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Of major importance to many married women seeking employment in Australia is the availability of part-time work. To describe the economic aspects of part-time employment for women, a review was made of statistics published by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics and of research on part-time employment in overseas countries, and a preliminary survey was made of six Melbourne manufacturing firms employing part-time workers. Though the amount of research in this area was scarce, these features were noted: (1) Part-time employment is sought by many married women and the number of married women is increasing, (2) Few working mothers use child care centers, (3) Under certain conditions, employers may institute part-time employment, often with initial reluctance which later leads to greater acceptance of such arrangements, (4) Employers are introducing part-time employment for a variety of reasons, including relieving general manpower shortage, extending plant utilization, and retaining services of experienced employers who withdraw from full-time employment, and (5) Part-time work is likely to be a permanent and important feature of the labor force. Some definitions for part-time work and comparisons of working women in different countries are appended. (SB)
COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA
DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR AND NATIONAL SERVICE

WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE
WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE

This series of publications presents research findings, articles, statistical data and other information dealing with various aspects of women’s employment and their role in Australian society. The series is prepared in the Women’s Bureau of the Department of Labour and National Service.

The Department is interested in the developing role of women in the work force and is concerned with encouraging the best possible use of the talents and abilities of Australian women. Accordingly, this series is designed for those involved in personnel management, employer and employee organisations, and for education and training officers. It is also directed towards research workers and other organisations and individuals interested in the economic, industrial and social trends affecting the employment of women and girls.

No specific interval between issues is planned for the series; they will be published as results of research studies become available.

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2. Trends in Employment .... .... .... July 1967
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6. Facts and Figures (revised) .... December 1968
7. Child Care Centres .... .... January 1970
8. Some Aspects of Part-Time Work .... September 1970
Some Aspects of
PART-TIME WORK

WOMEN'S BUREAU
DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR AND NATIONAL SERVICE

September, 1970
Melbourne
CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES .......................................................... 5

INTRODUCTION ............................................................ 7

PART 1: Part-Time Employment in Australia ......................... 10

PART 2: Aspects of Part-time Employment in Six Manufacturing
Firms ........................................................................... 13

PART 3: Part-Time Employment in Overseas Countries ............ 18

CONCLUSION .................................................................... 23

APPENDIX I: Defining Part-Time Work ................................. 25

APPENDIX II: Married Women Working ............................... 27

BIBLIOGRAPHY ............................................................. 29
LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1: Growth in Female Proportion of Labour Force, 1901-1970 ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 8

TABLE 2: Growth in Proportion of Married Women in the Female Labour Force, 1954-1970 ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 8

TABLE 3: Part-time Workers by Age, February 1970 ... ... ... 10

TABLE 4: Employment in Six Firms, 1969 ... ... ... ... 13

TABLE 5: Married Women Working ... ... ... ... 27

FIGURE 1: Married Women Employed by Industry Groups in Australia, 1970 ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 11
INTRODUCTION

It is apparent that many married women with children will seek employment if employment is available which allows them to effectively combine their dual roles as housewives and workers. Whether employment is adequate in these terms depends largely on hours of work, location, availability of transport and so on as well as on whether appropriate child care arrangements can be made. Of major importance to many married women seeking employment is the availability of work for specific hours, in other words, of part-time employment.

The Women's Bureau, as a further contribution to questions affecting women and work, presents here a series of preliminary studies on part-time work. The material from these preliminary studies has also been used as the basis for a wider study now in progress on employer attitudes to part-time work.

This booklet highlights some economic aspects of part-time employment, particularly as it affects women, both in Australia and overseas.

The first part reviews statistics of part-time employment published by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics (C.B.C.S.).

This is followed by the report of a preliminary survey of six Melbourne manufacturing firms employing part-time workers. The results suggest some features which may be of immediate interest to other employers facing labour shortages and seeking new sources of labour.

The third part reviews some research on part-time employment in overseas countries. It complements the Australian material by outlining findings in countries which apparently have had more experience of, and documented more research on, part-time employment.

Background:

The Australian Labour Market

The Australian labour market has been characterized during recent years by full employment with an increasing demand for labour.

It is estimated by the C.B.C.S. that from February 1967 to February 1970 the labour force increased from 4.94 million to 5.37 million, an average annual increase of some 140,000 persons. This increase has been accompanied by a consistently low percentage of unemployment—never more than 1.8 per cent of the labour force were unemployed throughout the three year period. From November 1969 to March 1970, statistics based on Commonwealth Employment Service transactions, show that the number of unemployed persons has continued to decrease, while vacancies have increased. In March and April 1970, there were more job vacancies than persons seeking employment.

One of the ways in which this increasing demand for labour is being met is by the growing participation of women, par-
particularly married women, in employment. This is discussed firstly in terms of the growth of the female workforce and secondly in terms of the participation of married women in the workforce.

The female labour force has increased greatly in absolute numbers in recent decades. In 1954, the female labour force numbered 845,400 while in February 1970 it was estimated to be 1,706,400. The extent of this increase is somewhat inflated because of the new criteria for the labour force applied in the 1966 Census.* Even so, the actual increase has been most significant. The size of the female labour force, as a percentage of the total labour force, is shown in Table 1.

**TABLE 1:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Female Labour Force as % of Total Labour Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>29.5†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>31.8†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* See first footnote page 8.
† Estimated February, 1970.

However, of more significance is the change which has taken place within the female labour force. In 1954, married women constituted only 30.5% of the female labour force, while today they are the predominant group. See Table 2.

The tendency for married women to become the predominant group within the female labour force intensified between 1966 and 1970. It was estimated that between February 1969 and February 1970 the total labour force grew by 166,400 persons. At the same time, there was a slight increase in the number of females, other than married women, in the labour force. The estimated increase in the number of married women working between February 1969 and February 1970 was 69,800. Close to half of this increase represented those in part-time employment.

Thus the growth in the labour force of more than 166,400 persons in the year February 1969 to February 1970† has been brought about largely by the increased participation in the work force of married women, many of whom sought part-time rather than full-time employment. Part-time employment is evidently an important inducement to the woman worker with family responsibilities to re-enter employment.

**Defining Part-time Work**

One of the major difficulties in a discussion of part-time work is the absence of any universally accepted definition.

* It was estimated by the Commonwealth Statistician that approximately 177,000 more women in the 1966 Census have been included in the labour force than would have been included if the criteria of 1961 had been applied. See Women in the Work Force, No. 6, "Facts and Figures", 1968.

† It should be noted that this growth for 1969 was atypical in that it was far in excess of the average annual growth rate of some 140,000 persons experienced in recent years.
The International Labour Organization has defined part-time employment as being "Regular, voluntary work carried out during working hours distinctly shorter than normal".

However most countries do not regard this as being operational and there is no consensus of opinion as to what constitutes "working hours distinctly shorter than normal".

Consequently, it should be noted that particularly when discussing overseas patterns of part-time employment, discrepancies are likely to occur both because of the varying bases for the statistics and the varying definitions used. A full discussion of the differing definitions adopted by various countries including Australia, and the difficulties which these pose for purposes of international comparisons is given in Appendix I.
Part 1: PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN AUSTRALIA
A REVIEW OF LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES
AUGUST 1966—FEBRUARY 1970

In 1969 the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics initiated a series of quarterly publications presenting estimates of the labour force which include, for the first time, data on part-time employment.* These estimates show that approximately 11 per cent of the Australian labour force works part-time. As might be anticipated women make up more than three-quarters of the part-time labour force, and most of these women are married.

The estimates make it clear that differences in working hours among married women, other women† and men are substantial. Since August 1966, the average working week of married women has been 32 hours or less. "Other women"‡ have worked an average of 35 to 36 hours, and men, in excess of 41 hours. Few women work overtime, whereas one-third of all male workers do. On the other hand, between one-quarter and one-third of all women work part-time. Four out of every ten married women who work do so on a part-time basis.

It is also apparent that almost all women working part-time do so from choice and not because of any lack of availability of full-time work.

The age pattern of part-time workers is of interest. Among men, students and retired persons predominate as would be expected, i.e., those less than 20 years and more than 65 years. Among the group of women who are not married (including single women, widows and divorcees), the predominant groups are those less than 20 years and those 45 to 54 years. This would seem to correspond to the student group for the young women, and perhaps the newly widowed in the older group. But among married women, nearly 60 per cent of the part-time workers are in the 25 to 44 age range. See Table 3.

TABLE 3:
Part-time Workers by Age, February 1970
("000s")

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group (years)</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>Other*</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>111.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>108.5</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>116.3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>126.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>77.9</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>92.7</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>105.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and over</td>
<td>†</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>333.9</td>
<td>85.8</td>
<td>419.7</td>
<td>120.4</td>
<td>540.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Includes never married, widowed, and divorced women.
† Less than 4,000.
‡ Includes never married, widowed, and divorced women.

The industrial distribution of employed married women varies according to whether they work full-time or part-time. More than half of all married women in...
agriculture, work part-time.* Similarly the service industries offer many opportunities for married women to undertake part-time employment. Almost half of the married women employed in community and business services (which includes education, health, hospitals, social welfare, and so on) and amusements, hotels and personal service, work part-time.

Manufacturing industry which admittedly uses more capital equipment per worker than any other industry, offers least part-time work to married women employed. Only about one-sixth of the married women employed in the manufacturing industry work part-time. Yet this industry is the largest employer of married women.

Another industry employing a substantial number of married women is

*Women in agriculture were particularly affected by the changed criteria of the 1966 Census.
WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE

commerce. It offers relatively less part-time employment to its married women employees than any of the service industries. See Figure 1.

In the May 1969 quarterly survey the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics sought information as to whether mothers with children less than six years old, were engaged in full or part-time work.

Of the 205,500 mothers* with children under 6 years who were in the labour force, nearly three-quarters had only one child in this age range. However, of these mothers* with only one child under six years, more than half worked full-time (57.5 per cent).

Among the smaller group of working mothers* with two or more children under 6 years, this situation was reversed i.e., most were in part-time employment.

The total number of mothers* with children under six years employed on a part-time basis was 96,000.

SUMMARY

- About 11% of the Australian labour force works part-time and the majority of these part-time workers are women.
- The average number of hours worked by married women in the labour force is lower than the average number of hours worked by other women, and women on the whole work shorter hours than men.
- The male part-time worker is most likely to be less than 20 years or more than 65 years old; the married female part-time worker is most likely to be in the 25 to 54 age range.
- Almost all persons working part-time state that they prefer such work.
- Part-time employment is likely to be a permanent feature of the labour force with increasing numbers of married women seeking employment.
- Working mothers with two or more children under six years of age are more likely to be in part-time than in full-time employment; but the majority of working mothers with only one child under six work full-time rather than part-time.

* and fathers who were solely responsible for the care of young children.
Part 2: ASPECTS OF PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN SIX MANUFACTURING FIRMS

Scope of the Study

In October and November 1969 personal interviews were carried out by officers of the Department of Labour and National Service with the management of six manufacturing firms in Melbourne. The firms selected were known to employ workers on a part-time basis.

The aim of the study was to investigate the part-time employment arrangements in the firms and to determine the main reasons for the introduction of part-time work and whether trends noted in overseas studies could be discerned locally. (A review of some of the major trends in overseas countries is given in Part III of this report).

The study was carried out in one food manufacturing firm, two textile firms and three light engineering firms. The firms ranged in size from medium to large—employing between 150 and 650 persons. In the context of this report the firms are identified as follows:

Firm A — food manufacturer
Firms B & C — textile manufacturers
Firms D, E & F — light engineering manufacturers.

Extent of Part-time Employment

At the time of the study the employers' experience with part-time employment appeared to have been for a relatively limited period. Four firms had been employing workers on a part-time basis for only a few months in 1969 and the other firms (Firms B and D) had been doing so continuously since 1964/65. The number of part-time employees in the firms surveyed varied from 5 in one firm to 79 in another. The two firms with the longest experience of part-time employment also employed most part-time workers. See Table 4.

TABLE 4:
Employment in Six Firms, 1969

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Firm</th>
<th>Date*</th>
<th>Part-Time</th>
<th>Full-Time</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>Persons</td>
<td>Females</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>14 (14)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1964</td>
<td>25 (21)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>4 (4)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>72 (72)</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>15 (15)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>1969</td>
<td>17 (17)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>1,077</td>
<td>2,053</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Date of introduction of part-time employment.
† Number of married women shown in brackets.
‡ Number of married women not known.
From the limited data available, no relationship between the size of the firm and the extent of part-time employment is apparent. However, the two largest firms, both employing more than 600 persons, employed only two per cent of their total employees on a part-time basis. In contrast, the firms with experience of part-time employment since 1964/65, made up 17 per cent and 31 per cent respectively of their total employment with part-time workers (Firms B and D).

In both of these firms, one textile and one light engineering, a substantial part of their total female employment was part-time. (22 per cent in Firm B and 45 per cent in Firm D). In all the other firms, few of the female workers were employed part-time. There were male part-time workers in only three firms and these made up but a fraction of total male employment in each case.

As to the marital status of the female part-time worker, the trend observed in the Australian labour force statistics (see Part I, p. 10) was apparent in the six firms also. Between 78 per cent and 100 per cent of the female part-time employees were married women. Five of the firms indicated that their part-time employees were mainly younger married women under the age of 35 years, while the sixth indicated that married women over the age of 35 made up most of their part-time labour force. (This firm was one with experience of part-time employment since 1965).

**Reason for Part-time Employment**

All six firms stated that they introduced part-time employment because of an acute shortage of full-time labour. The employers in this study regarded organizing part-time employment for married women as a logical means of solving their labour shortage.

The introduction of part-time employment was regarded as successful by five of the firms; the sixth firm had introduced part-time employment only four months previously and employed only five part-time workers out of a total employment of 241.

The availability of part-time employment did not appear to be influenced by seasonal factors; five of the six firms employed part-time workers throughout the year.

**Child-care Arrangements**

The child care arrangements made by working mothers in the six firms was of interest. Five firms indicated that it was their policy when recruiting part-time workers to ask whether they had young dependant children and what arrangements were being made for their care. The information obtained indicated that these working mothers relied on relatives, friends and neighbours to look after their pre-school aged children. Only occasionally were creches mentioned.

Three of the firms had considered opening a creche in their areas either alone, or in co-operation with other firms. Because of the problems associated with finding adequate care for young children, two of these firms employed mostly women whose children were at school.

**Working Shifts and Hours**

The part-timers in each of the six firms worked several hours, five days a week, with the exception of a few pensioners who were employed for only a couple of
days a week. There was a variety of individual arrangements as to starting and finishing times with morning, afternoon and evening shifts for part-time workers. In order to make greater use of capital equipment one firm had, in addition to the day shift, a “twilight” shift from 5 p.m. to 9 p.m. However, the most widespread arrangement for part-time employees was to work from 9 a.m. to 3.30 p.m., Monday to Friday. Some firms operated shorter shifts on Fridays to allow the women time for shopping.

Although there were variations in arrangements depending on the nature of the work, the scarcity of labour, the consideration given to the wishes of the part-time worker, and so on, most of the firms preferred to use their part-time employees on six to seven hour shifts daily.

Only the two firms with most experience of part-time employment had given consideration to a “split” shift scheme (one full-time shift performed by two part-time workers each working for four hours). Three of the firms were so flexible in organising the working hours of their part-time employees that individual arrangements were possible virtually.

**Skill Characteristics and Training**

The jobs occupied by the part-timers in the six firms of the manufacturing industry could be classified as unskilled and semi-skilled.

The part-timers usually commenced productive work immediately and had “on-the-job training” of a very simple nature. This was reported to be the case of five firms. Only one firm offered specific training of short duration for their part-timers as well as for their full-timers.

Two of the firms used their part-timers to provide relief in any of a number of jobs in their factories.

It was reported in two of the firms that the quality of the unskilled workers was higher among part-timers than among full-timers as the employers had a broader range of people from whom to select.*

**Costs and Benefits of Part-time Work**

Little has been done to measure quantitatively the advantages and disadvantages of part-time employment. The conclusions reached by the employers were for the most part based on subjective rather than objective measures.

The six firms said that the work performed by part-time female production workers was of the same type as that performed by full-time female production workers. One firm indicated that the full-timers had a tendency to get the “cream of the jobs”.

Only two firms had objective evidence on the productivity of part-time workers, and their findings differed. One reported higher productivity, while the other found that part-time workers were less productive than full-time workers. However, the firm reporting lower productivity was also the firm which gave the pick of the jobs to full-time workers. Among the four firms without objective evidence, three shared the opinion that the part-timers probably achieved higher productivity, while the fourth thought that the lack of recent work experience of part-time workers resulted in these workers having lower productivity initially.

*This extra merit from part-time employment had not been anticipated by the two firms.
Opinions differed markedly on the question of absence rates of part-time workers. Only three employers had objective evidence on this question, and two of these showed higher absence rates and one, lower. Of the other firms, two thought there was no difference in absence rates between full and part-time workers and one thought they were lower among part-time workers.

On the question of labour turnover, three of the firms with some record on labour turnover, found that part-time workers were less likely to quit their job than full-time workers. Two of the other firms thought that part-timers had a slightly higher rate of turnover. Of the two firms with most experience of part-time employment, one reported lower turnover for part-time workers (based on evidence) and the other thought there was no difference.

The disadvantages caused by part-time employment can be summarized as extra administrative and other overhead costs which must be borne much to the same extent whether the work is part-time or full-time.

Four firms said part-time employment caused them some production difficulties. Inadequate utilization of capital equipment was regarded as a major disadvantage in one firm in which some costly machinery operated by part-time workers was utilized for only 27½ hours instead of 40 hours per week.

However, another firm set aside specific machines for part-time workers and found that the higher productivity of part-time workers offset the under-utilization of the machinery.

Another firm overcame the problem of under-utilization of machinery by establishing a “twilight” shift, in addition to the usual day shift.

Wages, Holidays, and Sick Leave

With regard to pay, two of the firms treated the part-timers as casual workers and gave them a higher rate of pay than full-time workers but no fringe benefits. Another firm paid 12½% above the hourly rate of full-time workers and allowed in addition to that, some sick leave and holiday leave. The other three firms paid the award wages in proportion to the number of hours worked and allowed both sick leave and holiday leave on a proportionate basis. Two of these firms indicated they would also give long service leave to part-time workers, while the third did not consider anyone would stay long enough to qualify for this benefit.

Reaction from the Full-time Employees

The employers stated that there was little reaction from the full-time production workers to the introduction of part-time production work. Only one firm experienced initial antagonism, but this was temporary.

Attitudes of the Employers

The six employers tended to look on part-time employment as something temporary, which they hoped to dispense with as soon as the supply of full-time labour increased. All clearly stated that they would abolish part-time employment if full-time labour was readily available. Two of the firms indicated that they would rely on the natural turnover of labour to phase out part-time employment, if sufficient full-time labour became available.
SUMMARY

- Part-time employment was introduced in the six manufacturing firms as a result of difficulties faced in recruiting full-time staff.
- Among the six firms employing a total of approximately 2,200 persons, less than 200 persons were employed part-time.
- Almost all of the people employed part-time were married women.
- Morning, afternoon and evening shifts were worked on a part-time basis, but the most usual arrangement was a shift from 9 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. One firm arranged a "twilight" shift from 5 p.m. to 9 p.m.
- Few facts were available on productivity, turnover and absence rates and the opinions expressed on these issues tended to be divided.
- Pro-rata award wages and leave were available for part-time workers in three out of the six firms; casual rates, but no fringe benefits, in two firms; and above award hourly payments with some fringe benefits in the sixth firm.
- Employers tended to regard part-time employment as a temporary measure.
Part 3: PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN OVERSEAS COUNTRIES

Incidence of Part-time Work

The overall picture of part-time employment in overseas countries is still fragmentary: statistical material is limited, little research appears to have been undertaken, and as noted in the Introduction, the definition of part-time employment varies from country to country. (See also Appendix I). Despite these limitations, the International Labour Organization (I.L.O.) has reported that part-time employment is expanding in the developed countries, especially in Canada, the Federal Republic of Germany, the German Democratic Republic, the United Kingdom and the United States of America.


Some of the facts revealed on the incidence of part-time work, particularly amongst married female workers, were:

- in Canada, 14 per cent of the working women were part-timers (1961 Census);
- in Germany, the Census of 1966 showed that 18.2 per cent of women wage earners worked part-time;
- in Japan, 6.5 per cent of the permanently employed women workers worked part-time in 1968; and 90 per cent of the female part-time workers were married (1966);
- in Sweden, about one-third of the female employees worked part-time in 1966;
- in the U.K., 8 per cent of the total working population worked part-time, and 45 per cent of all married women who were "gainfully employed" worked part-time.
- in the U.S.A. one-quarter of the employed women worked on a part-time basis in non-agricultural industries in September 1969.

In almost all of the developed countries mentioned in the I.L.O. International Survey, the majority of part-time workers were women, and most of these, married women.

Growth in participation in part-time work by married women is only part of the story, for married women in many countries are making an increasing contribution to the labour force as a whole. A brief discussion on the increased labour force participation by married women in Australia, Canada, Japan, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the U.S.A. is given in Appendix II.

In countries with statistics relating to working women and their children, it was
shown that women workers with children were likely to form a substantial proportion of the part-time labour force. In the U.S.A. in 1961, about 50 per cent of the women working part-time had children under 18 years, and about 40 per cent had children under 6.

In Sweden in 1960, nearly 60 per cent of the part-time employed women had children under 16 years.

**Reasons for Organising Part-time Work**

The International Survey (1963) summarized the reasons given for introducing part-time employment by employers in various countries as follows:

“To counter manpower shortage in general, as well as to meet certain types of skill shortage.”

In order to overcome the problem of labour shortage employers were willing to organize part-time employment, especially to attract married women. This has been the experience in Europe, Canada, Japan and the U.S.A.

In some cases it has been introduced where full-time workers have not been attracted because of disagreeable working conditions.

Another reason for introducing part-time employment is in situations where full-time employment is not justified by the volume and nature of the work, e.g., cleaners and telephone operators. In the retail trade, for example, part-time employment is organized in order to meet peak demands and workloads during the day or week.

Within industry it is reported that part-time work is sometimes organized by employers “in order to extend their plant utilization, e.g. by adding an extra part-time evening shift on top of the normal workday” thus also decreasing the extent of overtime.

Yet another reason for introducing part-time employment is to retain the services of valuable skilled workers who no longer are prepared to work full-time.

**Skill Characteristics and Training**

It seems that part-time workers are to be found in all categories of skill. Nevertheless it should be noted that:

“There is little information on how the skill distribution of part-time workers compares with that of full-time workers, but there are indications that the proportion of unskilled workers among them is higher.” (I.L.O. 1963)

However, two further points made in the report concerning the skill level of some of the people recruited for part-time positions should be noted. One is that employers are generally reluctant to train part-time workers for skilled work or work requiring a certain experience, and as a consequence part-time workers are often expected to have more extensive qualifications than full-time workers if they are to be engaged for such jobs. Another point cited is that part-time workers face keener competition within their occupational level because the supply of part-timers is larger than the demand.

In view of the fact that reports from many countries indicate that there is “A preponderance of unskilled or semi-skilled workers in the part-time labour force...” and bearing in mind that in
WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE

many countries "... the part-time labour force also includes a small but important segment of highly qualified persons in the technical and professional category", the I.L.O. Report concluded that:

"The part-time labour force tends to be centred at two extremes of the occupational pyramid, with a very thick layer at the bottom and a proportionately thin layer at the top."

Working Shifts and Hours

There are several different arrangements of part-time work, e.g. it may be worked either in half-days (mornings or afternoons) or in special daily shifts (mid-day or evenings), or on a limited number of full days each week. Where there is a scarcity of full-time labour, part-time workers may divide the working day between them, or be used on an additional evening shift.

Some specific examples of the shift arrangements reported in the I.L.O. survey are given below.

In Canada, part-time workers often work regular daily four-hour shifts, although some work full shifts at weekends. In the Federal Republic of Germany, part-time workers in industrial undertakings work between four and six hours within shifts, the early morning or mid-morning shift being favoured. In the U.K. and Sweden, it is rather common for part-time workers in manufacturing to work morning and afternoon sessions.

One inquiry conducted in February 1957 in the Netherlands, showed that almost half (46%) of the married women placed in employment in that month worked part-time. Of those placed in part-time employment, 40% worked half-days the entire week, 43% worked half-days a few times a week and 17% worked a few full days during the week.

Wages, Holidays, Sick Leave

It is not easy to obtain a clear picture of the conditions of employment of part-time workers:

"Some labour legislation expressly covers them; some does not expressly exclude them but makes no specific provision for their special needs; some excludes them altogether, or does so if they work particularly short hours. The same is true of collective agreements..."

However:

"Basically, the wage rates of part-time workers seem to be the same as those of full-time workers, actual earnings being proportionate to the number of hours worked." (I.L.O. 1963)

This is the case in countries such as Canada, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Sweden, the U.K. and the U.S.A. In some cases, the part-time workers are reported to be paid more per hour, but receive few, if any, of the fringe benefits (i.e. they are paid casual rates). On the other hand, there are some cases where part-time workers receive lower wage rates than the full-time workers, e.g. some instances in Japan.

Many countries seem to apply the principle of equality between part-time and full-time workers — wages and fringe benefits are calculated proportionately to the number of hours worked. There are, however, exceptions to this.

Though there is little evidence on the actual wage systems for part-time employees (indeed these would vary greatly
even within the one country), the I.L.O. in a report “Women Workers in a Changing World”, laid down what it considered appropriate guidelines to be followed in assessing the remuneration of part-time employees.

“All appropriate steps should be taken to ensure that, to the maximum extent practicable, workers employed on a part-time basis —

(a) receive proportionately the same remuneration and enjoy the same basic conditions of employment as workers employed on a full-time basis;

(b) are granted rights corresponding to those of workers employed on a full-time basis as regards holidays with pay, sick leave and maternity leave subject to the same eligibility requirements; and

(c) are entitled to adequate and appropriate social security protection.” (I.L.O. 1964)

However, as shown above, there is a great deal of variation in the methods of assessing wages and fringe benefits of part-time employees.

Child Care Arrangements

Studies in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the U.S.A. show that probably less than ten per cent of children under six years with a working mother are placed in a creche, day nursery, or other type of child care centre, while the mother works.

From the limited evidence available it is apparent that mothers with part-time jobs also rely mainly on relatives, neighbours and friends rather than childcare centres to care for their children while they work.

Attitudes Towards Part-time Work

It appears in most of the studies reported that employers somewhat reluctantly have adopted part-time employment during severe labour shortages.

“The individual employer...is still likely to regard part-time workers as an expedient, as a second best solution to his problems, as a relatively difficult means to an end, as useful but not by any means ideal.” (I.L.O. 1963)

However, there was some evidence to suggest that although the introduction of part-time work is often seen as an expedient initially, both tight labour market conditions and experience with part-time employment tend to change the attitudes of employers to part-time work in a positive way.

“A recent inquiry of the German Employers' Confederation in some 70 undertakings in industry and commerce, showed that despite initial reluctance and some difficulties at the outset, the experience of utilising part-time workers had been generally favourable and had influenced the attitude of a good many of the employers concerned.” (I.L.O. 1963)

With regard to the attitudes of full-time employees towards their colleagues who work part-time, Hallaire (1968) reports on the outcome of discussions held with trade unions and employers associations as well as with management employing part-time staff on the question of psychological difficulties arising from the integration of part-timers with full-time shifts in the following ways:

“We would draw the tentative conclusion that the full-time worker willingly accepts part-timers in the firm on the express condition that he himself gets direct or indirect benefits, or at any rate that the extra personnel are subject to the same limitations as himself.”

The arguments against part-time employment advanced by the employers overseas are mainly in terms of higher costs. It is evident that many of the dis-
advantages associated with cost factors cited by employers reflect personal opinions based on assumption rather than on proven facts. Fixed management expenses, social security charges and vocational training, represent the main cost factors mentioned by the employers overseas.

In addition to these quantitative economic factors, psychological difficulties within the enterprise, technical difficulties, risk of upsetting the employment market and difficulties with the unions should be taken into account, it has been suggested, when estimating the economic cost of part-time employment.
CONCLUSION

The principal drawback in describing part-time employment adequately either overseas or in Australia, derives from the fact that it has been relatively neglected as an area of research.

"There is recognition of the need for part-time employment in certain types of work and there is a willingness to experiment with it in a widening range of occupations, but on the whole most replies (from employers) suggested a considerable amount of employer scepticism in respect of the part-time arrangements." (I.L.O. 1963)

More research is obviously needed on a wide range of questions associated with part-time employment. However, the studies carried out to date do suggest some features which are worth noting. These are:

1. Part-time employment is sought by many married women and the number of married women working is increasing.
2. Studies show that few working mothers use child care centres.
3. Employers, under certain conditions, may institute part-time employment, often with initial reluctance, but some experience of part-time employment usually leads to a wider acceptance of the advantages of such arrangements.
4. Some of the reasons employers give for introducing part-time employment include:
   - to relieve a general manpower shortage
   - to overcome specific skill shortages
   - to perform particular sorts of work, e.g., either in peak periods or in jobs requiring labour at set times such as cleaning and canteen work
   - to extend the plant utilization and
   - to retain the services of experienced employees who withdraw from the full-time labour force for various reasons.
5. As married women are likely to continue to seek employment, and in particular part-time employment, part-time work is likely to be a permanent and important feature of the labour force.
Appendix I: DEFINING PART-TIME WORK

Part-time Work — Some Definitions

One of the major difficulties in a discussion of part-time work is the absence of any universally accepted criteria by which to define it.

One example of the difficulties in interpretation which can arise when one set of information is to be compared with another which has not been obtained by precisely the same method can be illustrated by the Australian Census material of 1961 and 1966.*

In 1961, the person completing the Census form decided for himself whether or not he was "engaged" or "usually engaged" in an industry, business, profession, trade or service at the time of the Census. In effect most part-time workers were excluded.

In 1966, four specific questions were asked which effectively determined whether or not the person was part of the work force, e.g. "Did the person do any work at all last week for payment or profit?" In this way, most part-time workers were included within the definition of the work force.

The International Labour Organisation (I.L.O.) defined part-time employment as: "Regular, voluntary work carried out during working hours distinctly shorter than normal." However, the I.L.O. definition is theoretical rather than practical as there is no consensus of opinion as to what constitutes "working hours distinctly shorter than normal."

The Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics accepts as a working definition of a part-time employee "a person who usually works less than 35 hours a week and did so during a survey week". Therefore, in Australia, people who work ¾ths or less of the usual 40 hour working week are regarded as being part-time workers.

Canada and the United States also define part-time employment as work for less than 35 hours during a survey week. In Japan, it is defined as work for less than 34 hours per week. In the United Kingdom, the criteria is "employment ordinarily involving service for not more than 30 hours a week."

The accepted definition in New Zealand is employment for less than three-quarters of the ordinary working hours of the industry in question. Thus, in an industry with a 40-hour week, only those working less than 30 hours per week would be considered part-time workers.

A detailed study on part-time employment sponsored by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (O.E.C.D.), was undertaken by Jean Hallaire. He concluded that an ideal definition of part-time employment should meet the following criteria, namely that the employment in question is:

* For more detail see Women in the Work Force No. 6 "Facts and Figures" 1968.
(i) regular and stable work (in contrast to casual or seasonal work);
(ii) voluntary work (the shorter working hours are deliberately chosen by the person concerned); and
(iii) work in which the total working hours are appreciably shorter than normal (excluding shorter hours caused by the inherent characteristics of some jobs).

This means, in effect, that Hallaire endorses the I.L.O. definition.

How does the definition adopted by the Statistician in Australia for estimating the size of part-time employment, (covering those persons usually working less than 35 hours weekly and who did so during a survey week) compare with that proposed by Hallaire?

Firstly, Hallaire would exclude casual and seasonal workers from part-time employment statistics. In the Australian definition, if a person usually works less than 35 hours and did so during the survey week he is classified as a part-time worker. That is, the basis here is in terms of the actual weekly hours worked, not in terms of the usual daily, monthly, or yearly hours worked. Thus some casual and seasonal workers are included in the Australian statistics.

Secondly, Hallaire would exclude those persons whose shorter working week was not deliberately sought by the worker. Among the Australian workers who usually worked less than 35 hours weekly and did so during the survey week, some 4% in the February 1970 Labour Force survey stated that the short hours were due to a “lack of work”.

This 4% in the Australian statistics for part-time employment would be excluded if Hallaire’s definition were accepted.

Thirdly, Hallaire states that part-time work is that in which the total working hours are appreciably shorter than normal and excludes from part-time employment those jobs where the shorter hours are caused by inherent characteristics of the job. The Statistician notes that included in the Australian part-time statistics are “Some school teachers who were classified according to standard hours not actual hours worked.” Thus some persons employed full-time in their profession have been included in the part-time statistics in Australia.

If Hallaire’s definition represented the yardstick for part-time employment, then the official Australian statistics would be somewhat inflated by the inclusion of the group discussed above. However, definitions based on hours worked per week are at least operational and most countries describe part-time employment in similar terms.

So, it should be noted, that when discussing overseas patterns of part-time employment, discrepancies are likely to occur because of the varying definitions used.

In the first section of this report, reviewing part-time employment statistics for Australia, the definition adopted by the Commonwealth Statistician applies.

In the second section, covering a study on part-time employment in six Melbourne manufacturing firms, the definition adopted was “employment for less than the usual hours worked per week in this firm.”

In the third section, which highlighted some features of part-time employment in overseas countries, the definition varied according to the country, as indicated above.
Appendix II: MARRIED WOMEN WORKING

While comparisons among countries are difficult because of the varying bases for the collection of statistics, nevertheless it appears in Australia, Canada, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States of America that the female worker is playing an increasingly major role in the composition of the total labour force (See Table 5). In Japan, approximately 40 per cent of the total labour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Female Labour Force as % of Total Labour Force</th>
<th>Married Female Labour Force as % of Total Female Labour Force</th>
<th>Participation Rate of Married Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1964</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feb. 1970 (Est.)</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>Approx. 33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>1962</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>1961</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1965</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>56.3</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>1960</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1967</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* In Canada, Japan, Sweden, the U.K. and the U.S.A., this percentage is an expression of the number of married women working as against all women working (i.e., it excludes those women who though unemployed, are in the labour force).
† In Australia, labour force participation rates are based on the population 15 years and over, in the U.K., on the population 16 years and over, in the U.S.A., 14 years and over prior to 1967 and 16 years and over after 1967.
‡ Note changed definition of work force — p. 8.
 n.a. — not available

Source documents for Table 5.

Full details of source documents are shown in the bibliography under the authorship of the following:

Australia —
(i) Department of Labour and National Service, Australia, 1968, pp. 11, 29.

Canada —
(i) Department of Labour, Canada, 1968. p. 5.

Japan —
(ii) Ministry of Labour, Japan, 1968, p. 11.

Sweden —
The National Labour Market Board.

United Kingdom —
(i) Hunt, 1968.

United States of America —
force are female and this proportion appears to have remained stable for a number of years.

In all of the above countries the proportion of married women working has increased. In the early 1960s married women made up almost half of the women workers in Canada, the United Kingdom and the U.S.A. By the end of the 1960s Australia was also in this position.

Because the bases for calculating participation rates vary (e.g. based on persons 14 years and older in U.S.A. prior to 1967 and 16 years and older after 1967, 15 years and older in Australia and 16 years and older in the U.K.), there are also difficulties in trying to compare the work force participation rates of married women. However, within countries where statistics are available there appears to be a growth in work force participation rates of married women (Australia, Canada, Sweden and the U.S.A.). In 1965 in the United Kingdom, 44.5 per cent of all married women, 16 years and older, were employed; in 1968 in the U.S.A., 37 per cent of all married women 16 years and older were employed; and in Australia, approximately 33 per cent of all married women 15 years and older were in the labour force according to the February 1970 estimates.
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International Labour Office:


