Trade unions and the work-family balance

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1 INTRODUCING COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND THE WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

In the Netherlands, the terms and conditions of employment of most employees are regulated through collective contracts. These contracts deal with terms and conditions such as wage, working hours, and secondary and tertiary employment benefits. The employment contracts are called collective labour agreements, or collective agreements for short. They are termed collective because one single collective contract is valid for all employees in a company or in a branch of industry, and they are named ‘agreements’ because they come about as a result of bargaining between one or more trade unions and one or more employers.

Looking at the number of female employees in the labour market, one may notice that this number has increased quite considerably over the last few decades, both in absolute terms and in relation to the number of male employees. If we assume that women’s preferences with respect to labour terms and conditions differ from those of their male colleagues to some extent, we could expect to find those different preferences reflected in collective labour agreements these women are covered by. It seems logical to ask the following question: given the increased female labour participation, do women’s preferences carry more weight in collective bargaining? Irrespective of whether or not a clear answer can be given to this question, a subsequent objective would be to distinguish possible other forces that affect the extent to which female-oriented provisions are included in collective labour agreements.

This dissertation explores this issue. The central objective is to ascertain the role of trade unions in bargaining over work-family provisions in collective labour agreements (CLAs). The major reason for focusing on collective labour agreements is that they constitute a very large part of terms and conditions of paid labour in the Netherlands, as most employees are covered by a CLA. Trade unions are important players in this area, especially since they, rather than employers, usually take the initiative for new developments in CLAs, by drawing up bargaining agendas and proposal letters. A secondary reason is a practical one. A rather unique dataset, consisting of very extensive quantitative data on the contents of
FNV\(^1\) bargained collective agreements, has recently become available for scientific research. It is unique in the sense that no other data collection of Dutch collective labour agreements exists on this scale and scope. More detailed information about this dataset can be found in Section 1.3 and in Schreuder and Tijdens (2003). This dataset restricts the focus of the dissertation to the Netherlands. Quantitative data analyses will be carried out on collective labour agreements that were valid between 2001 and 2003, and on trade union bargaining agendas preceding these CLAs. Before turning to the analyses, I will describe female labour market participation and collective bargaining in the Netherlands with respect to the work-family balance.

1.1 Female Labour Market Participation in the Netherlands

Today, work-family balance is an important issue in many countries in the European Union (Department for Education and Employment 1998; Bruegel 1999; Schulten 2000; Yeandle e.a. 2000; EIRO 2001; OECD 2001; EuroFound 2004). In all countries belonging to the European Union, the employment rate of women increased noticeably between 1993 and 2003,\(^2\) ranging from 2 percentage points in Denmark to over 18 percentage points in Ireland (Eurostat 2003). Examining transitions specifically in the Dutch labour market during the 90s and early 2000s, it becomes clear that the employment rate has risen considerably in the Netherlands as well, which is mostly due to the participation of women. Between 1993 and 2003, the total employment rate increased from 57 per cent to 65 per cent (Statistics Netherlands 2004); among women, it rose from 42 per cent to 54 per cent\(^3\).

Since the beginning of the 1970s, the number of female employees has been rising, in absolute numbers as well as in proportion to the total number of women of working age (Statistics Netherlands/STATLINE 2006). In 1970, the active female labour force in the Netherlands amounted to 1.2 million employees, and in 2004, this number had increased to more than 3 million. In Figure 1.1, the uppermost line of the two shows this gradual increase; the corresponding scale is shown on

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\(^1\) The FNV is the largest trade union federation in the Netherlands.

\(^2\) Except Sweden, where the female employment rate was already very high.

\(^3\) Employment rate is defined as the number of working people aged 15 to 64, divided by the total population aged 15 to 64.
the left-hand vertical axis. The increase of the female labour participation during
the 1970s is mostly due to female population growth; many immigrants and peo-
ple from the baby boom generation were joining the labour market then. From
the mid 1980s onwards, it is mostly a matter of housewives entering or re-
entering the labour market. As can be seen from the lower line in Figure 1.1, the
share of women in the labour force, compared to the total number of women in
the population aged 15 to 64, has grown from 33 per cent in 1981 to almost 60
per cent in 2004. The corresponding scale is shown on the right hand vertical
axis. In other words, in 1981, 31 per cent of the women aged 15 to 64 was active
in the labour market while the other 69 per cent was inactive; in 2004, 59 per
cent of the women aged 15 to 64 was active in the labour market while the re-
mainng 41 per cent was inactive. This implies that over the years, a continually
increasing share of women can be found in the labour market instead of at home.

Figure 1.1. Active female labour force from 1970 to 2005, in the Netherlands. The
black line shows the number of women active in the labour market; numbers can
be read on the left-hand vertical axis (in 1000s). The grey-white line shows the
active female labour force as a share of the total female labour force; percent-
ages can be read on the right hand vertical axis. Source: Statistics Netherlands
CAUSES FOR THE INCREASING FEMALE LABOUR FORCE

The increased female labour participation rate finds its causes in a number of technological and social developments. First of all, the introduction of the birth control pill in the Netherlands in 1962 and the fact that costs for the pill were refunded from 1971 onwards helped women in their career planning (Pott-Buter and Tijdens 1998). Now the unwanted risk of suddenly becoming pregnant had diminished, women no longer needed to fight this barrier to employment.

The introduction and development of laboursaving electrical household appliances, like the vacuum cleaner, the washing machine and the dishwasher, has freed up a large amount of time for women to spend on, for example, paid labour (Greenwood and Seshadri 2005). The ensuing continuous decrease of consumer prices of these household appliances has enabled women to join the labour market even further, as empirical research by Cavalcanti and Tavares (2005) suggests.

Public opinion on female employment changed as well in the seventies and eighties. It became more accepted for women to combine family care with work, under substantial influence of the second Feministic Wave (Van Gils and Kraaykamp 2004). This Wave lasted approximately from 1965 to 1985, and was started and fuelled by Joke Smit. She stated that men and women were formally equal, but they could only be equal in practice if women were to increase their labour market participation, and men were to increase their time spent on caring and household tasks (Smit 1967).

Most social scientists agree that the increase of female labour participation is primarily a result of the significantly changing labour market behaviour of married women (Visser 1999, Tijdens 2006), and not so much that of cohabitating women (Henkens, Grift and Siegers 2002). While getting married used to be a reason for employed women to withdraw from the labour market, this is no longer the case (Visser 1999). Labour participation among the group of single women, consisting primarily of girls and young women, has decreased slightly, because they receive education for a longer period of time (Tijdens 2006). This increased level of education can be considered a major cause for women’s changing labour market behaviour since 1970 (Hendrickx, Bernasco and De Graaf 2001). Because the op-
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Opportunity costs of not working during the educational years rise, the incentive to find a job after having completed education increases.

Since the early 80s, it is no longer customary for women to retire from the labour market after the birth of the first child: an increasing number of women resume their employment after a period of leave (Tijdens 2006, De Beer and Deven 2000). During the following decennia, the period of leave taken after the birth of the first child continues to grow smaller (Wetzels and Tijdens 2002). This effect is probably strengthened by the fact that, partly due to the Dutch 'part-time law' of 2000 (Fouarge, D., R. Grim, M. Kerkhofs, e.a. 2004), the availability of acceptable, non-marginal part-time jobs has increased significantly, which has pushed the part-time discussion away from the kitchen table and towards the social partners’ bargaining table (Visser 1999). Obviously, all the aforementioned factors affect women’s labour market participation positively.

Implications of the increasing female labour force

With employment rates of both men and women rising steadily, the need for effective arrangements that facilitate the combination of work and care is growing. While 'care' can signify both care for children, care for other family members living in the same house, and care for family living elsewhere, the usual interpretation is the first. Therefore, in this dissertation, care will be defined as childcare. Ermisch (2003) asserts that in richer countries, marriage and childbearing now occur much later in people’s lives, and people are having fewer children. Couples may decide to postpone having children, in favour of being employed (OECD 2001). If and when couples do decide to have children, but at the same time wish to continue being employed because of, among other reasons, the investment costs of followed education, they may experience a lot of stress when trying to combine work with family care. The traditional role division where the man is the breadwinner and the woman is at home, doing household tasks and caring for children, has evolved into a model in which both partners perform paid labour. In a family consisting of two parents and one or more young children, the woman usually works part-time, at least in the Netherlands. Outsourcing or efficiently planning and scheduling household and caring tasks may enable young parents to

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*The Working Hours Adjustment Act is referred to here. This will be elaborated in Section 1.2.*
join the labour market or increase the amount of hours they work. This is especially true for women, since research by Tijdens et al (2002) shows that in one-and-a-half earner households, 95 per cent of the women claim to be the one who takes on the childcare responsibilities. Lack of childcare provisions can be a serious barrier to especially women entering the labour market (Chevalier and Viitanen 2002), and consequently, many new government policies and laws deal with this issue. The need for work-family arrangements outside the family has obviously increased, and this dissertation focuses on work-family provisions that are included in collective labour agreements.

1.2  Regulating the Work-Family Balance

Work-family arrangements can be both informal and formal. Informal arrangements include childminding by grandparents and other family members, neighbours, or unpaid babysitters. They are the primary choice of lower-educated, and therefore mostly low-income families (Esveldt 2002), possibly because informal childcare arrangements are relatively cheap. In 2000, 84 per cent of Dutch women who had children aged between 0 and 4 made use of informal childcare arrangements (Leijnse 2001). The availability of informal care depends on family or friends living in the vicinity and willing to provide care, or neighbours able to do so, and formal care availability is dependent on the amount of qualified staff, either individual nannies or day-care centre personnel. In 1990, a Stimulation Measure Childcare was created, which considerably helped expand the number of childcare provisions, like day-care centres (Tijdens and Lieon 1993). Nevertheless, it was not until the end of 2002 that the shortage of childcare centres seemed to have disappeared in most cities (Volkskrant 2002). The costs involved are high, however: on average, they amount to 10 per cent of the household income, and even 25 per cent of the woman’s income (Portegijs et al. 2006). Although some municipalities hand out subsidies to parents who make use of childcare facilities, the costs involved for parents remain high, which is a major reason why working couples prefer informal childcare, along with the fact that parents place more trust in carers they know personally (Portegijs et al. 2006).

While informal work-family arrangements usually only concern childcare provisions, formal work-family arrangements also include opportunities for part-time work, paternity leave arrangements, parental leave arrangements and maternity
leave arrangements. Formal care refers to professional childminders, either in the home of the parents or in day-care centres. Formal work-family arrangements are instigated by governmental bodies or social partners, and concern financial compensation and leave arrangements for parents. The remainder of Section 1.2 contains a description of formal work-family provisions in Dutch legislation, in legislation in other EU countries and in Dutch collective labour agreements.

REGULATING FORMAL WORK-FAMILY ARRANGEMENTS IN DUTCH LAW

In 1991, the scientific council for government policy in the Netherlands (the WRR) set three main targets with respect to the Dutch labour market (WRR 1991; De Beer 2002). First, to counter the effects of an aging population and stimulate economic growth; second, to stimulate emancipation and equality processes, and third, to promote individual well-being and happiness. In practice, this should be achieved by increasing the labour force, giving women more opportunities to enter the labour market, and helping women and men find a good work-family balance, respectively.

Considering that women may be mothers of young children, the demand for arrangements that help workers find a beneficial work-family balance became stronger. This concern was recognised by the Ministry of Social Affairs, who launched a plan of action in July 2001, intending to stimulate labour market participation of women (Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment 2001). The plan included lowering the income threshold for mothers claiming childcare taxes deduction.

Supposing the lack of availability of work-family provisions to be one of the main barriers for women to enter and remain in the labour market, the Dutch government has been trying to improve legislation with respect to childcare issues. Between 1990 and 2002, the government has followed a stimulation policy, based on the Welfare Law 1994 (‘Welzijnswet 1994’), to increase the number of available places in childcare centres from 23 thousand in 1989 to 185 thousand in 2003\(^5\). Parents could also lay claim to fiscal compensations. Furthermore, the

\(^5\) Source: http://home.swz.nl, the website of the Dutch Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment.
government started considering childcare a common interest and a shared re-
sponsibility of parents, government and employers alike. In 2005, which lies out-
side the time scope of this dissertation, the Childcare Act (‘Wet Basisvoorziening
Kinderopvang’) was introduced, regulating the tripartite funding of childcare and
monitoring the quality of day-care centres.

During the years that are covered by this dissertation, two other Dutch laws dealt
with formal work-family arrangements. In July 2000, the Working Hours Adjust-
ment Act (Wet Aanpassing Arbeidsduur, WAA) was established, which regulates
employee requests for changes of hours worked. The Work and Care Act (Wet Ar-
beid & Zorg (WA&Z), December 2001) regulates leave and financial backing for
employees around the time of childbirth. To summarise it briefly, the WAA states
that every employee who has been employed for at least a year with an employer
who employs at least ten employees, has the right to ask this employer for an
extension or a reduction of his or her weekly working hours. The employer is ex-
pected to consider and comply with this request, providing the company’s inter-
ests are not harmed6. The WA&Z envelops several regulations that deal with
childcare. According to this legislation, women are allowed at least 16 weeks of
fully paid pregnancy and maternity leave, of which 10 weeks must occur after
giving birth. The father can also take leave to be present at childbirth and on two
days afterwards. In addition to this, both parents are entitled to unpaid parental
leave, for the duration of 13 times their weekly working hours. Someone working
36 hours a week, for example, is entitled to 468 hours of unpaid leave, which
amounts to 13 weeks. In the regulation, it as advised that the parent works 50
per cent of their usual working hours, spread out over half a year (Ministry of So-
cial Affairs and Employment 2004). In the example, the employee would then be
working 18 hours a week for 26 weeks. Formal work-family arrangements are ap-
preciated widely in the Netherlands; Dutch couples expect it to be easier to com-
bine work and family in the future, given the increasing opportunities for child-
care, working at home, flexible working hours, part-time work and care leave (Es-
ter and Vinken 2000).

6 How ‘the company’s interests’ are defined remains an issue of discussion, since the WAA does not
describe these in a detailed, measurable way.
WORK-FAMILY PROVISIONS IN DUTCH COLLECTIVE LABOUR AGREEMENTS

In addition to legislation, the most important institution that covers formal child-care arrangements in the Netherlands is the collective labour agreement (CLA). CLAs are collective agreements on conditions of employment between employees, who are represented by trade unions, and employers, who are often represented by employers' organisations. Dutch legislation stimulates collective bargaining between employers and employees, principally through the Collective Agreement Act of 1927 and the Extension Act of 1937 (Verhulp 2005). In short, the Collective Agreement Act states that employees, represented by one or more trade unions, and employers are allowed to make agreements concerning terms and conditions of employment. Employers and employees (both union members and non-union members) are expected to abide by these terms. The Extension Act regulates the extension of the coverage of collective agreements. Under certain conditions, the minister of Social Affairs and Employment can extend the coverage to all employees in a branch of industry. A more detailed discussion of extension of collective agreements and its conditions can be found in Section 2.1, sub-section ‘Extension of collective agreements’.

Employment conditions are usually bound by legal regulations. These regulations are often stated in the form of minimum conditions, allowing employers to deviate from them only when it is favourable to the employee. However, CLAs are not always completely bound by existing legislation – many articles of law include clauses that state that CLAs may derogate, partly or entirely, from the specific article. This type of legislation is called ‘semi-mandatory law’. All articles of law that deal with the work-family balance have these kinds of semi-mandatory elements, because the social partners are believed to be better suited than the government to make arrangements in this field. For instance, the Working Hours Adjustment Act states that an employee is entitled to ask his or her employer for a decrease (or an increase) of their working hours, and that the employer should comply unless business interests are damaged. However, if the employee were covered by a CLA, part-time stipulations included in this collective agreement may weaken or even overrule the regulations in this specific Act. An example of such a part-time stipulation would be that the employee is required to have been employed for at least two years with this particular employer, instead of one as stated in the Working Hours Adjustment Act. According to the Work and Care Act, female employees are entitled to 16 weeks of paid pregnancy and birth leave, but
an exception is made for collective labour agreements, in which the duration may be shorter. Legally, employees are entitled to unpaid paternal and parental leave, but with respect to paternal leave arrangements, provisions in CLAs are not restricted by the law at all. In other words, it is not obligatory for employers to include paternal provisions in their CLA. Regarding parental leave, several exceptions to the law can be made in collective agreements, for example in relation to the age of the child, the length of time the employee has worked for the employer, and the time at which the parental leave is proposed.

There are two types of CLAs: company CLAs, which pertain to one company, and sectoral CLAs, which pertain to an entire branch of industry. Regular collective agreements concern conditions and benefits like wages, work schedules, rights and obligations, working conditions, social security, and work-family themes, while specific-issue agreements cover only one subject of regular CLAs, like social funds, training, and older workers, known in Dutch as SF, O&O, and VUT, respectively. These types of agreements usually exist alongside a regular CLA of the company or sector, and they are used when a specific target population is addressed. This target population is generally smaller than the number of employees covered by the regular CLA.

Nine types of work-family provisions can be distinguished in labour contracts and collective labour agreements: (1) opportunities for part-time work; (2) childcare facilities or provisions; (3) paternity leave arrangements; (4) parental leave arrangements; (5) maternity leave arrangements; (6) opportunities for employees to work flexible hours; (7) teleworking or working at home arrangements; (8) career break opportunities; and (9) financial compensation for services like cleaning, gardening, ironing and grocery service. How do these provisions take shape in collective labour agreements, and how can they facilitate the combination of work and care? CLA regulations on part-time work are primarily centred on the question whether or not the employee is allowed to work part-time. If so, the most important specifications that may be added are whether all employees can make use of it, whether a minimum number of working hours is required, and whether part-timers have the same rights as fulltime employees. Working part-
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time enables parents to spend more time at home to care for their children. If, for example, an employee is scheduled to work five days a week from 10 AM until 4 PM, she can use the extra free time to bring children to and from school. If children are not yet of school age, a part-time construction where the employee works eight-hour days, but only three or four days a week, might be preferred. Parents can effectively save on expenses for kindergartens and babysitters, especially if the employee’s partner has a similar arrangement.

Types of work-family provisions

1. Opportunities for part-time work
2. Childcare facilities or provisions
3. Paternity leave arrangements
4. Parental leave arrangements
5. Maternity leave arrangements
6. Opportunities for employees to work flexible hours
7. Teleworking or working at home arrangements
8. Career break opportunities

Box 1.1. Types of work-family provisions in Dutch (collective) labour agreements.

Childcare regulations typically include monetary contributions to employees with childcare needs. These regulations may vary between CLAs with respect to the amount of financial compensation, the target population that is entitled to it, the maximum age of children for whom employees may use the compensation, and whether a special fund has been established in which money is reserved for the purpose of childcare compensation. In the 2003 report of the ongoing research project on childcare arrangements in CLAs, the Dutch Labour Inspectorate found that, in a representative sample of 125 Dutch CLAs, 89 per cent includes a childcare provision (Schaeps 2003). After considering CLA coverage, Schaeps concluded that 68 per cent of the Dutch population in dependent employment could now make use of such an arrangement. Paternity, parental and maternity leave arrangements in CLAs are mostly concerned with the amount of time off that employees are entitled to, and whether they receive full or partial pay during this time. These types of leave arrangement allow parents to stay at home to carry out their childcare duties. Teleworking arrangements, allowing parents to work at home and enabling them to perform caring tasks when necessary, are found in only a handful of Dutch collective agreements. Neither employees nor works
councils exert a lot of pressure to include teleworking provisions in CLAs, although FNV Bondgenoten\textsuperscript{8} may be regarded as a noteworthy exception, since they have bargained over this topic in the IT sector (Van Klaveren and Tijdens 2003). More specific details on work-family provisions in Dutch CLAs, aggregated by branch of industry, can be found in Section 3.3.

1.3 THE DUCADAM DATASET

Between 80 and 85 per cent of all Dutch employees are covered by a collective labour agreement (Vossen and Engelen 2002, Rojer 2002). The exact number of CLAs depends on how they are defined. The Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment regards only those CLAs that have been registered at the ministry as valid\textsuperscript{9}, which include both regular and specific-issue agreements. In December 2003, the total number of current CLAs according to the ministry was 1005. The largest Dutch trade union federation, the FNV, only considers regular collective labour agreements to be 'real' CLAs, of which more than 15 per cent are not registered at the ministry. The FNV is currently bargaining over 769 different CLAs\textsuperscript{10}, of which they keep a detailed account in a CLA database. In the next section, the backgrounds of the FNV’s database are described, along with a general design of the database itself.

Currently, 14 trade unions are affiliated with the FNV, FNV Bondgenoten being the largest with over 480,000 members. This trade union began setting up a database of all collective agreements signed by FNV-affiliated trade unions in the mid-90s (Tijdens 2002a). The ‘FNV CAO-databank’, as it is called, is a digital database that stores all collective labour agreements negotiated by FNV trade unions in the Netherlands since 1995. These CLAs are stored in the form of texts and 650 different coded characteristics, plus proposal letters, pamphlets, change notes and jurisprudence texts. In 2003, the Amsterdam Institute for Advanced Labour Studies (AIAS) has made both a scientific translation and an extension of the FNV database.

\textsuperscript{8} With 480,000 members, the Dutch FNV Bondgenoten is the largest trade union of the FNV trade union federation. FNV Bondgenoten bargains over CLAs in manufacturing, trade, ICT, services, transport, farming and the metal industry.

\textsuperscript{9} In order for a CLA to be lawfully valid, registration of the CLA by one or all of the negotiating parties at the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment is required.

\textsuperscript{10} A list of these CLAs plus extensive information on the DUCADAM dataset can be found in Schreuder and Tijdens (2003).
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tabase, culminating in the DUCADAM dataset. Twice a year, AIAS receives a
tab-delimited dataset containing coded CLA characteristics, which it converts into
scientific data that can be analysed.

The FNV CAO-databank is a database of both textual and coded infor-
mation, pertaining to all collective labour agreements that the FNV trade
unions have negotiated in the Netherlands since 1995.
The textual part is an online database that stores CLA texts, bargaining
agendas, pamphlets and legal documents.
The coded part of the database exists only offline. The FNV has converted
the textual CLA data into values for more than 1100 variables.

The DUCADAM Dataset is a scientific translation of the coded part of the
FNV CAO-databank, relating to the years 1995 to 2003. It consists of
3752 CLAs.
Some of the variables are meta-variables that were not included in the
FNV CAO-databank, like branch of industry, negotiator’s gender, number
of employees covered and type of CLA. Coding is done in SPSS format.
For more information on both databases, see Schreuder & Tijdens (2003).

Box 1.2. Information about the FNV CAO-databank and the DUCADAM Dataset.

In Box 1.2, both datasets are described. The DUCADAM dataset is an SPSS file in
which collective labour agreements are cases and CLA characteristics are vari-
able. The extension consists of newly created meta-variables, which are not ac-
tually included in CLAs but are closely tied to them, for instance branch of indus-
try, gender of the negotiator, and type of CLA (Schreuder and Tijdens 2003). To
my knowledge, this kind of collective labour agreement database is rather
unique; a comparable database of the same scope and depth is constructed and
updated by research and training organisation ACIRRT, of the University of Syd-
ney, Australia, but nowhere else. In January 2004, the DUCADAM dataset con-
tained 3752 CLAs, with 1001 different CLA numbers. The difference between
3752 and 1001 can be understood by realising that a CLA number is present in the
database 3.75 times on average, but the starting and expiration dates are
different. For example, the CLA of Dutch Public Universities, which has CLA-

11 DUCADAM is an acronym for Dutch Collective Agreements Database And Monitor. The project to
generate this dataset was subsidised through an NWO investment grant (no. 400-47-100) in January
2000.
number 1108, is present in the database four times – one that has been valid from 1-1-1999 till 31-5-2000, one from 1-6-2000 till 31-5-2002, one from 1-6-2002 till 31-8-2003, and one from 31-8-2003 onwards. Of the 1001 CLAs, 769 CLAs are currently in force, while the other 232 ceased to exist because of mergers, takeovers, bankruptcies, or a decision not to prolong the collective agreement. Alternatively, some collective agreements sometimes split up into several collective agreements, as has been the case with the sectoral Banking CLA in 2000. Several large banking companies decided to start their own company CLA. The old sectoral CLA continued to exist under its original name and CLA number (866), while the large banking company CLAs received a new CLA name and number. In Figure 1.2, the chronological development is shown year by year.

Figure 1.2. Chronological development of sectoral and company CLAs in the banking industry in the Netherlands.

Branch of industry, one of the meta-variables included in the DUCADAM dataset, is coded according to the SBI’93 system. This is the Dutch 1993 system of categorising businesses. Each business, firm or company can be classified according to its core activity. Statistics Netherlands (in Dutch: Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek) defined a system called the Standard Business Index (SBI), which, at the highest level, consists of 17 branches of industry, labelled A to Q. Each branch is divided into one or more ‘sub-branches’ of industry, or perhaps more accurately named ‘SBI-2-digit-level branches of industry’. There are 58 SBI-2-digit-level branches, numbered (discontinuously) from 01 to 99. This process of division continues until, at the most detailed level, a business is characterised by a five-
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digit code. A firm that is categorised under code 6021.1 (Regulated public transport of persons by road) automatically falls under the categories 6021 (Regulated transport of persons by road), 602 (Transport by road), 60 (Transport over land) and 1 (Transport, storage and communication). During the preparation of the data, each CLA in the sample has been manually given an SBI code. This makes it possible to link CLA data to other labour market data, available at Statistics Netherlands/STATLINE, which is categorised by branch of industry.

Work-family provisions are an important element of collective labour agreements, and they take up a large part of the variables of the DUCADAM dataset. However, of the nine types of work-family provisions distinguished in Section 1.2, only the first five are coded in the DUCADAM dataset. This means that provisions 6 to 9 cannot be used in the analysis. Each work-family provision included in the dataset is coded not only for being included in the CLA, but also for its precise contents. For instance, if a regulation about parental leave is included in the CLA\textsuperscript{12}, the data specifies what percentage of pay employees receive during their leave, whether employees have to continue working for a specified number of hours during their leave, whether the employer, the employee and possibly a pension fund continue to pay pension premiums during the period of leave, whether a maximum age of the child has been specified before which employees have to take up their parental leave, et cetera. In Section 3.4, all specifying variables of the five work-family provisions are listed.

The next chapter observes two characteristics of trade unions with respect to agenda setting processes. Using the existing literature on union-member models and coordination mechanisms, several factors are discussed that are deemed to influence trade unions’ bargaining policies. In Chapter 3, these factors are translated into variables that comprise the empirical model that tries to explain the occurrence of work-family provisions in collective labour agreements. The results from the empirical analysis provide input to construct another model, in Chapter 4, which focuses on trade unions’ bargaining agendas and the extent to which they include work-family proposals. The results from both Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 provide input for the qualitatively oriented empirical Chapter 5, in which FNV

\textsuperscript{12} To be precise: a regulation that exceeds the parental leave provisions declared in the Work and Care Act (WABZ).
trade union negotiators reflect on their agenda setting processes and explain which factors affect them. The last chapter serves as a summarising and concluding section.

A different order of the empirical chapters 3, 4 and 5 could have been to start with interviewing trade union negotiators in order to get oriented in the field, then to research bargaining agendas, and finally to focus on the collective agreements. This would have been logical from a chronological point of view. However, I have chosen to start the research by looking at the final products of collective bargaining, i.e. the collective agreements. Since the results from that part of the research left us with further questions, I decided to take a step back in time and take a look at the bargaining agendas, which chronologically precede the collective agreements. When it turned out that results from this part of the research generated new questions once again, I decided to talk to the people who actually draw up bargaining agendas and bargain with employers about terms and conditions of employment. In this way, I have tried to remain as unprejudiced as possible by first looking at the hard and detailed facts (the collective agreements), then at less hard and less detailed facts (the bargaining agendas), and only then at qualitative information (the interview data).