true of married or cohabitating women. Mothers, particularly mothers of young children, should hypothetically be more likely to be inactive or work part-time. Finally, women from older cohorts are expected to have a greater likelihood of inactivity or part-time work.

The results of the analysis presented in Appendix 1[iii], demonstrate that education, marital status, motherhood and cohort effects help explain the heterogeneity of women's labour market participation, although the strength of these effects varies across time and countries. By looking at each individual and household level constraint in detail, specific trends of convergence and divergence become apparent.

Two general trends are visible in terms of education. Firstly, a lack of education decreases the likelihood of full-time work in all three countries, showing that women with a greater accruement of human capital are more likely to work full-time. But more importantly, we see a second trend, namely that the effect of education grew stronger across time in all three countries, demonstrating that low-educated women are increasingly at risk in today's labour markets. The relative shifts in these effects across time, however, differ across the three case countries. We clearly see that in the UK, for example, by 2002, lower-educated women are more likely than highly-educated women to be unemployed or inactive. The data show a similar development in Germany. In 2002, the effect of having only a secondary education is stronger than in 1998. By 2002, these women are at an increased risk of inactivity or short-hours part-time work. In the Netherlands, education is now a greater determinant of part-time work and inactivity. Having less than a university education in the Netherlands in 2002 increases the likelihood of working in a part-time job of short-hours or standard hours or being outside the labour market.

In general, the results offered here suggest education is becoming an increasingly important predictor of labour market status. While the effects of education differ across the three case countries, it is clear that women with less than a university education are more likely to work part-time. Even in a country like the Netherlands, where part-time work is common across all educational levels, we see a clear distinction – highly-educated women are much more likely to work full-time. Figure 1 plainly indicates the influence education can have on women's labour market participation. In 2002, low-educated women in all three countries are at a much greater risk of working in short-hours part-time jobs than women with at least a university education. In comparison, highly-educated women have a better chance of working full-time.

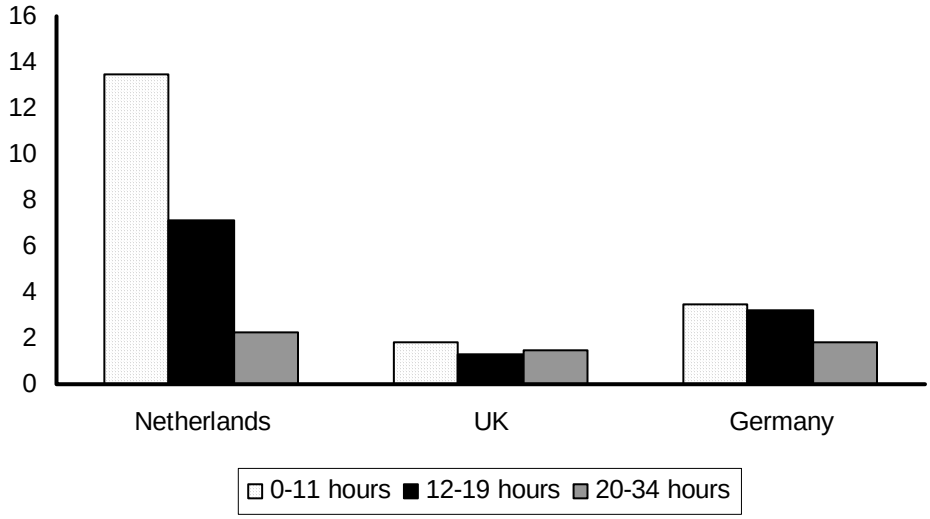
Figure 1: Probability of being in a Marginal Part-time job (in comparison to full-time work) for Low and Intermediate Educated Women in 2002



Source: Author's own calculations.

Education is not the only constraint on women's labour market behaviour, though. Marital status is an important predictor of part-time work in all three countries. The effect of marital status on women's labour market participation patterns decreases, however, as part-time working hours increase. Moreover, the strength of these effects diverges across the three case countries (see Figure 2). The data show, for example, that married or cohabitating Dutch women are at a significantly higher risk of working in a short-hours part-time job. These women are thirteen times more likely than single women to work less than twelve hours a week. There are two possible reasons why the effect of marital status declines as part-time working hours increase. First, as part-time working hours increase, so does one's income, making it more realistic to live from the income provided by a part-time job, making marital status less important. Secondly, the effect of marital status could be indicative of a combined effect with other characteristics, such as motherhood. This possibility is addressed in the next section.

Figure 2: Probability of Part-time Work (0-11 hours, 12-19 hours and 20-34 hours) for Married/cohabitating Women



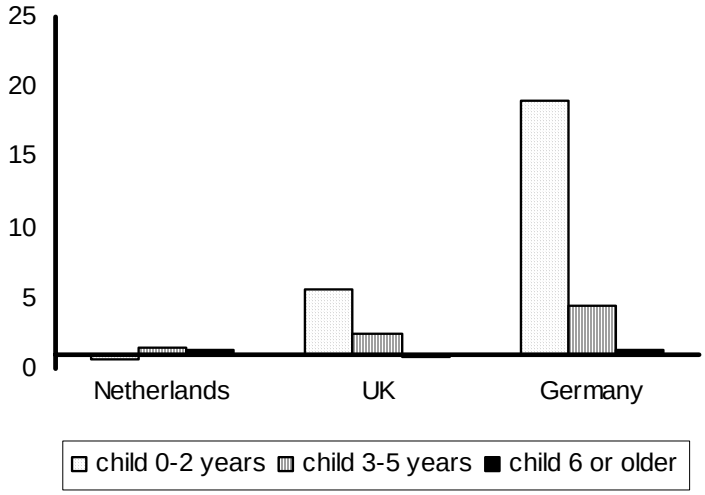
Source: Author's own calculations.

Looking at cross-country variation, we see that marital status is an important predictor of inactivity in Germany and the Netherlands, indicating that married and cohabitating women are more likely to be inactive, at least in the case of the German and Dutch data. In the UK, however, married women are less likely to be unemployed. These effects are not wholly unexpected. In most cases, unemployment benefits are means-tested, making married or cohabitating women ineligible for unemployment benefits if their partner earns an income above the benefit threshold. Furthermore, the income provided by the employment of married or cohabitating women is often a second income, and would not always necessitate the added subsidy of unemployment benefits.

Divergence across the three countries continues when we look at the effects of marital status across time. In the Netherlands, marital status was a more important predictor of inactivity in 1992. In comparison, marital status was less of a determinant of short-hours part-time work in 1998. In contrast, marital status in Germany is now a more important predictor of short-hours part-time work or inactivity, but is no longer a significant determining factor of unemployment. Marital status matters less in the UK, however, and decreased in importance as an indicator of 'standard' part-time work between 1992 and 2002

Yet one of the most obvious determinants of women's diverse employment patterns is motherhood. Both the number of children in the household and the age of the youngest child strongly affect women's labour market participation patterns in a negative way, showing that motherhood seriously constrains women's labour market behaviour. In all three countries, having children under the age of 16 means women are less likely to work full-time. Mothers are more likely to be inactive, unemployed or work part-time in comparison to women without children under the age of 16. However, motherhood affects women differently in the Netherlands, the UK and Germany, dependent upon the number of children in the household or the age of the youngest child, as is evident when looking at the probability of inactivity based on the age of the youngest child (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Probability of Being Inactive based on the Age of the Youngest Child



Source: Author's own calculations.

The German data demonstrate a clear negative effect of having a young child on certain forms of labour market participation patterns. German women with a child under the age of three are nineteen times more likely to be inactive. This effect is not as strong in the Netherlands or the UK. In the Netherlands, women's chances of inactivity are more strongly affected by the presence of children in the household than the age of the youngest child.[iv] Notably, it is the presence of children that has a strong effect on the likelihood of short-

hours part-time work in Germany, whereas having a young child in the household has a greater effect on women working 12-19 hours a week or being inactive.

In the UK, we also see that the effect of motherhood differs across labour market patterns. Having children is a relatively more important determinant of inactivity, unemployment and short-hours part-time work than the age of the youngest child in the UK. Mothers with three or more children in the UK are three times more likely to be inactive than women without children under the age of 16. This is not to say that the age of the youngest child does not matter in Britain. The presence of young children aged zero to two years increases the chance that British women will remain outside the labour market. In contrast, the presence of children under the age of six significantly increases the chances that British women will work part-time.

The data demonstrate significant negative effects of motherhood on women's labour market participation patterns in various ways in all three countries. Moreover, the data show that the negative effects of having children, or having young children, shifted across time in all three countries. But once again, clear cross-country variation in the distribution and strength of these effects across the different labour market participation patterns is visible. In Germany, the notable effect of having a young child remained stable during the period 1992-2002, but the number of children in the household was a much less important determinant of short-hours part-time work in 1998. One reason for this could be the growth of 'mini-jobs' in Germany. It could be that the increased availability of such short-hours part-time jobs is particularly attractive to German mothers with children.

In the UK, the effect of motherhood generally decreased in importance from 1992 to 2002. The presence of children in the household was a more important predictor of inactivity or substantial part-time work in 1992 than in 2002. However, having a child under the age of three is currently a more important determinant of substantial part-time work. Lastly, the effect of motherhood on women's labour market participation patterns decreased in importance in the Netherlands as well, but only for women with three or more children. In general, a trend is evident in the Netherlands. Having three of more children has less of an effect on the chances of inactivity, unemployment and short-hours part-time work than it did

in 1992 or 1998. However, the effects of motherhood for women with one or two children remain relatively constant across time.

Despite some declining effects of motherhood across time, strong, significant effects are still visible. Dutch, German and British mothers are, in most cases, significantly constrained in their labour market participation patterns for the simple fact that they are mothers. If we accept that the presence of children and age of the youngest child can act as proxy effects for some institutional policies, it follows that these results suggest that caring for children makes it difficult to maintain full-time employment within the existing institutional structures in the UK, Germany and the Netherlands.

Finally, the cohort effects present in these analyses show that despite increases in female labour market participation over the last three decades, generational differences still exist.[v] Nevertheless, these effects are declining across time. The data demonstrate significant cohort effects throughout the whole range of cohorts in all three countries. In all three countries, women born after 1950 are much less likely to be inactive. Historically, it has become more common for women from these younger generations to participate in the labour market. But is this clear generational gap also evident among part-time workers? The *un*likelihood of part-time work increases across all countries with each younger cohort. In other words, younger generations are increasingly more likely to work full-time rather than any form of part-time. The decreased likelihood of part-time work may seem strange given the overall increase in part-time work among women in each of the case countries, particularly in the Netherlands. However, the effect measured here reflects differences in reference to the oldest cohort of women – women born before 1950. Therefore, it is plausible that younger cohorts are less likely to work part-time in reference to this oldest cohort.

Remarkably, while generational effects are still evident, we see that differences *between* younger cohorts are generally smaller, suggesting once again that cohort effects will recede in the near future. Across time, the greatest decline in cohort effects is visible in Germany.[vi] Between 1992 and 2002, cohort effects declined as a predictor of inactivity and short-hours part-time work in Germany. We see a similar, but smaller effect in the UK for inactive women – cohort effects are stronger in 1992 than in 2002. Notably, we do not see a decline

in cohort effects across time for standard or substantial part-time work in the UK and Germany, suggesting some generational differences may continue to significantly influence women's labour market participation patterns.

4 MEDIATING FACTORS FOR MOTHERS?

Following the original analyses, I tested for the presence of possible interaction effects among a number of causal variables. Firstly, the increased likelihood of part-time work and inactivity among married or cohabitating women and mothers suggested these two effects might be related. The interaction effect tested here considers whether or not marital status affects the relationship between motherhood and a woman's labour market participation pattern. By including the interaction term of marital status*age of the youngest child in the household, it can be determined whether or not *married or cohabitating* mothers are more likely to stay at home or work part-time in reference to single women who work full-time. Secondly, I am interested in whether or not the relationship between motherhood and a woman's labour market participation is moderated by education. Women with a lower educational attainment tend to maintain traditional attitudes regarding gender divisions of household labour and women's role in taking care of children (Wattis et al. 2006). In contrast, lower-educated women do not necessarily have negative attitudes towards female employment (Lück 2003). Here I test for a combined effect of motherhood and education (number of children in the household*educational level). It is expected that mothers with less than a university education are more likely to be inactive and work part-time in comparison to mothers with a higher level of education. If no effect is found, it could suggest that women with less than a university education are more likely to stay at home or work part-time because of receiving relatively lower wages, causing increased opportunity costs for remaining active in the labour market.

4.1 MARITAL STATUS AND MOTHERHOOD

Marital status only affects the relationship between motherhood and female labour market participation patterns in the UK and Germany (see Appendix 2). Remarkably, Dutch married and cohabitating mothers are not more or less likely to work part-time or remain outside the labour market. In contrast, British married or cohabitating mothers with a child older than five are less likely to be inactive or unemployed. Furthermore, we see a decrease in significance of the main effects of having a young child under the age of three for all forms of part-time work in the UK. In other words, single British women with a child between zero and two years of age do not have a significantly increased chance of working part-time. The combination of these effects suggests that all British mothers are more likely to work part-time, regardless of their marital status. Married or cohabitating German mothers, in

contrast, are more likely to be inactive or work part-time. Even after a child reaches an age where childcare and pre-school are readily available in Germany, married mothers are more likely to stay at home or work in a short-hours part-time job. These results could be a reflection of macro-level opportunity structures available to married German mothers, not discussed here.

However, we also see some remarkable effects for the category of 'standard' part-time work in Germany (12-19 hours a week). Married or cohabitating German mothers with a child under the age of three are *less* likely than single women with no children to work in a standard part-time job. No similar effect is found by the category of 20-34 hours a week. This result is puzzling, but could suggest that married mothers of young children either choose to work in a short-hours part-time job or full-time. At the same time, the main effects for the age of the youngest child on women's chances of working standard part-time hours shifted in Germany. The increase in the relative risk ratio for having a child aged zero to two could imply that single mothers making use of German parental leave schemes are more likely to work closer to the maximum hours allowed while taking leave (19 hours/week until 2001).

4.2 EDUCATION AND MOTHERHOOD

The results show that combined effects of motherhood and education are evident in all three countries, pointing to a differentiation between highly-educated mothers and mothers with less than a university education. However, no convergence is evident, as educational level affects the relationship between motherhood and women's labour market participation patterns differently across all three countries. For example, Dutch mothers with two or more children and secondary education qualifications are at an increased risk of unemployment. Moreover, we see a decrease in the significance of the main effects of having children for both inactivity and unemployment, showing that highly-educated Dutch mothers are not as likely to be inactive or unemployed as lower-educated Dutch mothers. Notably, the data do not reflect a similar effect with part-time work in the Netherlands. It would seem that education and motherhood are related in terms of inactivity and unemployment, but these effects do not interact as determinants of Dutch women's working hours. In the UK, mothers with secondary education qualifications are not only more likely to be unemployed – mothers with two children are two times more likely to be inactive or work

in a short-hours part-time job. Beyond these effects, however, no clear pattern is evident in the UK. Despite the absence of a clear pattern, given the small number of changes to the main effects of motherhood and education and the presence of various significant interaction effects, the data confirm that education does affect the relationship between motherhood and women's labour market participation patterns in the UK.

The differentiation among mothers of varying educational qualifications is apparent in Germany as well, yet unlike the British case we see a more distinct pattern. Unless they are highly-educated, German mothers are more likely to work part-time. Simultaneously, the main effect of having children in the household decreased across all forms of part-time work, meaning highly-educated German mothers are less likely to work part-time, with the exception of highly-educated German mothers with three or more children. These women are more likely to be employed in a part-time job of substantial hours. Furthermore, women with less than a secondary education in Germany are significantly more likely to work in a substantial or short-hours part-time job if they have two children or a substantial part-time job if they have one child. Lastly, German mothers with a secondary education are twice as likely to work 12-19 hours a week if they have one child. Concluding this section, we see that while marital status only affects the relationship between motherhood and women's labour market participation patterns in some cases, specifically in Germany and the UK, a woman's level of education moderates the effect of motherhood in many ways in all three case countries. This development suggests that close attention should be paid to the build-up of opportunity structures in these three countries, particularly educational opportunities made available to women and mothers, which may help them overcome obstacles in combining paid work and motherhood.

5 CONCLUSIONS

This article addresses the research question: how heterogeneous are women's labour market participation patterns and what causes this heterogeneity? The results of the quantitative study show that educational level, marital status, motherhood and generational differences have a causal influence on women's labour market participation patterns across time. Data for the Netherlands, Germany and the UK demonstrate various trends. A lack of education leads to a decreased probability of full-time work in the Netherlands, Germany and the UK, and this effect grew stronger across time. At the same time, married or cohabitating women are more likely to work part-time in all three countries. Furthermore, cohort effects are present in each country, showing a decreased probability of inactivity for younger cohorts. Lastly, motherhood is a strong constraint on women's labour market participation patterns in the Netherlands, Germany and the UK, making it less likely that mothers will work full-time. However, the convergence across the three countries ends there, as the strength of these different individual and household level constraints varies across the Netherlands, Germany and the UK. Motherhood offers a particularly relevant example of this divergence, where German mothers are strongly affected by having a young child under the age of three in the household.

Yet while this study confirms the heterogeneity present in most national statistics available on women's employment, what are the theoretical implications? Hakim seems to be correct in her assumption that women are heterogeneous in their labour market behaviour, but variation in individual preferences and attitudes cannot be the only explanation. While studies show that in certain contexts, preferences and attitudes do affect labour market decisions (see Baaijens, 2005; Bielenski et al, 2002; Lück, 2005; Yerkes, 2006); here we see that the diversity in women's employment is also due to a variation in constraints. More importantly, however, the variation of working patterns confirmed here implies that we must change how we theorize about women's work. Naturally, there are a number of issues not addressed here that are certainly of influence, such as the unequal division of household and caring work or cultural differences in the acceptance of women's work or mothers working outside the household, but a number of theoretical discussion points can be made.

Firstly, it would seem that women are different from men regarding the supply of their labour. While most women are constrained in their labour market decisions in some way,

we must also recognize that some women prefer not to work, although the reasons for remaining outside paid labour do vary. In the case of motherhood, for example, we see that having children seriously constrains women's labour market choices. However, strong socio-cultural norms and values regarding the care of children still exist in many countries, and an absence of the constraints created by motherhood would not necessarily lead to increased labour market participation among women. While we most certainly need to be aware that women often do not have the same opportunities in the labour market as men, we must also recognize that not all women want full-time employment, which means that the decision-making process behind female labour supply is a complex mix of choice and constraint, one which do not yet fully understand.

At the same time, women face unique difficulties in the labour market. Highly-educated women, for example, may have increased opportunities, but they remain constrained in their labour market choices, particularly due to motherhood. In contrast, low-educated mothers face a double-negative, particularly in today's labour markets. In that case, human capital theory loses strength when attempting to apply it to women's labour market decisions, particularly in the case of low-educated mothers where constraint highly seems to outweigh choice. Finally, while beyond the scope of this study, further research into the variation in women's working patterns based on qualitative data could help provide a deeper understanding of the decision-making processes that lead to the heterogeneity evident here.

Appendix 1 Clustered Multinomial Logit Results

Inactive *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	8.689***	1.930*	1.106	7.252***	.691**	.539***	3.055**	.710	.801
	(1.883)	(1.609)	(.378)	(.730)	(.092)	(.083)	(.348)	(.127)	(168)
Intermediate	2.974***	1,509	.995	2.014***	.808	.727*	1.587***	.650*	.686
	(.593)	(.427)	(.331)	(.181)	(.102)	(.110)	(.173)	(.117)	(.144)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	2.051***	1.481	1.877*	1.010	.943	.971	2.425***	.795*	.651**
	(.369)	(.381)	(.497)	(.089)	(.118)	(.133)	(.199)	(.088)	(.082)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	39.695***	.158	.456	2.945***	1,581	2.313*	1.403	.953	.877
	(41.596)	(172)	(.512)	(.634)	(.466)	(.901)	(.313)	(.318)	(.305)
2 children	56.148***	.331	.321	5.796***	1.739	2.713*	3.515***	.861	.528
	(57.270)	(.354)	(.339)	(1.319)	(.554)	(1.101)	(.901)	(.322)	(.208)
3+ children	3.797***	5.340***	5.316***	13.247***	1.687	2.216	11.771***	.746	.380*
	(.809)	(2.320)	(2.266)	(3.495)	(.631)	(1.018)	(3.853)	(.349)	(.181)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.655***	2.105	1.694	5.708***	.727	.981	19.066***	1.773	1.112
	(.167)	(.838)	(.586)	(1.306)	(.236)	(.410)	(5.723)	(.816)	(.500)
3-5 years old	1.473***	.776	.787	2.531***	.960	.927	4.507***	1.793	.662
	(.493)	(.354)	(.393)	(.615)	(.339)	(.400)	(1.203)	(.738)	(.269)
6-15 years old	1.296***	.799	1.156	.829	.945	.556	1.419	.940	.946
	(.266)	(.221)	(.327)	(.177)	(.283)	(.218)	(.333)	(.330)	(.346)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	.115***	..	..	.050***	1.358	2.890*	.006***	11.417*	19.659**
	(.035)			(.023)	(.599)	(1.374)	(.006)	(11.707)	(19.941)
born 1951-1961	.021***	..	..	.010***	1.841	5.078**	.001***	23.528**	62.698***
	(.006)			(.005)	(.835)	(2.487)	-0,001	(24.181)	(63.763)
born 1962-1972	.009***	..	..	.004***	2.246	6.763***	.001***	26.468**	105.208***
	(.003)			(.002)	(1.027)	(3.316)	(.001)	(27.275)	(107.252)
born 1973-1986	.004***	..	..	.004***	2.038	2.436	.002***	38.841***	228.435***
	(.001)			(.002)	(.946)	(1.464)	(.002)	(40.030)	(235.576)
Year effects (ref: 2002)		.152***	.295***		.100**	.393*		.017***	.059**
		(.053)	(.093)		(.048)	(.173)		(.017)	(.061)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*

Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

Unemployed *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	4.798***	1.450	.340	7.371***	.482*	.434**	2.887***	1.075	.979
	(1.607)	(.714)	(.160)	(1.562)	(.151)	(.134)	(.518)	(.344)	(.345)
Intermediate	2.061*	.946	.593	2.508***	.381**	.462*	1.665**	1.209	1.214
	(.674)	(.446)	(.273)	(.503)	(.121)	(.142)	(.297)	(.386)	(.425)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	.809	1.017	.689	.308***	1.056	1.436	.951	1.022	1.463*
	(.220)	(.252)	(.252)	(.054)	(.286)	(.373)	(.116)	(.168)	(.272)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	11.202	.550	.727	1.582	.180	2.688	1.502	.699	.947
	(16.155)	(834)	(1.122)	(.649)	(.199)	(1.542)	(.471)	(.351)	(.496)
2 children	31.521**	.750	.297	3.211**	.133	1.600	2.319*	.849	.583
	(36.955)	(.926)	(.365)	(1.401)	(.161)	(1.026)	(.848)	(.479)	(.342)
3+ children	3.811***	4.175*	2.160	5.460***	.211	1,386	4.921***	.660	.429
	(.1.215)	(2.357)	(1.251)	(2.588)	(.253)	(1.045)	(2.181)	(.437)	(.289)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.409	2.911	2.360	2.013	4.486	.687	2.604*	1.605	2.664
	(.207)	(1.866)	(1.522)	(.858)	(5.155)	(.451)	(1.215)	(1.179)	(1.803)
3-5 years old	.627	1.113	2.085	1.024	12.241*	.669	3.726***	2.484	.701
	(.410)	(.934)	(1.803)	(.480)	(14.401)	(.463)	(1.385)	(1.449)	(.417)
6-15 years old	.914	1.285	1.364	.557	16.193*	.739	1.456	1.393	.988
	(.299)	(.528)	(.591)	(.229)	(18.264)	(.446)	(.479)	(.723)	(.542)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	1.807	..	..	.551	.467	1.156	.119	1.909	2.736
	(.917)			(.619)	(.571)	(1.363)	(.134)	(2.185)	(3.120)
born 1951-1961	.637	..	..	.281	.681	1.580	.037**	2.192	7.148
	(.326)			(.318)	(.835)	(1.886)	(.041)	(2.524)	(8.192)
born 1962-1972	.328*	..	..	.263	.702	1.976	.027**	2.150	7.747
	(.167)			(.298)	(.860)	(2.342)	(.031)	(2.477)	(8.877)
born 1973-1986	.339*	..	..	.455	1.054	1.639	.024**	2.908	4.318
	(.180)			(.510)	(1.270)	(1.963)	(.027)	(3.375)	(5.455)
Year effects (ref: 2002)		1.189	.533		1.031	1.744		.086*	.337
		(.534)	(.250)		(1.221)	(2.103)		(.101)	(.395)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*

Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

0-11 hours *(ref: full-time)*	**Netherlands**			**UK**			**Germany**		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	9.564***	1.225	.262**	2.199***	1.362	.769	2.612***	.562	1.804
	(3.135)	(.566)	(.121)	(.383)	(.327)	(.192)	(.5814)	(.193)	(.989)
Intermediate	3.806***	.721	.149***	.992	1.160	1.014	1.425	.491*	.663
	(1.221)	(.326)	(.072)	(.161)	(.275)	(.252)	(.305)	(.165)	(.376)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	13.482***	.257*	.294	1.786*	.653	1.170	3.487***	.797	.459*
	(7.085)	(.159)	(.190)	(.309)	(.155)	(.314)	(.635)	(.231)	(.149)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	32.811**	.156	.809	2.719**	.969	.633	3.817***	.110*	.867
	(37.266)	(.190)	(.990)	(.997)	(.544)	(.480)	(1.409)	(.118)	(.565)
2 children	54.719***	.386	.364	5.040***	1.196	1.211	10.645***	.089*	.456
	(58.125)	(.434)	(.406)	(1.935)	(.697)	(.927)	(4.418)	(.098)	(.338)
3+ children	6.385***	3.934**	2.980*	9.432***	.970	1.125	23.547***	.080*	.585
	(1.714)	(1.957)	(1.530)	(3.884)	(.544)	(.893)	(11.327)	(.093)	(.485)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.874	1.671	.819	2.474*	1.274	2.108	4.747**	7.350	.750
	(.308)	(.924)	(.466)	(.953)	(.736)	(1.633)	(2.166)	8.572	(.603)
3-5 years old	2.068	.443	.679	1.851	1.752	3.118	2.117	7.354	.816
	(.895)	(.276)	(.451)	(.746)	(1.056)	(2.430)	(.885)	(8.384)	(.592)
6-15 years old	1.391	.967	.897	1.333	1.606	1.195	1.186	5.225	.749
	(.388)	(.357)	(.349)	(.481)	(.873)	(.887)	(.442)	(5.697)	(.488)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	.408*	..	..	.202*	1.282	1.682	.0135***	26.127**	63.970***
	(.172)			(.131)	(.837)	(1.123)	(.0145)	(30.359)	(73.219)
born 1951-1961	.109***	..	..	.055***	1.697	2.321	.005***	44.581**	90.980***
	(.047)			(.036)	(1.158)	(1.611)	(.005)	(52.065)	(105.673)
born 1962-1972	.072***	..	..	.032***	2.004	1.349	.004***	41.451**	62.237**
	(.030)			(.021)	(1.371)	(.958)	(.005)	(48.795)	(74.431)
born 1973-1986	.034***	..	..	.027***	1.632	5.674*	.005***	38.642**	92.505**
	(.017)			(.018)	1.185	(4.832)	(.006)	(46.763)	(126.407)
Year effects (ref: 2002)		3.422	2.587		.360	.573		.008***	.054*
		(2.698)	(1.946)		(.244)	(.378)		(.010)	(.064)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*

Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

12-19 hours *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	3.694***	.940	.368**	3.081***	.862	.948	1.337	1.150	.795
	(.886)	(.337)	(.137)	(.421)	(.167)	(.211)	(.227)	(.357)	(.269)
Intermediate	2.290***	.900	.279***	1.597***	.961	1.186	1.018	.816	.530
	(.495)	(.282)	(.102)	(.186)	(.168)	(.255)	(.157)	(.248)	(.179)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	7.130***	.418*	.552	1.342*	1.178	1.776*	3.209***	.621	.798
	(2.110)	(.162)	(.232)	(.166)	(.228)	(.407)	(.504)	(.151)	(.236)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	67.639***	.139	.102*	2.620**	1.473	.717	1.456	1.887	.597
	(70.715)	(.153)	(.118)	(.755)	(.595)	(.465)	(.563)	(1.208)	(.509)
2 children	59.376***	.292	.154	4.871***	1.713	.935	3.393**	1.212	.204
	(61.268)	(.317)	(.166)	(1.420)	(.708)	(.614)	(1.430)	(.838)	(.188)
3+ children	6.379***	2.101	.764	5.726***	1.941	.640	4.693**	1.049	.450
	(1.453)	(.989)	(.380)	(1.922)	(.949)	(.456)	(2.307)	(.828)	(.442)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.961	1.661	.917	4.054***	.522	1.258	11.313***	.530	1.055
	(.264)	(.750)	(.416)	(1.175)	(.222)	(.833)	(5.231)	(.418)	(.987)
3-5 years old	1.734	.912	.573	4.033***	.557	.879	4.299**	2.017	1.474
	(.649)	(.468)	(.362)	(1.194)	(.246)	(.592)	(1.847)	(1.425)	(1.324)
6-15 years old	1.398	.902	.977	1.331	.947	1.546	2.840**	.915	1.126
	(.320)	(.286)	(.328)	(.366)	(.370)	(.979)	(1.103)	(.580)	(.947)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	.839	..	..	.184**	2.045	2.035	.085*	8.877	4.726
	(.339)			(.107)	(1.266)	(1.222)	(.104)	(12.001)	(5.983)
born 1951-1961	.324**	..	..	.069***	2.144	2.492	.045*	7.907	5.681
	(.131)			(.040)	(1.363)	(1.529)	(.055)	(10.732)	(7.222)
born 1962-1972	.132***	..	..	.044***	1.742	1.543	.031**	8.852	4.073
	.053)			(.026)	(1.114)	(.963)	(.039)	(12.065)	(5.241)
born 1973-1986	.082***	..	..	.028***	1.654	3.676	.021**	6.521	5.511
	(.036)			(.017)	(1.118)	(2.902)	(.026)	(9.225)	(9.143)
Year effects (ref: 2002)		1.465	1.207		.166**	.362		.135	.071
		(.710)	(.535)		(.104)	(.228)		(.174)	(.096)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*

Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

20-34 hours *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	1.815**	1.059	.836	1.966***	.890	.727	1.459**	.605**	.684
	(.353)	(.296)	(.250)	(.210)	(.132)	(.120)	(.177)	(.110)	(.150)
Intermediate	1.176	1.126	.781	1.355***	.913	.706*	1.179	.582**	.548**
	(.194)	.(.271)	(.219)	(.115)	(.115)	(.109)	(.133)	(.104)	(.118)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	2.281***	.791	1.093	1.486***	.859	1.050	1.805***	.860	.997
	(.367)	(.181)	(.262)	(.134)	(.115)	(.163)	(.169)	(.116)	(.165)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	29.103**	.215	.259	1.527	1.892*	1.917	1.679*	1.247	1.245
	(29.757)	(.228)	(.283)	(.331)	(.591)	(.812)	(.352)	(.415)	(.474)
2 children	22.791**	.339	.184	2.115**	2.071*	3.086*	2.594***	1.120	.814
	(23.264)	(.362)	(.195)	(.496)	(.702)	(1.391)	(.642)	(.430)	(.350)
3+ children	3.625***	1.647	.988	2.266**	1.882	3.387*	4.399***	.762	.675
	(.716)	(.712)	(.429)	(.630)	(.774)	(1.718)	(1.479)	(.384)	(.361)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.844	1.522	1.133	2.668***	.464*	.367*	1.518	1.068	1.677
	(.189)	(.568)	(.381)	(.643)	(.170)	(.179)	(.550)	(.605)	(.936)
3-5 years old	1.503	.800	1.080	2.762***	.666	.460	2.579***	.710	1.041
	(.459)	(.339)	(.523)	(.691)	(.252)	(.224)	.687	(.312)	(.462)
6-15 years old	1.217	.840	1.118	1.684*	.763	.611	1.401	.843	1.100
	(.235)	(.220)	(.310)	(.367)	(.244)	(.260)	(.307)	(.289)	(.431)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	1.053	..	..	.251**	1.131	2.648	.130	7.313	4.157
	(.357)			(.132)	(.573)	(1.420)	(.143)	(8.736)	(4.703)
born 1951-1961	.556	..	..	.153***	.995	1.948	.079*	6.867	3.736
	(.186)			(.081)	(.506)	(1.057)	(.087)	(8.211)	(4.253)
born 1962-1972	.267***	..	..	.094***	.930	1.504	.058*	5.827	3.446
	(.087)			(.049)	(.477)	(.828)	(.063)	(6.976)	(3.925)
born 1973-1986	.308**	..	..	.060***	1.055	2.466	.026**	6.609	4.972
	(.105)			(.032)	(.556)	(1.589)	(.029)	(8.010)	(6.168)
Year effects (ref: 2002)		.415**	.731		.284*	.811		.132	.178
		(.118)	(.181)		(.153)	(.409)		(.151)	(.215)
Pseudo R2	.169			.150			.150		
N	6241			14106			16327		

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*

Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

Appendix 2 Clustered Multinomial Logit Results with Interaction Terms

Inactive *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	8.022***	1.913*	1.132	6.460***	.680**	.538***	2.785***	.702*	.759
	(1.909)	(.620)	(.395)	(.744)	(.089)	(.081)	(.387)	(.126)	(.162)
Intermediate	2.731***	1.438	.974	1.647***	.808	.744	1.685***	.651*	.667**
	(.602)	(.424)	(.330)	(.188)	(.103)	(.113)	(.230)	(.117)	(.141)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	1.886**	1.486	1.858*	1.144	.942	.950	2.055***	.809	.667
	(.375)	(.380)	(.490)	(.115)	(.117)	(.131)	(.186)	(.090)	(.086)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	31.199**	.159	.464	2.385***	1.570	2.342*	1.457	.914	.818
	(33.025)	(.176)	(.541)	(.574)	(.468)	(.927)	(.414)	(.306)	(.287)
2 children	39.843**	.321	.325	4.293***	1.722	2.855*	2.446**	.788	.472
	(43.581)	(.340)	(.341)	(1.082)	(.552)	(1.171)	(.813)	(.297)	(.188)
3+ children	2.981**	5.279***	4.942***	9.784***	1.729	2.247	14.671***	.742	.357*
	(.998)	(2.337)	(2.119)	(3.069)	(.653)	(1.043)	(7.301)	(.350)	(.172)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.525	2.053	1.664	6.068***	.715	.925	18.558***	1.854	1.171
	(.205)	(.822)	(.578)	(1.886)	(.235)	(.391)	(6.606)	(.859)	(.530)
3-5 years old	1.757	.799	.835	3.496***	.958	.866	2.404**	1.746	.631
	(.798)	(.369)	(.426)	(1.060)	(.341)	(.378)	(.744)	(.726)	(.259)
6-15 years old	.994	.771	1.132	1.097	.943	.539	1.170	.958	.968
	(.277)	(.214)	(.321)	(.264)	(.285)	(.213)	(.293)	(.338)	(.356)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	.117***	..	..	.052***	1.341	2.843*	.006***	11.136*	18.783**
	(.035)	..	..	(.024)	(.590)	(1.349)	(.006)	(11.411)	(19.030)
born 1951-1961	.021***	..	..	.010***	1.797	4.945**	.001***	22.563**	58.793***
	(.007)	..	..	(.005)	(.812)	(2.418)	(.001)	(23.183)	(59.746)
born 1962-1972	.010***	..	..	.004***	2.179	6.509***	.001***	26.174**	104.804***
	(.003)	..	..	(.002)	(.992)	(3.186)	(.001)	(26.968)	(106.747)
born 1973-1986	.004***	..	..	.004***	2.022	2.328	.002***	38.079***	228.679***
	(.001)	..	..	(.002)	(.935)	(1.410)	(.002)	(39.227)	(235.625)
*Marital status*age youngest child (ref: single, no kids)*	*Interaction*			*Interaction*			*Interaction*		
married, 0-2 years	1.330			.972			1.134		
	(.500)			(.235)			(.318)		
married, 3-5 years	.802			.675			2.671***		
	(.398)			(.157)			(.595)		
married, 6-15 years	1.382			.680*			1.364*		
	(.398)			(.105)			(.176)		
Education*children (ref: high, no kids)									
Low, 1 child	1.109			1.314			1.135		
	(.806)			(.252)			(.253)		
Low, 2 children	1.052			1.068			2.494		
	(.620)			(.227)			(.696)		
Low, 3+ children	1.314			1.214			1.032		
	(.622)			(.389)			(.526)		
Intermediate, 1 child	1.311			1.224			.905		
	(.845)			(.216)			(.191)		
Intermediate, 2 children	2.131			1.746**			1.182		
	(1.198)			(.334)			(.302)		
Intermediate, 3+children	1.512			1.699			.656		
	(.624)			(.487)			(.310)		
Year effects (ref: 2002)		.157***	.308***		.105***	.405*		.018***	.061**
		(.056)	(.099)		(.050)	(.177)		(.019)	(.063)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*
Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

Unemployed *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	3.749***	.953	.272**	6.684***	.473*	.453*	2.902***	1.084	.948
	(1.350)	(.469)	(.129)	(1.583)	(.150)	(.143)	(.612)	(.349)	(.345)
Intermediate	1.478	.646	.517	2.119**	.357**	.454*	1.615*	1.195	1.167
	(.522)	(.324)	(.240)	(.482)	(.116)	(.141)	(.344)	(.381)	(.420)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	.759	1.010	.678	.363***	1.083	1.426	1.068	1.023	1.474*
	(.216)	(.373)	(.250)	(.069)	(.295)	(.367)	(.143)	(.166)	(.276)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	4.771	.488	.725	1.131	.183	2.968	1.779	.714	.945
	(9.121)	(.759)	(1.151)	(.598)	(.205)	(1.728)	(.739)	(.359)	(.495)
2 children	6.249	.688	.280	2.742	.131	1.667	1.844	.826	.540
	(8.109)	(.842)	(.342)	(1.418)	(.160)	(1.082)	(.931)	(.469)	(.318)
3+ children	1.770	3.864*	1.909	2.207	.256	1.447	2.833	.661	.433
	(.858)	(2.196)	(1.115)	(1.495)	(.306)	(1.090)	(2.586)	(.439)	(.293)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.520	3.102	2.351	2.273	4.363	.667	3.801**	1.752	3.125
	(.306)	(1.941)	(1.520)	(1.103)	(5.031)	(.439)	(1.952)	(1.296)	(2.117)
3-5 years old	.327	1.119	1.925	1.146	12.182*	.612	3.310**	2.460	.698
	(.262)	(.965)	(1.718)	(.608)	(14.279)	(.424)	(1.339)	(1.433)	(.416)
6-15 years old	.771	1.221	1.341	.769	16.843*	.753	1.736	1.410	1.060
	(.315)	(.501)	(.585)	(.331)	(19.118)	(.458)	(.591)	(.732)	(.580)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	1.918	..	..	.573	.460	1.177	.119	1.928	2.813
	(.972)	..	..	(.643)	(.561)	(1.386)	(.133)	(2.205)	(3.208)
born 1951-1961	.677	..	..	.311	.679	1.556	.038**	2.215	7.215
	(.346)	..	..	(.351)	(.830)	(1.853)	(.043)	(2.552)	(8.277)
born 1962-1972	.337*	..	..	.288	.657	1.879	.029**	2.148	7.788
	(.171)	..	..	(.327)	(.803)	(2.224)	(.032)	(2.477)	(8.936)
born 1973-1986	.368	..	..	.482	1.040	1.520	.025**	2.833	4.125
	(.196)	..	..	(.542)	(1.252)	(1.825)	(.028)	(3.296)	(5.222)
*Marital status*age youngest child (ref: single, no kids)*	*Interaction*			*Interaction*			*Interaction*		
married, 0-2 years	.633			.792			.483		
	(.327)			(.291)			(.186)		
married, 3-5 years	2.483			.938			1.153		
	(2.173)			(.376)			(.304)		
married, 6-15 years	1.327			.431**			.719		
	(.508)			(.132)			(.122)		
Education*children (ref: high, no kids)									
Low, 1 child	3.426			1.080			.833		
	(3.618)			(.413)			(.272)		
Low, 2 children	5.283*			1.144			1.208		
	(4.109)			(.473)			(.513)		
Low, 3+ children	2.310			2.071			2.279		
	(1.435)			(1.273)			(1.998)		
Intermediate, 1 child	2.096			1.712			.842		
	(2.249)			(.607)			(.264)		
Intermediate, 2 children	9.406**			1.101			1.520		
	(7.169)			(.462)			(.599)		
Intermediate, 3+children	3.534*			3.718*			1.527		
	(2.015)			(2.247)			(1.296)		
Year effects (ref: 2002)		1.456	.808		1.038	1.792		.087*	.334
		(.606)	(.357)		(1.229)	(2.159)		(.102)	(.393)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*
Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

0-11 hours *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	10.832***	1.071	.228**	2.158***	1.357	.778	1.688	.584	1.644
	(4.307)	(.528)	(.111)	(.446)	(.323)	(.194)	(.542)	(.197)	(.886)
Intermediate	4.013**	.652	.135***	.774	1.154	1.037	1.077	.511*	.610
	(1.622)	(.319)	(.070)	(.161)	(.276)	(.259)	(.344)	(.170)	(.344)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	12.961***	.265*	.306	1.836**	.654	1.168	2.113**	.877	.493*
	(7.666)	(.165)	(.201)	(.388)	(.155)	(.316)	(.460)	(.264)	(.170)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	32.770**	.155	.816	2.360*	.947	.624	2.155	.093*	.626
	(42.020)	(.190)	(1.026)	(.943)	(.532)	(.474)	(1.207)	(.100)	(.420)
2 children	34.509**	.366	.356	4.285***	1.163	1.230	5.908**	.074*	.368
	(4.755)	(.409)	(.394)	(1.719)	(.679)	(.948)	(3.370)	(.082)	(.280)
3+ children	7.157***	3.830**	2.748*	8.540***	1.010	1.152	16.281***	.071*	.532
	(3.260)	(1.927)	(1.414)	(3.806)	(.639)	(.924)	(11.975)	(.083)	(.452)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.848	1.623	.802	1.643	1.277	2.005	3.631*	8.409	.870
	(.733)	(.894)	(.464)	(.993)	(.739)	(1.563)	(2.346)	(9.819)	(.717)
3-5 years old	1.350	.476	.709	2.613	1.740	2.971	.955	7.732	.831
	(1.632)	(.301)	(.479)	(1.313)	(1.047)	(2.320)	(.536)	(8.852)	(.620)
6-15 years old	1.424	.956	.917	1.439	1.605	1.160	.539	5.737	.807
	(.772)	(.354)	(.358)	(.600)	(.870)	(.862)	(.241)	(6.274)	(.546)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	.413*	..	..	.205*	1.294	1.688	.014***	24.730**	59.989***
	(.173)	..	..	(.133)	(.844)	(1.129)	(.015)	(28.712)	(68.585)
born 1951-1961	.113***	..	..	.057***	1.703	2.344	.005***	42.156**	86.891***
	(.048)	..	..	(.038)	(1.160)	(1.629)	(.005)	(49.228)	(10.700)
born 1962-1972	.074***	..	..	.057***	2.008	1.356	.004***	39.759**	62.581***
	(.031)	..	..	(.037)	(1.372)	(.965)	(.004)	(46.723)	(74.347)
born 1973-1986	.034***	..	..	.028***	1.705	5.764	.005***	38.399**	100.885**
	(.018)	..	..	(.019)	(1.238)	(4.964)	(.005)	(46.260)	(137.982)
*Marital status*age youngest child (ref: single, no kids)*	*Interaction*			*Interaction*			*Interaction*		
married, 0-2 years	1.067			1.578			1.575		
	(.911)			(.793)			(.837)		
married, 3-5 years	1.516			.648			3.393**		
	(1.882)			(.241)			(1.572)		
married, 6-15 years	.966			.891			2.822**		
	(.494)			(.230)			(.848)		
Education*children (ref: high, no kids)									
Low, 1 child	.859			1.143			2.860		
	(.763)			(.328)			(1.303)		
Low, 2 children	1.318			.879			2.762*		
	(.929)			(.265)			(1.353)		
Low, 3+ children	.796			.829			1.422*		
	(.459)			(.341)			(1.036)		
Intermediate, 1 child	.998			1.433			1.514		
	(.857)			(.412)			(.695)		
Intermediate, 2 children	2.299			1.767*			1.697		
	(1.604)			(.500)			(.800)		
Intermediate, 3+children	1.150			1.555			1.652		
	(.623)			(.604)			(1.133)		
Year effects (ref: 2002)		3.765	2.861		.362	.573		.009***	.052*
		(3.095)	(2.222)		(.245)	(.377)		(.011)	(.061)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*
Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

12-19 hours *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	3.947***	1.057	.410*	3.628***	.850	.953	1.041	1.104	.725
	(1.102)	(.403)	(.159)	(.632)	(.166)	(.215)	(.253)	(.344)	(.248)
Intermediate	2.148**	.972	.302**	1.511*	.979	1.218	.786	.783	.506*
	(.571)	(.328)	(.116)	(.257)	(.173)	(.265)	(.184)	(.239)	(.175)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	7.628***	.423*	.551	1.469*	1.169	1.727*	2.967***	.567*	.815
	(2.570)	(.164)	(.234)	(.231)	(.228)	(.399)	(.599)	(.142)	(.247)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	78.411***	.142	.116	2.405**	1.468	.739	.836	1.806	.567
	(81.478)	(.159)	(.139)	(.753)	(.596)	(.482)	(.394)	(1.155)	(.483)
2 children	57.148***	.292	.161	5.498***	1.745	1.073	2.398	1.155	.189
	(62.781)	(.315)	(.173)	(1.713)	(.722)	(.709)	(1.187)	(.798)	(.175)
3+ children	5.504***	2.084	.731	5.195***	1.976	.654	4.307*	.997	.412
	(1.884)	(.997)	(.364)	(2.021)	(.970)	(.470)	(2.905)	(.789)	(.405)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	1.268	1.644	.890	3.149*	.520	1.190	27.104***	.553	1.175
	(.763)	(.747)	(.405)	(1.419)	(.221)	(.789)	(14.644)	(.430)	(1.094)
3-5 years old	1.579	.940	.609	6.796***	.568	.855	2.686	2.056	1.434
	(1.200)	(.489)	(.390)	(2.566)	(.250)	(.576)	(1.418)	(1.449)	(1.290)
6-15 years old	1.647	.900	.968	1.478	.951	1.503	1.955	.966	1.144
	(.676)	(.285)	(.326)	(.469)	(.371)	(.952)	(.861)	(.611)	(.961)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	.839	..	..	.186**	2.056	2.057	.089	8.597	4.516
	(.340)	..	..	(.108)	(1.275)	(1.237)	(.110)	(11.626)	(5.718)
born 1951-1961	.332**	..	..	.072***	2.134	2.509	.047*	7.375	5.313
	(.135)	..	..	(.042)	(1.359)	(1.542)	(.058)	(1.015)	(6.754)
born 1962-1972	.136***	..	..	.047***	1.718	1.563	.032**	8.377	3.779
	(.054)	..	..	(.027)	(1.102)	(.979)	(.040)	(11.419)	(4.866)
born 1973-1986	.086***	..	..	.030***	1.664	3.674	.021**	6.424	5.913
	(.038)	..	..	(.018)	(1.128)	(2.916)	(.026)	(9.107)	(9.833)
*Marital status*age youngest child (ref: single, no kids)*	*Interaction*			*Interaction*			*Interaction*		
married, 0-2 years	.765			1.309			.327**		
	(.445)			(.495)			(.135)		
married, 3-5 years	1.077			.511*			1.954		
	(.823)			(.150)			(.778)		
married, 6-15 years	.828			.870			1.538		
	(.336)			(.183)			(.396)		
Education*children (ref: high, no kids)									
Low, 1 child	.361			.923			1.972		
	(.276)			(.230)			(.689)		
Low, 2 children	.690			.513*			1.990		
	(.417)			(.134)			(.719)		
Low, 3+ children	1.060			.929			1.507		
	(.518)			(.369)			(.971)		
Intermediate, 1 child	1.098			1.291			1.980*		
	(.694)			(.293)			(.658)		
Intermediate, 2 children	1.478			1.024			1.427		
	(.845)			(.237)			(.471)		
Intermediate, 3+children	1.543			1.379			1.016		
	(.661)			(.500)			(.619)		
Year effects (ref: 2002)		1.365	1.115		.164**	.361		.151	.083
		(.687)	(.521)		(.104)	(.229)		(.195)	(.113)

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*
Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

20-34 hours *(ref: full-time)*	Netherlands			UK			Germany		
	2002	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***	***2002***	***1998***	***1992***
	Main	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***		***Main***	***Interaction***	
	RRR & (SE)			***RRR & (SE)***			***RRR & (SE)***		
Educational level (ref: high)									
Low	1.764**	1.155	.938	2.233***	.881	.731	1.207	.597**	.636*
	(.373)	(.337)	(.288)	(.271)	(.130)	(.120)	(.172)	(.108)	(.141)
Intermediate	1.083	1.206	.838	1.329**	.917	.716*	1.005	.581**	.523**
	(.194)	(.307)	(.240)	(.141)	(.116)	(.111)	(.137)	(.102)	(.112)
Marital status (ref: single)									
Married/cohabitating	2.378***	.804	1.109	1.429***	.864	1.054	2.143***	.860	1.008
	(.425)	(.185)	(.267)	(.145)	(.116)	(.164)	(.230)	(.116)	(.167)
Number of children in HH under 16 (ref: none)									
1 child	29.087**	.217	.272	1.555	1.891*	1.941	1.213	1.212	1.192
	(29.283)	(.233)	(.309)	(.358)	(.592)	(.823)	(.325)	(.410)	(.458)
2 children	21.309**	.337	.200	2.240**	2.087*	3.250**	1.689	1.064	.765
	(22.959)	(.357)	(.210)	(.564)	(.708)	(1.469)	(.546)	(.413)	(.331)
3+ children	2.949***	1.625	.920	2.280*	1.935	3.511*	4.875**	.765	.654
	(.792)	(.710)	(.402)	(.731)	(.797)	(1.789)	(2.680)	(.389)	(.352)
Age of youngest child (ref: no children)									
0-2 years old	.721	1.517	1.126	2.098	.463*	.360*	2.080	1.120	1.791
	(.250)	(.575)	(.382)	(.829)	(.167)	(.175)	(1.000)	(.637)	(.998)
3-5 years old	1.486	.808	1.117	2.845**	.665	.452	3.009***	.697	1.014
	(.606)	(.345)	(.550)	(.968)	(.251)	(.221)	(.932)	(.309)	(.452)
6-15 years old	1.521	.833	1.125	1.608	.766	.610	1.840*	.865	1.146
	(.378)	(.217)	(.308)	(.398)	(.245)	(.259)	(.438)	(.301)	(.450)
Cohort (ref: born 1928-1939)									
born 1940-1950	1.065	..	..	.253**	1.137	2.657	.131	7.199	4.123
	(.362)	..	..	(.133)	(.576)	(1.425)	(.145)	(8.598)	(4.665)
born 1951-1961	.568	..	..	.157***	1.001	1.975	.081*	6.668	3.657
	(.191)	..	..	(.083)	(.509)	(1.071)	(.090)	(7.974)	(4.164)
born 1962-1972	.272***	..	..	.096***	.939	1.537	.059*	5.654	3.395
	(.089)	..	..	(.051)	(.481)	(.847)	(.066)	(6.773)	(3.871)
born 1973-1986	.315**	..	..	.062***	1.069	2.470	.027**	6.371	4.537
	(.109)	..	..	(.033)	(.563)	(1.589)	(.030)	(7.735)	(5.655)
*Marital status*age youngest child (ref: single, no kids)*	*Interaction*			*Interaction*			*Interaction*		
married, 0-2 years	1.224			1.288			.644		
	(.424)			(.437)			(.272)		
married, 3-5 years	1.004			.931			.892		
	(.430)			(.249)			(.218)		
married, 6-15 years	.747			1.039			.690		
	(.184)			(.155)			(.094)		
Education*children (ref: high, no kids)									
Low, 1 child	.722			.828			1.548*		
	(.487)			(.163)			(.342)		
Low, 2 children	.682			.644			2.194**		
	(.374)			(.138)			(.617)		
Low, 3+ children	1.202			.696			.825		
	(.526)			(.251)			(.485)		
Intermediate, 1 child	1.113			1.086			1.396		
	(.631)			(.171)			(.286)		
Intermediate, 2 children	1.462			1.069			1.551		
	(.745)			(.195)			(.387)		
Intermediate, 3+children	1.615			1.218			.928		
	(.585)			(.367)			(.502)		
Year effects (ref: 2002)		.383**	.691		.278*	.800		.143	.186
		(.112)	(.178)		(.150)	(.403)		(.163)	(.224)
Pseudo R^2	.172			.152			.153		
N	6241			14106			16327		

*~p<.10, *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001.*
Source: British Household Panel Study, German Socio-Economic Panel, OSA Labour Supply Panel 1992-2002.

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Notes

[1] I am grateful to Trudie Schils for her comments and advice on earlier versions of this article.

[2] It must be noted that the category of 'inactive' means inactive in paid labour. This differentiation must be made to avoid the implication that, for example, women in self-reported family care are inactive in the true sense of the word.

[3] Appendix 1 includes both the main effects for 2002 and the interaction effects for 1992 and 1998. These interaction effects measure whether or not the effect of an individual or household level constraint was significantly weaker or stronger in that year in comparison to 2002. If no significant year-interaction terms are present, the effect of that individual or household level constraint was relatively constant across time.

[4] While the varying effects of having one, two or three or more children cannot be sufficiently differentiated in the Dutch data due to small n problems in certain categories (with the exception of women with three or more children), a cumulative variable measuring total presence of children in the household demonstrates that Dutch women with children are approximately two times more likely to be inactive in comparison to women without children. However, to maintain comparability, the categories of one, two or three or more children are retained in the model.

[5] At the same time, we must consider the possibility that the data show not only cohort effects, but also period effects. Period effects are a reflection of the measurement for year effects in the data, thereby differentiating between an effect that reflects a generational difference and one that reflects effects dependent upon the period of measurement (e.g. changes in economic conditions). In this analysis, I separate out the effects of whether or not newer generations change their manner of labour market participation (cohort effects) alongside which of these effects are indicative of a particular society during that period (period effects). Considering the period measured in this study, 1992-2002, we see clear period effects for the likelihood of inactivity. In 1992 and 1998, women in all three countries were less likely to be inactive, most likely a reflection of the negative shift in economic conditions during this period. For all other forms of labour market participation, the period effects present in the data appear more random. Therefore, we see both clear generational and period effects when looking at the probability of women being inactive in any one of these three countries.

[6] Once again, the extremely high relative risk ratios present for the patterns of inactivity and short-hours part-time work are due to a problem of small *n*. However, a clear, declining cohort effect is found for the remaining three patterns of labour market participation. At the same time, due to the smaller number of respondents in the Dutch dataset, testing for a shift in cohort effects across time produces unreliable results, and is therefore excluded from the analysis.

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