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**THE IMPACT OF WORK-FAMILY BALANCE ON LIFE SATISFACTION
IN SELECTED COUNTRIES**

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

AYŞE BETÜL AYDIN

İstanbul, 2020

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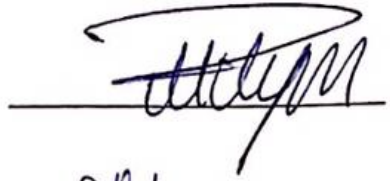
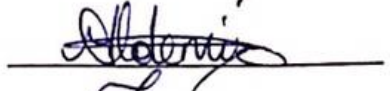
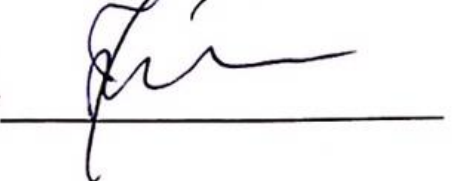
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Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Mehmet Fatih Aysan

İstanbul, 2020

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and standards of ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and standards, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work

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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Betül A. Aydın', written in a cursive style.

ABSTRACT

THE IMPACT OF WORK-FAMILY BALANCE ON LIFE SATISFACTION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

Aydın, Ayşe Betül.

Thesis Advisor: Assoc. Prof. Mehmet Fatih Aysan

July 2020, 105 pages

This study examines the impacts of personal and national determinants of employees' life satisfaction across six European countries, namely Italy, Portugal, Germany, France, Sweden, and Denmark. Personal determinants are divided between household structure and working conditions, which are critical for work-life balance. National determinants include the citizens' perception regarding the quality of health, education, childcare, and pension system, which are frequently used public services. The fourth wave of the European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) conducted in 2016 has been used in the empirical analysis. The utilized methodology consists of an ordinal logistic regression model. The results show that health status, income quartile level, and quality of health care, childcare, and education services are positively correlated with the log odds of an individual's life satisfaction. Similarly, being single, being married, doing the housework (or cooking) regularly are positively correlated with the log odds of an individual's life satisfaction. Moreover, having suitable working hours for a family (or social commitments outside of work) is also positively correlated with the log odds of an individual's life satisfaction. On the other hand, work-family conflict, and the likelihood of losing a job in the next six months are negatively correlated with the log odds of an individual's life satisfaction. Lastly, it turns out that there is no significant relationship between individuals' age, the number of children under the age of 18 in the household, and pension system and the log odds of an individual's life satisfaction.

Key words: Life satisfaction, work-family balance, social policies, welfare states.

ÖZ

SEÇİLİ ÜLKELERDE İŞ-AİLE DENGESİNİN YAŞAM MEMNUNİYETİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Aydın, Ayşe Betül.

Tez Danışmanı: Doç. Dr. Mehmet Fatih Aysan

Temmuz 2020, 105 sayfa

Bu çalışma kişisel ve ulusal faktörlerin altı refah devletindeki (İtalya, Portekiz, Almanya, Fransa, İsveç ve Danimarka) çalışanların yaşam memnuniyeti üzerindeki etkilerini öngörmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Kişisel faktörler, iş-aile dengesi için kritik olan, hanehalkı yapısı ile çalışma koşulları olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır. Ulusal faktörler ise vatandaşların sağlık, eğitim, çocuk bakımı servislerinin ve ve kamu emeklilik sisteminin kalitesine dair algılarını içermektedir. Veri analizi için 2016 yılında gerçekleştirilen Avrupa Yaşam Kalitesi Anketi'nin (EQLS) dördüncü serisi kullanılmıştır. Bu çalışmada sıralı lojistik regresyon analizinden oluşan amprik analizin yanında Avrupada'ki refah devletlerin gelişimine de değinilmiştir. Sonuçlara bakıldığında, sağlık durumu, gelir düzeyi, sağlık hizmetleri, çocuk bakımı ve eğitim hizmetlerinin kalitesinin, bireyin yaşam memnuniyeti ile pozitif ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Benzer şekilde, daha önce evlenmemiş olmak, evli olmak, her gün ev işlerini yapmak bireyin yaşam memnuniyeti log oranlarını pozitif olarak etkilemektedir. Ayrıca, aile ile uyumlu çalışma saatlerine sahip olmak ile bireyin yaşam memnuniyeti arasında da pozitif işi olduğu görülmüştür. Öte yandan, iş-aile çatışması ve bireyin yaşam memnuniyetini negatif etkilemektedir. Son olarak yaş, evdeki on sekiz yaş altı birey sayısı ve emeklilik sistemi ile bireyin yaşam memnuniyeti arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki yoktur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yaşam memnuniyeti, iş-aile dengesi, sosyal politikalar, refah devleti.



To my mother and my granny...

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In this thesis, I focused on the work-family balance and welfare state provisions for employees because since I have started to gain interest in this topic, many people encouraged me to study it, especially to improve conditions. The quality of public services has a big importance in sustainable growth because from childhood to seniority individuals benefit from various public services in welfare states. These services help citizens to built and shape their life. Hence, citizens' perception of the quality of the public services might guide the welfare actors to enhance these services. Along with the changing labor structures, new work arrangements, declining fertility rate, increasing new type of families, and many other issues related with the well-being and sustainability, resulted in the increase of work-family balance policy agendas. Providing wide-scope work-family policies require a comprehensive approach and sustainable administration. Before offering new provisions to increase life satisfaction, it should be understood how the citizens' assessment of the fundamental welfare services affect their life satisfaction. Therefore, in this thesis, I focus on the employees' work-family balance and life satisfaction in welfare states in order to remark relevant issues and make specific recommendations to make a contribution for sustainable and egalitarian growth.

There are many people to thank who have supported me during this process. First, I would like to thank my thesis advisor Assoc. Prof. Mehmet Fatih Aysan for not only his constructive comments for this thesis but also his help and encouragement that helped me to find my way in academic life. Without his professional support and the academic opportunities he provided for me, I would probably lose my academic motivation. It has been a true privilege to have worked with a leading scholar and a mentor. I also would like to thank Assist. Prof. Zübeyir Nişancı for not only his support and answering my endless questions about SPSS but also his comments and critiques that helped develop this study. Thanks to his encouragement, statistics will always be in my life. I have learned so much from both of them. I would also like to

express my thanks to Assist. Prof. Ümmügülsüm Aysan for her comments, valuable contributions and critiques as one of the members of my thesis jury.

I wrote this thesis during very challenging times, when the whole world was fighting with Covid-19. I was very lucky to have the best supporter to get through this difficult process. First of all, I would like to thank my thesis sisters (Maryam Ekhtiari and Fatma Zehra Özyağlı), who brightened my darkest days and reminded me constantly that it would be soon over. I am also thankful to Elif Hüma Doğruel for filling my last two years with support and joy. In addition to the emotional support they gave me, I also appreciated them for helping me edit my thesis.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Eurofound:	European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions
EQLS:	European Quality of Life Survey
OECD:	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OLS:	Ordinal Logistic Regression
UK:	United Kingdom
US:	United States



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Even though the world has been changing, not only environmentally but also economically and socially, since the beginning of existence well-being has been the ultimate goal in human existence throughout history. At the beginning of the 21st century, industrialization had created various social and economic challenges for countries. Welfare states have been supporting their citizens' well-being against these challenges by providing public services and social policies. As the citizens' socio-economic conditions improved, the concept of good life and employee's welfare gained attention. Moreover, post-materialist values became a topic of interest especially for working conditions. During the 1970s, research on social indicators began analyzing welfare states provisions over time to predict the future risks and outcomes of social change (Campbell, 1976: 117-118; Bognar, 2005: 561). These studies also aimed to enhance the living conditions by suggesting social policies for employees' welfare needs. Hence, researchers needed to pursue new conceptualizations of good life and a wider set of methods that could be used to measure quality of life. Life satisfaction is an important concept in measuring factors which affect both intrinsic interest and economic policy (Caner, 2016: 363).

Life satisfaction indicates the degree to which external living-conditions fit with inner life-abilities. It is an essential and relevant concept for policymakers because it involves public judgments and refers to the overall evaluation of life. Since the satisfaction-with-whole-life is calculated from satisfactions with the life-domains (Andrews and Withey, 1976), there is a significant association between family-work domains and life satisfaction (Argyle, 2001). Scholars in different disciplines have studied work and family separately for a long time. Since life satisfaction increases depending on the interaction with the environment, employees need specific formal and informal supports to reconcile their work and family domains.

There has been an extensive literature on the reconciliation between work and family life after the change in the structure of work and family spheres. Even though the separation of work and family domains declined mainly in recent years, they still maintain their respective activities and roles. Existing literature shows the importance of work-family balance on employees' life satisfaction. The reconciliation of these roles balances work and family life and increases life satisfaction level. Correspondingly, the concept of work-family balance has become prominent for welfare states to increase the quality of citizens' life.

The changes in the working conditions and labor force structures have revealed the importance of work-family balance on employees' life satisfaction and welfare states' sustainability. Work-family balance is the positive interaction between different domains that creates a balance in one's life. The concept means the lack of conflict between work and family roles (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985) and represents high levels of role facilitation between work and family roles (Frone, 2003). This study identifies work-family balance as the minimum conflict and maximum cooperation between family structure and working conditions.

The history of work and family balance can be traced back to the beginning of the separation of workplace and home. Since then, work-family related challenges have increased. Consequently, employees need some kind of supports from not only their family but also institutions. Social support plays a vital role in life satisfaction because formal and informal supports help employees perceive the situation as less threatening or stressful (House *et al.*, 1981; 1985) so increase their work-family balance. Social support can come from various sources such as, family members, co-workers, managers, and professionals who offer national service (Abendroth and den Dulk, 2011). The beginning of regulations for formal support of work-family balance dates back to the 1930s as a result of the development of the industry, increasing global competition, and the change in the structure of the workforce (Loockwood, 2003). Since the middle of the 1900s, work-life balance has been discussed and used in political agendas both in a national and an international level

because there are social, psychological, and economic benefits brought by the work-life balance (Naithani, 2010).

Since the sustainability of welfare regimes require a higher employment rate, work-family balance is an important concept for not only employees but also welfare states. Employees need some policies or regulations to maintain balance in their life. In this sense, work-family balance gains importance in producing social policies, which helps increase not only the human capital of citizens but also their life satisfaction (Aysan and Aysan, 2017). It makes work-family balance an essential policy issue for policymakers to develop work-family policies for providing better living conditions with a higher employment rate. Hence, welfare states provide social policies and public services not only to provide formal support, but also enhance informal support from different sources to increase employees' work-life balance and consequently their life satisfaction.

The welfare state is the product of a historical process, social development and changes, and political compromise with various purposes (Flora and Alber, 1998). Welfare states aim to enhance citizens' human capital and increase citizens' life satisfaction by producing social policies and providing quality public services. Since the sustainability of welfare states requires a higher employment rate, employees' life satisfaction has become an essential policy issue for policymakers. Hence, welfare states have been developing specific work-family policies to provide better living conditions with a higher employment rate.

There are various welfare regime typologies that explain cross-national variations based on decommodification and defamilialization levels (Esping-Andersen, 1990). These typologies help understand the developments of welfare states (Cousin, 2005). This thesis describes four types of welfare regimes in Europe. Existing literature shows that work-family policies vary according to the welfare regime (Den Dulk and Van Doorne-Huiskes, 2007) because welfare actors, which are state, family, market, and local institutions, play a different part in welfare distribution. In the liberal welfare regime, the market has a major role in the management of social

risks, so employees meet their need in the market with a high cost. In the conservative-corporatist welfare regime, all four actors have moderate priority, so any actor can become prominent. The social-democratic welfare regime, on the other hand, emphasizes the role of the state in the welfare distribution; so state provides developed, egalitarian, and inclusive welfare provisions. Finally, in the southern welfare regime family has a major role in citizens' welfare, since family ties play a large role in Southern European countries, so employees enjoy minimum welfare provisions for work-life balance (Aysan and Aysan, 2017: 343-4). Even though the level of decommodification and defamilization in welfare states reshape the scope of work-family policies across welfare regimes (Esping-Andersen, 1990), all of them have fundamental public services as social rights, such as health care, education and public child-care. While there is an existing (non)comparative research on work-family policies and life satisfaction, none has explicitly considered how the citizens' perception of the quality of frequently used public services impact employees' life satisfaction.

With the change in the labor structure, the new work arrangements and the public care responsibilities have revealed that welfare states need comprehensive, egalitarian, and sustainable work-family policies in both national and international framework by considering new needs for employees' well-being. Moreover, the accessibility and affordability of public services have been gaining importance for quality life and sustainable growth of welfare states by providing welfare provisions for citizens' needs. In this sense, the main research topic of this thesis is employees' work-life balance and life satisfaction in welfare states to contribute to sustainable and egalitarian growth. Moreover, this study clarifies the basic differences between a much used well-being measurements to fill the existing gap in the literature.

In this context, the primary purpose of this thesis is to contribute to the life satisfaction literature focusing on work-family balance and the citizens' perception of the public services in the welfare state. The study aims to analyze the impact of work-family balance and welfare state provisions on employees' life satisfaction in European welfare states. A further goal of this study is to comment on relevant

issues and make policy recommendations to contribute to sustainable and egalitarian growth. In this light, this thesis seeks to answer the following research questions: How work-family balance and welfare state services affect employees' life satisfaction in selected countries? What are the impacts of personal (household structure and working conditions) and national determinants on employees' life satisfaction in six European welfare states? How work-family policies increase employees' life satisfaction?

To answer the research questions, the Ordinal Logistic Regression was run with IBM SPSS version 21. Eurofound's European Quality of Live Survey (Henceforth, EQLS) data set conducted in 2016, was utilized. It is the most recent dataset for the quality of life in Europe. The analysis includes six European welfare states (Italy, Portugal, Germany, France, Sweden, and Denmark) that represent different welfare regimes. There is no representative welfare state regarding Liberal welfare regime (e.g., UK) in the analyse since in contrast to the other welfare regimes, in the Liberal Welfare regime market has the biggest role in welfare distribution.

EQLS gives an opportunity to measure both work-family balance indicators and citizens' perceptions about quality of public services. Work-family balance indicators involve household structure and working conditions, which are the determinants of work-family balance. EQLS has evaluated the citizens' perception of the quality of public services in European countries regarding healthcare, education, child-care, state pension system, public transport, long-term care, and social housing to support the sustainability of welfare states. This study only focuses on four public services: the quality of the public health system, education system, state pension system, and child-care services since public transport, long-term care, and social housing are not frequently used public services by employees.

In the following chapter, I will introduce the concept of life satisfaction and its differences between well-being and happiness, the most used concepts in quality of life studies. Then I will explain the concept of work-family balance and its approaches. Furthermore, I will express what kind of social support will help

increase employees' work-family balance in welfare states. I will conclude this chapter by briefly explaining the welfare regimes to understand their historical attitudes. In the third chapter, I will present the method and the data set, which is EQLS conducted in 2016, and explain the reasons why I chose this data set. Then, I will clarify the hypotheses of this research in detail. Subsequently, I will provide information about the analytical approach, dependent variable, and explanatory variables in the model which I constructed. Chapter four presents the result of the empirical model and discussions of the results. In this chapter, I will introduce the descriptive statistics of independent variables. Afterward, I will give the correlations between variables in the ORL model. Subsequently, I will present the results of Ordinal Logistic Regression. At the end of the chapter, I will discuss the result of the analysis through existing literature. Following the discussion section, I will make broad statements that sum up the most critical insights of the study as a conclusion. Besides, in light of results and existing literature, I will offer specific policy implications to contribute to sustainable and egalitarian growth in this chapter.

CHAPTER II

THEORETHICAL CONTEXT

After the increase in the importance of quality of life, new terms were introduced in literature, such as 'well-being' and 'life satisfaction' in addition to the older terms such as 'happiness.' All these terms indicate that a good life has more than material welfare (Veenhoven, 2015a: 207). In recent years, welfare states in Europe have been interested in combining measures of well-being into the social policy designs (Sage, 2019). In this chapter, first I will introduce the concept of life satisfaction and its differences between well-being and happiness. Then I will explain work-family balance and its approaches. Afterward, I will express what kind of social supports will be able to help increase employee's work-family balance in welfare states. Last but not least, I briefly explain the welfare regimes to understand welfare states history.

2.1. The Concepts about Human Well-Being

2.1.1. Happiness and Well-Being

Many terms are used to indicate how well people are doing in their life. As one of the oldest terms, happiness is an elusive word because it has different meanings, and these meanings are often mixed up. According to Wilson (1967: 294) a happy person is, "young, healthy, well-educated, well-paid, extroverted, optimistic, worry-free, religious, married person with high self-esteem, high job morale, modest aspiration, of either sex and a wide range of intelligence." Veenhoven, on the other hand, defines **happiness** as the level of individual's favorable judgment on the overall quality of his whole life (1984: 22) or the overall enjoyment of whole life (2015b: 6). In a broader sense, happiness seems synonymous with 'quality of life' or 'well-being' because they are used as an umbrella term (Veenhoven, 2000). However, as defined by Veenhoven (1984), happiness must be distinguished from

words like 'well-being' and 'life satisfaction' because only some of their meanings fit into the concepts of happiness.

In its broadest sense, the term **well-being** refers to both individual states and states of desirable social systems (Veenhoven, 1984: 33). It involves progress and development. Moreover, it includes living environment, health, sheltering, leisure, income, social relationships, marriage, family, etc. (Van Praag and Carbonell, 2004 as cited in Gökdemir and Veenhoven, 2014: 340). Well-being shows 'objective' and 'subjective' measures. Objective measures of well-being can be measured tangibly, which causes subjective indicators, such as income, education level, health status, etc. (Gökdemir and Veenhoven, 2014: 341-2). Subjective measures of well-being have been central to measuring the quality of life (Campbell, 1976: 118). Thus, Diener (1984) developed the concept of **subjective well-being** to measure the quality of life. It involves three interrelated components: frequent positive affect, rare negative affect, and cognitive assessment such as life satisfaction (Andrew and Withey, 1976; Diener, 1984; Argyle, 2001; Tov and Diener, 2013). In other words, subjective well-being describes how people experience the quality of their lives. It includes both emotional reactions (happiness or perception) and cognitive judgments (satisfaction) (Tov and Diener, 2013: 1).

Subjective well-being is a much broader and scientifically useful concept than happiness since happiness has been used frequently in daily discourse, and it has fuzzy meaning (Diener, 1984: 543). On the other hand, subjective well-being includes mutually interrelated components (Diener *et al.*, 1999: 277). Hence, understanding the processes that underlie happiness is more beneficial than simply describing the demographic characteristics that correlate with happiness (Diener *et al.*, 1999: 276).

2.1.2. The Concept of Satisfaction

Veenhoven (2015a; 2015b; 2015c) makes a fourfold classification while defining the satisfaction. He used two dichotomies: First, he argues that satisfaction might be

short-lived or long-lived according to the duration (Veenhoven, 2015c: 281). Second, satisfaction might be related to different parts of life (work and marriage) or involve with whole according to the life aspects (Veenhoven, 2015c: 282).

As Table 2.1 shows, short-lived satisfaction with a part of life is called **pleasure**, which can be sensory, such as a smell of coffee in the morning (Veenhoven, 2015c: 282). Schreiber and Kahneman (2000: 27) call this kind of satisfaction as ‘instant-utilities’. Long-lived satisfaction with a part of life is referred to as **part-satisfaction**, such as satisfying marriage or working life (Veenhoven, 2015c: 282). Some intense satisfactions might involve short-lived experiences that can be about whole life. Veenhoven (2015c: 282) calls this kind of satisfaction as **peak-experience** or enlightenment. Lastly, long-lived satisfaction with an individual’s whole life is called **life-satisfaction**, which is the degree to which human needs are being met (Veenhoven, 2015c: 382).

Table 2.1: Classification of Satisfaction

	Short-lived	Long-lived
Part of life	Pleasure	Part-satisfaction
Whole life	Peak experiences	Life-satisfaction

Source: Veenhoven (2015c: 282)

2.1.3. The Life Satisfaction

According to Veenhoven (1984; 2015a), there are two components of life-satisfaction: The first one is ‘hedonic experiences’ and second is ‘contentment.’ These components distinguish the concept of life satisfaction from happiness and well-being. **Hedonic experiences** (such as pain, joy, or pleasure) are the degree to which various experiences have pleasant effects. It is not the same as ‘mood.’ It concerns the pleasantness in feelings, emotions, and moods. **Contentment** is the degree to which an individual acknowledges that his/her aspirations are met (Veenhoven, 2015a: 7). It is concerned with the individual’s subjective perception. Moreover, it assumes that people are aware of their life (Campbell, 1976: 119).

Since life satisfaction indicates the degree to which external living-conditions fit with inner life-abilities, it is a narrow-scoped but better criterion than happiness and subjective well-being. This kind of criterion shows what is essential and prior to citizens and policymakers. The most crucial difference between 'life-satisfaction' and 'happiness' is that the term satisfaction has more public judgments, but happiness has more private ones' (Venhooven, 1984: 70). For instance, questions involving the word 'happiness' are less likely to be responded to positively by people who do not enjoy their life (e.g., moody) (Venhooven, 1984: 70). Furthermore, life satisfaction has an advantage over subjective well-being because it refers to the overall evaluation of life rather than mood and emotions (Veenhoven, 1996: 6). Hence, in this thesis, I use life satisfaction as a dependent variable.

Even though there are differences between these concepts, their theories are interrelated with each other. In their research, Erdoğan *et al.* (2012: 1041) indicates that there is no single and comprehensive theory of life satisfaction. Scholars, who study life satisfaction, benefit from 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' perspectives based on top-down and bottom-up approaches of subjective well-being (see also Heller *et al.*, 2004). **The top-down approach** explains life satisfaction through stable characteristics such as personality traits, which are an expression of emotions (for detail, Diener, 1984; Headey *et al.*, 1991; Brief *et al.*, 1993; Heller *et al.*, 2004). In their meta-analyses, DeNeve and Cooper (1998) and Steel *et al.* (2008) shows that personal traits define the interpretation of everyday life events. On the other hand, **bottom-up approach** explains life satisfaction as shaped by contentment in multiple domains of life (Diener, 1984; Headey *et al.*, 1991; Brief *et al.*, 1993; Neal *et al.*, 1999). In the *Social Indicator of Wellbeing* (1976), which is about the perception of well-being, Andrews and Withey suggest that satisfaction with whole life is calculated from satisfactions with life-domains. Similarly, Argyle (2001) reveals a significant association between satisfaction with different life domains (e.g., family and work-life) and life satisfaction. Carlson and Kacmar (2000) also indicate that stressful experiences in the work domain affect family satisfaction and influences life satisfaction.

Life satisfaction increases depending on the interaction with the environment. It is a positive and subjective evaluation of the individual's life following the criteria set by oneself (Diener, 1984). It involves different domains of life, such as work-life and family life, which has been continuously changing. Since the 1970s, work characteristics have been changed. Employees have been working long hours and sharing lesser time with their families. It shows the blurring boundaries between work and family (Heller *et al.*, 2004: 575). Hence, employees have been needed some policies or regulations to keep balance in their life. In this sense, work-family balance gains importance to produce social policies, which helps increase not only the human capital of citizens but also their life satisfaction (Aysan and Aysan, 2017).

2.2. The Balance between Work and Family Life

2.2.1. The History of Work-Life Balance

Work-life balance is the positive interaction between different domains that creates a balance in one's life. The root of work-life balance is based upon the history of the relationship between work and family domains. Naithani (2010) divides the changing composition of work and family domains into eight phases. Table 2.2 shows that in the early years of communal living (Phase one), the entire family participated in work for survival at home or closed home. In the pre-industrialization period (Phase two) growing size of trade and craft business partly separated the workplace and home. During the industrial revolution in the mid-1800s (Phase three) use of machines for mass production needed establishing factories away from home. Men took part in the workforce in these factories while women were staying home and dealing with household. During the late 18th and early 19th century (Phase four) due to division of labor separation of work from family was more consolidated and men became dominant in the workforce because physical strength was giving men an advantage over women at the workplace. The same pattern continued between the early 19th century and 1950s (Phase five) due to technological factors. In the first part of the second half of the 20th century

(Phase six), gender division changed due to technological progress and computerization that decreased the dependence on physical strength in factories, thus enabling greater participation of women in the workforce. In the 1980s and 1990s (Phase seven), the number of women increased in the global workforce. Therefore, the number of companies offering work-life programs to support working mothers. By the early years of 21st century, these programs turn into less gender-specific programs and recognized other commitments of life (e.g., Looockwood, 2003; Naithani, 2010).

Table 2.2: Phases of changing composition of work and family life spheres

Phases	Time Period	Variances in work-family life
Phase 1	Early years of communal living	The whole family contributed to livelihood at home/close to home
Phase 2	Pre-industrialization period	Partly segregation of home and workplace experienced
Phase 3	Industrial revolution in mid 1800s	There was increasing of separation of home and workplace. Men went ahead to dominate workforce.
Phase 4	Between late 18 th and early 19 th century	Division of labor increased separation of work and family
Phase 5	Between early 19 th century and 1950	Male became dominant in at the workplace due to psychical strength dependent technology
Phase 6	Between 1950 and early 1980s	Gender division turned due to technology. The work-life balance policies entered first time
Phase 7	Between 1980s and 2008	Women participation in global workforce increased. There was considerably increasing work-life balance facilities.
Phase 8	Current recession – 2008 onwards	Work-family related challenges increased so new need for work-life balance facilities.

Source: (Naithani, 2010: 147)

The beginning of the programs of work-life balance dates back to the 1930s as a result of the development of the industry, increasing global competition, and the change of the structure of the workforce. For instance, before World War II, a company called W. K. Klolog introduced four-six-hour shift schemes instead of

three-eight-hour shifts. Thus, it provided more free time for the employees and increased employee motivation and efficiency (Loockwood, 2003: 2). Since the 1950s, there has been a considerable increase in work-life balance research due to the benefits it brings for both employers and employees. In addition to that, work-life balance programs have started to be implemented at the organizational level. The gains brought by the work-life balance were not only limited to the social and psychological dimensions but also benefited economically (Naithani, 2010: 151).

2.2.2. Work-Life Balance or Work-Family Balance

Since the middle of the 1900s, work-life balance has been discussed and used in political agenda both national and international level. Because of the increasingly competitive conditions, the expectations and demands of the companies have increased. As a result, individuals' job responsibilities have increased. The increase in women's participation in employment, social changes in the society, and social policies about this topic emphasize the concept of work-life balance.

There are many definitions of work-life balance because it is a much-used concept under various approaches. Sirgy and Lee (2018: 230-1) classify conceptualizations of work-life balance in two key dimensions that include eight definitions: The first dimension focuses on the multiple role engagement in work and nonwork life (Sirgy and Lee, 2018: 231). This dimension suggests that there are various roles in different life domains, and the commitment to these roles ensure balance of work and nonwork-life. It has four definitions: The first definition of work-life balance is the tendency to become fully engaged in the performance of every position in one's total role system in order to touch each role and role partner with an attitude of grace and care (Sirgy and Lee, 2018: 231). Authors that use this definition emphasize the engagement of different roles while describing work-life balance (e.g., Seiber, 1974; Marks, 1977; Marks and MacDermid, 1996). The second definition of work-life balance is the multiple role engagements with an approximately equal level of time and attention (Sirgy and Lee, 2018: 231). It suggests that work-life balance requires the same time and involvement for each

role (e.g., Kirchmeyer, 2000; Greenhaus *et al.*, 2003). According to the third definition, work-life balance is the produced outcome of engagement in work and nonwork roles in different domains (Sirgy and Lee, 2018: 231). Similarly, Valcour's (2007: 1517) describes work-family balance as an overall level of satisfaction resulting from an evaluation of one's degree of success at meeting different role demands, rather than examining the cross-domain experiences (e.g., Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011). They consider work-life balance as satisfaction across various life domains (e.g., Clark, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 2000). As a fourth definition, Sirgy and Lee (2018: 231) draw on Greenhaus *et al.*'s (2003) work and define work-life balance as allocation of time and psychological energy in a balanced way in work and family life while deriving much satisfaction from both work and nonwork life. In other words, it is a balanced satisfaction among various life domains based on balanced involvement across life domains.

The second dimension of work-life balance focuses on the minimal conflict between roles in different life domains (Sirgy and Lee, 2018: 231). In other words, roles in separate life domains tend to conflict with each other, and conflicts prevent balance in the work and nonwork life. It has three definitions. The first definition of work-life balance is the minimum role conflict between roles in various life domains (Sirgy and Lee, 2018: 231). It emphasizes proper functioning and satisfaction in different positions (e.g., Kahn *et al.*, 1964; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998; Allen *et al.*, 2000). As a second definition, Sirgy and Lee (2018) draw on Frone's (2003: 231) work and define work-life balance as "a high degree of role enrichment with a lack of conflict or interference between work and nonwork roles." Different from the other definitions, it involves role enrichment without conflict (e.g., Frone, 2003; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Greenhaus and Allen, 2011). According to the third definition, there are resources to meet role demands. Effective and successful use of these sources can accomplish work-life balance, whereas ineffective use can lead to conflicts (Sirgy and Lee, 2018: 231). Therefore, a key to minimize role conflict and achieve work-life balance is the management of resources (e.g., Hobfoll, 1898; Fisher *et al.*, 2009; Gareis *et al.*, 2009).

As it is evident, there is no clear distinction between nonwork domain and the family domain. It creates a conceptual problem in the literature about work and family relations. As the concept was further explored, some scholars use the term work-life balance as a synonym with 'work-family balance' (e.g., Greenhaus *et al.*, 2003; Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011) because nonwork domain is considered as family life (Frone, 2003: 144). Some researchers propose the term work-family balance instead of work-life balance because life in this sense means everything outside of work (e.g., family or leisure) (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000; Frone, 2003; Morris and Madsen, 2007; Valcour, 2007; Carlson *et al.*, 2009).

In this thesis, I consider work and family domains as two parts of life. As Frone (2003: 143) mentions, there are several roles without the work domain, such as religion, community, leisure, or student. Hence, I prefer to use the term work-family balance. According to Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) perception, **work-family balance** means a lack of inter-role conflict or interference. The balance mentioned here does not mean sharing equal time for work and family. The balance needs compatibility between responsibilities in family life and the duties in work life. If employees' roles in these two domains are not compatible, then the employee might experience work-family conflict. It reduces his/her work-family balance. On the other hand, Frone (2003: 45) suggests that work-family balance represents low levels of inter-role conflict and great inter-role facilitation. Especially in recent years, the opportunity of home-office and flexible working hours increases, and the differentiation between work and family domains decreases. Nevertheless, they have their activities and roles. Hence, based on these definitions, I consider work-family balance as the minimum conflict and maximum cooperation between family structure and working conditions.

2.2.3. Theories of Work-Family Balance

Scholars in different disciplines have been studied work and family separately for a long time. There has been extensive literature on the balance between work and family life after the changing composition of the work and family spheres. Though

there are various work-family life approaches, they have not been integrated into a comprehensive theory. The Role Theory (see Kahn *et al.*, 1964) is the primary perspective for various work-family balance theories. According to role theory, individuals have characteristic behavior patterns, in other words, multiple roles in social life (Biddle, 1986: 67). Starting from this point of view, researchers have tried to explain the nature of work-family life in different aspects. Some researchers state five main models of the relationship between work and family life: Spillover, independence, conflict, instrumentality, and compensation (e.g., Evans and Bartolome, 1984; O'Driscoll, 1996; Zedeck and Moiser, 1990; Guest, 2002). They all assume that work has an impact on family or, to a much lesser degree, that family has an impact on work (Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241). Edward and Rothbard (2000) clarify six mechanisms linking work and family: spillover, compensation, segmentation, resource drain, congruence, and work-family conflict. Frone (2003) also emphasizes the positive and negative relationship between work and family through these six different models. Morris and Madsen (2007) mention two more theoretical approaches in addition to Edward and Rothbard's (2000), which are enrichment and facilitation.

All these various theories provide a basis for understanding the relationship between work life and family life. Based on these differentiations, I classify work-family balance theories in Table 2.3. Thus, I have five models in this thesis: **The independence model** assumes family and work are different domains with no interaction. **The spillover model** promotes a positive or negative relationship between these domains. **The enrichment model** focuses on the positive outcome of the work-family relationship. In contrast, **the compensatory model** concentrates on the negative results of the relationship between work and family. Finally, **the conflict model** concerns the effect of different roles' demand and outcomes on employees' life.

Table 2.3: Classification of Work-Family Balance Theories

Model	Theories	Features
Independence Model	Border Theory Segmentation Theory	The domains independently coexist for all practical aims: “It is entirely possible to achieve success and satisfy in both work and family life, in one or the other, or none”
Spillover Model	Spillover Theory Cross-over Theory Congruence Theory	One domain affects the other positively or negatively: “If I am satisfied in my work, this will contribute to my family life, while if I am unsatisfied in my career, this will be a negative effect on my family life. Likewise, satisfaction with my family life may change feelings about my career and work”
Enrichment Model	Work-Family Enrichment Theory Instrumental Theory	Activity in one domain can enrich the experiences in the other domain: “My work is primarily a way of obtaining the means to build and maintain a satisfying and successful my family life, or vice versa”
Compensatory Model	Compensation Theory Resource Drain Theory	One domain compensates what is missing in the other: “The less satisfying is my work, the more I turn to my family for satisfaction, or if my family life is less satisfying, then I turn more to my work life”
Conflict Model	Work-Family Conflict Theory	The roles in different domains conflict and cannot be easily reconciled: “Success and satisfaction in my work involves sacrifices for my family life, and to have a satisfying family life entails making compromises concerning my work”

Source: I took Evans and Bartamole’s descriptive statements (1984: 11) as an example.

2.2.3.1. Independence Model

The **Border theory** is one of the fundamental theories in work and family life research (Clark, 2000). According to this theory, there are various forms of

boundaries surrounding work and family domains. Individuals daily cross these borders daily as they move between home and work. For example, work and family life are independent of each other because there are temporal (time), physical (location), and psychological (perceive) borders between them. Employees cross these borders when they go to work from home, or vica versa.

According to **Segmentation theory**, work and family domains are distinct, and employees can function successfully in one without any influence on the other (Evans and Bartolome, 1984: 11; Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241). Segmentation is the separation of work and family environments (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000: 181). For example, employee suppresses all his/her family-related thoughts, feelings, and behaviors while in the family domain, and vice versa because there is a separation in time, space, and function since the industrial revolution (Piotrkowski, 1978 as cited in Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241).

Even though these theories have opened up rich research interest in the nature of different domains of life (Guest, 2002: 259), they are not valid approaches to understanding work and family life for today because there are no more exact borders in work and family for various businesses after new working arrangements.

2.2.3.2. Spillover Model

According to **Spillover theory**, one domain can positively or negatively affect other domains (e.g., Staines, 1980; Zedeck and Moiser, 1990; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000). Staines (1980: 112) indicates that spillover asserts a fundamental similarity (i.e., mood and satisfaction) between what occurs in work life and what happens in family life. For instance, Payton *et al.* (1976) suggest that feelings about a job are components of feelings about life in general. Thus, satisfaction with the job increases life satisfaction, and dissatisfaction with life lessens life satisfaction. Similar way, negative feelings about the job directly influence feelings about life in general. Moreover, a job seems as a socializing force that enables the employee to learn skills, values, expectancies, self-concepts and social philosophies that carry

over into family interactions (Payton *et al.*, 1976 as cited in Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241). As an example for the negative effect of spillover, job stress can displace the potential for positive family interactions because boring or monotonous job causes the employee to be lazy about family responsibilities (Piotrkowski, 1978 as cited in Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241). Apart from this, Edwards and Rothbard (2000: 180) define work-family spillover as a similarity between work and family domain and exemplify by the positive associations of these. Some studies concern with the spillover of job satisfaction onto employees' family life. For example, Illies *et al.* (2009: 87) define affective spillover as carried mood or attitudes from work to home, or vice versa.

Another theory is the **Cross-over theory** (e.g., Bolger *et al.*, 1989; Westman, 2011), which is similar to the spillover theory. According to Westman (2011: 717), spillover happens when employees experience stress in one domain (i.e., family) resulting from experienced stress in the other domain (i.e., work) for the same employee. On the other hand, cross-over occurs when employees experience stress in the work domain because of the stress being experienced by his/her spouse at home.

Congruence theory also refers to similarity between work and family domains, as spillover. However, the spillover has a direct influence between work and family. This theory assumes the similarity is mediated through the third variable (e.g., genetic factors, personality, or education) (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000: 182; Frone, 2003: 146; Morris and Madsen, 2007: 41). Based on congruence theory, a third variable could positively affect both work and life domains.

Besides these theories, which focus on both positive and negative effects of different domains on each other, some theories concentrate on the positive or negative impact of different domains. While the enrichment model has a positive perspective, the compensatory model has negative.

2.2.3.3. Enrichment Model

Work-family enrichment has been studied by researchers mostly in recent years to understand the relationship between work and family (e.g., Seiber, 1974; Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). 'Enrichment' improves the quality of life in one role due to the experiences in other roles (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006: 73), so it is built on positive spillover, facilitation, and enhancement (Carlson *et al.*, 2006: 134). According to **Work-Family Enrichment theory**, experiences of one domain resulting from instrumental sources (i.e., skills, abilities, and values) or effective sources (i.e., mood and satisfaction) improve the quality of the other domain (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Other researchers use the term **Instrumental theory** to characterize this notion, which states that good work outcomes lead to good life outcomes and vice versa (Evans and Bartolome, 1984: 11; Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241).

2.2.3.4. Compensatory Model

Compared to the enrichment model, the compensation model asserts a negative relationship between work and family (Frone, 2003: 147). **Compensation theory** assumes that individuals can make up for deficiencies experienced in one domain setting by engaging in more rewarding behavior in another domain (Campoux, 1978: 403). This theory asserts that work and family life experiences tend to be antithetical (Staines, 1980: 112). Hence, there is an inverse relationship between work and family domains. Compensation occurs when employees use the resources to fulfill the need of one domain from another domain (Staines, 1980: 114; Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000: 180). In the work-family literature, there are two forms of compensation. **Supplemental compensation** occurs when an individual does not receive the rewards they need from one domain and seeks them from another domain (Zedeck and Moiser, 1990: 241; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000: 181). For instance, an employee may become overly dependent on compliments from his family if he does not receive any for his hard works at work. **Reactive compensation** occurs when negative experiences in one domain are made up of positive experiences in others (Zedeck and Moiser,

1990: 241; Edwards and Rothbard, 2000: 181). For example, a mother might seek quality time with her children after a tiring day at work.

Another theoretical approach, **Resource Drain theory** also focuses on the negative relationship between work and family. **Resource drain** refers to the transfer of the limited amount of the resources (i.e., time, money, energy or attention) from one life domain (i.e., work) to another (i.e., family) because resources are limited (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000: 182; Frone, 2003: 147; Morris and Madsen, 2007: 441).

There is one more model that focuses on the roles in different domains, rather the relationship of these domains. The Conflict model concentrates on the work and family roles while trying to explain work-family balance.

2.2.3.5. Conflict Model

The studies about the relationship between employees' work and family life have proposed role conflicts for life satisfaction. Conflicts between the demands at work and responsibilities in the family have a distressed effect on employees. According to Kahn *et al.* (1964), role conflict simultaneously occurs when two (or more) sets of pressures experience. Starting from this point of view, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) conceptualize this concept as 'work-family conflict'. They define work-family conflict as "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985: 77).

Work-family conflict is a bidirectional concept because either work-life might interfere with family, or vice versa (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). **Work-to-family** conflict occurs when work-life affects family life negatively, and **family-to-work** conflict occurs when family affects work-life negatively (Frone *et al.*, 1992: 66; Gutek *et al.*, 1991: 560; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998: 140). Job-related expectations and stresses increase at the basis of work-to-family conflict. Nevertheless, the main

reason for family-to-work conflicts arises from the increase in family expectations and pressures. Examples of work expectations and demands include long, irregular, and inflexible work hours, frequent work travels, excessive workload, job stress, interpersonal conflict, and unsupportive behavior. On the other hand, family-based expectations and pressures include having small children, lack of support from family members and elderly care (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985).

Based on role theory (Kahn *et al.*, 1964), Greenhaus and Beutell (1985: 77) reveal that work-family conflict could occur in three ways: 'time-based', 'tension-based,' and 'behavior-based'. **Time-based work-family conflict** occurs when allocating time to one role prevents it from performing the other role because of by spending time for one role makes physically impossible to devote to activities within another role. Therefore, different roles might compete for the individual's time (Greenhaus and Beutel, 1985: 77-8). Today's technological advances make it possible to move the business in home, so now people work even at home with their families. For this reason, time-based work-family conflicts are becoming increasingly common since employees need to work even when they spend their time with family. **Strain-based conflict** occurs when strain in one role affects employees' performance in another (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985: 80). Today they are different kinds of jobs, and each of them has its characteristics. The characteristics of the job (e.g., the multitude of responsibilities taken in the workplace, relationships in the work environment or jobs that require mental concentration) and the character of the family (e.g., whether or not spouses have support or whether there is a child in need of care) can affect the roles of employees. If one role makes it difficult to comply with the demands of another role, it creates strain since the roles are incompatible. **Behavior-based conflict** occurs when some specific patterns of in-role behavior are not compatible with expectations regarding behavior in another role (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985: 81). For example, there would be different pictures when someone describes a loving mother and a tuff manager. Work-life requires hard work, formality, emotional stability, and objectivity. On the other hand, family life needs close ties, emotions, understanding, and sometimes a demonstration of love. If an employee is unable to adjust behavior to comply with

the expectations of different roles, s/he might experience behavior-based conflict. In addition to these three ways of work-family conflict, Lu *et al.* (2006: 11) suggest **worry-based conflict**, which is more salient than behavior-based conflict in the modern industrial society. For example, unemployment or fear of losing a job has caused constant anxiety for employees. Besides that, inflation, marital stress, and parental stress cause anxiety that interferes with work. Therefore, worry-based conflicts can be defined as a work-family conflict where anxiety in one role interferes with another. These four types of conflict that are mentioned can be from the point of work to family as well as from the point of the family to work.

Work-family balance is essential not only for employees but also for their family and their work relations since the higher work-family balance causes the higher life satisfaction (e.g., Aryee, 1992; Adams *et al.*, 1996; Burke and Greenglass, 1999; Erdwins *et al.*, 2001; Foley *et al.*, 2005; Aycan and Eskin, 2005; Öcal, 2008; Yıldırım and Aycan, 2008; Payne *et al.*, 2012; Haar, 2013; Omran and Kamel, 2016). Work-family conflict is one reason that reduces the work-family balance. Furthermore, family conditions and work characteristics has also a significant impact on life satisfaction because these are directly related with the work-family balance (e.g., Bohlen and Viveros-Long; 1981; Vaydanoff, 1988; Allen *et al.*, 2000; Lucas *et al.*, 2003; Layard, 2006; Chung, 2011; Payne *et al.*, 2012; Caner, 2016; Feeney and Strich, 2019). Moreover, the policy performance is also an essential determinant for life satisfaction because social policies help citizens to balance in their work and family life (e.g., Den Dulk and Van Doorne-Huiskes, 2007; Whiteley *et al.*, 2010). All in all, social support comes from not only family and work domains but also the welfare state. Therefore, it is an important topic to understand employees' life satisfaction.

2.3. Welfare Regimes

2.3.1. The Social Support for Life Satisfaction

'Social supports' have importance to achieve a high level of satisfaction with one's life. Most researchers have emphasized the label of 'social relationship' (House *et*

al., 1988) to point out various types of support from employees' friends and family members in times of need (Rook and Underwood, 2000: 313). For instance, House (1988: 137) defines **social support** as the functional or behavioral content of social relationships. In a broad sense, social support refers to each process through which social relationships might support well-being (Cohen *et al.*, 2000: 4). Hence, social support, which could interchange with the term social networks or social integration (House *et al.*, 1988: 294), concerns the consequences of individual's life satisfaction. According to Russo *et al.* (2016: 175), existing work-family literature has been demonstrated that social supports from work and family relate to low work-family conflict and high work-family enrichment. Similarly, Kossek *et al.* (2011: 145) show in their research that social support at home or work negatively relates to work-family conflict. Even though the importance and overall benefits of social support for work-family balance, hence life satisfaction, social support is a complex construct (French *et al.*, 2018: 2) since there are different perspectives.

Lakey and Cohen (2000) present that there are three theoretical perspectives of social support. First, the 'stress and coping perspective' proposes that supports contribute to protecting people from the negative effects of stress. Second, the 'social and the social constructionist perspective' suggests that supports promote self-esteem and self-regulation, regardless of the presence of stress. Third, the 'relationship perspective' assumes social supports cannot be separated from relationship processes, such as friendship (Lakey and Cohen, 2000: 29). Following the Lakey and Cohen's (2000) first perspective, existing literature states that the role of social support is essential to keep up life satisfaction (Cohen and Wills, 1985; House *et al.*, 1988). For instance, Cohen and Wills (1985) propose two different models while considering the process through which social support has a beneficial effect: **Buffering model** suggests that social support buffers (protects) individuals from the influence of stressful events. On the other hand, **the main-effect model** indicates that social support is helpful whether the individual is under stress (Cohen and Wills, 1985: 310).

According to House (1981), social supports could cause employees to perceive the situation as less threatening or stressful, so buffer the effect of potentially stressful situations. For example, employees experience less stress because of the heavy workloads if they have supports from different sources. Both informal (family and friends) and professionals or semi-professionals who offer specialized services can be a source of social supports (Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011: 236). Hence, social support can come from various sources. For instance, Ford *et al.* (2007) include supervisor, co-worker, and organization support from the work domain, general family support, spouse support, and childcare support as support from the family domain in their meta-analysis of cross-domain relations.

Energy to straighten relationships (e.g., family relationships) should not be a substitute for policies. Social policies ensure formal sources of financial or professional support for disadvantaged populations. Such formal supports may themselves reinforce and strengthen informal supports (House *et al.*, 1988: 314). Welfare state supports citizens' life satisfaction through uses organized power through politics and administration to modify the play of market forces in three ways (Briggs, 1961). First, it assures individuals and families a minimum income regardless of the market value of their work or property. Second, it provides individuals and families to meet specific social contingencies such as sickness, old age, and unemployment. In this way, it decreases the extent of insecurity, which causes the individual and family crises. Third, the welfare state ensures the best available standards concerning a specifically agreed range of social services for all citizens without distinction of status or class (Briggs, 1961: 228; Spicker, 2013 [1988]: 49). According to the welfare regimes, there are different sources (state, family, market, local institutes) to support citizens' life satisfaction. Welfare regimes provide social policies, one of the essential supports of welfare states for citizens, using these sources. Existing studies show that welfare regimes and social policies can increase citizens' life satisfaction (e.g., Aysan and Karakaş, 2018; Aysan, 2019). Hence, it is crucial to understand how the welfare state has developed in Europe to suggest policies to increase employees' life satisfaction.

2.3.2. The Welfare State

The welfare state is the product of a historical process, social development and changes, and political compromise with various purposes in mind (Flora and Alber, 1998: 37; Goodin, 1988: 3). It expresses a strategy for the distribution of welfare instead of a symbol (Spicker, 2008: 121). Esping-Andersen (1990: 19) states that the welfare state has responsibility for securing some fundamental welfare for its citizens. In a narrow sense, the welfare state refers to the 'traditional terrain of social amelioration' (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 1), such as income transfer and social services. In a broader sense, the welfare state has a more significant role in managing and organizing the economy through an integral component, such as issues of employment, wages, and overall macro-economic management (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 2).

The welfare state has developed through the establishment of insurance, covering the major risk of life (Rosanvallon, 2000: 11). The welfare state research have studied by theoretical concerns with various topics, such as power relations, industrialization, gender, social class, or capitalism (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 18; Cousin, 2005: 19). Radcliff (2001) suggests a strong positive relationship between social rights in the welfare states and life satisfaction (Radcliff, 2001; Pacek and Radcliff, 2008a). He states that welfare regimes developed political strategies in order to meet the needs for citizens' well being, and the success of these strategies ensured an increase in citizens' life satisfaction (Radcliff, 2001: 940). To understand how welfare states respond to citizens' needs, it is essential to know how the European welfare state developed historically and supports employees' life satisfaction.

2.3.3. History of the Welfare State

The welfare state has enlarged historically through the establishment of insurance, covering the major risk of life, such as unemployment, illness, and retirement (Rosanvallon, 2000: 24). In the existing literature, institutional development and allocation money from the state budget for social expenditures are determinants of

the historical development of the welfare state. Throughout history, there have been 'social states' (Aysan, 2012a: 110). Before the constitution of welfare state institutions, the social state has tried to secure its land, maintain order by rules and laws in its territory, and provide infrastructure services, such as education. Therefore family, religious and voluntary institutions, occupational associations, and charity funds have an essential role in providing social welfare service (Cousin, 2005: 78).

The development of the welfare state is parallel with the enlargement of social policies. In 1601 in England, the 'Poor Law' brought into being a national system for supporting the needy, so it seems like a predecessor of the welfare state (Kuhlmann, 2019). After that, the foundation of the welfare state was the precautions for work accident and social security during the Bismarck period in 1871 in Germany (Flora and Joseph, 1998: 17; Koray, 2000: 53; Cousin, 2005: 80). After the 1870s, social justice has started to deteriorate with the poor working conditions offered by capitalism as much as the economic growth and wealth. Due to these developments, the state had to intervene by expanding its area of responsibility with active social policy precautions (Koray, 2000: 53). In this period, the production made with the mass production system exceeded the market demand. Accordingly, inventories increased, and production was interrupted. In addition to the development and growth problems, the World Depression occurred in 1929 due to the failure to create structures suitable for this mass production system. The period after the First World War and the 1929 Great Depression brought essential changes in the construction of the state (Cousin, 2005: 88). In this period, increasing economic problems increased poverty. Along with this, the working class has grown and started to seek rights against poor working conditions. Therefore, the state produced social policies since family, market, or local institutions could not solve them (Aysan, 2012a: 111). As a result of these developments, social policies such as social security for the working class have started to be implemented with the idea of bringing social consensus together by combining the concepts of freedom, equality, and safety (Koray, 2000: 53).

Various factors influence the development of welfare states, especially the period after 1945 (Cousin, 2005: 77, 88), or so-called 'Golden Age' (Kuhlmann, 2019) of the welfare state. In addition to current development, the Beveridge Report¹ (1942), which is written by William Beveridge to aim at increasing individual life satisfaction by guaranteeing individual's revenue assurance, had an essential role in shaping postwar social policy in Europe. Therefore, the institutionalized new form of welfare state constructed after the Second World War with Keynesian economic policies (Mullard and Spicker, 1998: 20). In this time, the welfare state concentrates on the primary monetary compensation of the so-called 'old social risks' (Bonoli, 2005), such as unemployment, old age, sickness, disability, and giving birth to and raising children (Vandenbroucke and Vleminckx, 2011: 452). In this period, not only institutional developments (social policy and social welfare services such as education, health, housing, social security, full employment, income distribution have been institutionalized) have ensured, but also there has been a significant increase in the rate of public social spending (Koray, 2000: 54). Both the range and generosity of welfare benefits increased (Cousin, 2005: 88). In addition to providing free medical care for everyone with health systems, income levels of individuals have increased with national social aid, unemployment benefit, aid for the disabled, and pension systems. Moreover, growing and strengthening working-class movements have played an essential role in the development of social justice. Besides, a high level of employment has been achieved, living standards of wage earners have increased, and the scope of social security has expanded (Koray, 2000: 53). With the increasing economic growth, resources of the welfare state increased. These developments contributed to the development of citizenship rights and democracy and increased solidarity among citizens. By the way, citizens' perceptions of welfare state institutions have changed, and the welfare state has gained legitimacy.

By the 1970s, these positive developments of the welfare state faced some restrictions (Koray, 2000: 54; Castles *et al.*, 2010: 9). Demand-driven Keynesian economic politics shift to supply-driven neoclassical politics (Stetter, 2018: 195).

¹ Beveridge, W. (1942). Report on Social Insurance and Allied Services

Necessary social reforms based on citizens need are developed by policy makers in regards to policy agenda as a result of various reasons (e.g., oil crises of the 1970s, liberalization, increase in the elderly population, low birth rates, changes in family structures, shifting the efficiency of employees in the labor markets to the services sector) affect public social spending (Castles *et al.*, 2010: 12-3). These produce challenge both the content and structure of welfare state arrangements (Kuhlmann, 2019). Moreover, this reveals 'new social risks', such as reconciling work and family life, having frail relatives, possessing low or obsolete skills, single parenthood, and insufficient social security coverage (Bonoli, 2005: 433-5). Even though there have been arguments about the sustainability of the welfare state in this period, European welfare states continued to expand with scope and welfare spending (Cousin, 2005: 94).

Around the 1990s European welfare state has started to change as a result of new household models, labor relations, and new social risks to adapt to new social relationships (Stetter, 2018: 195). It produced the notion of the 'new welfare state', which is contrasted with the welfare state in Golden Age (Esping-Andersen *et al.*, 2002; Taylor-Gooby, 2004; Bonoli and Natali, 2012; Kuhlmann, 2019). Furthermore, researchers suggest that welfare state should invest in the development of human capital (e.g., early childhood education and care, education and lifelong training) and help to make efficient use of human capital (through policies supporting women's and lone parents' employment, through active labor market policies, but also through specific forms of labor market regulation and social protection institutions that promote flexible security), while fostering greater social inclusion (notably facilitating access to the labor market for groups that have traditionally have excluded) (Morel *et al.*, 2012: 2).

As we are approaching the 2000s, the sustainability of the welfare state has been become a topic of discussion for many researchers because of several socio-economic problems (Aysan, 2012a; 2020). O'Connor (2009 [1973]) focuses on the fiscal difficulties between the working of the state and the economy of advanced capitalism. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (Henceforth,

OECD) asserts that growing social expenditures led to a crisis in welfare states (OECD, 1981 as cited in Castles, 2004: 256). Offe (1984) claims that the welfare state has some contradictions, so crisis. On the one hand, the state produces social policy to distribute welfare. On the other hand, the state tries to please capitalist and liberal. Therefore, it causes legitimacy, management, and fiscal crises in welfare states (Offe, 1984). Moreover, Mishra (1999) states that economic globalization has a downward trend in social expenditure (Mishra, 1999 as cited in Mendes, 2000: 117-8).

The golden age of the welfare state was based on high economic growth and full employment. However, changes started from the 1990s and continue today in economic conditions and demographic structure, and cultural shifts have been revealed a new focus area for the welfare state (Aysan, 2012a: 115). For example, the number of dependent elder increase, while decreasing the number of potentially supportive children due to the demographic trends such as declining fertility and mortality, and hence the aging of population structure (House *et al.*, 1988: 313; Seeleib-Kaiser, 2008: 1; Aysan, 2012a: 116). Moreover, the labor force participation of women, especially with small children, is not equal to men in many countries because of the lack of family services. Many parents need to quit their job if they cannot find any help or facilities to care for their children. This situation increases the dependent population, so it increases the income for the welfare state. Consequently, welfare states produce social policies according to citizen's needs to improve their life satisfaction.

2.3.4. Welfare Regime Classifications

Considering the welfare regime classification is important to understand the development and future of the welfare states. For a long time, welfare levels were compared with spending levels, such as percentage of GDP (Pacek and Radcliff, 2008a: 269; 2008b: 182). Esping-Andersen (1988) suggests that welfare state studies should not explain welfare level only by GDP. Marshall (1950) indicates that the welfare state provides individuals' social rights' only because they are citizens.

This approach promotes the reconceptualization of welfare states. Esping-Andersen (1990) states that the concepts of welfare regimes express institutional arrangements and understandings that supervise social policy decisions and the respond-and-demand structure of citizens and welfare consumers. Bonoli and Palier (1998) suggest four criteria, which shape welfare types, since countries have their own cultural and historical divergences: “(1) the rules and criteria governing eligibility and entitlement (Who is entitled to benefits?), (2) the form taken by benefits (What types of benefits are provided?), (3) the financing mechanism (Who pays and how?), and (4) the organization and management of the scheme (Who decides and who manages?)” (Palier, 2010: 23; Stetter, 2018: 193). Various authors developed the ideal welfare regime typologies based on these criteria.

Welfare regime typologies classify welfare regimes, explain cross-national variations, and understand its stages (Cousin, 2005: 108). Titmuss (1974) made the first welfare regime typologies. He identifies three welfare models: the residual welfare model, the industrial achievement-performance model, and the institutional redistributive model. After Titmuss’ typologies, Esping-Andersen (1990) classifies welfare regimes in his study *The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism* according to the degree of decommodification and the kind of social stratification and solidarities (Arts and Gelissen, 2002: 141; Pacek and Radcliff, 2008a: 269; Cousin, 2005: 110). He clusters welfare states into three different types of the regime that he calls liberal, conservative, and social-democratic (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 3).

The liberal welfare regime or Anglo-Saxon model includes the supremacy of the market in the management of social risk. Therefore, the state encourages the market either by subsidizing private welfare schemes or passively by guaranteeing only a minimum. Hence, it involves means-tested social assistance, modest social insurance plans, and small universal transfers. Equality of welfare in population is limited because of the liberal work-ethic principles. Redistribution of incomes and decommodification level is low. This attitude divides the population as marginal, low-income state dependents such as single mothers, and the majority, who can

afford private social insurance plans (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 26-7; Arts and Gelissen, 2002: 141; Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 710). The United Kingdom is an example of liberal welfare states. The US is also a notable example of the Liberal welfare regime in the World.

A second welfare regime of Esping-Andersen's (1990) classification is **the Conservative-Corporatist welfare regime** or **Continental European model**. This type of welfare regime is typically shaped by both conservative and corporatist tradition. Unlike the liberal welfare regime, market efficiency is unessential, and decommodification level is moderate. Therefore, social rights attach to class and status rather than social citizenship because of the preservation of status differentials. This approach makes occupational groups essential for the provision of income maintenance benefits. Moreover, labor market participation is not supported as equal for women and men because the traditional family roles are important (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 27; Arts and Gelissen, 2002: 142; Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 714). For example, day care and family services are underdeveloped because the state encourages motherhood (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 27). Therefore, there are high wages, high pension incomes, and strong job security for men (Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 714). Compared with the liberal welfare regime, in a conservative-corporatist welfare regime, states have an active role in managing social risks (Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 714). Austria, Germany, and France are examples of conservative-corporatist welfare states in Europe.

Last but not least, **the Social Democratic welfare regime** or **Scandinavian model** is the one, which the state has a more substantial role rather than market and family to meet citizens' social needs. Social democratic principles are essential for social reform, so the welfare state ensures equality of the highest standards for all citizens (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 27). Moreover, state-centered welfare provision removes a dualism between state and market (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 27). The level of decommodification is high. There are universalistic programs, which gather all strata under one insurance system. Comparing with the conservative-corporatist welfare regime, women's participation in the workforce is high because welfare

state provisions encourage women to participate in the labor market (Esping-Andersen, 1990: 27; Arts and Gelissen, 2002: 42; Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 713). Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland are examples of social democratic welfare states in Europe.

There were several other attempts to categorize welfare regimes after Esping-Andersen (e.g., Leibfried, 1992; Castles and Mitchell, 1993; Slaroff, 1994; Ferrera, 1996; Bonoli, 1997; Korpi and Palme, 1998). Arts and Gelissen (2002) summarize different typologies of the welfare regime in their research (for detail, see Arts and Gelissen, 2002). Among all of the classifications, one more classification of the welfare regime in Europe became important. On the one hand, some researchers consider **Mediterranean model** as a subcategory of the Continental European model because they have some similar social and family structures so similar social protection systems (Katrougalos, 1996 as cited in Arts and Gelissen, 2002: 145). On the other hand, several authors used the Mediterranean welfare regime or Southern European model as the fourth type of welfare regime (e.g., Leibfried, 1992; Ferrera, 1996; Bonoli, 1997; Aysan, 2012b). According to these authors, Southern European countries and Continental European countries are separate because even though they share similar family characteristics, they have different socio-political structures (Ferrera, 1996: 18; Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 215). Therefore, it should be another classification.

In the **Southern European welfare regime**, the family has a major role in the welfare distribution (Ferrera, 1996: 18, 21; Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 715). State intervention is limited. In the Southern welfare states, strong family bonds provide unpaid family labor for women, such as childcare, eldercare, or health care. Even though women can access social services through their fathers or husbands, who are included in social security coverage, women's participation in the labor market has increased. However, job security is low compared with other regimes. Moreover, like the Continental welfare regime, contribution-based social insurance schemes differentiate by occupation. There are some generous benefits for disadvantages, although there is no articulated net minimum social protection

(Ferrera, 1996: 31-4; Arts and Gelissen, 2002: 145; Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 716). The Southern European welfare regime's critical feature is the high level of clientelism and particularism concerning financing and cash benefits (Ferrera, 1996: 25; Arts and Gelissen, 2002: 145). This attitude leads to patronage relationships in parties in power, so politics changes frequently (Aysan and Beaujot, 2009: 716). Italy, Portugal, Greece, and Spain are examples of Southern European welfare states.

2.3.5. Policy Instruments to Increase Life Satisfaction

Hall (1993: 278) defines policymaking as a process with three central components: the inclusive goals that lead policy in a particular field, the techniques or policy instruments used to reach these goals, and the specific settings of these instruments. For example, if the goal of the policymakers is to encourage women to join the workforce and increase the women labor participation, the chosen instrument might be a family service and it might be to arrange affordable and accessible childcare services.

Work-family policies are developed to support the combination of paid work and care tasks such as parenting. They can exist as legal in collective agreements or through formal/informal arrangement within the organizations (Yerkes and Peper, 2019). Since there are different political approaches associated with various welfare state regimes based on their specific goals (Pailer, 2010: 29); thus, work-family policies are reshaped across welfare regimes according to the deaccommodation and defamilialization level of states (Esping-Andersen, 1990; Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011). Existing studies show that even though work-family balance policies reduce the employee's work-family conflict and consequently increase life satisfaction (Bedeian *et al.* 1988; Aryee, 1992; Higgins and Duxbury, 1992; Adams *et al.* 1996; Aycan and Eskin, 2005; Demerouti *et al.*, 2005), family structure and working conditions are not the only determinants of life satisfaction. For instance, Layard (2006) specified seven variables, which affect life satisfaction. These relate to individual financial security, family-friends-community relationships, working

conditions, personal freedom, and individual values (Layard, 2006). Furthermore, Whiteley *et al.* (2010: 734) state that political processes and outcomes are also an essential factor that affects life satisfaction since these factors affect citizens' quality of life. Even though the scope of work-family policies vary in welfare states, all of them have fundamental public services as their citizens' social right.

There are certain public services, which are known as a groundwork of European Pillar of Social Right (e.g. health care, education, etc.), with a particular focus on promoting access to quality services for all because citizens' assessment of the public services influences their life satisfaction (Eurofound, 2019: 1). European Union emphasized the essential role of public services in the European Union Social Policy Agendas. Education, healthcare, and social services play a crucial role in public services since these services are fundamental in dealing with deficiency and are critical for personal and economic growth, as well as promoting access to employment (European Commission, 2008; Eurofound, 2019: 3).

All in all, there are various studies that examine the impact of work-family policies on work-family balance or life satisfaction. However, none of these studies focus on the impact of fundamental public services on employees' life satisfaction. In this thesis, besides work-family balance indicators (i.e. household structure and working conditions), I also consider the impact of employees' perception of the quality of public services on life satisfaction in welfare states as distinct from literature. I will only focus on the quality of the public health system and the education system because these are the most critical (Eurofound, 2019) services for citizens. Moreover, I will focus on childcare services and the pension system since these are the most popular services for employees.

CHAPTER III

DATA AND METHOD

In this thesis, I used Eurofound's one of the important data sets, the European Quality of Live Survey (EQLS). It allows seeing a valuable set of indicators of life satisfaction in Europe. The main schema of the analysis based on a model for six European welfare states (France, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Italy, and Portugal). I built an ordinal logistic regression model with predictor variables to predict the impact of three separate groups of variables (control, personal, and national variables) on employees' life satisfaction levels in welfare states. In this chapter, firstly, I will present the data set. Second, I will explain the hypothesis of this research. Subsequently, I will give an analytical approach, dependent variable, and predictor variables in the model.

3.1. Data

With this thesis, I aim to recommend some work and family-related social policies to contribute to the sustainable development of welfare states. Working conditions have been changing especially in recent years, and consequently affecting families. One parent might tend to quit his/her work to take care of their child. This decrease in the employment rate is the fundamental source of the welfare state. Or they postpone having children due to their career plan, which is one of the causes of demographic aging. Additionally, some working single parents have difficulty due to the lack of formal and informal support that causes unsatisfied citizens. Hence, since these services affect the sustainability of welfare states, as district outlook from the existing literature, I include some frequently used public services (health care, education, pension, and child-care services) into the model.

European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Henceforth, Eurofound) provides knowledge to assist the European Union in

planning and designing better social, employment, and work-related policies in Europe.² They support sustainable and inclusive growth in Europe. Additionally, they conduct three pan-European surveys, which are the European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS), European Quality of Life Survey (Henceforth, EQLS), and European Company Survey (ECS), every four/five years. These surveys have representative samples, cover all the EU Member States and candidate countries, and include a wide range of topics to meet European policy needs. Hence, I preferred Eurofound's dataset.

In this thesis, I used Eurofound's EQLS data set conducted in 2016. It is the very last dataset for the quality of life in Europe. Since 2003, EQLS has been provided detailed information about the quality of life, subjective well-being, optimism, health, living standards, and work-life balance. Moreover, EQLS has been focused on the quality of society regarding social insecurity, social exclusion, and societal tensions, social trust, social participation, and involvement in training/life-long learning. In addition to these, EQLS has been evaluated the quality of public services in European countries regarding healthcare, education, child-care, state pension system, public transport, long-term care, and social housing. The other two data sets do not include variables about the quality of public services. The fourth wave of EQLS conducted in 2016, covered 33 countries, which are EU28 and five candidate countries of Albania, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia, and Turkey. The EQLS has interviewed adult population (18+) living in private households, based on a statistical sample and covering a cross-section of society. Depending on country size and national arrangements, the 2016 sample ranged from 1.000 to 2.000 people per country.

3.2. Assumptions and Hypotheses

As I indicated in Chapter II, informal (e.g., quality of relationship, love, etc.) or formal (e.g., having a partner, job continuous, etc.) social supports have a positive impact on employees' work-life balance so their life satisfaction level. I assume that

² <https://www.eurofound.europa.eu>

employees' household structure and working conditions are two determinants that affect the level and consistency of these social supports. Hence, I chose household structure and working conditions as the first and second dimensions in the model. Furthermore, the existing literature shows that welfare states also support their citizens' life satisfaction through social policies. There are various types of social policies according to welfare regimes. In this analysis, I focus on the impact of the quality of health care, education, pension, and child-care systems since they are essential supports for employees' life satisfaction because these are the most used welfare services in various states. The quality of these formal supports might affect an employee's life satisfaction level. Hence, I chose the quality of national support as the third dimension in the model. As Figure 3.1 indicates, in this thesis, I build a model to predict the impact household structure, working conditions, and quality of national support on life satisfaction.

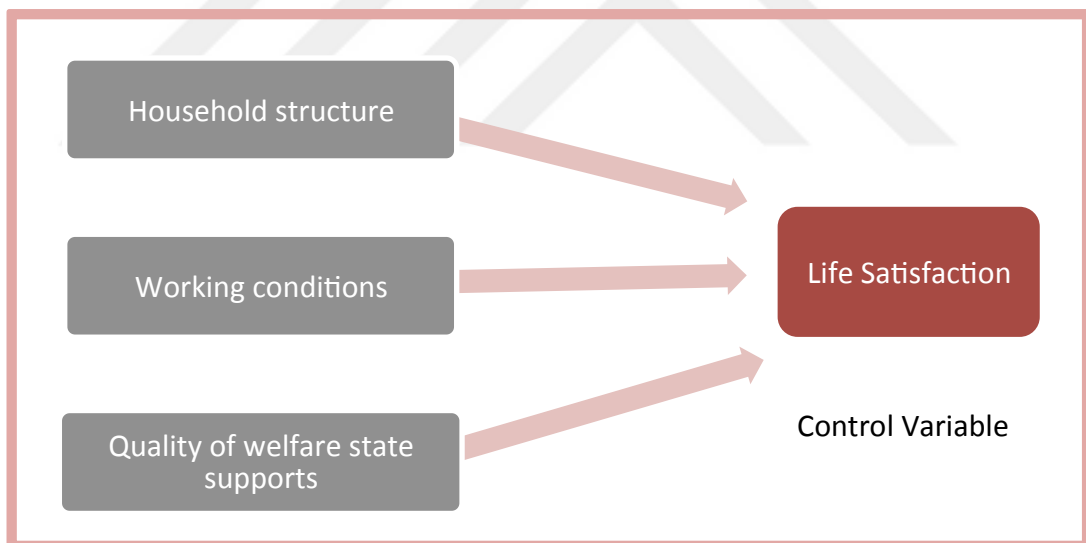


Figure 3.1: Theoretical Framework

Considering these theoretical implications, I developed some hypotheses (H). In the sight of household structure, I expect that being married and being single are positive predictors of life satisfaction, in comparison to widowed, divorced and, separated (H1, H2). Even though being married might be stressful sometime, marriage provides love and support for spouses. Moreover, spouses can help each other in house responsibilities. On the other hand, being single might provide

people more time-wise freedom and less responsibility. Being a multi-child family brings lots of responsibility to deal with, especially if they are minor since they need care-time. This situation makes it harder to balance work and family life for employees. Hence, I expect that the number of children under the age of eighteen in the household is a significant negative predictor of life satisfaction level (H3). Doing housework such as ironing, sweeping the house, and cooking is one of the household's primary responsibilities. Doing these tasks every day takes time and causes physical tiredness for people who work during the day so that it might create work-family conflict. On the other hand, the ability to doing housework every day might increase work-family balance since it shows that employees can perform responsibilities both in work and family domains. Thus, I expect that doing housework (or cooking) every day is a significant predictor of life satisfaction (H4). Taking care of someone might decrease employees' work-family balance since this responsibility needs time, physical and psychological energy. Hence, it might have an unfavorable effect on employees' life satisfaction. Therefore, I expect that caring disabled/infirm family members/friends or neighborhoods aged 75 or over is a negative predictor of life satisfaction (H5).

In the sight of working conditions, since the public sector might provide employees better conditions in terms of working hours or job security in comparison to private and other sectors, I expect that working in the public sector is positively related to life satisfaction level (H6). Additionally, working in an insecure job reduces the work-life balance. It might affect life satisfaction since it creates a stressful situation for employees whether or not they lose their job at any time. Hence, I expect that likelihood of losing a job in the next six months is a significant negative predictor for life satisfaction (H7). Working in a peaceful and positive environment provides more quality working conditions for employees. Accordingly, harmonious relationships with fellow workers and managers enhance the working conditions. The tension between workers and managers in work-life causes stress for employees and reduces the balance between work and life. I expect that having tension in the workplace is a significant negative predictor of life satisfaction (H8). Additionally, working hours is one of the critical determinants for working conditions because

long working hours prevent employees from fulfilling their responsibilities in the family. I expect that having compatible working hours with family is significantly positive predictors for life satisfaction (H9). Lastly, since it is negatively related to work-family balance, I expect that work-family conflict is a significant negative predictor for life satisfaction (H10).

There are some vital public services in all welfare regimes. In this thesis, I focus only on four of them, which are health services, education, childcare services, and state pension system. In the sight of the citizens' perception of the quality of welfare state supports, since the health system is one of the most used public systems from birth to death in welfare states, I expect that quality of health system is a significant positive predictor for life satisfaction (H11). I also expect that the quality of education is also a significant positive predictor of life satisfaction (H12) because education is one of the most critical determinants for future job opportunities and success in work life. Public childcare services are essential services for working parents and directly relates to the work-family balance. Hence, I expect that the quality of the public welfare system is also a significant positive predictor for life satisfaction (H13). In addition to all these, welfare states provide some pension schemes to their citizens. I assume the state pension system's quality is a significant predictor for life satisfaction (H14) because the pension system is one of the fundamental services for employees.

3.3. Analytical Approach

The following study is quantitative research based on the Ordinal Logistic Regression by using IBM SPSS version 21. Since the dependent variable was not normally distributed numeric variable, the utilized methodology consists of an ordinal logistic regression analysis.

The logistic regression model has various empirical models according to the explanatory variables. In this analysis, there are both numerical and categorical

variables as explanatory variables. Hence, the empirical model for this analysis is this (Bishop, 1975 as cited in Başarır, 1991: 12):

$$\text{Ln} \left(\frac{P f_1 (X_1, \dots, X_p)}{(1 - P) f_0 (X_1, \dots, X_p)} \right) = \beta_o + \sum_{k=1}^p \beta_k X_{ik}$$

$f_1 (X_1, \dots, X_p)$: Success condition

$f_0 (X_1, \dots, X_p)$: Unsuccess situation

β : Parameters of discriminant functions

P : First probability of event

This thesis aims to predict the impacts of personal and national determinants on employees' life satisfaction across six European countries. This study only includes employed (includes on leave) since it focuses on the impact of determinants of work-family balance on life satisfaction. Hence, I excluded people who do not part of the working life (e.g., unemployed and person out of work). I selected six countries according to the representativeness of their welfare system. I chose France and Germany from the Conservative-corporatist welfare regime; Sweden and Denmark from the Social Democrat welfare regime; Italy and Portugal from the Southern European welfare regime. I tried to distribute the sample as an equal among three welfare regimes. After all, the samples include 4312 respondents from three welfare regimes in Europe: 1644 respondents from Conservative-corporatist, 1123 respondents from Social Democrat, and 1545 respondents from Southern Europe. There is no representativeness from the Liberal welfare regime in this analysis because the state intervention is the minimum compared to other welfare regimes. Moreover, people who have no opinion about the quality of selected public service systems are also excluded from the analysis. All in all, the sample sizes came down from 4312 to 2778 in the study with the missing.

3.4. Variables

3.4.1. Dependent Variable: Life Satisfaction

In this thesis, I used **Life Satisfaction** as a dependent variable. It was derived from a 10-point Likert scale survey question asks “Life satisfaction”. The answer ranges from 1=very dissatisfied to 10=very satisfied. As table 3.1 indicates that, I recoded this variable in three categories according to its central tendency. The mean of the life satisfaction is 7,42 ($SD = 1,69$). Therefore, I created new categories as low life satisfaction (1 thru 6), medium life satisfaction (7,8), and high life satisfaction (9,10).

Table 3.1: Descriptive Statistics of Life Satisfaction in Three Categories

	Valid Percent
Low life satisfaction	22,7
Medium life satisfaction	53,1
High life satisfaction	24,2
<i>N = 4312</i>	<i>100,00</i>

3.4.2. Independent Variables

As Figure 3.3 indicates below, there are thirteen independent variables related to the work-family balance and national welfare state support in the model. As Figure 3.2 shows, I classified determinants in two categories. The first category involves personal determinants, which are household structure and working conditions. They are essential determinants for formal and informal social support from family and work life. The second category is national determinants, which involve the participant’s perception of health, education, child-care services, and state pension systems. They are the most used welfare state services as formal social support.

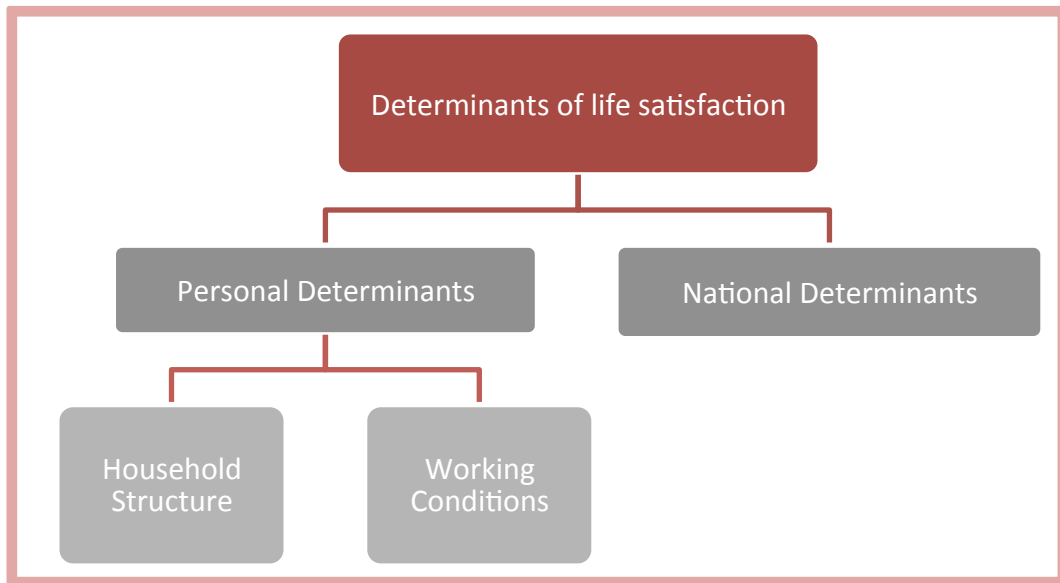


Figure 3.2: Classification of Independent Variables

3.4.2.a. Personal Determinants

Household Structure

Marital status, number of minor children, and the presence of an elderly who need daily care, and housework duties might change the dynamics of employees' perception of their work-family balance and affect life satisfaction. Therefore, I picked these variables from data as a determinant of employee's household structure:

I recoded the variable of **legal marital status** (1=never married, 2=married, 3=separated, 4=widowed, 5=divorced) as 1=single, 2=married and 3=single again (includes separated, widowed, and divorced) to predict how legal marital status affects life satisfaction.

The number of children under age 18 in the household was measured in the data by using a variable that identifies the number of minors from 0=no minor children to 7=7 or more minor children in the household.

Doing housework (or cooking) every day was derived from a variable that asks the respondents to identify the frequency of doing housework and/or cooking. This

variable was measured on a five-point scale from 1=every day to 5=never. I recoded those who answer this question 'every day' as a dummy variable for the model to compare the effect of doing housework (or cooking) every day and not doing housework (or cooking) every day.

Caring disabled/infirm family members/friends or neighborhood aged 75 or over was derived from a variable that asks the respondents to identify the frequency caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbors, or friends aged 75 or over. This variable was also measured on a five-point scale from 1=every day to 5=never. I recoded those who answer this question 'every day' and 'several days a week' as one dummy variable to compare them and the rest of the answers.

Working Conditions

The sector of work, job security, the tension in the workplace, working hours, and work-family conflict affect employees' work-life balance, hence their life satisfaction. Thus, I chose these variables from data as a determinant of employee's working conditions:

Four answer choices are given for sector of work of respondents, which were 1=central, regional or local government administration, 2=other public sector, 3=private sector, and 4=other. I recoded the first two answers together and created a dummy variable as **working in the public sector** for the model to compare working in the non-public sector.

The likelihood of losing a job was derived from a five-point scale survey question asks, "Likelihood of losing job in the next six months." Answers were ranged from 1=very likely to 5=very unlikely. I reverse coded the five-level answers for the question to avoid double negation for the statement.

Tension in work was derived from the survey question asks "Tension between management and workers." The answer was measured on a three-point scale: 1=a

lot of tension, 2=some tension, and 3=no tension. I recoded those who answered 'a lot of tension' and 'some tension' as a dummy variable to compare with 'no tension in the workplace'.

I use the question of "In general, how do your working hours fit in with your family or social commitments outside work?" to understand the impact of working hours on life satisfaction. The answer was measured on a four-point scale as 1=very well, 2=rather well, 3=rather not well, and 4=not at all well. I recoded those who answered 'very well' and 'rather well' as a dummy variable to compare **having working hours compatible with the family** with those who don't have.

There were three questions, which relate to work-family conflict in this data. The items measured that in what level employees' work and family life reconcile. The respondents were first asked how often "I have come home from work too tired to do some of the household jobs which need to be done" had happened to them during the last year. It measures that when work responsibilities prevent individuals from fulfilling household responsibilities. Second, the respondents were asked how often "It has been difficult for me to fulfill my family responsibilities because of the amount of time I spend on the job" had happened to them during the last year. It measures the time-demand, which causes work-to-family conflict. Third, the respondents were asked how often "I have found it difficult to concentrate at work because of my family responsibilities" had happened to them during the last year. It measures the tensions felt when work was distributed due to family obligations that cause family-to-work conflict. The answer was measured on a six-point scale: 1=every day, 2=several times a week, 3=several times a month, 4=several times a year, 5=less often/rarely, and 6=never. First, I reverse coded these six-level answers for these questions. It means that the highest score for these questions is represented with 6=every day, whereas the smallest number 1 is attained to 'never'. The Cronbach's Alpha (0,764 > 0,7) value was reliable to combine them all in one index. Therefore, I created an index of **work-family conflict** with these three variables. The range of the index was from 1 to 6 for six European welfare states.

3.4.2.b. National Determinants

Seven questions are measuring the citizen's perception of the quality of public services in the data. In this thesis, I used four of them: **Quality of health system, quality of education system, quality of state pension system, and quality of child-care services**. Each of the answers was measured on a ten-point scale from 1=very poor quality to 10=very good quality.

Household Structure	Legal Marital Status
	Involving daily housework
	Caring +75 in need of care
	Number of -18 children in household
Working Conditions	Working in public sector
	Tension in job
	Compatible working hours with family
	Likelihood of loosing job
	Work-family conflict
National determinant	Quality of health services
	Quality of education system
	Quality of state pension system
	Quality of child-care services

Figure 3.3: Predictor Variables for Employees' Life Satisfaction Level

3.4.2.3. Control Variables

The categorical variables in this thesis were age, gender, education, health status, and income. Respondents were asked about their **age** to create a scale variable. 4318 (100%) valid answers constituted 46,98 as mean in this data. EQLS surveyed with adult (+18) population. Hence, the minimum value among respondents was 18, while the maximum was 86. The range of the age is 68. Responses were coded in a binary category consisting of male and female. I created a dummy variable as **being male** to compare males with females. Three categories of **education level** were

constituted: 1=Lower secondary or below, 2=Upper secondary or post-secondary, and 3=Tertiary. I compared the first two categories with the last one. Thus, tertiary was the reference group in the analysis. Moreover, respondents were asked the following question “In general, how is your health?” The answer was measured on a five-point scale from 1=very good to 5=very bad. I reverse coded the five-level answers of **health status** for the question to avoid double negation for the statement. I considered health status as a numerical variable. The missing income information was high in the data. Respondents’ income was classified, as quartile in the variable name is “Percentile Group of income equalized by Country.” Hence, I used this variable as **income** information, since there were 3580 (83%) valid answers, which gave the least missing.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter provides the results of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics for this thesis. First, I will introduce the descriptive statistics of independent variables. Afterward, I will give the correlations between variables in the ORL model. Subsequently, I will present the results of Ordinal Logistic Regression. At the end of the chapter, I will discuss my results.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 and Table 4.2 show descriptive data for independent variables that are used in regression analysis. Table 4.1 reports valid percentages for categorical variables. It contains only valid answers for each survey question. Table 4.2 shows the total number of cases, mean, and standard deviation for the numerical variable.

According to Table 4.1, nearly half (48%) of the sample is male. The highest rate of the education level is “upper-secondary or post-secondary”, which is 40% of respondents. About 33% of the respondents belong to the highest income quartile, while 15% of them belong to the lowest. One more than half (54%) of the respondent is single, mostly because of that it represents legal marital status. About 57% of the respondents involve housework every day. In contrast, only 5% of them include caring for disabled or infirm family members, neighbors, or friends over 75 years old several days a week, at least. About 28% of respondents work in central, regional, or local government administration or other public sectors. The majority (83%) of respondents feel the tension between managers and workers in the workplace. More than three-quarters (80%) of respondents’ working hours are compatible with their family life.

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics of Categorical Variables in Percentage

	%
Being male	48,2
Being female	51,8
Education: Lower secondary or below	24,4
Education: Upper-secondary or post secondary	40,0
Education: Tertiary	35,5
Income quartile 1	14,9
Income quartile 2	22,5
Income quartile 3	29,8
Income quartile 4	32,8
Being married	28,6
Being single	54,1
Others (separated, widowed, divorced)	17,3
Involving housework in daily (Yes)	56,8
Don't involve daily housework	43,2
Caring +75 in need of care (Yes)	5,4
Don't care +75 in need of care	94,6
Working in public sector (Yes)	27,5
Working in other sector	72,5
Tension in job (Yes)	83,3
No tension in job	16,7
Compatible working hours with family (Yes)	79,7
No compatible working hour with family	20,3

According to the Table 4.2, the age of respondents' ranges from 18 to 86 ($M = 45$, $SD = 11,845$). The mean of respondent's health status is 4,02 ($SD = 0,761$). The number of minor child in household is low ($M = 0,57$, $SD = 0,894$). By considering fertility rate in Europe, it is an expected result. The means for work-family conflict and likelihood of losing job are 2,72 ($SD = 1,109$) and 1,79 ($SD = 1,046$) respectively. The averages quality of health services ($M = 6,84$, $SD = 2,036$), education system ($M = 6,76$, $SD = 1,86$), and child-care services ($M = 6,79$, $SD = 1,906$) are over 6, whereas the average quality of state pension system is 4,88 ($SD = 2,296$).

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics of Numerical Variables

	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Age	4312	18	86	44,99	11,845
Health status	4310	1	5	4,02	0,761
Number of minors in household	4312	0	6	0,57	0,894
Work-Family Conflict	4235	1	6	2,72	1,109
Likelihood of losing job	4236	1	5	1,79	1,046
Quality of health services	4292	1	10	6,84	2,036
Quality of education system	4174	1	10	6,76	1,868
Quality of child-care services	3663	1	10	6,79	1,904
Quality of state pension system	3899	1	10	4,88	2,296
<i>Valid N (listwise)</i>	<i>3340</i>				

4.2. Correlations

Table 4.3 indicates correlations for all variables in this analysis. It estimates the strength of the linear relationship between two variables. It varies between -1,00 (perfect negative correlation) and 1,00 (perfect positive correlation) (Field, 2013: 829). Strength of a correlation stands for the interval of the p-value (Berkman and Reise, 2012: 35). I presented results by highlighting significant ones. Table 4.3 reports that life satisfaction is positively correlated with income quartile ($r(3579) = 0,201, p < 0,001$), education level ($r(4288) = 0,176, p < 0,001$), and health status ($r(4307) = 0,277, p < 0,001$). In relation to household structure, life satisfaction is positively correlated with involving housework in daily ($r(4309) = 0,058, p < 0,001$), and number of children under the age of 18 in house ($r(4309) = 0,075, p < 0,001$), whereas it is negatively correlated with marital status ($r(4304) = -0,032, p < 0,005$) and caring 75 years and older in need care ($r(4309) = -0,044, p < 0,001$). In relation to working conditions, life satisfaction is positively correlated with working in public sector ($r(4268) = 0,067, p < 0,001$), and having compatible working hours with family ($r(4247) = 0,175, p < 0,001$), whereas it is negatively correlated with tension between management and workers ($r(4235) = -0,072, p < 0,001$), likelihood of losing job ($r(4233) = -0,211, p < 0,001$), and work-family conflict ($r(4232) = -0,202, p < 0,001$). Additionally, in relation to national determinants, life satisfaction is positively correlated with quality of health services ($r(4289) = 0,237, p < 0,001$), quality of education system ($r(4172) = 0,266, p < 0,001$), quality of child-care

services ($r(3661) = 0,587, p < 0,001$), and quality of state pension system ($r(3897) = 0,205, p < 0,001$).



Table 4.3: Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
1	1																			
2		1																		
3			1																	
4				1																
5					1															
6						1														
7							1													
8								1												
9									1											
10										1										
11											1									
12												1								
13													1							
14														1						
15															1					
16																1				
17																	1			
18																		1		
19																			1	

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level. ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

¹ Life satisfaction.

² Age.

³ Being male.

⁴ Income quartiles.

⁵ Education

⁶ Health Status.

⁷ Marital Status.

⁸ Involving housework daily.

⁹ Caring +75 in need of care.

¹⁰ Number of -18 in household.

¹¹ Public Sector.

¹² Tension between worker and management.

¹³ Fitting working hours with family.

¹⁴ Likelihood of losing job.

¹⁵ Work-family conflict

¹⁶ Quality of health services.

¹⁷ Quality of education system.

¹⁸ Quality of child-care services.

¹⁹ Quality of state pension system

4.3. Regression Analysis

4.3.1. Assumptions

In this thesis, I conducted an Ordinal Logistic Regression analysis to predict the impact of personal and national determinants on life satisfaction. First of all, I tested the predictor variables to verify there is no violation of the assumption of no multicollinearity. In this ordinal regression analysis, 66,7 percent of the cells with zero frequencies. I also tested various assumptions of ordinal logistic regression, which are all satisfied.

There are several assumptions in ordinal logistic regression. The assumption of proportional odds is fundamental. It assumes that each independent variable has an identical effect at each category of the ordinal dependent variable (Osborne, 2017: 147). SPSS tests this assumption with **the Test of Parallel Lines**. When the results of the Test of Parallel Lines indicate non-significance, then the assumption of proportional odds is satisfied. Table 4.4 reports that for this model, the proportional odds assumption appears to satisfy since the significance of chi-square statistic is $0,074 > 0,05$.

Table 4.4: Test of Parallel Lines

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Null Hypothesis	4951,404			
General	4919,217	32,187	22	,074

Link function: Logit

The **Model Fitting Information** contains the -2 Log-Likelihood ratio test for the base and the final model (Field, 2013: 2286). This test tells that the final model gives better predictions than the base model if the chi-square statistic is statistical significance. Table 4.5 shows that the final model gives better predictions than the baseline since the significance of the chi-square statistic is $0,000 < 0,05$.

Table 4.5: Model Fitting Information

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	5658,167			
Final	4951,404	706,763	22	,000

Link function: Logit

Goodness-of-Fit Table includes Person and Deviance chi-square statistics for the model to determine whether a model good fit to the data. Non-significant test results are indicators that the model fits the data well (Field, 2013: 2205). Table 4.6 shows that model fits well since both Person ($p = 0,527$) and Deviance ($p = 1,000$) chi-square statistics have large observed significant level.

Table 4.6: Goodness-of-Fit Table

	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	5524,242	5532	0,527
Deviance	4951,404	5532	1,000

Link function: Logit

R-square statistics measure the strength of the association between the independent variables and the dependent variable (Field, 2013: 2286). However, R-square cannot be computed for logistic regressions as in linear so it cannot interpret as in linear regressions. Thus, there are **Pseudo R-square Statistics**. As Table 4.7 reports, in this model, the pseudo-R-square statistic ($Nagelkerke = 0,258$) is respectable.

Table 4.7: Pseudo R-Squares

Cox and Snell	0,225
Nagelkerke	0,258
McFadden	0,125

Link function: Logit

4.3.2. Ordinal Logistic Regression Model

Ordinal logistic regression is more complicated to interpret than other logistic models since it computes the log odds for variables (Gaur and Gaur, 2009: 121). In

this model, first, I checked the significance of thresholds, which are both significant ($p < 0,001$). Then, I calculated the exponentiation of the B coefficients, which are odds ratios (i.e., e^B or $\exp(B)$), and their 95% confidence intervals from standard errors. This calculation is necessary because odds ratio, which is an indicator of the chance in odds resulting from a unit change in the predictor (Field, 2013: 2191), can be interpreted more easily than the Beta coefficient (B).

Table 4.8 reports the parameter estimates of the model. I present ordinal logistic results by highlighting significant ones. Among the control variables, health status, education level, and income are a significant predictor of life satisfaction at 95% CI, whereas age and being male are not. Every one-unit increase in health status increases the odds of falling at a higher level of the life satisfaction by a factor of 1,64 (95% CI 1,470 to 1,831), holding all the other variables constant. This indicates that as scores increase in health status, there is an increased probability of falling at a higher level on life satisfaction (Wald χ^2 (1) = 77,562, $p = 0,000$). The odds ratio of being in a lower secondary or below education level is 0,619 (95% CI 0,501 to 0,765), and being in an upper secondary or post-secondary education level is 0,807 (95% CI 0,675 to 0,964). Hence, being in a lower secondary or below education level decreases the odds of a being in a higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,615 ($1/0,619$) in comparison to being in tertiary education level (Wald χ^2 (1) = 19,588, $p = 0,000$). Similarly, being in an upper secondary or post-secondary education level decreases the odds of a being in a higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,239 ($1/0,807$), in comparison to being in tertiary education level (Wald χ^2 (1) = 5,559, $p = 0,018$). The odds ratios of being in income quartile one and two are 0,575 (95% CI 0,447 to 0,741), and 0,714 (95% CI 0,577 to 0,884) respectively. Both are significant negative predictors of life satisfaction since the odd ratios are below one (i.e., < 1). Being in an income quartile, one decreases the odds of a being in a higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,739 ($1/0,575$) in comparison to the highest income quartile (Wald χ^2 (1) = 18,47, $p = 0,000$). Being in an income quartile two also decreases the odds of a being in a higher level of life satisfaction by 1,4 ($1/0,714$) times, in comparison to the highest income quartile (Wald χ^2 (1) = 9,644, $p = 0,002$).

Among the household structure, being married ($p = 0,011$) being single ($p = 0,000$), and involving daily housework ($p = 0,006$) are significant predictors of life satisfaction. In contrast, a number of minor children in the household and caring over 75 years old in need of care are not. Being married increases the odds of being in the higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,392 (95% CI 1,079 to 1,796), in comparison to reference group, which is being separated, widowed or divorced (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 6,472, p = 0,011$). Similarly, being single increases the odds of being in the higher level of life satisfaction by 1,9 (95% CI 1,532 to 2,357) times, in comparison to reference group (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 34,008, p = 0,000$). Moreover, involving housework in daily increases the odds of being in the higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,265 (95% CI 1,069 to 1,479), in comparison to those who not involving housework in daily (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 7,548, p = 0,006$).

Among the working conditions, likelihood of losing job ($p = 0,000$), compatible working hours with family ($p = 0,000$), and work-family conflict ($p = 0,000$) are significant predictors of life satisfaction. The odd ratio of the likelihood of losing a job is 0,757 (95% CI 0,701 to 0,817). Every one-unit increase in the likelihood of losing a job decreases the log odds of being in a higher level of life satisfaction by 1,32 ($1/ 0,757$) times. This indicates that as scores increase in the likelihood of losing a job, there is a decreased probability of falling at the higher level of the life satisfaction, holding all other variables in the model constant (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 51,947, p = 0,000$). Having compatible working hours with family increases the odds of being in the higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,550 (95% CI 1,269 to 1,893), in comparison to those who don't have (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 18,295, p = 0,000$). Additionally, the odd ratio of work-family conflict is 0,835 (95% CI 0,775 to 0,9). Therefore, every one unit increase on work-family conflict decreases the log odds of being in the higher level of life satisfaction by 1,29 ($1/0,775$) times, holding all other variables constant. This indicates that as scores increase in work-family conflict, there is a decreased probability of falling at the higher level of life satisfaction (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 21,978, p = 0,000$).

Last but not least, among the national determinants, quality of health services ($p = 0,022$) quality of education ($p = 0,000$), and quality of child-care services ($p = 0,026$) are significantly positive predictors of life satisfaction. In contrast, the quality of the state pension system is not. Every one-unit increase in the quality of health services increases the log odds of being in the higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,063 (95% CI 1,008 to 1,121), holding all other variables in the model constant. This indicates that as scores increase in the quality of health services, there is an increased probability of falling at a higher level in life satisfaction (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 5,209, p = 0,022$). Similarly, every one-unit increase in the quality of education increases the log odds of being in the higher level of the life satisfaction by 1,123 (95% CI 1,059 to 1,191) times, holding all other variables constant. This also indicates that as scores increase in the quality of education, there is an increased probability of falling at a higher level in life satisfaction (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 14,792, p = 0,000$). Additionally, every one-unit increase in the quality of child-care services also increases the log odds of being in a higher level of life satisfaction by a factor of 1,063 (95% CI 1,006 to 1,123), holding all other variables constant. This indicates that as scores increase in the quality of child-care services, there is an increased probability of falling at a higher level in the life satisfaction (Wald $\chi^2 (1) = 4,928, p = 0,026$).

Table 4.8: Parameter Estimates

	B	Std. Error	Wald χ^2	95% CI	Exp (B)	95% CI for Exp (B)
Threshold						
Life Satisfaction(1)	1,555	,457	11,561	,659 2,451	4,735	1,933 11,597
Life Satisfaction(2)	4,423	,465	90,378	3,511 5,335	83,346	33,502 207,348
Age	-,005	,004	1,284	-,013 ,003	,995	,987 1,003
Health Status	,495**	,056	77,562	,385 ,605	1,640**	1,470 1,831
Gender (Male)	,004	,084	,002	-,161 ,169	1,004	,852 1,184
Educ(1): Lower secondary/below	-,479**	,108	19,588	-,691 -,267	,619**	,501 ,765
Educ(2): Upper secondary/post	-,215*	,091	5,559	-,394 -,036	,807*	,675 ,964
Educ(3): Tertiary
Income quartile 1	-,553**	,129	18,47	-,805 -,301	,575**	,447 ,741
Income quartile 2	-,337**	,109	9,644	-,55 -,124	,714**	,557 ,884
Income quartile 3	-,073	,097	,568	-,262 ,117	,930	,769 1,124
Income quartile 4
Being married	,331*	,13	6,472	,076 ,585	1,392*	1,079 1,796
Being single	,642**	,11	34,008	,426 ,857	1,900**	1,532 2,357
Household Structure						
Others (separated, widowed, divorced)
-18 in household	,073	,046	2,478	-,018 ,163	1,076	,983 1,177
Involving household work every day (Yes)	,235**	,086	7,548	,067 ,403	1,265**	1,069 1,497
Caring +75 in need of care (yes)	-,277	,169	2,672	-,609 ,055	,758	,544 1,056
Working in public sector (Yes)	-,023	,088	,069	-,195 ,149	,977	,822 1,161
Likelihood of losing job	-,279**	,039	51,947	-,354 -,203	,757**	,701 ,817
Tension in job (Yes)	-,096	,102	,879	-,296 ,104	,908	,744 1,110
Compatible working hours (Yes)	,438**	,102	18,295	,237 ,639	1,550**	1,269 1,893
Work-family conflict	-,18**	,038	21,978	-,255 -,105	,835**	,775 ,900
Quality of health s.	,061*	,027	5,209	,009 ,113	1,063*	1,008 1,121
Quality of education s.	,116**	,03	14,792	,057 ,175	1,123**	1,059 1,191
Quality of pension s.	,038	,02	3,77	,000 ,076	0,999	,999 1,080
Quality of child-care s.	,061*	,028	4,928	,007 ,116	1,006*	1,006 1,123

*P values are significant at the level $p < 0,005$ ** P values are significant at the level $p < 0,001$
 Link function: Logit. This parameter is set zero because it is redundant

4.4. Discussions

This study focuses on the impact of personal and national determinants on life satisfaction in welfare states. Based on Conflict Model, I identify personal determinants, which are household structure and working conditions, as work-family balance indicators since conflicts between the demands at work and responsibilities in the family have a distressed effect on employees. I specify national determinants as the citizens' perception of the quality of public services since citizens' assessment of the public services influences their life satisfaction.

In the sight of household structure, the first and second hypotheses assume that being married and being single are positive predictors for employees' life satisfaction in comparison to being widowed, separated, or divorced. The results confirm the first and second hypotheses, which are also accepted findings of previous literature (e.g., Adams *et al.*, 1996; Lucas *et al.*, 2003). Being married provides employees' love and support from their spouses, and they can help each other in household responsibilities to reduce work-family conflict. Moreover, being single provides employees the opportunity to shape their work and family life more freely and causes less stress than those who are widowed, separated, or divorced (Holmes and Rahe, 1967).

The third hypothesis assumes that the number of children under the age of 18 in household would be a significant negative predictor of employees' life satisfaction since the responsibilities increase with the increasing in the number of minor children. However, the result is insufficient to predict that the number of children under the age of 18 in the household affects employees' life satisfaction. On the other hand, existing literature shows that workers work-life balance decrease with the children in the house in European countries (Eurofound, 2014: 38-9) because of the time-based work-family conflict and the lack of child-care services (e.g., Voydanoff, 1988; Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011; Payne *et al.*, 2012). In this data, the number of respondents who have more than one minor child is deficient. Hence, the effect of this variable needs a broader range.

Existing literature indicates that unpaid working hours, such as cooking, cleaning, or care responsibilities, affect employees' life satisfaction (e.g., Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981). Long unpaid working hours seem like a burden, especially for full-time workers (OECD, 2020: 169). In one way, doing housework every day takes time and increase time-based work-family conflict. It causes physical tiredness for people who work during the day so that it might create work-family conflict; on the other way, the ability to do housework every day might increase work-family balance. The results confirm the fourth hypothesis, which assumes that doing housework (or cooking) every day is a significant predictor of life satisfaction. For this analysis, it is a positive predictor for employees' life satisfaction.

Caring for the elderly, who is insufficient and unable to meet his/her own basic needs, is also a crucial unpaid work for employees. It might create not only physical but also mental tiredness for employees. Accordingly, existing literature shows that care responsibilities decrease work-life balance (Eurofound, 2018: 46). Hence, the fifth hypothesis assumes that caring disabled/infirm family members/friends or neighborhood aged 75 or over every day is negative predictors for life satisfaction. However, this is insufficient to predict employees' life satisfaction. The reason might be that since there are public long-term care services in European welfare states. Some countries mostly reliance on the informal care (e.g., France, Italy, and Portugal); some counties reliance on residential or nursing home care (e.g., Sweden); some countries reliance on home help or personal care (e.g., Denmark) or home nursing care (e.g., Germany) (Eurofound, 2019: 31-2). In this sample, a very small percent (5%) of employees directly involve caring. Hence, this variable needs a broader range of countries.

In the sight of working conditions, the sixth hypothesis assumes that working in the public sector positively related to life satisfaction level, compared to those who work in other sectors (e.g., Feeney and Stritch, 2019). Even though working in the public sector provides more security, flexibility, and opportunity to benefit from policy arrangements, it seems working in the public sector is not a significant predictor of life satisfaction in the six European welfare states. The result is

statistically insignificant to predict the effect of working in the public sector on life satisfaction.

Existing literature shows that job security is an essential determinant of employee's life satisfaction (e.g., Frone, 1992; Chung, 2011) because it creates a stressful environment for employees and increases worry-based work-family conflict. In this direction, the seventh hypothesis, which assumes the likelihood of losing a job in the next six months, is a significant negative predictor for life satisfaction, is verified in six European welfare states in the model. Working in an insecure job reduces work-life balance and creates a stressful situation for employees, whether or not they lose their job. Hence, working in secure jobs increase employees' life satisfaction. Welfare actors can support employees by providing job security. For instance, welfare states regulate the industrial work, labor market policies, and occupational rights of workers to ensure secure job opportunities (Kaufmann, 2000: 301).

The positive work environment is vital for employees' well-being since it provides positive energy and increases the perception of workplace support for employees (e.g., Ford *et al.*, 2007; Russo *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, the tension between workers and managers in the workplace causes stress for employees and reduce the balance between work and life. Hence, the eighth hypothesis assumes that having tension in the workplace is a significant negative predictor for life satisfaction. However, the result is not sufficient, as I had expected.

Existing studies show that working hours have a substantial effect on both work-family balance and life satisfaction. Long and inflexible working hours increase the time-based work-family conflicts, so it decreases life satisfaction (e.g., Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Aycan and Eskin, 2005; Valcour, 2007; Yıldırım and Aycan, 2008). Accordingly, I expect that having compatible working hours with family is significantly positive predictors for employees' life satisfaction. The ninth hypothesis supposes that compatible working hours with family are significantly

positive predictors for life satisfaction and verified in six European welfare states in the model.

According to the Conflict Model, employees experience work-family conflict when they cannot balance their work-life demands and family responsibilities (Greenhaus and Beutel, 1985). It is one of the critical negative determinants of life satisfaction in the existing literature (e.g., Aryee, 1992; Adams *et al.*, 1996; Burke and Greenglass, 1999; Erdwins *et al.*, 2001; Foley *et al.*, 2005; Aycan and Eskin, 2005; Yildirim and Aycan, 2008; Payne *et al.*, 2012; Haar *et al.*, 2013; Omran and Kamel, 2016). The tenth hypothesis, which assumes work-family conflict is a significant negative predictor for life satisfaction, is confirmed in six European welfare states. Welfare states provide some relevant social policies to decrease work-family conflict and ensure citizens' work-family balance, such as child-care services. Nevertheless, the welfare state cannot achieve this alone. Companies should also provide formal and informal supports for their employees by such as family-friendly company policies. In this way, they increase their employees' job satisfaction and decrease work-family conflict (e.g., Allen, 2001; Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011). The most popular social policies in work-family balance research are taxation policies, leave arrangements, flexible working arrangements, part-time work opportunities, and child care facilities (e.g., Den Dulk, 2001; Den Dulk and Van Doorne-Huiskes, 2007). These social policies have been changed based on institutional differences in different welfare regimes.

Existing literature shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between life satisfaction and welfare states (e.g., Radcliffe, 2001; Di Tella *et al.*, 2003; Polkowska, 2016; Aysan, 2019). The welfare state has two main functions: fiscal redistribution and providing public/non-public services to improve citizens' living conditions (Kaufmann, 2000: 297). The public services offer formal support to enable individuals to participate effectively in employment and society and meet the needs of citizens' welfare (Eurofound, 2017). In the sight of the citizens' perception of the quality of public services, in this thesis, I focus on the four public services, which are the health system, education, state pension system, and public

child-care services. All these services have been influencing employees' life satisfaction because they affect challenges and opportunities in an individual's life (Eurofound, 2019). The eleventh hypothesis, which assumes the health system's quality is a significant positive predictor for life satisfaction, is verified in six European welfare states in the model. Eurofound (2019: 23) highlighted two aspects with the quality of health services: satisfaction with informing about care received and perception of fairness. In this context, it is expected that the citizens' perception of the quality of health services has a positive effect on employees' life satisfaction because accessing appropriate and informative care is a social right for welfare state citizens.

Another essential fundamental public service is education. Education correlates with both economic (e.g., income) and non-economic (e.g., work-life balance) aspects of life (OECD, 2019). Better educated parents, especially women, are more likely to have better job opportunities and higher-paid, so they are more likely to afford child-care services or housework support (OECD, 2011: 139; 2020: 97). Hence, education correlates with life satisfaction (OECD, 2020: 145). Besides the education level, the quality of the education might affect individuals' skills and quality in their career life. From this point of view, the twelfth hypothesis assumes the quality of education is also a significant positive predictor for life satisfaction. This hypothesis is confirmed in six European welfare states in the model. This analysis shows that the citizens' perception of the quality education is also an essential determinant for life satisfaction. As their social rights, citizens must have the right to access good quality education to increase their life satisfaction and enhance the quality of life. The structure of the education system varies for each welfare state. For instance, existing literature shows that, in Social Democratic welfare regimes, state-sponsored education enables individuals to have higher educational achievement and (in particular, vocationally oriented tertiary level education) guarantees better job conditions (Eurofound, 2019).

Welfare states provide pension schemes for their citizens to prevent poverty among the elderly. These schemes differ according to the welfare regimes. I wanted to see

if there is a significant positive relationship between the perception of the quality of the public pension system and life satisfaction since employee work and pay taxes for retirement in better conditions. Hence, the fourteenth hypothesis, which assumed quality of the state pension system is a significant predictor for life satisfaction, is not verified in six European welfare states in the model. It is insufficient to predict the effect of the citizens' perception of the quality of the state pension system on employees' life satisfaction.

Child-care services are one of the essential formal supports for working parents' work-life balance, and their life satisfaction subsequently. Hence, high-quality public child-care services have been at the top of the welfare states' social policy agenda over the past decade (Eurofound, 2017). Accordingly, the thirteenth hypothesis assumes that the citizens' perception of the quality of the child-care system is a significant positive predictor for life satisfaction. This hypothesis is also verified in six European welfare states in the model. In 2016 data, EQLS considered formal and informal care services for children under age 12 years, so it involves both formal and informal child-care arrangements. These services vary according to the decommodification and defamilialization in welfare states; nevertheless, accessibility and affordability are fundamental issues in the early childhood education and care services for the citizens' perception of the quality of the child-care services. Employees arrange their care responsibilities based on public provisions. For example, in Denmark the majority (over 80%) of the families mainly received formal child-care services (i.e., public child-care services) whereas, in Italy the majority (over 90%) received informal child-care services (i.e., family members) (Eurofound, 2017).

Welfare states require a higher labor participation rate to sustain and afford welfare provisions (Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011). Hence, besides certain fundamental public services, there are various types of social policies to support work and family life in balance: Flexible working hours, parental leaves, cash payments and tax reductions only a few of them (for detail, see Koslowski *et al.*, 2019). The quality and accessibility of these services have certain outcomes not only

for the family but also for the sustainability of welfare states, such as fertility rate, family poverty, employment rate, and equality in the labor market. Since better work-family balance increases the employment rates, productivity in the job, and equality between men and women in the labor market, those who have a better work-family balance tend to be more satisfied with their life (Eurofound, 2018). Hence, welfare states have been developing work-family policies to support the combination of paid work responsibilities and care tasks in families. These policies can include both formal and informal arrangements and statutory regulations, such as flexible work arrangements, well-paid maternity leave, or in/formal child-care supports, to increase employees' work-family balance.

For instance, existing literature considers that the Southern European welfare regime depends on the familial informal support (Esping-Andersen, 1999: 90). Since the lack of publicly funded care programs and culturally strong family structures, the family has the primary responsibility to care for disabled, elderly, and children. Even though traditional gender roles in the family and strict work regulations obstruct women to enter the labor market, the participation of women in the labor force has increased (Kağnicioğlu, 2013: 31). However, Southern European welfare states have less comprehensive public child-care services and limited paid children. Consequently, employees, especially working mothers, cannot have enough state support to balance their work and family life and they rely on informal support provided by their family. For example, Southern European welfare states offer paid leave for mothers, but fathers can only have a very brief period of paid and unpaid leave (OECD, 2011). This attitude increases women's care responsibility in the family and obstructs their work-family balance.

Similar with the Southern European welfare regime, the Conservative-Corporatist welfare regime has traditional familial welfare responsibilities since it has historically conservative attitudes to family and gender. In Conservative-Corporatist welfare states, those who have stable and lifelong work are protected by employment-linked social insurance because they have compulsory insurance system. However, women and workers with the irregular job cannot benefit from

security as much as working men. Care responsibilities mostly depend upon the family. Passive income maintenance and work guarantees for male breadwinner cause underdeveloped child-care and parental leave practices, and consequently low fertility (Esping-Andersen, 2002: 16) and relatively low women labor force participation (Den Dulk *et al.*, 2005: 25). For example, in Germany, the male breadwinner family model is preserved (Blossfeld and Drobnic, 2001: 42), and there are favorable tax provisions for the traditional single-earner families (Den Dulk *et al.*, 2005: 25). Work-family policies for double-earner families are deficient because the conservative gender roles do not encourage working mothers (Kağcınoğlu, 2013: 29). Otherwise, France's new family-friendly child-care policies assist working mothers more than before (Crompton *et al.*, 2007: 7).

As another example, the Social Democratic welfare regime has defamilialized welfare responsibilities and decommodified citizens' welfare needs to provide individual independence and to minimize the dependency on the market (Esping-Andersen, 2002: 13). Social Democratic welfare states have universal income guarantees and highly developed equal social services for the disabled, elderly, and children. For instance, states provide child-care and offer the most generous forms (both in duration and pay) of parental leave for both fathers and mothers. Hence, private services are nearly non-existent (Den Dulk *et al.*, 2005: 22). The activation policies not only prevent early retirement but also provide wide-scope child-care services. Thus, women's labor force participation remains high by enabling working women to have children. The Social Democratic welfare states have the best work-family balance regulations because states provide advanced public care services, flexible working arrangement, and high payment during maternity leave (Kağcınoğlu, 2013: 28). Moreover, the state creates job opportunities in the public sector as employer (Den Dulk *et al.*, 2005: 22). Consequently, these arrangements increase employment rate and provide a reasonable high fertility rate (Esping-Andersen, 2002: 14).

This analyze does not include any representation from the Liberal welfare regime because the Liberal welfare states offers a diversified amount of policies with little

regulations, so citizens' needs are fulfilled based on the market conditions. Hence, this attitude affects the scope of work-family policies. Liberal welfare states only target to explicitly needy, so they have limited public responsibilities. States do not discourage women for labor force participation but do not support work-life balance. Employees acquire their basic needs (e.g., child-care services) from the market solutions. Market dependency creates availability and affordability problems for those who have limited income and increases poverty, especially among alone parents and young families with children (Esping-Andersen, 2002: 15). For instance, in the United Kingdom there are only three months of unpaid parental leave and high-cost child-care services (Den Dulk and Van Doorne-Huiskies, 2007). Existing literature shows that the UK has low working mother rate, in comparison to Social Democratic welfare states since women need to quit their job when they become a mother because of the lack of child-care services (Kağnıcıoğlu, 2013: 30).

All things considered, it is realised that the work-life balance and the citizens' perceptions of welfare states' public services have significant impact on employees' life satisfaction. As the conflict model asserts work-family balance indicators create reconciliation between work and family roles, so they decrease work-family conflict and help to increase life satisfaction level. Furthermore, the citizens' perception of the quality of frequently used public services also increase their life satisfaction level. According to the Eurofound (2019), the accessibility and affordability of public services are the most important elements for citizens' assessment of the quality of the public services in welfare states. Hence, accessible and affordable welfare state provisions are important for quality of public services to increase citizens' life satisfaction.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND POLICY RECOMENDATIONS

Welfare states are essential institutions that provide public services in various subjects to increase citizens' well-being, enhance the quality of life, and provide better living conditions for all citizens. With industrialization, welfare states and their citizens face various social and economic challenges. The changes in the labor force structures have revealed the importance of a work-family balance on employees' life satisfaction and welfare states' sustainability. Due to changing work arrangements and care responsibilities becoming public issues with women entering the workforce, welfare states included work-family balance into their policy agenda to ensure a reconciliation between family and work life.

Especially in recent years, employees have much more work responsibilities due to the competitive conditions. Furthermore, since there has been a change in traditional gender roles in the family life with increasing female labor participation, parents need a more equal support for family care responsibilities to stay in the labor force. Consequently, welfare states require a higher labor participation rate to sustain and afford welfare provisions since the demand for public services has been growing (Eurofound, 2019). Many studies indicate that work-family conflict has contrary outcomes for employees' life satisfaction, and consequently their well-being. Hence, work-family balance in welfare states has been a concern for the quality of life studies.

This thesis argues that both work-family balance and the citizens' assessment of welfare state support have an impact on employees' life satisfaction. In other words, I propose that the citizens' perception of the quality of the public services predict employees' life satisfaction like work-family balance and work-family policies. The balance between work demands and family responsibilities decrease

work-family conflict and increase employees' life satisfaction. The existing literature clarifies that household structure and working conditions have essential roles in the work-family balance since they provide formal and informal social support to employees. Similarly, work-family policies have been affecting employees' life satisfaction since they provide formal social supports for employees and their families to cooperate in work and family life. Moreover, the result of this study shows that work-family balance indicators and citizens' perception of the quality of the welfare state services positively affect employees' life satisfaction in welfare states.

The main objective of this thesis is to make a contribution to life satisfaction literature by focusing on work-family balance and public services in the welfare state by analyzing the impact of work-family balance and welfare state provisions on employees' life satisfaction in European welfare states. Furthermore, my aim was to contribute to sustainable and egalitarian growth by making remarks and specific recommendations on relevant issues. In order to clarify the definitions of human well-being; first, this study explains the popular concepts, which are used in quality of life studies. Then, the study shows the impact of work-family balance and citizens' perception of the quality of welfare states services on employees' life satisfaction.

The hypotheses are tested through the ordinal logistic regression by using the fourth and last data set of the European Quality of Life Survey to analyze the work-family balance and welfare state provisions on employees' life satisfaction in European welfare states. With a different approach from the existing literature, this thesis provides information about how the impact of the citizens' perception of the quality of four basic public services which are health, education, states pension, and child-care, predicts employees' life satisfaction. These four public services are critical (Eurofound, 2019) services for employees since they are frequently used public services.

The result of the analysis validates my primary argument, which argues that both work-family balance indicators and the citizens' perception of the quality of the public services predict employees' life satisfaction level. In the work-family balance indicators regarding the personal determinants, marital status and involving housework in every day life predict employees' life satisfaction. The study shows that when the responsibilities in the family life decrease or when they are shared by (in)formal support, the probability of employees having high level of life satisfaction increase. Moreover, having time to be involved in daily housework has a positive effect on employees' life satisfaction. It might indicate that when working conditions let employees involve in daily household responsibilities, employees can balance their work and family life more easily. Thus, it increases the probability of employees having high level of life satisfaction. In support of this, results show that having compatible working hours with family increases employees' life satisfaction. In contrast, job insecurity and work-family conflict decrease employees' life satisfaction.

Regarding the national determinants, the citizens' perception of the quality of health care services has an important impact on employees' life satisfaction since health is the most vital factor for individuals' overall life satisfaction. Literature shows that accessibility and affordability of services, and attention from medical staff increase the citizens' perception of the quality of health services. The citizens' perception of the quality of the education system is important for employees' life satisfaction since education affects individuals' skills and quality in their careers. Thus it relates to both economic (e.g., income) and non-economic (e.g., work-life balance) aspects of life (OECD, 2019). The citizens' perception of the quality of child-care services increases employee life satisfaction and supports work-family balance since parents can use these services with satisfaction. Literature shows that the accessible, affordable, and quality child-care services assist working parents' work-life balance because they provide formal support for family care responsibilities.

Besides public services, social policies are one of the most important formal supports for employees' life satisfaction because they directly shape employees' work and family life. Welfare states have been identified as institutional arrangements, which provide fundamental public services as citizens' social rights, and supervise social policy decisions and the respond-and-demand structure of citizens. Hence, the welfare states provide various work-family policies to increase citizens' life satisfaction and well-being. For example, parental leave, flexible work arrangements, family allowance, taxation, etc. are the most popular arrangements in creating the balance between work and family life. Even though welfare regimes have fundamental public services, such as health care, education, and child-care, the scope of the work-family policies might differ.

For instance, in the Social Democratic welfare states (e.g., Finland and Denmark) the state has a more substantial role than other actors of welfare distribution because there is the highest level of decommodification and defamilialization. States provide early childhood care services, job security, well-paid equal leave policies for mothers and fathers, flexible working arrangements, cash payments, tax reductions, and active labor policies. These high-developed universal, accessible, affordable, all-inclusive public services support employees' work-family balance and increase employees' life satisfaction. Moreover, the employment rate is also high in these countries. In the Conservative-Corporatist welfare states (e.g., Germany and France) the conservative tradition has influenced the scope of social policies. Even though there have been an encouragement of some new family-friendly policies, the passive income maintenance and work guarantees for male breadwinner causes underdeveloped care and parental leave practices compared to Social Democratic welfare states. States provide insufficient early childhood care and non-equal paternal leave for parents with low payment because family care responsibilities traditionally belong to women. Furthermore, states do not ensure job security for women. France, as an important example, has increased the female employment rate in a company with higher fertility rates through family-friendly social policies at the institutional level, such as care services. In liberal welfare states, the decommodification level is deficient because the market has a larger role than

other actors in welfare distribution. The care responsibilities belong to the market, rather than the state or the family. Besides the high cost of early childhood services, states provide parental leave with no payment for a very short time. Hence, there is accessibility and affordability problem for care services, especially for families with low income. Consequently, working mothers tend to quit their job because of the lack of work-family policies. The Southern Europe welfare states have insufficient family-work policies. They have the lowest level of defamilization because the family has a larger role than other actors in care responsibilities. Hence, states provide less comprehensive formal care supports and limited parental leave with paid child payment due to the strong cultural family-oriented relationships. The female employment rate is low compared to other welfare regimes because traditional gender roles are persistent in household responsibilities. On the other hand, there is an increasing number of women entering the labor market even though they have limited work-family support from the state for work-family balance.

All in all, the welfare state is historically developed through the establishment of insurance, covering the major risk of life, such as unemployment (Rosanvallon, 2000: 24). It has increasingly enlarged its scope according to the citizens' need for welfare. In today's condition, work-family policies for work-life balance is as important as national public services (e.g., health care services) in welfare states in order to provide better living conditions with a high satisfaction level. Hence, the reconciliation of work and family responsibilities has become an increasingly substantial social policy agenda in welfare states in recent years. Work-family balance relates not only to an individual's life satisfaction and consequently well-being, but also societal outcomes such as gender equality in the labor market.

In many welfare states, women have a larger role in family care responsibilities and unpaid household tasks than men. This increases the obstacles in the labor market for women. Additionally, if welfare states do not provide equality in welfare provision, women might experience less work-family balance. Furthermore, work-family balance also correlates with the national outcomes of social policies, such as

female employment rate, fertility rate, and demographic aging, and, consequently, the sustainability of welfare states. The welfare states can prevent the traditional barrier for women (especially for working mothers) to enter the labor market through public services which includes early childhood care services, well-paid parental leave, cash payments, and flexible working arrangements to support working parents' work-life balance.

By providing accessible and affordable public child-care services, welfare states encourage women to have children without quitting having to give up their careers. Consequently, the high fertility rate decelerates the demographic aging in the state. Additionally, since high fertility rate in a company with a high employment rate increases the active labor power, welfare states ensure sustainability through active and family-friendly social policies. As it is clearly understood, work-family balance and welfare state provisions are relevant topics for both employees' life satisfaction and sustainability of welfare states. Within this framework, as an objective of this thesis, I would provide remarks on some critical issues and make specific policy recommendations to contribute to a sustainable and egalitarian growth.

First, existing literature shows that women experience challenges and meet obstacles in the labor market more than men due to traditional gender roles. This traditional attitude decreases the reconciliation of women's work demands and family responsibilities, consequently their life satisfaction level. Moreover, it also affects female labor force participation. Hence, **all actors of welfare distribution should have egalitarian and collaborative attitudes, and provide equal arrangements for all family members to support their work-life balance.**

Second, the results show that married and single people have higher probability of having a higher life satisfaction level. Since social policies support work-family balance, they are an essential determinant for employees' life satisfaction. Hence, **welfare actors should provide comprehensive work-family policies, which include care services, well-paid parental leave, family allowances, and more, considering**

the needs of different types of families (e.g., single parents and dual-earner families) **to strengthen families.**

Third, by providing family polices, welfare actors should consider the accessibility, affordability, and quality of services for people from all strata. **The state should equally encourage parents to stay in the labor force for egalitarian sustainability.**

Fourth, the results indicatate that compatible working hours and job security increases life satisfaction. The studies on working conditions show that in addition to states' work-family balance regulations, the market's attitude on work-family balance is also an essential determinant for employees' life satisfaction. Moreover, working conditions, such as the existence of flexible working hours and job security, have an important impact on employees' work-life balance and life satisfaction. Even though family-friendly arrangements provide a competitive advantage in the market, some companies continue to restrict working parents to enjoy family support practices or do not provide job security for those who benefit from these practices. Hence, **the welfare actors should support the market to improve working conditions and regularly control it to prevent work-family conflict and provide accessibility of work-family policies.**

Fifth, the results show that the citizens' perception of the quality of the frequently used public services has positive impact on employees' life satisfaction level. The public services provide an important opportunity to welfare states to increase citizens' well-being and provide employment opportunities in public services institutions (e.g., care-workers, doctors, and teachers in public institutions). The quality public child-care services enable employees to enjoy accessible and affordable care services while staying active in the labor force. Additionally, it provides job opportunity for those who have proper child development education. **The state should provide accessible, free-of-charge, flexible, and state-mandatory child-care services with well-trained and qualified human resources for families.** In addition to this, **the state should encourage other welfare distribution actors to support formal and informal child-care services.**

Since education correlates with economic (e.g., income) and non-economic (e.g., work-life balance) aspects of life, the education system has a significant role in individuals' lives. Hence, welfare states should enable citizens from all strata to receive a decent education from early childhood to adulthood. **The state should provide accessible, free-of-charge, and quality education institutions with qualified human resources for all citizens.** Moreover, **the state should enhance the curriculum and school materials.** In addition, since the quality of education is more important than the period of the training, education received by the teacher should be meticulously prepared. Additionally, **vocational education should be developed** because it trains active citizens for their job; thus, provides a more qualified labor force.

The recent studies and the Covid19 pandemic show that the health care system is one of the most critical pillars of welfare states not only for sustainability but also for citizens' well-being. The health services are the most used and needed public services. Hence, **the state should provide quality, accessible, free-of-charge, and informative health care services to increase life satisfaction.**

Seventh, the quality of life and sustainability of welfare states need a holistic framework in welfare distribution because citizens involve various services in their daily life. Social policies should be managed under a single roof, both for better efficiency and to avoid wasting resources. **Policymakers should develop comprehensive, inclusive, and egalitarian social policies, including the current needs of citizens based on national and global circumstances. These policies should include cooperation between actors of welfare distribution** to share welfare regimes' responsibilities by considering future outcomes and risks rather than saving the day and populist policies.

Eighth, the Covid-19 pandemic has revealed that technological developments are useful for actors of welfare distribution. The technology has maintained national and global communication and cooperation. **The actors should efficiently use the**

advantages of technology in welfare distribution. The education services should develop curriculum training for teachers to continue quality education. Health care services should procure high tech medical tools and online services for certain situations. The child-care services should develop educational and entertaining online services for families, who have to work in their homes, to support working parents' work-life balance and sustain early child development and education.

In addition, though these critical issues and recommendations as contribution for sustainable growth, as in every research, there are some limitations and shortcomings of this study. The data has a limited number of employees, so there are large missing values. Moreover, data does not allow comparative analysis due to the sample number. Additionally, EQLS does not involve the quality of social securities in states. It is a shortcoming of this study since social securities might have an important effect on employees' life satisfaction. Finally, I can predict the life satisfaction level with given independent variables through using ordinal logistic regression. However, I cannot compare which group of the independent variable has more of an impact on life satisfaction since ordinal logistic regression is not a hierarchical model.

In conclusion, the major finding in this study is the argument that work-family balance and the citizens' assessments of the welfare state services positively affect employees' life satisfaction in selected countries. The history of European welfare states indicates that short-term, populist, sexist, passive policies cannot sustain welfare states and life satisfaction. Even though the welfare state has the important role, welfare actors should share the responsibilities of welfare distribution for sustainability. For the sustainable life satisfaction, the biggest role of the state is developing active policies to encourage citizens to stay in labor force and work for their life in balance, rather increase the rate of dependent population by passive, only-give policies. Moreover, the the scope of social policies might affect citizens' life satisfaction in welfare states because welfare state provisions provide formal support for better living conditions.

Since there could always be a crisis to defuse, problems to solve, and challenges to deal with because life is a dynamic domain, work-family balance is an inconsistent determinant of employees' life satisfaction. The changing working arrangements and family structures provide social support for employees to reconcile their work tasks and family responsibilities. Alongside, welfare states support employees by providing social policies to guarantee work-life balance and consequently employees' life satisfaction. Work-family balance has bidirectional advantages for employees and welfare regimes: Affordability and sustainability of welfare regimes require higher employment rate and work-family balance support employees stay in the labor force. Moreover, welfare states increase citizens' life satisfaction and well-being through work-family services. Hence, policy interest in work-family balance has been rising in welfare regimes. Since living conditions has been changing continuously, there is a need for research at regular intervals to determine employees' welfare relevant needs to enhance social supports and quality of life. In this way, individuals' well-being and inclusive and sustainable growth of welfare are ensured.

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