

Labor Supply in a Lifestyle Perspective

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Traditional labor supply theories stress economic variables like unemployment and wages to explain differences in labor supply behavior. Increasingly, however, labor supply theory and modeling includes social and cultural 'non-economic' factors and the importance of space. Elaborating these trends, this paper presents the lifestyle concept as a new perspective for regional labor supply modeling. Lifestyle reflects the individual's organization of life and the valuation of diverse aspects of life like the family, housing, leisure and working. Lifestyle groups are based on similar life-course patterns. This paper commences with a review of the traditional labor supply research and the literature engaged with the lifestyle concept. In turn, the attributes of this concept are connected to variations in labor supply. This results in a lifestyle labor supply model by which the work orientation of various lifestyle groups is analyzed. Moreover, the spatial aspects of the lifestyle are included.

Keywords: Lifestyle, labor supply, labor market models, regional analysis.

Studies of the determinants of labor supply, at both the micro-and the macro-level, increasingly take into account social and cultural 'non-economic' factors (Van der Laan, 1996). These factors like the family or health situation are considered as economic as wages or the unemployment level (Kapteyn et al.; 1989; Woittiez, 1990). Another trend in economics on labor supply is the increasing importance attached to the spatial aspect. Labor markets develop in relation to the regional arena: the meeting place of actors with different strategic behavior (Van der Laan, 1991; Van der Ploeg, 1994). The region contributes significantly to the size, structure and development of labor supply.

In the light of these trends one can apply the lifestyle perspective. The concept of lifestyle reflects the individual's organization of life, and the valuation of diverse aspects of life, including institutional and regional frameworks. Economic actors have different goals and choose a specific institutional and regional framework for that. Actors behave strategically different like the choice for a specific kind of

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household, number of working hours or place to live. Since individualization has increased enormously, the analysis of supply with the help of traditional variables like wages or gender and age is suboptimal. Therefore, we suggest that analyzing labor supply based on strategic behavior—a certain lifestyle—is more adequate. We emphasize that we don't propose to 'abolish' the traditional determinants of labor supply, but suggest that labor market analysis should broaden its conceptual framework and include in a more comprehensive mix influences like the way people pursue their personal career goals and the opportunities they have. This is in line with the broadening of the economic factors determining labor supply, like earlier the 'human capital approach' (Becker, 1962) and the 'social capital approach' (Kazamaki-Ottersten, 1998). These wider perspectives stressed the role of the social environment for people in causing variations in labor market supply. The present analysis goes a step further and values basic economic factors, social background variables and the institutional and regional settings within the framework of personal life orientations. This manuscript reveals the importance of lifestyle factors in labor supply modeling and shows how lifestyle can be conceptualized and applied to labor supply modeling more appropriate than the traditional economic approach and the multiplication of background characteristics. To this end the following five issues are elaborated:

1. A review of literature, revealing the value of the traditional determinants of labor supply. This establishes our point of departure for a subsequent analysis based on the lifestyle perspective.
2. A conceptualization of lifestyle and its integration into a lifestyle-labor supply model.
3. The identification of different lifestyles derived from an empirical analysis using a *modified LISREL model*.
4. The application of lifestyle – labor supply model to the work orientation of lifestyle groups as indicated by the (desired) hours of work.
5. The relationship between lifestyle and work orientation and the regional context.

TRADITIONAL LABOR SUPPLY RESEARCH

In its strive to resolve labor supply issues, labor market research has traditionally taken into account a range of economic, social and institutional attributes. Table 1 shows the impact of these attributes derived from a representative selection of labor supply studies. We did not endeavor to make an exhausting table of all labor supply studies, but tried to get as large as possible diversity of supply determinants. The theoretical basis of the effects of the determinants is discussed fully in Versantvoort (2000). Table 1 discloses the effects in relation to male, female and the total labor force. From the table it becomes clear that, next to economic factors like unemploy-

ment or wages, also many other factors play a role for the supply of labor. Besides various socio-cultural factors like gender, age or education, other institutional and regional determinants are also important. Examples of these are the availability of childcare facilities or the urbanization level. The detailed review of the economic, social, institutional and spatial factors influencing labor market supply constitutes a starting point in conceptualizing the notion of lifestyle and its link with labor supply.

Table 1: Effect of determinants on the supply of labor.

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Effects on:</i>			<i>Variables</i>	<i>Effects on:</i>		
	<i>Men</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Women</i>		<i>Men</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Women</i>
<i>Economic factors</i>				children 0-5 years			-
unemployment	-		-	children 6-11 years			-
wage	+		+	children above 12 years			++
other income	-		-	number of children	+		-
employment	+		+	ethnicity 'non white'	-		-
underemployment	+		+	religion			-
social security	-		-	weak health	-		-
taxes	-		-	speak language not well	-		-
<i>Social factors</i>				habit formation			+
gender (female)		-		dependent preferences			+
age general		-		<i>Institutional factors</i>			
age man	-		-	urbanization level	+		+
age woman	-		-	services	-		+
education general		+		day-care facilities	+		+
education man	-		+	commuting	+		-
education woman	+		-	unionization			-
marital status (married)	+		-	% women in pot. labor force		-	
# persons in family		-					

+ indicates a positive effect; - a negative effect. Source: Versantvoort, 2000.

CONCEPTUALIZING LIFESTYLE

The traditional factors were sufficient for explaining labor supply until some decades ago, since most people experienced a similar life course. To put it somewhat stereotypically, children went to school and then to work and married. Women worked until they had their first child, and then devoted their life to the household. If they returned to work, they did so when the children were older or had left home. When individuality in the past decades increased, and the urge to behave uniformly diminished, people began to express their own aspirations and selected more critically among opportunities. Uniform ideas about how to behave diminished and pluralism became common. For example, people who have similar income, belong

to the same gender or ethnic group, and live in the same location, increasingly behave differently. They differ because they value the traditional determinants of labor supply differently. We argue that lifestyle can conceptualize these changes and its effects on labor market choices. The concept of lifestyle reflects the individual's organization of life, and the valuation of diverse aspects of life (Bootsma et al., 1993). Since a person's lifestyle reflects his/her character and background and the institutional and regional environment in which he or she lives, the lifestyle mirrors the way he/she chooses among alternatives. If each lifestyle type results in a variation of ways of living, consumption, housing or spatial location beyond the traditional determinants, labor market behavior is also likely to be affected by the lifestyle.

The lifestyle approach has two advantages over a traditional approach in which only background lifestyle variables determine labor supply. Firstly, in the lifestyle approach, background variables making possible or limiting a lifestyle, and strategic behavior resulting in an individual specific mix of these variables are eminent. Labor market behavior is also influenced by background variables as well as by strategic behavior, that is, by lifestyle. Secondly, the strategic behavior of individuals, namely their choice for a specific lifestyle, is a sound foundation for group formation. It is a more precise and topical tool in analyzing labor market behavior than the traditional analysis of similarities in background variables. Empirical analysis showed that taking account of lifestyle, adds statistically to the explanation of the work orientation (Van der Laan, Versantvoort and Van der Knaap, 2000). If the effect of lifestyle is also included next to the traditional background variables, work orientation is explained better. Taking into account lifestyle really makes sense.

Disciplinary roots of the lifestyle concept

Although the concept of lifestyle becomes increasingly topical, it already has a long history, particularly in sociological research. Leading milestones are Max Weber (1922), recognized by many as the founder of the lifestyle concept, Mitchell (1983) in consumer's typologies, and the sociologists Bourdieu (1984), Sobel (1983) and Ganzeboom (1988). The lifestyle concept has more recently also been used in spatial and economic analyses. In summary, four main research approaches can be distinguished:

1. *Consumer research*, led by the advertisement industry, has always tried to find out how consumption patterns are linked to different type of lifestyles. Marketing specialists endeavored to establish lifestyle typologies and to explore the essence of consumers images, opinions and attitudes, all aimed at establishing sales promotion strategies (Alpert and Gatty, 1969; Mitchell, 1983; Bearden and Etzel, 1982; Solomon, 1983).
2. *Stratification research*, like by Kahl (1953) and Berting (1969), identified social types by correlating housing or language to social stratification. Today's sociological research changed its main focus from *stratification* to *status* (Kipnis, 2004) and to an emphasis on the person's *individuality*, *self-expression*, *self-*

- fulfillment, self-realization, and a stylistic self-consciousness* (Cahill, 1994).
3. *Spatial analysis* of lifestyle has not gained momentum yet. However, its beginnings have focused on how traditional dividing lines between classes or status groups explain the diversity in mobility and the effects of values a person has on his/her housing location. Another important issue is the influence of gender on labor participation of women (Doorn, 1989; Bootsma, 1995; Camstra, 1996).
 4. *Economic research* incorporated lifestyle attributes by pointing out the importance of preferences and habits of individuals in explaining labor supply (Woittiez, 1990). These studies dealt with lifestyle related economic concepts of 'taste shifters', 'habit formation' and 'interdependency of preferences'. Other economic studies have incorporated the effects of unobservable worker attributes and the effects of social capital indicators on earnings and returns (Leibowitz, 1974; Kazamaki-Ottersten, 1998). An application of the lifestyle concept in labor demand is Van der Ploeg (1993; 1994) who analyzed the effects of farming styles on production.

After this brief discussion of the lifestyle concept, its historical roots and application to various fields of study, the next section applies the lifestyle concept to labor supply modeling.

A LIFESTYLE-LABOR SUPPLY MODEL

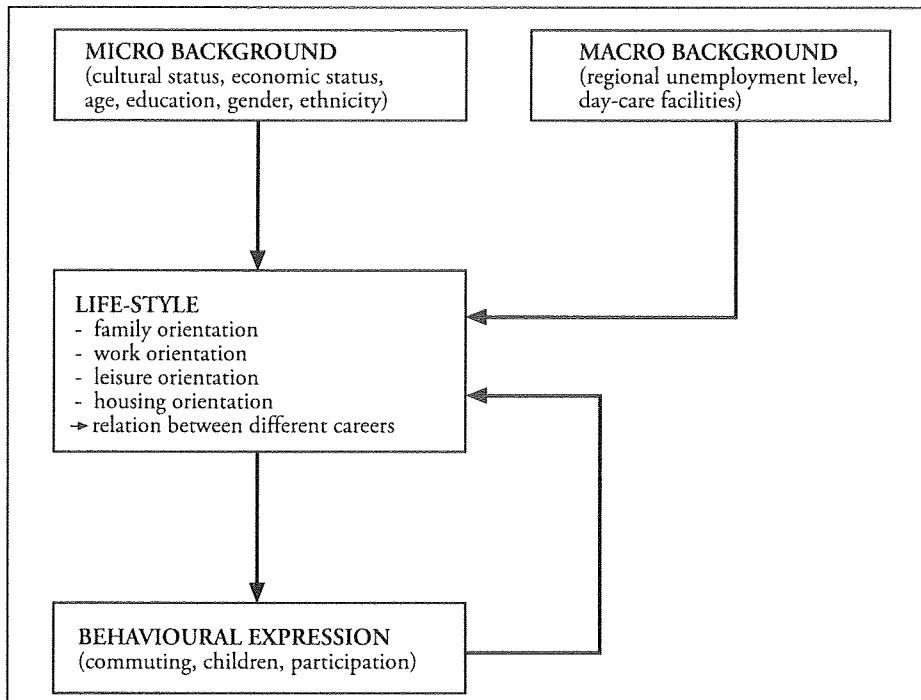
The attributes of the lifestyle concept and the methodologies employed in earlier studies, were used for the design of a new lifestyle-labor supply model. The model assumes that people behave strategically different and variations in this explain differences in labor supply. Aggregation is based on similarities in lifestyle. Although aggregation is necessary for analyzing total labor supply, groups of suppliers should be distinguished, since disaggregation results in better model estimations (Elhorst, 1997). We adapt the lifestyle concept to the analysis of labor supply in three stages. First, a theoretical framework specifies the different factors that influence lifestyle: the general model. Following this, a path-model is specified in which labor supply is central. After that, we analyze empirically the effects on the work orientation of different lifestyles related to the family, housing, consumption and leisure.

The general model

The general model of the factors that influence lifestyle is shown in Figure 1. Individuals have specific characteristics which they did not (completely) choose themselves, but still influences their behavior. These are the micro and macro background characteristics. The traditional determinants like cultural and economic status, age, educational level, gender or ethnicity, are regarded as micro background variables. Also in our model these variables are taken into account. Moreover, the macro environment in which an individual lives restricts or offers possibilities for a

certain lifestyle. For instance more day-care facilities and a low unemployment level will stimulate a work oriented lifestyle. These macro background characteristics in particular include the institutional and regional elements in our model.

Figure 1: The general model of labor supply behavior based on a dynamic lifestyle concept.



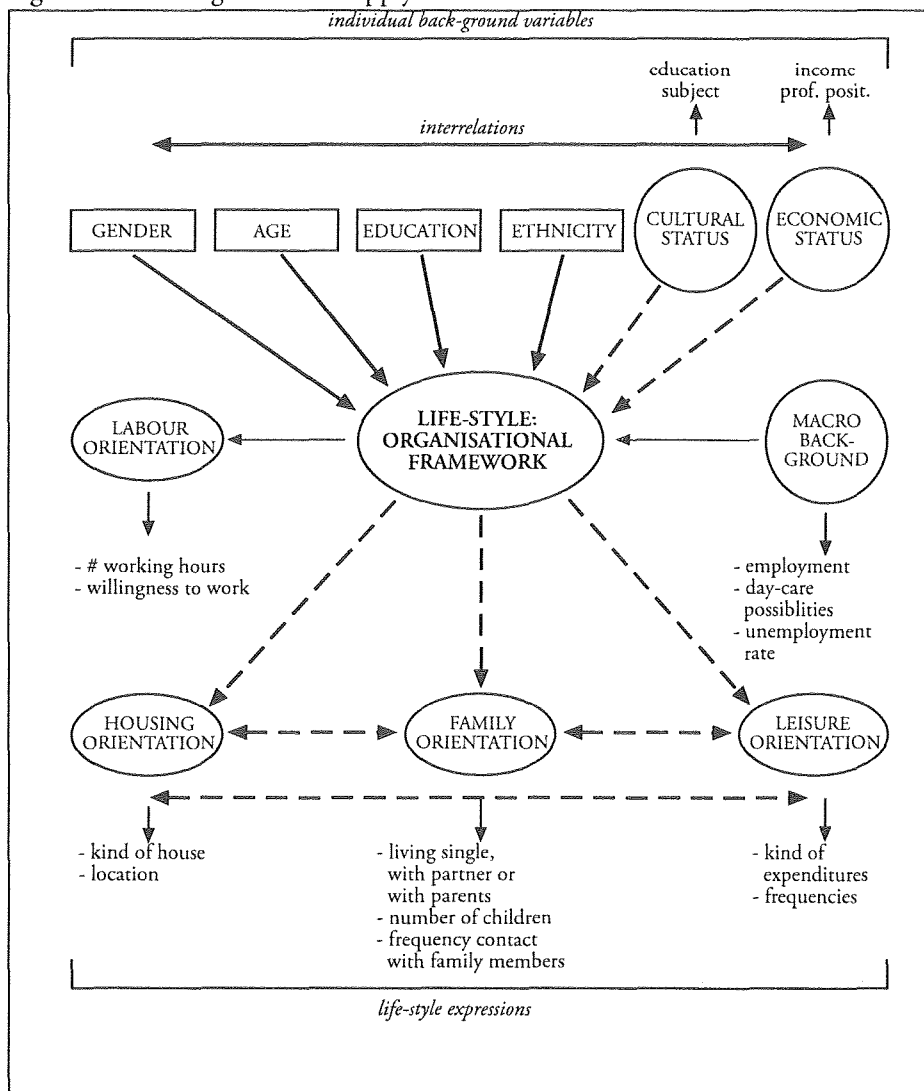
However, individuals also have characteristics resulting from a specific mix of the micro- and macro variables. So, we make a distinction between background characteristics and lifestyle orientations. The orientations distinguished are: work, family, housing and leisure. The lifestyle also includes the relation between different orientations. The behavioral choice, the lifestyle, results in different behavioral expressions like the willingness to work. Moreover, background variables and the individual mix may change, thus the lifestyle is dynamic. Yet, a lifestyle once chosen, due to the feedback chain involved, tends to restrict future lifestyles. In summary, variations in a persons' behavior depend on the micro- and macro background characteristics and the manner these are combined in a specific lifestyle.

The lifestyle-labor supply model

LISREL modeling (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1994) is capable of assessing the es-

amentals of a lifestyle and distinguishing between background characteristics and lifestyle expressions. In this method, lifestyle is considered as a latent variable specified by several manifest variables. Combining this with log-linear analysis results in probabilities of a certain lifestyle, like, given certain background variables, the probability to participate at the labor market for a specific number of hours. So, a combination of LISREL and log-linear analysis seems suited: the modified LISREL approach. The model explains labor behavior by the lifestyle. To this end, lifestyle based on styles in relation to, for example, the family, housing, and leisure is used to explain labor orientation (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Path-diagram labor supply model.



In the figure latent variables are placed in circles and observed, manifest variables in rectangles. Indicators measuring latent variables, including labor orientation, are also observed variables. In the figure, the effects of the manifest background variables are indicated by a bold arrow and the effects of latent variables on other latent variables by a broken arrow. The relationship between latent variables and manifest indicators like the labor orientation are presented as thin straight arrows.

Measurement of the model

To find out whether the model really ‘works’, we trace firstly different types of lifestyle and, secondly, how these styles contribute to the explanation of variations in labor supply. Therefore, we first estimated models for family, housing, consumption, and leisure styles. Following this, we investigated whether a specific pattern in the mix of these styles exists. If true, we have traced different lifestyles. After this, we estimate the effects of the lifestyle on labor supply, indicated by the number of (desired) hours of work.

LIFESTYLES AND WORK

For an indication of the family style we use variables related to parenthood, partnership, independence, and intensity of raising children. For the housing style, we use dwelling expenses, ownership, duration and type of house. For consumption we look at the quantity, and for the leisure style we use the frequency and diversity. The styles are estimated by the modified LISREL-approach. The analysis itself is performed with the program LEM (Vermunt, 1997) and the data used were from the Social Economic Panel 1995 of Statistics Netherlands (CBS, 1995). This panel includes about 8357 persons of 16 years or older. Although we will not discuss the mathematical derivations here (see Versantvoort, 2000), the analysis resulted in specific styles in relation to the family, housing, consumption and leisure. Table 2 shows the content of the various styles.

Table 2: Family, housing, consumption and leisure styles.

Family styles

- F1 = no children, unmarried, living alone
- F2 = two or more children, married
- F3 = no children, living with parents, unmarried
- F4 = no children, living with others, partner, unmarried
- F5 = young or older children, living with others, married
- F6 = no children, living with others, married

Housing styles

- H1 = no or very low dwelling expenses for a detached or two-roofed house that is owned and living there for a long time

Table 2 cont.

H2 = low dwelling expenses, living in an apartment that is rented and living there for a short time
H3 = very high dwelling expenses, living in a detached house that is owned and living there for a short time
H4 = high dwelling expenses, living in a row house that is owned, and living there for a very short time
H5 = moderate dwelling expenses; rented row house
H6 = moderate dwelling expenses; row house or two roofed house that is owned and living there for a short time
<i>Consumption styles</i>
C1 = not or weakly consumption oriented
C2 = strongly consumption oriented
<i>Leisure styles</i>
L1 = only contacts with family, friends and neighbors
L2 = moderately oriented to leisure activities
L3 = strongly oriented to leisure activities
L4 = not oriented to leisure activities at all

In relation to the family-orientation, six different styles appeared. Also six different housing styles could be traced. In the field of consumption two different styles showed up. Lastly, four different leisure styles could be distinguished. The next question is about finding groups with a similar mix of styles according to family, housing, consumption, and leisure. On the basis of various test-statistics, a model with nine types of lifestyles fitted the data best (Versantvoort, 2000). In shorthand these lifestyles (LS) have the following characteristics:

LS1: traditional families strongly consumption oriented

This lifestyle includes 6 percent of the population. People in this category are married and have one or two children of age 0-4 or 13+. They have very low dwelling expenses for an own house and have a very long dwelling history at that location. Moreover, they are strongly consumption oriented and moderately leisure oriented.

LS2: traditional families weakly consumption oriented owning a house

This category includes 23 percent of the population. People with this style are married, have more than two children between 5-12 years old. They have moderate dwelling expenses for a two-roofed or row own house, but with a short to moderate dwelling history. Moreover, people in this category are weakly consumption and leisure oriented.

LS3: traditional couples

People in this group are married and have one or two children that are 0-4 or 13+ years old, or have no children. They have low dwelling expenses for a moderately sized own house with a relatively long dwelling history. They are also weakly con-

sumption and moderately leisure oriented. In total this group includes 12 percent of the population.

LS4: traditional families weakly consumption oriented renting a row house

People in this category, including 13 percent of the population, are married and have children which are mostly between 5-12 years old. They have moderate dwelling expenses for a rented row house and are weakly consumption and moderately leisure oriented.

LS5: modern singles

People in this category of 7 percent are single without children, and have low to moderate dwelling expenses for a rented apartment with a very short dwelling history. They are weakly consumption oriented but strongly leisure oriented.

LS6: modern couples

Also this category includes 7 percent of the population. People in this group are not married and have no children. They do have a partner though. They have low to moderate dwelling expenses for a rented apartment and a very short dwelling history. They are also weakly consumption and strongly leisure oriented.

LS7: transitional couples

This group of 10 percent of the population is married and has either no children or one or two children. People in this category have high dwelling expenses for a detached or row house owned by them. They also have a short dwelling history, are weakly consumption oriented and moderately or strongly leisure oriented.

LS8: transitional families

This category of 10 percent is married and quite heterogeneous as far as the number of children is concerned. They have mostly very high dwelling expenses for an own detached house and have a very short dwelling history. They are strongly consumption oriented and moderately to strongly leisure oriented.

LS9: traditional singles

This is quite a special group as these people live with their parents. It includes 12 percent of the population. Moreover, they are single and have no children. They are moderately consumption oriented and strongly leisure oriented.

Table 3: Effects of lifestyles on the work-orientation (generalized odds).

<i>Lifestyle</i>	<i>Category</i>	<i>> 12 hours</i>
Traditional families, high consumption	LS1	0.98
Traditional families, weak consumption, house owners	LS2	1.06
Traditional couples	LS3	0.41
Traditional families, weak consumption, renting row house	LS4	0.90
Modern singles	LS5	1.07
Modern couples	LS6	1.72
Transitional couples	LS7	5.52
Transitional families	LS8	0.98
Traditional singles	LS9	0.27

After having discussed, in shorthand, the character of the various lifestyles, we now reach the important question of how these lifestyles influence the work orientation. How does lifestyle, together with background variables, influence the work orientation as indicated by the number of (desired) hours of work? For this, Table 3 is useful. It shows how a specific lifestyle, and including background characteristics, determines the work orientation. Table 3 uses so-called odds-ratios which indicate the conditional probability that persons in a category show behavior in contrast to persons that are not in that category. For example, the odds of being employed or the desire to be employed for at least 12 hours per week, versus not, is on average 1.72 times greater for those with the lifestyle 'modern couple' (LS6), than for persons with another lifestyle. The relative prevalence of (the desire to be) employed versus not, is highest for 'transitional couples' (LS7), followed by 'modern couples' (LS6), 'modern singles' (LS5), and 'traditional families weakly consumption oriented with an owned standard house' (LS2). Persons with other lifestyles have odds lower than average. Persons who are 'traditional single' (LS9) have on average the lowest odds, followed by persons with lifestyle 'traditional couple' (LS3), 'traditional family weakly consumption oriented with a rented row house' (LS4). For the two categories 'traditional family strongly consumption oriented' (LS1) and 'transitional families' (LS8), the difference in odds of being employed versus not is small.

THE REGIONAL CONTEXT OF LIFESTYLES

Lifestyles result in quite some variation in labor supply. From a spatial perspective it is interesting to analyze whether a spatial pattern in the location of these various lifestyles can be traced. Therefore we elaborate the regional context of the lifestyles, assuming that locational differences between locations in values and attitudes of people influence the characteristics of persons and by this the lifestyle. However, the relation between location and behavior can also be structured by that person with a specific lifestyle chosen for a specific environment. In this article we do not analyze the causal direction of the relationship between lifestyle and location, but focus on the probability of having a specific lifestyle in specific locations.

To investigate the relationship between locations and lifestyle, we estimated different modified Lisrel models. We distinguish four categories of 'location': highly urbanized areas, other areas within urban conglomerations, the intermediary zone and the periphery (van Oort, 1995). We test how lifestyle depends on location and use again generalized odds ratios as presented in Table 4. In this table, a value of 1 indicates that the chance of being at that location is even with the chance of being at another location. A value higher than 1 indicates a larger chance, below 1 a lower one. For example, the value of 0.3943 for persons with lifestyle LS1 (= traditional family strongly consumption oriented) indicates that the chance that people with

this lifestyle live in a highly urbanized area is 0.3943 times smaller than elsewhere. For this lifestyle LS1, the chance is highest in the periphery (2.3045).

If we look at the four different locations, it shows up that the *highly urbanized area* is favorite (underlined in the table) for people of having lifestyle LS5 (modern single) or LS6 (modern couple). This location is substantially less favored by the other lifestyles. The *other parts of the urban conglomeration* are particular favorite for lifestyle LS7 (transitional couples). The *intermediary zone* has the highest preference for many lifestyles including lifestyle LS2 (traditional families, weakly consumption oriented, and owning a house), LS3 (traditional couples), LS4 (traditional families, weakly consumption oriented, renting a row house), and LS9 (traditional singles). The *periphery* is most favorite for lifestyle LS1 (traditional couples, strongly consumption oriented) and LS8 (transitional families).

Table 4: Generalized odds ratios for locational effects.

<i>Highly urbanized area</i>	<i>Location</i>			<i>Work orientation Lifestyle (>12 hours)</i>
	<i>Urban conglomeration</i>	<i>Intermediary Zone</i>	<i>Periphery</i>	
0.3943	0.6939	1.5862	<u>2.3045</u>	LS1 0.98
0.6012	1.2534	<u>1.3327</u>	0.9960	LS2 1.06
0.7993	1.0609	<u>1.1133</u>	1.0591	LS3 0.41
0.7711	1.0012	<u>1.2469</u>	1.0388	LS4 0.90
<u>4.7527</u>	0.7964	0.4970	0.5316	LS5 1.07
<u>5.2310</u>	0.9739	0.4197	0.4677	LS6 1.72
0.8394	<u>1.3733</u>	1.0045	0.8635	LS7 5.52
0.4650	1.1421	1.2738	<u>1.4785</u>	LS8 0.98
0.7055	0.8899	<u>1.2766</u>	1.2477	LS9 0.27
1.12	0.20	0.34	0.47	Variation coefficient

If we look at the lifestyles with the highest work-orientation (odd-ratios above 1; bold in Table 4), we see that LS2 with a general work orientation of 1.06, can be found particular in the other areas within urban conglomeration and in the intermediary zone. LS5 and LS6 with work-orientations of respectively 1.07 and 1.72, are very strongly overrepresented in the highly urbanized areas. The last category of LS7, with a more than average work-orientation of 5.52, is again overrepresented in the urban conglomeration. The spatial pattern of the groups with a high work-orientation shows that, except for the peripheral areas, all regions have a larger than average probability to accommodate one or more of these categories. However, the character of the groups with a high working-orientation differs substantially for each location. While for the highly urbanized locations these are particularly the lifestyles LS5 and LS6, for the other areas within the urban agglomeration, these are the lifestyles LS2 and LS7. For the intermediary zone LS2, and to a lesser degree LS7, are

also important.

From a regional view it is also interesting to look at the variation of the relative probability to encounter specific lifestyles and working orientations at various locations. This is indicated by a simple variation coefficient. Table 4 shows in the last row, that the highly urbanized areas are the most biased. The high variation coefficient of 1.12 in these areas indicates that the chance to encounter many different supply groups is rather low. This is quite in contrast to the other parts of the urban conglomeration where the probability to encounter different lifestyles is highest. The low variation coefficient of 0.20 indicates that in these areas various lifestyles and work-orientations are probable. Although with a coefficient of 0.34 somewhat less, also the intermediary zone shows this variety. The peripheral area shows less variety. In conclusion, the relation between location and the presence of different life styles has an inverted U-shape: low variation in the most central urban areas, higher levels in the other areas of the urban conglomeration and the intermediary zone and again lower variation in the peripheral areas.

CONCLUSIONS

Traditional labor market models have primarily considered 'economic' factors as the key variables for explaining labor supply. In addition to this, social and institutional factors such as age, gender or day-care facilities are included. However, since individuality has increased enormously and social diversity has become standard, explaining labor supply has become more complex. In this context we argue that the lifestyle concept is a pivotal implement for explaining labor supply in an increasing complex environment.

The concept of lifestyle is defined as the value an individual assigns to various aspects of life and to the institutional framework and, as in our case, to his/her work orientation. This manuscript advanced the notion that the lifestyle approach has a clear cut advantage in explaining labor supply compared with the traditional method that perceives *economic, social and institutional background variables* as the exclusive factors determining labor supply. More specific, in our view, social groups reflect *strategic behavior*, namely the lifestyle of the persons involved. In the lifestyle approach labor supply is determined by both the background variables as well as by their behavioral choices. The lifestyle concept is anchored with similar applications in sociology, consumer behavior research, marketing, and recently in some spatial and economic research.

For the lifestyle-labor supply model, a modified LISREL model was adopted. By using this model, firstly, some typical styles were discovered in relation to the family, housing, consumption and leisure. For the family-orientation, six different styles appeared. Also six different housing styles could be traced. In the field of consumption two different styles showed up. Lastly, four different leisure styles

could be distinguished. The next question was about finding groups with a similar mix of styles according to family, housing, consumption, and leisure. On the basis of various test-statistics, a model with nine types of lifestyles fitted the data best. Following this, these lifestyles were analyzed for their work orientation indicated by the number of (desired) hours of work. It showed up that the prevalence of (the desire to be) employed is highest for the so-called 'transitional couples', followed by 'modern couples', 'modern singles', and 'traditional families'. Persons with other lifestyles are less available for the labor market.

In order to investigate whether the regional context affects lifestyle, we distinguished four locations: highly urbanized areas, other areas within urban conglomerations, the intermediary zone, and the periphery. The lifestyles with the highest work-orientations are found particularly in the urban conglomeration and the intermediary zone. The analysis of the variation of the probability to encounter specific working styles showed that this probability is highest in the other areas within urban conglomerations. Although somewhat less also the intermediary zone shows this variety. The peripheral area shows less variety. The most biased are, however, the highly urbanized areas. Here, the chance to encounter different supply groups is rather low. The relation between location and the presence of different life styles has an inverted U-shape. The variation is low in the central urban area and rises at first with an increasing distance from this location. At the largest distance, in the peripheral areas, the variation is again low.

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