

Chapter 1

RECENT LABOUR MARKET DEVELOPMENTS AND PROSPECTS

Special focus on the quality of part-time jobs

Summary

Part-time working has increased over recent years in most OECD countries, sometimes at a rapid rate, and has often made a major contribution to job growth. Along with these developments has come increased concern about the quality of part-time jobs, particularly with respect to remuneration and career prospects. This section takes a new look at this issue by focusing on the hourly earnings and incidence of training of part-time workers in comparison with full-time workers. The analysis of these objective indicators is complemented by an assessment of the preferences expressed by employees for part-time working as against full-time working.

The results highlight the fact that, on average, part-timers tend to receive lower levels of earnings per hour worked, as well as training, compared with their full-time counterparts. They are also less likely to be in stable jobs. To some extent, but by no means completely, these disadvantages reflect the personal characteristics of those working in part-time jobs, including education levels, and the sectors and occupations in which part-time working tends to be found. Part-time working is very heterogeneous, varying significantly across countries and across groups in any given country.

Nevertheless, part-time employment, by comparison with other forms of “non-standard” employment, such as temporary employment and shift-working, tends to be viewed favourably by many employees, both among those who already work part-time and, in many cases, among those who work full-time. Attitudes to part-time working tend to be more favourable, on average, in those countries where it is more strongly developed. As with most international assessments of part-time working, variations in definitions and data limit the conclusions that can be drawn, but these general patterns appear to hold in most of the OECD countries examined.

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Introduction

While calm and confidence have returned to world financial markets, the performance of the global economy has been mixed. On the positive side, strong non-inflationary growth has continued in the United States; the crisis in Brazil has largely been confined to South America; and the contraction of activity in emerging Asia appears to have come to an end. On the other hand, the European expansion has slowed somewhat; the Japanese economy only now appears to be bottoming out and clear signs of recovery are not yet apparent; there is little prospect of strong growth in emerging markets in the near future; and concerns have been expressed that global deflation could become a problem. Overall, the modest growth that both the OECD area and the world economy have been experiencing since last year is continuing (Table 1.1).¹

Section I provides an overview of these recent developments and prospects and their labour market implications. Section II contains a special focus on part-time work, which has been one of the major sources of job growth in recent years, in Japan and many European countries. It discusses how the quality of part-time jobs compares with that of full-time jobs, in areas such as hourly earnings and employer-provided training.

I. Recent developments and prospects

A. Economic outlook to the year 2000

During 1999 and 2000 growth in the OECD area is likely to remain sluggish at just over 2 per cent this year and next. This, however, masks significant shifts in regional patterns since last year. The strong momentum of the US economy should start to abate during 1999. In the

euro area, consumer spending remains fairly buoyant and should operate to support activity. However, substantial divergences in cyclical conditions across the euro area will persist as the gaps between actual and potential output narrow sharply or close in most countries but remain large in Germany and Italy. In Japan, on the technical assumption that there is no supplementary budget later this year, the contraction in output which occurred last year should come to an end in 1999, but no sustained recovery is on the horizon.

The outlook across the rest of the OECD area is mixed, reflecting a diverse set of cyclical situations. In many countries, prospects are favourable. Australia, Canada, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Poland and Sweden are likely to continue to enjoy strong, if in some cases moderately slowing, growth. Activity in Korea should rebound, and New Zealand's recovery from last year's recession should gather strength. The United Kingdom, the Czech Republic, Norway and Turkey, on the other hand, will enjoy little or no growth this year and Denmark will slow to below its potential rate. Projected recoveries in these countries in 2000 are fairly weak.

B. Employment and unemployment

Employment growth slowed in the OECD area in 1998, with an annual increase of 1.0 per cent as compared with an increase of 1.5 per cent in 1997 (weighted averages, Table 1.2). Ireland experienced the highest employment growth rate, followed by Mexico, Luxembourg and Spain. Although the rate of employment increase in Mexico was well above average, it nevertheless slowed substantially from the previous year. The rate of employment growth in the United States slowed somewhat, while in OECD Europe on the whole it increased; in both cases it was above average for the OECD as a whole. There was a substantial employment contraction in Korea

1. This analysis is taken from OECD *Economic Outlook No. 65*, June 1999.

Table 1.1. Growth of real GDP in OECD countries^{a, b}

	Share in total OECD GDP 1991	Annual percentage change				Projections	
		Average 1986-1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	
Australia	1.7	3.4	3.6	5.1	3.2	3.4	
Austria	0.8	2.5	2.5	3.3	2.2	2.6	
Belgium	1.0	2.1	3.0	2.9	1.9	2.2	
Canada	3.2	2.1	3.8	3.0	2.9	2.8	
Czech Republic	0.6	..	1.0	-2.7	-0.5	2.4	
Denmark	0.6	1.8	3.1	2.9	1.6	2.0	
Finland	0.5	1.5	5.5	4.7	3.3	3.6	
France	6.2	2.0	2.3	3.2	2.3	2.6	
Germany ^c	8.1	2.6	2.2	2.8	1.7	2.3	
Greece	0.6	1.6	3.2	3.5	3.0	3.5	
Hungary	0.5	..	4.6	5.1	4.1	3.2	
Iceland	0.0	1.8	5.4	5.0	5.1	4.8	
Ireland	0.3	5.9	9.8	10.4	7.5	6.7	
Italy	5.8	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.4	2.2	
Japan	14.1	3.2	1.4	-2.8	-0.9	0.0	
Korea	2.2	8.1	5.0	-5.8	4.5	4.3	
Luxembourg	0.1	5.5	4.7	5.7	3.3	3.8	
Mexico	3.0	2.1	6.8	4.8	3.2	3.7	
Netherlands	1.5	2.6	3.6	3.8	2.2	2.4	
New Zealand	0.3	1.8	3.0	-0.8	2.6	3.5	
Norway	0.5	2.8	4.3	2.1	0.6	2.6	
Poland	1.0	..	6.9	4.8	3.5	5.0	
Portugal	0.6	3.3	3.7	3.9	3.1	3.2	
Spain	3.0	2.8	3.5	3.8	3.3	3.3	
Sweden	0.9	1.3	1.8	2.9	2.4	2.8	
Switzerland	0.9	1.1	1.7	2.1	1.2	1.8	
Turkey	1.6	4.4	7.5	2.8	1.4	3.9	
United Kingdom	5.5	2.3	3.5	2.1	0.7	1.6	
United States	35.2	2.5	3.9	3.9	3.6	2.0	
OECD Europe^d	40.2	2.2	3.0	2.8	1.9	2.6	
EU	35.2	2.3	2.7	2.8	1.9	2.4	
Total OECD^d	100.0	2.6	3.3	2.3	2.2	2.1	

.. Data not available.

a) The OECD Secretariat's projection methods and underlying statistical concepts and sources are described in detail in "Sources and Methods: OECD Economic Outlook" which can be downloaded from the OECD Internet site (<http://www.oecd.org/eco/out/source.htm>).

b) Aggregates are computed on the basis of 1991 GDP weights expressed in 1991 purchasing power parities.

c) The average growth rate has been calculated by chaining on data for the whole of Germany to the corresponding data for western Germany prior to 1992.

d) Average for 1986-1996 excludes the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland.

Source: OECD Economic Outlook, No. 65, May 1999.

Table 1.2. **Employment and labour force growth in OECD countries^a**

Annual percentage change

	Employment						Labour force					
	Level 1997 (000s)	Average 1986-1996	1997	1998	Projections		Level 1997 (000s)	Average 1986-1996	1997	1998	Projections	
					1999	2000					1999	2000
Australia	8 451	1.8	0.8	1.9	1.9	1.6	9 251	1.9	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.5
Austria	3 424	0.6	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.5	3 658	0.8	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.3
Belgium	3 773	0.4	0.3	1.4	1.1	0.6	4 314	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4
Canada	13 936	1.2	1.9	2.8	2.3	1.7	15 346	1.3	1.3	1.8	1.7	1.6
Czech Republic	4 890	..	-0.6	-1.5	-1.1	-0.5	5 131	..	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.3
Denmark	2 643	-0.2	2.1	2.2	0.6	0.2	2 863	-0.1	1.0	0.7	-0.1	0.2
Finland	2 170	-1.3	2.0	2.4	1.4	1.2	2 484	-0.3	-0.2	1.0	0.5	0.4
France	22 545	0.3	0.4	1.4	1.2	1.3	25 734	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6
Germany ^b	33 962	0.2	-1.3	0.0	0.3	0.4	38 347	0.4	-0.1	-0.3	-0.3	-0.3
Greece	3 854	0.7	-0.5	0.2	0.3	0.6	4 294	1.1	-0.6	0.0	0.5	0.5
Hungary	3 567	..	0.3	1.5	1.5	1.3	3 916	..	-1.0	0.4	0.8	1.0
Iceland	131	0.2	2.9	2.1	1.9	1.7	136	0.6	2.1	1.3	1.3	1.2
Ireland	1 380	1.9	4.8	8.4	5.2	3.8	1 539	1.2	3.0	5.4	3.7	3.3
Italy	20 087	-0.3	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.5	22 891	-0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Japan	65 584	1.0	1.1	-0.6	-1.0	-0.5	67 881	1.1	1.1	0.1	-0.2	-0.1
Korea	21 048	3.0	1.4	-5.3	0.7	2.0	21 604	2.8	2.0	-1.0	1.5	1.9
Luxembourg	227	2.9	3.2	4.4	2.5	2.7	177	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.0	1.0
Mexico	17 557	5.2	13.3	4.9	2.6	2.8	18 237	5.3	11.3	4.3	2.6	2.8
Netherlands	6 400	1.8	3.4	2.9	1.7	1.4	6 775	1.6	2.2	1.4	1.5	1.5
New Zealand	1 736	1.1	0.4	-0.6	0.6	1.9	1 860	1.4	1.0	0.3	0.6	1.3
Norway	2 192	0.2	2.9	2.4	-0.2	-0.1	2 285	0.5	2.0	1.5	0.1	0.4
Poland	15 163	..	1.3	1.2	0.3	1.2	17 100	..	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.9
Portugal	4 297	0.4	1.9	2.4	1.0	0.9	4 609	0.2	1.3	0.5	0.9	0.9
Spain	12 765	0.9	2.9	3.4	2.6	2.4	16 121	1.1	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.9
Sweden	3 921	-0.8	-1.1	1.4	1.7	0.9	4 264	-0.2	-1.1	-0.2	0.7	0.6
Switzerland	3 803	1.1	-0.3	1.2	0.7	0.9	3 991	1.4	0.2	0.0	-0.2	0.6
Turkey	20 505	2.0	-1.9	2.8	0.7	1.6	21 899	1.8	-1.5	2.8	0.9	1.5
United Kingdom	26 885	0.7	1.6	1.4	-0.1	-0.2	28 866	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.4
United States	129 559	1.5	2.2	1.5	1.9	1.1	136 285	1.3	1.7	1.0	1.6	1.3
OECD Europe^c	198 581	0.5	0.3	1.4	0.7	0.8	221 391	0.6	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.6
EU	148 331	0.4	0.6	1.3	0.8	0.8	166 933	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4
Total OECD^c	456 451	1.2	1.5	1.0	0.9	0.9	491 855	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.9	0.9

.. Data not available.

a) See note a) to Table 1.1.

b) The average growth rate has been calculated by chaining on data for the whole of Germany to the corresponding data for western Germany prior to 1992.

c) Averages for 1986-1996 exclude the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland.

Source: *OECD Economic Outlook*, No. 65, May 1999.

while the Czech Republic, Japan and New Zealand experienced more modest declines. Overall, the OECD labour force grew at a slightly slower rate than employment. Ireland and Mexico experienced growth rates well above the other OECD countries, while in Germany, Korea and Sweden, the labour force contracted.

The unemployment rate for the OECD area as a whole declined by one-tenth of one percentage point (Table 1.3). The unemployment rate declined or showed no change in all but four OECD countries in 1998, with Ireland experiencing the largest percentage point decline. On average, the unemployment rate in OECD Europe declined by six-tenths of one percentage point, slightly more than the fall seen in the United States, where the rate remains under half that of OECD Europe. The unemployment rate rose by more than four percentage points in Korea, and by lesser amounts in the Czech Republic, Japan and New Zealand. In November, the seasonally-adjusted standardised unemployment rate for Japan rose above that of the United States for the first time.

Over the next two years, the OECD-wide unemployment rate is expected to remain broadly stable, with only a slight decline in 1999. Within OECD Europe, the unemployment rate is projected to decline by about 0.2 percentage points per year. Ireland and Spain are forecast to have the largest overall percentage point declines. Even with such improvements, unemployment will remain a serious economic and social problem and some countries face particular difficulties. For example, eight OECD countries are projected to have unemployment rates above 10 per cent in the year 2000. Also, although the unemployment rates in the Czech Republic and Japan are below the OECD average, they are expected to continue to increase for 1999 and 2000.

C. Compensation and unit labour costs

In the OECD area as a whole, the rate of growth in compensation per employee in the business sector slowed by about one percentage point in 1998 (Table 1.4). Excluding high inflation countries (Greece, Hungary and Poland), compensation per employee rose by about 2.6 per cent during 1998. The rate of growth remained well below the 4.1 per cent annual growth during the period 1986-1996. The rate of growth in unit labour costs was stable in 1998, despite a slowdown in the growth of productivity. Excluding high inflation countries, unit labour costs grew at a rate of 1.6 per cent, the same as in 1997.

There were signs of tightening in the labour markets of Denmark, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Those countries experienced

below average unemployment rates, accompanied by increases in the rate of growth in compensation per employee and unit labour costs. Ireland, as well, experienced increases in compensation per employee and unit labour costs, although its unemployment rate remained somewhat above the OECD average. In the United States, change in the labour cost indicators remained relatively stable despite the relatively low and declining unemployment rate.

OECD projections indicate a slight increase in the rate of growth in compensation per employee in the business sector for 1999 and 2000. The overall rate of change in unit labour costs is expected to decline slightly in 1999 followed by an increase in 2000. The growth rates for both of these labour cost indicators are expected to decrease substantially in Hungary and Poland, and to a lesser extent in eight other countries. At the same time, in Norway and the United Kingdom an increase in unemployment is expected to offset some of the tightening experienced in 1998.

II. How do part-time jobs compare with full-time jobs?

A. Introduction

In most OECD countries, part-time working has been increasing over recent years, sometimes at a rapid rate. Its contribution to job creation has been important for the OECD area as a whole, for many European countries, and for Japan. Concern is often expressed, however, about the quality of part-time jobs compared with full-time jobs. As yet, there has been no OECD-wide survey of two highly relevant indicators of the quality of part-time jobs – their earnings and training opportunities. This section aims to fill that gap. Despite its possible disadvantages in these areas, part-time working appears to be valued by many workers, for example, as a means for reconciling work and family life. This section thus complements the objective indicators on earnings and training by data illustrating the preferences expressed by employees for part-time as opposed to full-time working.

Since the beginning of the 1970s, most OECD countries have seen a marked growth in the proportion of part-time working in total employment. A particularly rapid rate of growth has been observed in France over the 1990s. The exceptions include the southern European countries, where the incidence of part-time working has remained low, and some of the Nordic countries, where there are some indications of women moving from part-time into full-time working [European Commission

Table 1.3. Unemployment in OECD countries^a

	Percentage of labour force					Millions				
	Average 1986-1996	1997	1998	Projections		Average 1986-1996	1997	1998	Projections	
				1999	2000				1999	2000
Australia	8.5	8.6	8.1	7.5	7.4	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Austria	5.2	6.4	6.4	6.3	6.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Belgium	11.0	12.5	11.7	11.1	10.9	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Canada	9.5	9.2	8.3	7.8	7.7	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2
Czech Republic	..	4.7	6.5	7.7	8.5	..	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4
Denmark	9.7	7.7	6.3	5.7	5.8	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Finland	9.3	12.7	11.4	10.6	10.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
France	10.6	12.4	11.8	11.3	10.8	2.6	3.2	3.1	2.9	2.8
Germany	8.0	11.4	11.2	10.7	10.0	2.8	4.4	4.3	4.1	3.8
Greece	8.4	10.3	10.1	10.2	10.1	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
Hungary	8.9	8.0	7.3	7.0	..	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Iceland	2.6	3.7	2.9	2.4	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ireland	14.8	10.3	7.7	6.4	5.9	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Italy	10.3	12.3	12.2	12.1	11.9	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8
Japan	2.6	3.4	4.1	4.9	5.3	1.7	2.3	2.8	3.3	3.6
Korea	2.6	2.6	6.8	7.6	7.5	0.5	0.6	1.5	1.6	1.7
Luxembourg	2.0	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Mexico	3.8	3.7	3.2	3.2	3.2	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6
Netherlands	6.9	5.5	4.2	3.9	4.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
New Zealand	7.2	6.6	7.5	7.4	6.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Norway	4.5	4.1	3.2	3.5	4.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Poland	..	11.3	10.5	11.0	10.7	..	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9
Portugal	6.0	6.8	5.0	5.0	5.0	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Spain	19.7	20.8	18.8	17.4	16.2	3.0	3.4	3.1	2.9	2.7
Sweden	4.5	8.0	6.5	5.6	5.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Switzerland	2.2	5.2	3.9	3.0	2.7	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Turkey	7.8	6.4	6.3	6.5	6.4	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5
United Kingdom	8.8	6.9	6.2	6.7	7.3	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.1
United States	6.2	4.9	4.5	4.2	4.4	7.8	6.7	6.2	5.9	6.3
OECD Europe^b	9.5	10.3	9.7	9.5	9.3	17.7	22.9	21.7	21.3	20.9
EU	9.9	11.2	10.5	10.1	9.8	15.9	18.7	17.6	17.1	16.6
Total OECD^b	7.0	7.2	7.1	7.0	7.0	30.4	35.5	35.0	34.9	35.1

.. Data not available.

a) See note a) to Table 1.1.

b) Averages for 1986-1996 exclude the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland.

Source: OECD Economic Outlook, No. 65, May 1999.

Table 1.4. Business sector labour costs in OECD countries^{a, b}

	Compensation per employee					Unit labour costs				
	Average 1986-1996	1997	1998	Projections		Average 1986-1996	1997	1998	Projections	
				1999	2000				1999	2000
Australia	4.8	3.7	3.2	3.5	3.6	3.0	0.6	-0.3	2.2	1.6
Austria	4.3	3.0	2.3	2.9	2.8	2.0	1.5	-0.5	1.0	0.5
Belgium	4.0	2.7	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.3	-0.3	0.8	1.6	0.7
Canada	3.9	6.1	1.8	2.7	2.9	2.8	4.1	1.6	2.1	1.9
Czech Republic	..	10.6	9.2	8.8	8.9	..	8.7	10.5	8.0	5.7
Denmark	4.7	3.7	4.8	4.9	5.3	2.4	2.4	3.9	3.2	2.6
Finland	5.6	2.5	4.6	3.1	3.5	1.5	-0.6	2.7	0.6	0.6
France	3.7	2.3	2.0	2.1	2.3	1.5	0.1	0.0	0.8	0.7
Germany ^c	2.9	1.8	1.3	2.6	2.4	1.6	-2.0	-1.4	1.0	0.3
Greece	14.4	10.9	5.9	5.0	4.8	13.2	6.5	2.1	2.0	1.5
Hungary	..	20.4	17.9	9.6	9.8	..	15.4	14.0	6.9	7.7
Iceland	13.5	1.3	8.9	8.4	9.2	11.3	-1.1	5.7	4.8	5.7
Ireland	4.4	5.8	5.9	6.5	6.4	0.0	0.7	4.1	4.1	3.4
Italy	6.6	4.1	-0.1	2.4	2.5	4.1	2.3	-1.4	1.0	0.7
Japan	2.4	1.2	-0.3	-0.7	-0.9	0.0	0.9	2.2	-0.9	-1.5
Korea	13.3	7.5	-1.5	1.7	3.9	7.4	3.5	-1.1	-2.2	1.6
Netherlands	2.5	2.6	3.0	3.8	3.3	1.2	1.6	2.0	3.1	2.0
New Zealand	4.1	2.9	2.4	2.4	2.5	3.4	1.3	2.0	0.2	0.9
Norway	4.8	4.6	5.9	5.2	4.3	2.7	3.0	4.8	4.4	3.8
Poland	..	20.6	14.9	8.6	8.1	..	14.2	11.0	5.1	4.2
Portugal	11.2	5.0	4.5	4.3	4.0	7.5	2.9	2.9	1.9	1.4
Spain	6.1	2.8	1.3	2.2	2.5	3.8	2.0	1.0	1.6	1.6
Sweden	6.6	3.1	5.2	3.7	3.7	4.2	0.3	3.6	2.6	1.4
Switzerland	3.6	2.7	0.9	1.8	1.8	2.9	0.6	0.0	1.5	0.9
United Kingdom	5.8	6.4	6.9	4.9	4.3	4.4	4.4	6.3	4.0	2.3
United States	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.1	4.2	2.9	2.2	2.1	2.1	3.6
OECD Europe^{d, e}	4.9	4.2	3.2	3.3	3.2	3.0	1.7	1.5	2.0	1.4
EU^e	4.9	3.4	2.6	3.0	2.9	3.0	1.1	0.9	1.7	1.1
Total OECD less high inflation countries^{e, f}	4.1	3.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.5	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.7
Total OECD^{d, e}	4.2	3.8	2.8	3.0	3.0	2.6	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.8

.. Data not available.

a) See note a) to Table 1.1.

b) Aggregates are computed on the basis of 1991 GDP weights expressed in 1991 purchasing power parities.

c) The average growth rate has been calculated by chaining on data for the whole of Germany to the corresponding data for western Germany prior to 1992.

d) Averages for 1986-1996 exclude the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland.

e) Countries shown.

f) High inflation countries are defined as countries which have had 10 per cent or more inflation in terms of GDP deflator on average during the 1990s on the basis of historical data. Consequently, Greece, Hungary and Poland are excluded from the aggregate.

Source: OECD Economic Outlook, No. 65, May 1999.

(1994); Smith *et al.* (1998)]. On the OECD definition (see below), the highest figures can now be observed in the Netherlands (just under 30 per cent of total employment), Australia, Switzerland and the United Kingdom (Statistical Annex Table E).

Between 1987 and 1997, the contribution of part-time working to the growth of total employment in Europe was equally as important as full-time employment. For the EU 12 countries (the 12 countries of the former European Community), the average annual growth rate of total employment over this period was the same for the two types of employment, at just over 0.4 per cent (Annex 1.A, Table 1.A.1).² Part-time employment growth was particularly important in a number of countries where total employment growth was comparatively slow, such as France and Germany, and often of less relative importance where total employment growth was rapid (such as Ireland and the Netherlands). It was also responsible for the bulk of the average 1.1 per cent employment growth in Japan. However, in the United States, the share in part-time employment fell slightly.

There are few theoretical reasons to expect the productivity per hour of a part-time worker to be lower than the productivity of a full-time worker, other things being equal.³ However, in practice, things tend not to be equal. It is well-documented that part-time workers have lower levels of education, on average, than full-time workers, and do different types of jobs, in terms of both occupation and sector [EUROSTAT (1997)]. In addition, a number of factors may tend to reduce the level of training employers provided to part-time workers by comparison with full-time workers. For example, part-time workers take as long to train as full-time workers, leaving a shorter time for the training to bear fruit for their employers. In addition, where part-time workers have relatively high job turnover, this is also likely to lead to lower incentives for employers to provide job-related training.

Another important aspect of part-time working is where part-time workers come from and where they go when they leave it. These transitions are an important part of the role played by part-time working in the different national labour markets. For example, in some countries, part-time employment may be mainly a temporary source of employment during periods of unemployment or absence from the labour force, in others it may often be used as the basis for an employment career.

The main objective of this section is, thus, to answer the following questions:

- How do the hourly earnings of part-time workers compare with those of full-time workers, and how does this vary according to the industry and occupation of workers?
- How much training do part-time workers receive compared with full-timers, and can this be explained by factors such as the different ages and education levels of part-time workers and the different levels of experience that they have?
- To what extent do part-time workers say they would prefer to work full-time?
- What is known about the patterns of transition out of part-time jobs into other forms of employment?

The structure of this section is as follows. Sub-section B presents the main findings. Sub-section C provides information on the earnings of part-time workers relative to those of full-time workers. This draws on the recently-released information from the EUROSTAT Structure of Earnings Survey, as well as complementary information for a number of other countries. It includes information on job tenure, known to be an important influence on the level of earnings, as well as data on the relative earnings of part- and full-time workers in a number of occupations and industries. Sub-section D briefly describes the benefit experience of part-time and full-time workers. Sub-section E, on training, refers to a number of factors which can account for part of the observed differences between the training received by part- and full-time workers. Sub-section F contains data on preferences. Sub-section G then presents the limited amount of information available on transitions out of part-time working. Box 1 discusses the definitions of part-time working for statistical purposes.

B. Main findings

The main findings of this section are as follows:

- For the countries for which data are available, the median hourly earnings of part-time workers are lower than those of full-time workers. Without taking account of the differences in the characteristics of part- and full-time jobs, median hourly earnings of part-time workers range between 90 and 55 per cent of full-time earnings, depending on the country. The figures are lower for men than for women. At

2. When employment growth is expressed in terms of hours of work, as opposed to the numbers of people employed, the contribution of part-time working to total employment growth for the EU 12 countries falls to between one-third and one-half of that of full-time employment, depending on the country.

3. If a task requires set-up time, this will represent a proportionately greater handicap for the performance of a part-time worker. On the other hand, the performance of a full-time worker may tend to drop off towards the end of the working period, owing to fatigue.

Box 1. Definitions of part-time working

Defining part-time working for statistical purposes is not straightforward. The standard ILO definition refers to work which is significantly lower than the normal hours for the job concerned [Hussmans *et al.* (1990)]. This is the definition used for administrative purposes in some countries. However, such definitions are inconvenient for use in household surveys. These tend either to ask employees if they consider themselves part-time, or base the distinction between full- and part-time working on an hours cut-off considered most suitable for the country concerned. For international purposes, it has been recently concluded that there are advantages in applying the hours cut-off method to all countries, using a common cut-off [Van Bastelaer *et al.* (1997)].

The OECD has decided to define part-time working in terms of usual working hours under 30 per week. This definition is used for the statistics on the incidence of part-time working presented in the Statistical Annex, in Annex 1.A and, as far as possible, in the statistics presented in the two sub-sections below (exceptions are noted in Annex 1.B). However, this does not apply to the information on preferences for part-time working. The available statistics on preferences always leave it to the individuals concerned to make their own assessment of their work status and their attitudes to it. In addition, statistics derived from employer-based surveys, including some of the earnings data presented below, depend partly on the employers' own classification of part-time working.

Different forms of definition, and different choices for the cut-off, can produce considerable differences in the estimated share of part-time working in total employment. However, the ranking of countries is not very sensitive to the choice of definition – countries with relatively high levels of part-time working according to one definition tend to have relatively high levels of part-time working according to another [Van Bastelaer *et al.* (1997)].

least for some categories of part-time workers, and in some countries, benefits are lower than for full-time workers, even on a *pro rata* basis.

- In occupations which employ the highest proportion of part-time workers, the gap between part-time and full-time earnings is relatively small – no more than around 10 per cent for women and 20 per cent for men. However, these are generally occupations where average pay is low for all workers.
- The gap between the hourly pay of the lowest paid part-time workers and the lowest paid full-time workers is smaller than the gap between average workers – owing, perhaps, to the effect of minimum wage legislation.
- There is a limited amount of evidence that hourly earnings of part-timers working under 20 hours a week are lower than those of other part-time workers. The numbers of such part-time workers have been rising at the same rate as the numbers of part-time workers as a whole.
- Part-time workers tend to have lower job tenure than full-timers – in most countries, well over one-half of them have job tenures of under 5 years, while the opposite is true for full-timers. They are also more likely to hold temporary jobs.
- Part-time workers tend to receive less job-related training than full-timers. In European Union countries for which data are available, the average incidence of training for part-timers, *relative* to full-

timers, is around 70 per cent for men and 60 per cent for women. Most of these differences remain after controlling for the lower educational attainment and lower job tenure of part-time workers, and the fact that they tend to be found in smaller establishments, different sectors and have a different age structure from full-time workers. There is no evidence that the gap between the training incidence of part- and full-timers decreases with educational qualification.

- In all countries, under one-half of part-time workers indicate a preference for full-time working, or say they are working part-time only because they cannot find full-time work. The higher the proportion of part-time working in total employment in a given country, the lower is the proportion of part-timers wishing to change to full-time.

C. Hourly earnings

Comparisons between the earnings of full- and part-time workers need to be based on earnings per hour, rather than earnings per week or per month. This, unfortunately, makes it somewhat harder to obtain accurate data, for reasons that are explained in Box 2. The sources used here are the employer-based 1995 EUROSTAT Structure of Earnings Survey (SES) and household labour force survey data from Australia, Canada and the United States.⁴ They are discussed in detail in Annex 1.B. The data available from the SES permit disaggregations by broad sector and occupation.

4. In some cases, Australia, Canada and the United States are excluded from the following tables due to a lack of comparable data.

Box 2. Part-time/full-time earnings comparisons: measurement issues

A number of caveats apply to comparisons of hourly earnings data for part- and full-time workers, including the following:

- Data on hourly earnings are likely to be of best quality when they refer to hourly-paid workers and when the data are obtained directly from employer records. In other cases, it is generally necessary to combine data on earnings with data on hours, which tend to be of lower quality. Employers may tend to think in terms of hours paid, rather than hours actually worked, while employees may give only a rough estimate of their actual hours of work.
- When data are obtained from employers, the distinction between part-time and full-time working may depend on the employers' own classification, which may vary from country to country and industry to industry. In this connection, it may be noted that the specification of the EUROSTAT Structure of Earnings Survey stipulates that "Part-time employees are considered to be those who, in accordance with a contract with the employer, do not perform a full days work or do not complete a full week's work (...). Part-time work rarely exceeds 35 hours, while the normal duration of full-time work is at least about 30 hours". However, even where followed, this allows room for different interpretations by employers.
- When data are obtained from employers, the coverage may be restricted. For example, the SES excludes enterprises with fewer than 10 employees, as well as certain sectors.
- When only aggregated data are available, as is generally the case in this section, it is only possible to compare part-time and full-time hourly earnings for rather heterogeneous groups of workers.

For most of the countries for which data are available, the median hourly earnings for part-time workers are indeed lower than those for full-time workers. Hourly earnings of part-time workers represent between around 55 and 90 per cent of those of full-timers, depending on the country (Table 1.5). The shortfall is almost always larger for men than for women. In a few southern European countries, the median earnings of women part-timers appear to be higher than those for full-timers. It is possible that this is partly a statistical artefact, in that some employees with short hours, but without a definite part-time contract, might not have been counted as working part-time.⁵ In general, the earning gap between full-time and part-time workers is smaller when the specific characteristics of the workers and jobs are taken into account.⁶

A disaggregation by broad sector indicates that part-timers have lower hourly earnings than full-timers in most sectors and in most countries (Annex 1.A, Table 1.A.2). Overall, the relative hourly earnings of part-timers are lowest in "real estate, renting and business activities", with men earning less than two-thirds and women less than three-quarters of their full-time counterparts. This sector typically employs 15 per cent or more of total part-

time employment. However, in the wholesale and retail trade sector, which in most countries employs the largest share of part-timers, the gap is much smaller: women tend to earn more than 90 per cent of the hourly earnings of their full-time counterparts, while men average just over 80 per cent. There are a few cases where part-timers have average hourly earnings matching those of comparable full-timers (*e.g.* men working in construction or women in financial intermediation in some countries), but these tend to be sectors with relatively small shares of the part-time work force.

A disaggregation by broad occupational groups shows particular concentrations of part-timers in service and sales, clerical and low-skilled "elementary" occupations (Annex 1.A, Table 1.A.3). Generally, in the occupations where female part-timers are concentrated, the gap between the median hourly earnings of female part-time and full-time workers is less than ten per cent. The differences for men are generally larger than those for women. It is striking that, for many countries, the gaps between part-time and full-time median hourly earnings within the various occupation groups are all smaller than the gap for all employees taken together. This is explained by the

5. The basis for this statement, which remains to be investigated further, is that in response to household surveys asking employees to classify themselves as part-time or full-time workers, many employees in southern European countries working under 30 hours a week (and even under 20 hours a week) fail to report themselves as part-time workers. A similar situation may exist with respect to the enterprise-based data presented in this section (see Box 2).

6. For a detailed analysis using French data, see Friez (1999). Kaukewitsch and Rouault (1998) find that almost all of the difference between the hourly earnings of part- and full-time workers in France, and 95 per cent of the difference in Germany can be explained by the different characteristics of part- and full-time workers and of their jobs.

Table 1.5. Median hourly earnings of part-time workers, by gender, 1995

Percentage of median hourly earnings of full-time workers

	Men	Women	All
Australia ^a	89.4
Belgium	74.7	86.8	78.4
Canada ^a	46.9	69.8	55.9
Denmark	74.2	76.4	74.2
Finland	76.5	90.2	82.6
France ^b	73.2	81.7	73.0
Germany	78.4	87.5	82.5
Greece ^c	79.6	108.8	86.6
Italy	83.1	103.0	87.4
Luxembourg	78.6	77.5	69.5
Netherlands	69.8	93.1	73.2
Portugal	80.8	113.0	90.0
Spain	66.4	84.0	67.8
Sweden	88.7	92.3	87.2
United Kingdom	54.2	69.6	58.0
United States ^d	44.0	62.5	54.3
Unweighted average	71.3	86.4	75.6

.. Data not available.

a) 1997.

b) 1994.

c) Industry only.

d) 1996.

Sources: Australia: ABS, *Weekly Earnings of Employees*, August 1997; Canada: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, 1997; EUROSTAT, Structure of Earnings Survey, 1995; United States: OECD Secretariat calculations using the 1996 US Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey annual earnings file (outgoing rotation groups).

Table 1.6. Median part-time hourly earnings, by hours usually worked and gender, 1997

Percentage of median full-time hourly earnings in each category^a

	Australia	Canada	United Kingdom ^b	United States ^c
All				
1-20 hours	88.6	54.2	57.7	53.1
21-30 hours	90.6	67.7	69.2	59.0
Men				
1-20 hours	..	43.8	49.6	44.0
21-30 hours	..	56.3	64.1	48.0
Women				
1-20 hours	..	62.1	66.1	60.0
21-30 hours	..	81.5	78.1	70.0

.. Data not available.

a) Categories vary somewhat, as follows: Australia: 1-19 hours, 20-34 hours; Canada: 1-20 hours, 21-29 hours.

b) 1998.

c) 1996.

Sources: Australia: ABS, *Weekly Earnings of Employees*, August 1997; Canada: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, 1997; United Kingdom: ONS, Labour Force Survey, Spring 1998; United States: OECD Secretariat calculations using the 1996 US Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey annual earnings file (outgoing rotation groups).

concentration of part-time workers in relatively low paid occupational groups.⁷

Labour force survey data from Canada and the United States also permit a disaggregation of full- and part-timers' hourly earnings by educational attainment. In both countries, part-timers in all educational categories earn less than their full-time counterparts. However, the gap is smallest for part-timers with at least some college or university education. At each level of educational attainment, the gap for men is greater than the corresponding gap for women.

Another highly relevant way of disaggregating part-time workers is according to their hours of work. A number of studies, including Dekker *et al.* (1999), Galtier (1998), Hakim (1997) and OECD (1994) have noted that part-time working of very short hours has been tending to grow in a number of OECD countries and have expressed concern that average hourly earnings in such short-hours jobs may be lower than for part-time working as a whole. Data presented in Table 1.6 and Annex Table 1.A.4 show that part-time working of under 20 hours has generally increased in absolute numbers, over the period 1987 to 1997. However, it has not generally increased any faster than part-time working as a whole. It represented just under 45 per cent of total part-time working in both 1987 and 1997.⁸ Data presented in Table 1.6 indicate that, at least for the four countries shown, part-timers working 20 hours or less have lower earnings than those working over 20 hours, sometimes substantially so.

A comparison of averages leaves aside the important issue of how the hourly earnings of the lowest paid part-time workers relate to the hourly earnings of the lowest paid full-time workers. This is investigated here by looking at the "bottom decile" of the distributions, that is the maximum earnings of those workers whose earnings are in the bottom tenth of all workers. For part-time workers, the bottom decile of their earnings distribution is lower than that for full-time workers, sometimes markedly so (Table 1.7). However, the table also shows that the gap is generally smaller for the bottom decile than it is for the

medians. One factor behind this may be the effects of minimum wage laws and minima in collective agreements, both likely to have a more noticeable effect on the lower hourly earnings of part-time workers. In addition, some countries – particularly in Europe – have laws or legal precedents against discrimination against part-time workers, which may help to mitigate downward pressure on their hourly earnings.⁹

One factor likely to be relevant to differences in earnings is work experience. This is related both to tenure in the job and to the type of contract – temporary or permanent. As shown in Table 1.8, part-time workers are more likely to have short tenures and less likely to have long tenures than is the case for full-time workers. In most countries, the bulk of part-time workers have tenures of under five years, while full-time workers tend to have tenures of over five years. In addition, a comparison of the overlap between part-time and temporary working reveals a greater tendency for part-timers to work in temporary jobs (Table 1.9). A greater share of men in part-time work have temporary contracts than is the case for women: in four countries, over one-half of male part-timers are employed in temporary jobs.

D. Benefits

Comparisons of hourly earnings probably provide a conservative assessment of the overall differences in hourly compensation and labour costs between full-time and part-time work. In the European Union, the legal protection for part-time workers proscribes discrimination by employers against part-time workers in pay, certain benefits, working conditions and redundancy policy [European Council Directive 97/81/EC (15 December 1997)].¹⁰ In addition, in many European countries, collective agreements are used to support the principle that part-time workers are entitled to the same rights and benefits as full-time workers (generally on a *pro-rata* basis) [Cranfield (1997)]. However, in some countries, this does not apply to part-time workers who work below a certain threshold number of hours. For example, public health, old-age

7. EUROSTAT (1997), in a comparison of gross hourly earnings in France, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom, also found that in all four countries part-timers on average were less well paid than full-timers, and that this was connected with the fact that most part-timers are in low-paid occupations. Grimshaw and Rubery (1997) find similar results in an analysis of highly disaggregated occupational hours and earnings data for Australia, Canada, Germany, France, Norway, the United Kingdom and the United States.

8. The same tendency for part-time working of short hours to represent a roughly constant proportion of total part-time working can also be observed for the 1980s [OECD (1991)].

9. In Europe, the relatively high representation of women among part-time workers is sometimes reflected in a certain amount of legal protection for part-time workers; treatment that has an adverse impact on persons of a particular gender may be deemed to constitute indirect discrimination and, therefore, be considered unlawful. As a consequence, court cases have established that it is unlawful for an employer to discriminate indirectly in pay, unless there are objective reasons not related to gender [Neathey and Hurstfield (1995, p. 170); Thompsons (1997)].

10. This is sometimes bolstered by specific protection in national law. For example, in the Netherlands, the 1996 Law on the Equal Treatment of Part-Time and Full-Time Employment requires equal treatment in terms of hourly earnings and social protection for part-time and full-time workers fulfilling equal functions.

Table 1.7. **First decile and median part-time hourly earnings, 1995**

Percentage of median full-time hourly earnings

	First decile		Median
	Full-time	Part-time	Part-time
Belgium	73	57	78
Canada ^a	51	39	56
Denmark	70	39	74
Finland	74	61	83
France ^b	68	62	73
Germany	70	56	83
Greece ^c	66	75	87
Italy	71	68	87
Luxembourg	63	53	70
Netherlands	66	36	73
Portugal	62	57	90
Spain	58	43	68
Sweden	79	70	87
United Kingdom	57	43	58
United States ^d	52	39	54
Unweighted average	65	53	75

a) 1997.

b) 1994.

c) 1993, industry only.

d) 1996.

Sources: Canada: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, 1997; EUROSTAT, Structure of Earnings Survey, 1995; United States: OECD Secretariat calculations using the 1996 US Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey annual earnings file (outgoing rotation groups).

pension, and unemployment benefits in Germany, Ireland, Japan and Sweden have hours or earnings minima for eligibility [Doudeijns (1998); OECD (1998a)].

Outside the European Union part-time workers may be less well protected. They may, in particular, receive fewer employer-provided benefits (*e.g.* paid holidays), although this differential is limited in some cases by law or collective bargaining agreements [Houseman (1997a); Gornick and Jacobs (1996); Thompsons (1997)]. In particular, in the United States, where part-time work is less common than in the average OECD country, part-timers appear to be offered comparatively few benefits. A recent study by the WE Upjohn Institute for Employment Research found that about three-quarters of establishments said that the hourly pay for part-time workers was about the same as for regular employees in similar positions [Houseman (1997a)]. However, nearly 63 per cent said that the cost of hourly pay *plus benefits* was lower. Houseman (1997b) also notes that only about 60 per cent of the establishments claimed to provide over one-half of their part-time workers with at least one of five benefits (paid vacations, sick leave, pensions, profit sharing, or

health insurance), while virtually all reported providing at least one of these to their regular full-time workers. A separate study by Lettau (1995) also found that part-timers had lower compensation (*i.e.* wages and benefits) than full-timers, even when their jobs were in the same establishment and occupation. Finally, a report by the US Department of Labor found a clear positive correlation between the number of hours worked and private-sector employer sponsorship of health plans [USDOL (1995)].¹¹

For Canada, Lipsett and Reesor (1997) found that part-timers were less likely than full-timers to be entitled to company pensions, health plans, dental plans, paid sick leave, and paid vacation leave. Drawing on the 1995 Survey of Work Arrangements, they present data showing that part-timer entitlement rates for each of these benefits were less than two-fifths of those for full-timers.

E. Training

While information on earnings allows some assessment of the current remuneration of part-time jobs as compared with full-time jobs, data on the incidence of

11. In some cases, however, the lack of benefits does not leave part-timers unprotected. The Employment Policy Foundation [EPF (1997)] found that more than one-third of all American part-timers received health insurance from the employer of a relative (*e.g.* a spouse or parent) or other person.

Table 1.8. **Distribution of job tenures for part-time and full-time wage earners and salaried employees aged 15 years and older, by gender, 1997**

Percentages

	All						Men						Women					
	Part-time			Full-time			Part-time			Full-time			Part-time			Full-time		
	Less than 1 year	1 year to under 5 years	5 years or more	Less than 1 year	1 year to under 5 years	5 years or more	Less than 1 year	1 year to under 5 years	5 years or more	Less than 1 year	1 year to under 5 years	5 years or more	Less than 1 year	1 year to under 5 years	5 years or more	Less than 1 year	1 year to under 5 years	5 years or more
Austria	5	7	88	3	13	84	16	18	66	3	11	86	4	6	90	5	16	80
Belgium	13	24	63	11	24	65	15	25	60	10	24	66	13	24	64	12	25	63
Canada ^a	42	36	22	24	34	42	48	34	18	22	31	47	40	36	24	28	40	32
Czech Republic	33	43	24	16	36	48	31	45	24	15	36	49	33	42	25	16	36	48
Denmark	35	37	28	20	30	50	41	42	17	21	29	50	32	34	34	21	29	50
Finland	39	26	35	18	19	62	45	26	28	19	22	59	35	26	40	18	17	66
France	24	27	49	13	23	65	22	25	54	13	23	64	25	29	46	12	22	66
Germany	18	31	51	13	27	59	32	37	31	13	26	62	16	31	54	15	30	55
Greece	15	28	57	11	27	62	13	23	64	10	25	65	17	30	53	12	30	58
Hungary	21	38	41	15	32	53	21	39	41	16	34	50	22	38	41	14	30	56
Iceland	34	33	34	23	25	52	46	35	19	24	24	53	30	32	37	22	27	52
Ireland	29	31	39	18	30	52	29	29	41	17	28	55	47	27	27	19	33	48
Italy	13	25	62	8	24	68	12	25	64	8	23	69	14	25	62	9	25	66
Luxembourg	12	31	57	9	28	63	10	28	61	8	25	67	12	32	56	11	34	55
Netherlands	11	32	57	11	28	61	18	39	43	10	25	65	10	30	60	52	31	17
Norway	26	22	52	22	21	57	39	30	32	22	21	57	24	20	56	21	22	57
Poland
Portugal	19	24	57	16	23	62	26	24	50	16	23	61	17	24	59	15	23	62
Spain	59	19	22	32	15	53	70	17	13	31	14	54	56	20	24	33	16	51
Sweden	20	25	55	11	22	67	34	31	35	11	25	64	17	23	61	10	19	71
Switzerland	21	36	44	15	30	55	26	39	35	14	27	59	19	35	46	18	37	45
United Kingdom	30	34	36	19	29	53	43	37	20	19	28	54	27	33	40	18	31	51
Unweighted average	25	29	46	16	26	59	30	31	39	15	25	60	24	28	47	18	27	55

.. Data not available.

a) Includes self-employed and unpaid family workers.

Sources: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey, 1997; Statistics Canada, *Labour Force Historical Review*, 1997.

— Table 1.9. **Proportion of temporary jobs^a within full-time and part-time employment, —
by gender, 1997**

Percentage of total employment in each category shown^b

	Full-time		Part-time	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Austria	7	10	11	5
Belgium	4	8	25	10
Denmark	10	13	16	8
Finland	13	16	45	35
France	10	11	48	22
Germany	11	15	24	7
Ireland	4	6	61	33
Italy	6	7	56	27
Netherlands	5	10	28	17
Norway	8	12	30	17
Sweden	7	9	43	21
United Kingdom	5	6	25	11
Unweighted average	7	10	34	18

a) Temporary jobs are defined as those for which termination is said to be determined by objective conditions such as reaching a certain date, completion of an assignment or return of another employee who was temporarily replaced.

b) Includes wage earners and salaried employees aged 15 to 64 years with either temporary or permanent contracts; excludes non-responses.

Source: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey, 1997.

training allows some assessment of the future employability and earnings prospects that the two sorts of job provide. This sub-section looks at the incidence of employer-provided training – excluding initial training – for part-time and full-time prime-age workers (aged 25 to 54 years), comparing the influence of the hours distinction on the probability of training with other factors. The two data sources used are the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and the European Labour Force Survey (ELFS). (See Chapter 3 for an extensive analysis of training issues and statistics.)

In order to make valid comparisons of the incidence of training with respect to the employment of part- and full-time workers, it is necessary to restrict the age range concerned and the types of training that are considered. One common reason young people give for working part-time is to free-up time to use in further education and training outside the workplace [OECD (1998a)]. For this reason, the comparisons here are restricted to the age-range 25 to 54 years. In order to be relevant for the quality of the job itself, training should be paid for or provided by the employer, rather than by the employee. A job-oriented assessment also requires that initial training (*i.e.* training prior to any employment) and apprenticeship training be excluded, as they may not be directly associated with the job.

The IALS survey defines training to include both adult education and training, in a broad definition that

includes courses, private lessons, workshops, on-the-job training and other forms of structured learning, taken during the 12 months preceding the survey. Additional questions were used to narrow this definition, in order to assess career and job-related training versus employer-provided training. The ELFS guidelines also allow for a number of different definitions of training. In order to focus on employer provided training, a relatively restricted definition was selected. This considers training to be “specific vocational training in a working environment” paid for or provided by the person’s employer, during the four weeks preceding the survey, and relevant for the current or possible future job of the respondent [EUROSTAT (1996)]. Courses for personal interests, hobbies or general application (*e.g.* driving lessons) and “dual system” and apprenticeship-type training are excluded. The differences in the definitions mean that the data from the two surveys cannot be compared. In addition, the variation between the ELFS questionnaires used in the different countries precludes international comparisons of levels of training using the ELFS. For this reason, this survey is used here only for comparisons of the *relative* incidence of training received (see Annex 1.B for details of these surveys).

Given their overall characteristics, part-time workers might be expected to have a lower incidence of training than their full-time counterparts. For example, the ELFS data indicate that, on average, they tend to have

lower educational attainment and a greater likelihood of working in smaller firms. Both are factors generally associated with lower incidences of training. In most EU countries, small firms tend to have a lower incidence of training than large firms (Annex 1.A, Tables 1.A.5 and 1.A.6).

Data from the IALS survey show this expectation to be generally confirmed. The top panel (A) of Table 1.10 presents IALS data, relating only to career or job-related training. The data are disaggregated by gender, age and educational attainment—sample size restrictions do not permit greater detail to be shown. The bottom panel (B) presents data restricted to training funded at least partly by the employer. The numbers in the bottom panel tend to be smaller, reflecting the fact that employer-provided training is generally career- or job-related (but the opposite is not always true). It can be seen that part-time workers tend to experience a lower incidence of training than full-timers in nearly all of the countries and regions shown.¹² On average, the gap in the incidence of training between part- and full-time workers is greater with respect to employer-provided training than with respect to career and job-related training. Disaggregation reveals, for both full- and part-timers, that the incidence of career and job-related training tends to be higher for the youngest groups of workers and for those with tertiary educational attainment. The age pattern is less pronounced in the case of employer-provided training. A detailed examination coupled with the raw IALS results shows little tendency for the gap between the incidence of employer-provided training for part- and full-time workers to narrow as the level of education attainment rises.

The ELFS data indicate a similar pattern (Table 1.11). These data, which refer to the relative incidence of employer-provided vocational training, also indicate that part-timers tend to have lower training incidences than full-timers.¹³ In nine countries, women part-

timers experienced training incidences that are more than 25 per cent lower than those for women full-timers; this is also the case for men in three countries. There are some exceptions where part-timers appeared to have incidences that equal or exceed those of full-timers – e.g. male part-timers in Germany, Hungary and Ireland. The reasons for these results are unclear.¹⁴

The ELFS data also allow an estimation of the differences between the *relative* training incidences of part- and full-time workers, after controlling for a number of relevant variables, comprising age, education, job tenure, establishment size and broad industrial sector. This was done by fitting a logit model separately for men and women in eleven countries. The results are provided in Table 1.12. They refer to the probability of training for relatively common categories of part-time workers, relative to the probability of training for workers having exactly the same characteristics, except for being full-time workers. The underlying logit coefficients, most of which are statistically significant, are shown in Annex Tables 1.A.5 and 1.A.6.

Comparing the results in Tables 1.11 and 1.12 shows that controlling for the additional variables does cause some attenuation of the estimated difference for women between the training incidences of part- and full-time workers. The results for men are mixed. However, the estimated impact of the part-time/full-time distinction on the likelihood of training remains substantial. Sometimes, it is one of the most important factors in the model. Nevertheless, generally, at least one other variable has a stronger impact than part-time working status (as measured by the relative sizes of the coefficients). In particular, sector of employment or educational attainment are often more important. Once again, as discussed above, for men in some countries, the estimated incidence of training is higher for part-time working than for full-time working.

12. The result for Canada is the sole exception. However, this figure was of low statistical significance. In a contrasting finding, De Broucker (1997) found that part-time workers received less employer-supported training than full-time workers in Canada. His finding was based on a national source, the 1994 Adult Education and Training Survey.

A number of studies confirm the lower incidence of training for part-timers in other countries. An Australian study found that the incidence of employer support for formal training of part-time workers was only about one-half of that of full-time workers [Fraser (1996)]. Cranfield (1997) found that, in Denmark, Finland, France, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, there was a negative correlation between spending on training and use of part-time employment, which the study suggested might be linked to the use of part-time labour as a means of reducing labour costs. In the United States, a BLS survey found that part-time workers receive less formal training than full-time workers, as well as much less informal training [BLS (1996)]. Frazis *et al.* (1998) also found in the United States a strong, negative relationship between the share of part time workers in a firm and the incidence of formal employer-provided training during the previous 12 months.

13. Due to differences in definitions used in the various national surveys, the training levels and probabilities are not strictly comparable between countries. Therefore, an index presentation is used in Tables 1.11 and 1.12. Data for some EU countries have been excluded on the grounds that the questionnaires departed too far from the standard, or because the results seemed implausible.

14. Disaggregations by age and by job tenure of the incidence of employer-provided vocational training among part-timers in these countries did not point to particularly high incidences of training for part-timers in the 25-to-34 year age group or among those with low job tenure (except for Ireland). Thus, there does not appear to be a particular confounding of initial, dual system or apprenticeship training with the type of employer-provided vocational training considered here. Nevertheless, it cannot be ruled out that the high incidences of employer-provided vocational training shown in the data are exaggerated to some extent by a confounding of employer-provided vocational training with other types of education or training.

Table 1.10. Incidence of training for part-time and full-time workers, by gender, age group and education attainment, 1994

Percentage of wage earners and salaried employees aged 25 to 54 years

	Total		Gender				Age (years)						Educational attainment					
			Men		Women		25-34		35-44		45-54		Less than upper secondary		Upper secondary		Tertiary	
	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time
Panel A. Career or job-related training																		
Belgium (Flanders)	13	22	–	22	14	20	–	24	14*	18	–	23	–	8*	–	23	19*	37
Canada	42*	37	–	39	43*	34	–	42	52*	40	–	26	–	–	28*	30	56*	50
Germany	17*	21	–	19	17*	25	–	23	–	23	–	15*	11*	16	–	26*	–	25
Ireland	18*	26	–	22	16*	34	–	28	21*	24	–	25*	–	18*	–	27	–	37
Netherlands	24	38	33*	39	23	36	29	40	26	40	14*	33	16*	27	28	40	31	49
New Zealand	37	52	46*	48	36	59	37	53	38	53	36*	50	29	41	31*	55	55	66
Poland	–	20	–	20	–	19	–	20	–	20	–	18	–	10	–	28	–	31
Sweden
Switzerland (French)	28	30	–	32	28	25	27*	32	33*	28*	–	28*	–	–	30*	30	42*	40
Switzerland (German)	30*	35	–	35	31*	36	–	39	31*	35	40*	29	–	–	38*	37	–	42
United Kingdom	45	62	–	58	46	69	43*	68	61	61	29*	53	39	50	–	66	76	78
United States	41	50	–	49	41	51	46	48	38	50	36*	51	–	20*	37*	38	56	67
Unweighted average^a	30	37	40	44	29	39	36	48	35	39	31	43	24	34	32	38	48	55
Panel B. Employer-provided training^b																		
Belgium (Flanders)	12	20	–	21	13*	16*	–	21	16*	17	–	21	–	6*	–	20*	17*	35
Canada	–	30	–	32	–	27	–	33	–	33	–	21	–	–	–	25	–	41
Germany	8*	9	–	8	9*	9*	–	7	–	11*	–	7*	9*	7*	–	–	–	11*
Ireland	–	19	–	17	–	22	–	21	–	18*	–	16*	–	14*	–	18	–	26
Netherlands	20	38	–	39	19	36	18*	40	23	39	15*	35	12*	29	23*	39	26	48
New Zealand	24	41	–	38	25	46	18*	41	28	42	23*	40	18*	33	19*	38	36*	54
Poland	–	17	–	18	–	15	–	17	–	18	–	16*	–	9	–	24	–	26
Sweden	44	58	–	54	46	63	32*	56	52	59	45	58	37	44	40	57	54	66
Switzerland (French)	18	26	–	28	19	21	–	26	22*	23*	–	29	–	–	25*	26	–	33
Switzerland (German)	20*	31	–	30	20*	31	–	33	20*	28	30*	28	–	–	29*	31	–	38
United Kingdom	38	59	–	56	38	66	32	65	51	60	27*	52	33	49	–	64	59	74
United States	27*	42	–	43	29*	42	30*	38	21*	43	31*	45	–	16*	23*	31	39*	58
Unweighted average^a	23	36	–	35	24	50	26	33	29	39	28	43	22	32	27	37	38	56

.. Data not available.

– Not significant: sample size less than 30, or very high levels of error associated with the estimate (coefficient of variation in excess of 33.3 per cent).

* High levels of error associated with the estimate (coefficient of variation in the range 16.6 to 33.3 per cent).

a) Includes only countries where data are available for both part-time and full-time.

b) Includes all training at least partly financed by an employer.

Source: International Adult Literacy Survey, 1994-95.

Table 1.11. **Relative incidence of employer-provided training^a for part-time workers, by gender, 1997**

Wage earners and salaried employees, aged 25 to 54 years
Percentage of the incidence for full-time workers

	Men		Women	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Austria	.. ^b	.. ^b	100	65
Belgium	100	79	100	33
Denmark	100	31	100	67
Finland	100	30	100	45
Germany	100	100	100	50
Hungary	100	128	100	76
Ireland	100	100	100	79
Netherlands	100	51	100	43
Norway	.. ^b	.. ^b	100	53
Sweden	.. ^b	.. ^b	100	60
United Kingdom	.. ^b	.. ^b	100	72
Unweighted average	100	59

.. Data not available.

a) Based on the incidence of training in previous 4 weeks; excludes "dual-system" or apprenticeship-type training.

b) Sample size too small to allow an estimate to be made.

Source: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey, 1997.

Table 1.12. **Relative likelihood of employer-provided training: hypothetical individuals, ^a 1997**

Wage earners and salaried employees, aged 25 to 54
Index: probability for full-timers = 100

	Men Age: 25 to 29 years Education: upper secondary Job tenure: 1 to 5 years Establishment size: 11 to 19 employees Sector: wholesale and retail trade, repairs		Women Age: 40 to 44 years Education: upper secondary Job tenure: 1 to 5 years Establishment size: 11 to 19 employees Sector: wholesale and retail trade, repairs	
	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time
Austria	.. ^b	.. ^b	100	90
Belgium	100	63	100	48
Denmark	100	27	100	69
Finland	100	33	100	49
Germany	100	37	.. ^b	.. ^b
Hungary	100	124	100	64
Ireland	.. ^b	.. ^b	100	81
Netherlands	100	62	100	65
Norway	.. ^b	.. ^b	100	39
Sweden	100	19	100	71
United Kingdom	100	62	100	75
Unweighted average	100	65

.. Data not available.

a) Secretariat calculations using logistic regression. See Tables 1.A.5. and 1.A.6.

b) The stepwise regression model used did not retain the working hours status variable.

Source: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey, 1997.

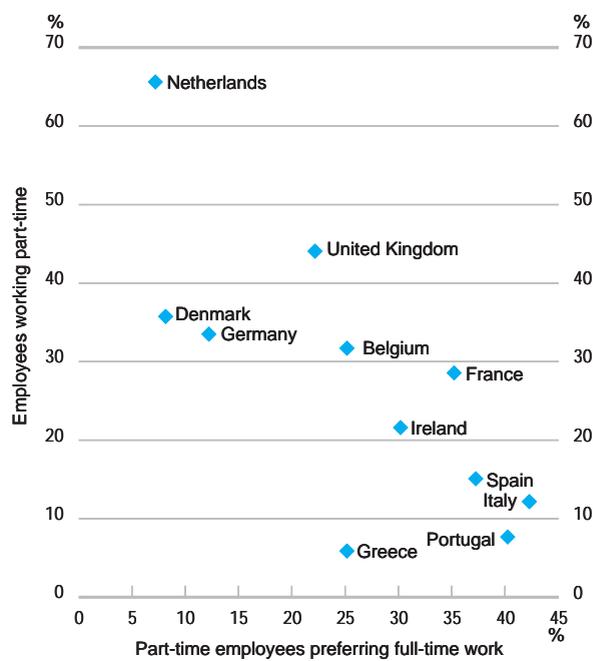
F. Preferences for part-time and full-time working

One of the distinguishing features of part-time employment, as opposed to other forms of non-standard employment, such as shift-working, is the strongly favourable attitude of many employees towards it. This applies both to those who already work part-time and, in many cases, also to those who work full-time. One way of looking at such issues is through the use of attitude data. Such information must always be treated with particular care, as substantial differences in response to questions can result from minor changes in their wording. In addition, information on attitudes must be understood to apply only in the context of the specific institutional arrangements applying in the different countries at the time of the survey. For example, in the case of women with children, many analysts have stressed that attitudes to part-time working may well depend upon the child-care arrangements respondents feel are available to them. As noted in the introduction, the definition of part-time working used here is not the OECD definition of under 30 hours per week, but was left to the appreciation of the survey respondents.

Information on the relative preferences for part-time and full-time working is provided by the 1994 *ad hoc* Labour Market Survey of employees commissioned by the European Commission (1995). While this is a comparatively small survey, conducted for the European Commission by market research organisations, rather than National Statistical Offices, and is subject to relatively large sampling errors, its particular advantage in the present context is that the same questions were asked in all countries.^{15, 16} Table 1.13 and Chart 1.1, derived primarily from this survey, show the following:

- In all the countries included, with the exception of Spain, men working part-time show a much higher preference for full-time working than do women (Table 1.13). The proportion of men working part-time who say they would prefer to work full time varies from a one-quarter in the Netherlands to 100 per cent in Portugal.
- The proportion of women part-timers saying they would prefer to work full-time is well under a half

Chart 1.1. Proportion of women employees working part-time, and of women part-time employees preferring full-time work, 1994



Sources: European Commission (1995); EUROSTAT (1995a).

in all countries, and under 10 per cent in some (Table 1.13).

- The higher the proportion of women working part-time in a given country, the smaller tends to be the proportion of them who say they would prefer to work full-time. For example, in Italy, where 12 per cent of women reported they work part-time, 42 per cent said they would prefer to work full-time. On the other hand, in the Netherlands, where 65 per cent of women worked part-time, only 7 per cent said they would prefer to work full-time (see Chart 1.1, the correlation coefficient is -0.8).

15. The precise question posed in the survey was as follows:

a) If you are a full-time employee, would you rather have part-time employment with a correspondingly lower salary? (Yes/No).

b) If you are a part-time employee, would you rather have full-time employment? (Yes/No).

16. Figures from the European Labour Force Survey (ELFS) show some changes in preferences for full-time work among women part-time workers over the period 1994 to 1997 for the countries for which suitable data are available. To be precise, in the ELFS as administered in Denmark, France, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, part-time workers were asked to single out one of the following reasons for working part-time: "in education/training"; "owing to illness or handicap"; "not able to find full-time work"; "full-time working not wanted" (for France, the first two reasons were omitted). In response, in 1994, the proportions of women opting for the last reason were 58%, 63%, 81% and 80%, respectively. In 1997 they were 61%, 61%, 82% and 79%.

Table 1.13. Preferences for full-time and part-time employment, 1994

Proportion of employees in category shown^a

	All		Men		Women	
	Part-timers preferring full-time work	Full-timers preferring part-time work	Part-timers preferring full-time work	Full-timers preferring part-time work	Part-timers preferring full-time work	Full-timers preferring part-time work
Belgium	27	17	31	9	25	36
Denmark	14	13	69	7	8	21
Germany	15	7	52	5	12	10
Greece	25	8	33	8	25	9
France	41	17	69	11	35	28
Ireland	38	10	78	8	30	12
Italy	43	26	83	22	42	32
Netherlands	8	16	25	13	7	23
Portugal	62	5	100	7	40	2
Spain	36	10	36	8	37	14
United Kingdom	29	5	72	3	22	9
Unweighted average	31	12	59	9	26	18

a) For example, the first figure in the first row, for Belgium, indicates that 27 per cent of Belgian employees working part-time said they would prefer to work full-time.

Source: European Commission (1995, Tables 26a-c).

Table 1.14. Share of involuntary part-time employment^a in total part-time employment,^b by gender, 1997

Percentages

	All	Men	Women
Australia	11.2	17.0	8.5
Canada	31.3	34.9	29.8
Czech Republic	3.1	1.8	3.7
Denmark	13.6	13.1	13.9
Finland	37.6	32.8	40.2
France	41.3	52.9	38.8
Germany	13.3	17.8	12.6
Greece	41.0	50.2	36.0
Japan ^c	15.8	18.9	4.0
Netherlands	5.5	8.2	4.6
Norway	15.7	17.2	15.2
Portugal	21.6	16.1	24.1
Sweden	32.0	34.7	31.3
Switzerland	6.3	8.4	5.8
United Kingdom	12.2	23.8	9.5
United States	7.8	7.4	8.0
Unweighted average	19.3	22.2	17.9

a) Defined as part-time workers who say they are working part-time because they could not find full-time work.

b) For European countries, excludes self-employed and family workers.

c) 1996.

Sources: OECD database on full-time/part-time employment; OECD database on involuntary part-time employment; *United States*: OECD Secretariat calculations using the March 1997 US Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey CD-ROM; EUROSTAT (1998).

A wider range of national information is available from statistics which attempt to measure the incidence of “involuntary part-time working”. This information is produced by questions asking part-time workers why they are working part-time, taking involuntary part-time workers to be those who reply that they have been unable to find full-time work. Owing to the fact that the questions used differ between countries, international comparisons should be made only with caution.¹⁷ However, in general, it appears that the proportion of involuntary part-time workers is a minority of total part-time working for both sexes. Sometimes, as in the Netherlands, it is only a small minority (Table 1.14). The data show the same general pattern as those in Table 1.13, with the figures for men uniformly higher than those for women. Again, the higher the proportion of women working part-time in a given country, the lower tends to be the proportion of involuntary part-timers among women working part-time. Data on involuntary part-time working generally follow movements in unemployment closely [OECD (1995)]. However, despite the improvement in the economic cycle since 1993, the share of involuntary part-time working has increased quite strongly in France [Forgéot and Lengart (1997)], as well as in Germany, Greece and the Netherlands.

G. Transitions out of part-time working

Information on transitions into part-time employment has been available for a number of countries for many years. It has been used, for example by O’Reilly (1997) to illustrate the importance of part-time working as an entry mechanism into the labour market, particularly for some types of unemployed workers. However, the retrospective surveys on which this information is based (notably the European Labour Force Survey) often provide no way for assessing the rate of exit from part-time working into other forms of employment. This subsection, therefore, reviews a number of recent longitudinal analyses providing that information for seven countries.¹⁸

Some general conclusions emerge from these studies:

- The rate of transition out of part-time working into full-time employment is much higher for men than

for women [Anxo *et al.* (1999); Dekker *et al.* (1999); Galtier (1998); Bothfeld and O’Reilly (1999); Smith *et al.* (1999)]. At the same time, the experience of women is by no means uniform. Blank (1994) and Hakim (1996) suggest that this is because of a heterogeneity among women: some are relatively constant in their labour market decisions, others change labour market states frequently.

- Transitions out of part-time employment to full-time employment are more frequent for younger, more highly-educated and more highly-skilled workers. In the United States, Blank (1994) finds that less-educated women are more likely to terminate spells of part-time work by leaving the labour market. For both the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, Smith *et al.* (1999) find that professionals and highly-skilled people are more likely to move from part- to full-time.
- For France and the Netherlands, and no doubt for some other countries, part-time workers working very short hours are less likely to move into full-time working than other part-timers [Galtier (1998) for France and Dekker *et al.* (1999) for the Netherlands].

The studies also tend to emphasise the difference in the role of part-time working in the labour markets of different countries, often confirming the impression given by the cross-sectional information provided earlier in this section:

- For Spain, Smith *et al.* (1999) find evidence of considerable instability of part-time working. Longer part-time job tenure seems to decrease the probability of entering a full-time job.
- In the United States, the part-time workforce is dominated by younger and older workers. Part-time working is mainly used as a source of short-term jobs during education and the transition to retirement. Movements from part-time working into full-time working are rare [Blank (1994)].
- For the Netherlands and Germany there is little flow out of part-time working. For women in the Netherlands, Dekker *et al.* (1999) find part-time

17. Another possible component of involuntary part-time working consists of people working part-time “for economic reasons”, which refers to people whose hours have been reduced because of slack economic conditions. This is not included here.

18. The studies reviewed, the countries they cover, and brief details of the data sources employed, are as follows: Anxo *et al.* (1999): Netherlands, Dutch Socio-Economic Panel, waves 1986 and 1991; and Sweden, Household Market and Non-market Activities survey, matched panel from the 1986 and 1991 surveys; Blank (1994): United States, Panel Survey of Income Dynamics, from 1976 to 1990; Dekker *et al.* (1999): Netherlands, Dutch Socio-Economic Panel, waves 1985 to 1994; Galtier (1998): France, matched samples from national labour force survey (*Enquête-Emploi*), for 1994, 1995 and 1996; Bothfeld and O’Reilly (1999): Germany, German Socio-Economic Panel, and United Kingdom, British Household Panel Survey, both for January 1990 to December 1995; Smith *et al.* (1999): Spain and United Kingdom, matched samples from national Labour Force Surveys, both for Spring 1995 and Spring 1996. Final versions of Anxo *et al.* (1999), Bothfeld and O’Reilly (1999) and Smith *et al.* (1999) are to be published in O’Reilly *et al.* (forthcoming).

employment of longer hours almost as stable as full-time employment. For Germany, Bothfeld and O'Reilly (1999) also find little movement out of part-time working, with almost no movement into full-time working.

- For France and the United Kingdom, there is evidence of a small amount of movement out of involuntary part-time working into full-time employment and voluntary part-time working. For France, Galtier (1998) finds that, out of those women part-timers in 1994 who said they would prefer longer hours, two years later just under a quarter had moved into full-time work and slightly under another quarter were still working part-time but were now satisfied with their hours. For the United Kingdom, Smith *et al.* (1999) find that, over the period 1995-1996, 16 per cent of those part-time women workers who said they would prefer full-time working moved into full-time working.
- For Sweden, the use of part-time working as an interlude in a full-time career, involving transitions first from full-time working to part-time and then back again to full-time, is a common way for women to combine market work with family responsibilities [Anxo *et al.* (1999)].

Conclusions

Part-time working represents a growing share of employment in many countries, and has been an important source of job growth over the past decade. The evidence presented in this chapter confirms that part-time jobs tend to receive lower hourly earnings than full-time ones and experience a lower incidence of employer-provided training than full-time workers. While most men working part-time say they would prefer to work full-time, this is not the case for women.

The importance of part-time working for employment as a whole, and for women's employment in particular, varies considerably from country to country. This chapter shows that a relatively high incidence of part-time working in employment as a whole is associated with a relatively low proportion of part-time workers saying that they would prefer to work full-time, a relatively low proportion of part-time workers in temporary jobs and a relatively large variation in hours of work (when part-time working is relatively common there is a relatively high share of part-time workers carrying out work of both very short hours, and longer hours, close to those of full-time working). On the other hand, it appears that a higher incidence of part-time working is not associated with a higher level of part-time hourly earnings relative to full-time earnings. For training, there is no clear relationship.

The relatively low levels of employer-provided training received by part-time workers, even when they are well-educated, raise questions for policy. If current demographic trends continue, a higher proportion of adults may live in households where no other adult is present. In addition, the mounting pressures on social security and pensions systems emphasise the importance of securing a higher proportion of lifetime income from employment earnings. Recent reports on ageing, including OECD (1998b), have highlighted the importance of lifetime learning in this regard. On the basis of the evidence in this chapter, these trends may well pose particular difficulties for part-time workers. Not only are they likely to receive lower levels of employer-provided training, but their lower earnings levels, even on an hourly basis, are likely to make it more difficult for them to finance training themselves. In most countries, transitions from part-time to full-time working appears to be rare. The life-time earnings and pension entitlements of part-time workers thus risk being left further behind those of comparable full-timers.

Annex I.A

Supplementary Tables

Table 1.A.1. Contributions of part-time and full-time employment to overall employment change 1987-97, by gender

Percentage of total employment^a in initial year

	Total employment	Part-time			Full-time		
	All	All	Men	Women	All	Men	Women
Australia ^b	1.75	0.88	0.33	0.55	0.87	0.38	0.50
Belgium	0.44	0.41	0.02	0.39	0.03	-0.30	0.33
Canada ^c	1.25	0.42	0.14	0.28	0.83	0.30	0.53
Denmark	0.43	-0.21	0.14	-0.34	0.63	0.17	0.46
France	0.26	0.29	0.04	0.26	-0.03	-0.21	0.18
Germany ^{c, d}	0.56	0.68	0.13	0.55	-0.12	-0.02	-0.10
Greece	0.68	0.23	0.09	0.14	0.45	0.11	0.34
Ireland	2.32	0.95	0.24	0.71	1.37	0.51	0.86
Japan ^{b, c}	1.07	0.76	0.34	0.43	0.31	0.24	0.07
Italy	-0.06	0.31	0.08	0.23	-0.37	-0.40	0.03
Luxembourg ^c	0.76	0.36	0.04	0.32	0.40	0.21	0.19
Netherlands	1.99	0.84	0.00	0.84	1.15	0.69	0.47
New Zealand ^{b, c}	0.98	0.77	0.28	0.49	0.21	-0.05	0.25
Portugal	0.92	0.44	0.14	0.31	0.47	0.01	0.47
Spain	1.22	0.37	0.08	0.29	0.85	0.20	0.65
United Kingdom	0.66	0.35	0.17	0.18	0.31	-0.04	0.35
United States ^e	1.42	0.12	0.04	0.09	1.30	0.60	0.70
OECD^f	0.98	0.47	0.13	0.34	0.51	0.14	0.37
European Union^f	0.85	0.42	0.10	0.32	0.43	0.08	0.35

a) Total employment is defined as the sum of part-time and full-time employment. Part-time employment is defined as work with usual weekly hours less than 30, except for Japan where it is less than 35 per week.

b) Actual hours instead of usual hours.

c) 1986-96 instead of 1987-97.

d) Data for Germany are for western Germany up to 1991. From 1992 onwards data are for Germany.

e) Wage earners and salaried employees only.

f) Unweighted average of above countries.

Sources: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey; and national Labour Force Surveys.

Table 1.A.2. **Median hourly earnings of part-time workers, by gender and sector, 1995**

Percentage of median hourly earnings of full-time workers

Mining and quarrying		Manufacturing		Electricity, gas and water supply		Construction		Wholesale and retail trade, repairs		Hotels and restaurants		Transport, storage and communication		Financial intermediation		Real estate, renting and business activities		Total		
Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	
Men																				
Canada ^a	47.1	66.7	63.0	46.9	..	
Belgium	68.4	0.1	94.1	16.5	90.4	0.4	90.8	2.5	77.1	21.9	81.5	19.1	82.9	17.3	100.2	2.4	63.9	19.8	74.7	100.0
Denmark	76.5	0.2	83.8	29.6	66.8	0.1	93.6	18.7	59.3	22.2	75.2	5.9	79.9	7.5	56.6	2.2	54.4	13.7	74.2	100.0
Finland	84.6	12.0	91.4	0.7	115.2	0.6	80.2	24.5	92.6	14.8	76.8	28.9	54.9	1.6	61.8	16.9	76.5	100.0
France ^b	141.2	0.1	99.3	14.9	67.8	0.4	87.3	2.0	74.6	18.0	98.2	11.7	81.3	6.8	79.9	2.0	59.8	44.2	73.2	100.0
Germany	90.2	40.6	49.7	3.6	82.7	17.5	85.0	35.5	73.3	2.7	78.4	100.0
Italy	86.4	0.8	101.7	23.2	94.7	1.8	103.6	5.0	134.8	12.3	91.8	5.3	85.9	10.7	75.9	2.6	70.5	38.3	83.1	100.0
Netherlands	79.8	12.9	80.8	4.2	68.1	17.3	81.2	7.6	87.0	11.8	88.0	1.9	57.4	43.3	69.8	100.0
Portugal	81.8	28.8	84.1	0.2	96.3	10.0	70.1	23.2	71.9	10.1	109.1	3.7	32.1	0.2	91.7	23.8	80.8	100.0
Spain	91.7	0.3	72.7	20.2	97.6	0.3	85.1	6.9	81.3	22.2	80.4	20.6	68.9	11.2	87.0	4.2	57.3	14.1	66.4	100.0
Sweden	96.5	0.1	89.6	35.1	121.2	0.9	103.8	6.6	97.5	13.0	89.5	5.5	93.3	18.0	84.7	1.6	75.0	19.1	88.7	100.0
United Kingdom	87.4	0.1	86.7	7.6	91.9	0.2	106.3	1.5	63.6	35.5	65.4	26.0	76.3	7.6	65.2	1.8	44.8	19.7	54.2	100.0
Unweighted average^c	92.6	0.2	87.7	21.9	85.6	0.8	95.1	6.9	81.0	22.3	82.8	12.7	84.1	12.4	72.5	2.1	63.7	25.3	74.6	100.0
Women																				
Canada ^a	71.5	88.0	75.9	69.8	..
Belgium	83.1	..	100.5	10.6	99.3	0.6	93.7	1.3	91.3	42.7	91.4	7.3	89.6	5.3	102.0	10.3	76.6	21.8	86.8	100.0
Denmark	83.7	..	87.3	21.7	92.1	0.2	87.7	2.1	79.5	28.6	86.4	10.2	90.7	2.6	89.7	10.3	69.1	24.3	76.4	100.0
Finland	122.6	0.1	99.7	5.1	85.9	0.5	103.6	0.4	96.7	44.6	100.8	13.3	81.9	18.8	100.0	9.4	75.7	7.7	90.2	100.0
France ^b	226.1	0.1	96.7	13.9	117.7	0.5	74.1	1.5	89.3	31.0	99.9	11.4	84.2	2.1	82.2	2.9	73.4	36.6	81.7	100.0
Germany	71.5	0.2	82.3	23.9	89.3	1.4	83.5	8.5	99.3	60.7	97.9	5.3	87.5	100.0
Italy	182.7	0.3	109.8	29.6	95.3	0.5	92.7	1.3	108.3	22.9	98.3	7.0	86.0	11.4	98.4	4.4	90.1	22.4	103.0	100.0
Netherlands	..	0.0	98.7	11.5	96.0	1.2	96.1	28.5	98.2	6.3	113.8	7.3	100.9	6.6	82.1	38.0	93.1	100.0
Portugal	41.2	0.1	98.6	29.1	78.9	0.1	89.9	2.6	96.0	44.2	97.1	10.0	70.3	3.6	59.9	2.0	84.4	8.4	113.0	100.0
Spain	78.2	0.1	82.9	16.9	43.9	0.4	80.1	2.9	101.0	41.2	93.3	14.9	64.5	4.7	72.6	2.2	73.8	16.7	84.0	100.0
Sweden	87.2	0.1	95.6	22.6	105.2	0.6	105.9	2.4	93.9	37.6	88.6	5.0	96.9	7.4	93.3	5.8	84.3	18.4	92.3	100.0
United Kingdom	57.2	0.1	83.6	8.9	86.2	0.3	82.9	1.3	80.7	44.4	81.9	19.1	80.6	3.0	82.3	5.0	63.6	17.8	69.6	100.0
Unweighted average^c	103.4	0.1	94.2	17.6	89.4	0.5	90.0	2.3	93.8	38.8	93.6	10.4	85.8	6.6	89.0	5.8	77.3	21.2	88.9	100.0

.. Data not available.

a) 1997. Due to differences in industrial classification, not all sectors are shown. Total for Canada covers all sectors, including those not shown here.

b) 1994.

c) Excludes Canada.

Sources: EUROSTAT, Structure of Earnings Survey, 1995; Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey, 1997.

Table 1.A.3. Median hourly earnings of part-time workers, by gender and broad occupational group, 1995

Percentage of median hourly earnings of full-time workers

	Legislators, senior officials		Professionals		Technicians and associate professionals		Clerks		Service workers and sales workers		Craft and related trade workers		Plant and machine operators and assemblers		Elementary occupations		Total		
	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	Median	Share of total part-time employment	
Men																			
Belgium	106.2	2.8	91.7	2.9	88.2	6.6	81.6	12.6	74.7	29.2	93.1	10.0	84.6	13.1	85.0	23.0	74.7	100.0	
Denmark	116.9	0.4	77.4	0.8	65.4	2.1	69.8	2.4	71.4	14.6	95.2	23.2	92.6	18.4	80.7	37.5	74.2	100.0	
Finland	100.9	0.8	104.4	3.6	69.8	6.6	84.3	11.1	89.7	34.7	90.4	2.7	97.7	2.9	85.3	37.6	76.5	100.0	
France ^a	151.3	3.0	86.7	4.2	66.6	11.0	77.5	5.7	91.9	16.1	90.6	18.8	97.0	18.9	93.1	22.4	73.2	100.0	
Germany	94.0	3.4	107.8	5.1	71.0	8.4	69.5	12.9	81.0	17.8	88.5	21.7	80.9	6.4	80.7	24.4	78.4	100.0	
Italy	144.1	0.5	88.2	0.5	79.3	7.0	93.3	21.5	83.3	31.3	102.9	13.4	104.7	8.1	83.5	17.6	83.1	100.0	
Netherlands	67.6	5.5	71.1	9.1	67.5	13.2	68.0	13.7	68.4	13.1	74.8	16.8	76.4	13.2	74.4	15.3	69.8	100.0	
Portugal	118.2	6.1	87.1	7.1	54.7	7.5	49.0	8.3	79.1	15.0	86.4	16.8	106.9	8.5	104.6	30.6	80.8	100.0	
Spain	108.3	4.7	92.6	10.4	72.7	6.6	66.3	14.8	83.6	15.9	70.2	8.3	66.5	13.7	80.3	25.7	66.4	100.0	
Sweden	101.0	5.1	106.4	10.1	88.4	8.7	97.1	7.5	96.6	18.4	91.4	22.6	95.4	26.3	88.7	100.0	
United Kingdom	109.7	4.6	105.9	2.4	81.2	2.4	76.6	16.7	75.6	39.4	90.3	5.3	83.1	8.7	68.2	20.5	54.2	100.0	
Unweighted average	111.7	3.2	92.2	4.7	74.8	7.4	74.9	11.7	81.4	21.3	89.0	14.1	89.3	12.2	84.7	25.5	74.6	100.0	
Women																			
Belgium	100.2	0.7	102.3	1.9	104.8	5.9	101.6	26.2	106.1	36.2	105.0	3.5	105.5	2.2	99.3	23.3	86.8	100.0	
Denmark	91.7	0.3	95.8	1.2	96.5	7.8	97.4	11.8	92.0	27.8	91.6	2.8	95.5	10.4	90.7	37.5	76.4	100.0	
Finland	89.3	0.1	94.5	2.8	93.3	3.6	98.1	15.2	100.4	49.4	93.9	0.7	96.0	0.9	94.8	27.3	90.2	100.0	
France ^a	65.8	0.9	94.2	1.3	64.2	14.8	83.1	20.9	97.7	25.4	94.6	9.9	99.8	7.6	98.1	19.2	81.7	100.0	
Germany	62.3	0.4	86.5	3.6	83.6	6.6	85.8	27.1	113.4	47.8	93.6	4.6	91.0	1.5	99.9	8.3	87.5	100.0	
Italy	68.8	0.1	79.7	3.2	101.3	36.9	100.6	23.6	111.3	9.4	111.1	7.0	92.8	19.7	103.0	100.0	
Netherlands	84.5	2.7	83.4	4.1	95.2	11.9	99.9	33.3	98.2	25.1	105.4	1.7	98.7	4.0	98.8	17.2	93.1	100.0	
Portugal	118.8	1.6	104.0	2.3	63.7	3.2	80.4	11.8	114.6	37.2	90.2	11.1	122.7	5.1	119.0	27.6	113.0	100.0	
Spain	66.7	0.5	80.6	2.1	73.8	2.5	80.7	28.4	101.0	25.2	88.2	4.3	82.1	4.6	96.4	32.4	84.0	100.0	
Sweden	94.2	3.7	96.2	11.1	97.8	28.9	98.8	24.9	94.5	3.6	96.9	7.2	96.9	20.1	92.3	100.0	
United Kingdom	74.9	2.0	88.8	1.2	65.9	2.3	81.3	29.0	91.2	42.8	94.2	1.9	90.9	2.9	81.5	18.0	69.6	100.0	
Unweighted average	83.8	1.0	90.3	2.2	83.4	6.6	91.6	24.5	101.3	33.2	96.6	4.9	99.1	4.9	97.1	22.8	88.9	100.0	

.. Data not available.

a) 1994.

Source: EUROSTAT, Structure of Earnings Survey, 1995.

Table 1.A.4. Incidence and composition of part-time employment of short hours^a and total part-time^b employment, by gender, 1997

Percentages

	Men			Women		
	Part-time employment as a percentage of total male employment		Share of short hours part-time employment in total male part-time employment 1997 (1987 figures in brackets)	Part-time employment as a percentage of total female employment		Share of short hours part-time employment in total female part-time employment 1997 (1987 figures in brackets)
	Total part-time employment	Short hours part-time employment		Total part-time employment	Short hours part-time employment	
Australia ^c	14.7	10.0	68.5 (61.6)	41.2	29.6	71.8 (73.2)
Austria	2.6	1.1	43.9 ..	21.3	5.6	26.0 ..
Belgium	4.8	1.4	28.6 (21.5)	32.3	13.5	41.7 (34.5)
Canada	10.5	5.9	56.0 (63.2)	29.4	15.2	51.8 (56.2)
Czech Republic	1.9	0.7	34.8 ..	5.5	1.5	27.2 ..
Denmark	11.1	8.9	79.8 (72.6)	24.2	12.2	50.6 (39.5)
Finland	6.0	3.3	55.1 ..	10.6	5.0	47.2 ..
France	5.9	2.0	33.7 (37.4)	25.2	8.9	35.5 (38.9)
Germany ^d	3.7	2.2	59.7 (51.6)	29.9	14.2	47.5 (32.0)
Greece	4.8	1.3	26.5 (21.1)	14.1	3.8	27.2 (26.5)
Hungary	1.8	0.4	21.1 ..	5.0	0.8	16.8 ..
Iceland	9.0	5.4	60.0 ..	36.7	12.7	34.6 ..
Ireland	7.0	2.4	34.7 (30.9)	27.2	11.4	41.8 (40.6)
Italy	5.1	2.9	57.6 (53.4)	22.2	8.3	37.2 (36.3)
Japan ^{c, d}	11.5	1.8	15.8 (18.9)	36.1	7.2	20.1 (21.1)
Korea ^{c, e}	3.3	1.3	38.8 ..	7.8	3.0	38.7 ..
Luxembourg ^d	2.1	0.4	17.1 (12.9)	24.7	7.5	30.4 (38.3)
Mexico	8.6	3.7	42.5 ..	29.9	15.2	50.8 ..
Netherlands	11.1	7.8	70.7 (61.4)	54.8	31.4	57.4 (65.9)
New Zealand ^{c, d}	10.1	7.0	69.7 (67.3)	36.9	23.1	62.6 (60.9)
Norway	7.9	5.7	72.3 ..	36.8	21.0	57.1 ..
Portugal	5.1	2.1	41.8 (35.1)	16.5	7.3	44.0 (40.1)
Poland ^c	5.6	2.2	38.3 ..	9.1	3.5	38.0 ..
Spain	3.1	1.1	35.4 (38.6)	16.8	7.1	42.5 (47.4)
Sweden	8.1	3.9	48.2 ..	24.9	7.6	30.5 ..
Switzerland	7.9	4.9	62.3 ..	47.8	33.2	69.5 ..
Turkey ^{c, d}	2.9	0.9	30.3 ..	12.7	3.6	28.3 ..
United Kingdom	8.2	5.1	63.0 (55.6)	40.9	23.9	58.3 (60.2)
United States ^f	8.3	3.5	42.3 (45.4)	19.5	8.0	40.8 (44.8)
Unweighted average	6.6	3.4	46.5	25.5	11.9	42.3

.. Data not available.

^a Usual hours of work less than 20 hours per week, except Australia, less than 21 hours, and Japan, less than 15 hours.^b Usual hours of work less than 30 hours per week, except Japan, less than 35 hours.^c Actual hours.^d 1996, 1986 in brackets.^e Civilian employment.^f Wage earners and salaried employees.

Sources: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey; and national Labour Force Surveys.

Table 1.A.5. Coefficients from logistic regression model^a for likelihood of employer-provided training, for men

Wage earners and salaried employees, aged 25 to 54 years

	Constant	Age (years)					Working hours status (usual weekly hours)		Educational attainment			Job tenure (years)				
		25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	Full-time	Part-time	Less than upper secondary	Upper secondary	Tertiary	Less one	1-5	5 or more	
Austria	-3.86	-			-0.44		-0.87	-								
Belgium	-5.83	-	0.22				-0.64	-	-0.46	-	0.86	1.98	-			
Denmark	-3.18	-	0.31	0.28				-	-1.37	-	0.63	0.94	-			
Finland	-2.96	-	0.10	0.18	0.31	0.08	0.07	-	-1.15	-	0.39	1.41	-	0.22	0.05	
Germany	-5.38	-		-1.24	-1.31			-	-1.00	-		0.56	-	-0.91	-1.42	
Hungary	-6.84	-	-0.26	0.18	-0.54	0.12	-1.06	-	0.22	-	1.33	2.06	-	-0.50	-0.78	
Ireland	-3.45	-	-0.09	-0.26	-0.26	-0.57	-1.29	-		-	0.05	0.47	-	-0.74	-1.08	
Italy	-4.53	-	-0.12			0.09	-0.28	-	0.39	-	1.18	1.04	-	-0.04	-0.27	
Netherlands	-4.03	-	-0.37	-0.44	-0.60	-0.83	-0.99	-	-0.49	-	0.98	0.81	-		-0.13	
Norway	-2.58	-						-		-	0.37		-			
Sweden	-2.36	-	0.21					-	-1.75	-	0.43		-			
United Kingdom	-1.81	-	0.10	0.19	0.10	0.12	0.36	-	-0.55	-	0.09	0.33	-	-0.01	0.16	
Unweighted average	-3.90		0.01	-0.16	-0.39	-0.16	-0.59		-0.69		0.63	1.06		-0.33	-0.50	
Establishment size (employees)				Industrial sector (NACE ^b)												
	1-10	11-19	20-49	50+	A	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
Austria	-							1.35		-			1.41		0.54	
Belgium	-		0.31	0.40		0.99	-0.53	1.15	-0.69	-		0.42	0.63	-0.34	0.81	
Denmark	-			0.32				1.04	-0.89	-		0.59	1.12		0.83	0.72
Finland	-	-0.33	-0.16	0.12	0.21			0.45	-0.59	-	0.57	-0.30	1.71	-0.15	1.03	-0.30
Germany	-		-0.68	0.31	1.21			1.49	-0.87	-	-1.32	-1.27			0.52	0.77
Hungary	-	-0.15	0.17	0.25	1.49	0.50	1.84	2.63	0.90	-	0.38	2.38	2.53	2.88	2.27	2.51
Ireland	-	0.75	0.63	1.09	-0.71		0.13	0.88	-0.25	-	-0.83	-0.34	0.87	0.21	0.68	0.49
Italy	-	0.17	0.72	0.59	-0.15	0.36	0.09	0.72	-1.52	-	0.20	0.41	0.71	0.08	0.07	0.43
Netherlands	-	0.13	0.47	1.03	0.15	1.55		0.67	0.08	-	-0.60	-0.15	0.78	0.11	0.04	0.09
Norway	-		0.76	0.53				1.00		-			0.96		0.62	
Sweden	-			0.34						-				-0.39	0.37	-0.48
United Kingdom	-	0.11		-0.11	-0.16	0.54	-0.01	0.46	-0.10	-	-0.16	0.08	0.14	0.12	0.18	-0.15
Unweighted average	0.11	0.28	0.44	0.29	0.79	0.30	1.08	-0.44			-0.25	0.20	1.09	0.31	0.66	0.45

- Category is included in the constant.

a) Parameters are significant at $p < 0.05$. If the cell is empty, the parameter is not significant.

b) NACE categories are:

A: Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	H: Hotels and restaurants
C: Mining and quarrying	E: Transport, storage and communication
D: Manufacturing	J: Financial intermediation
E: Electricity, gas and water supply	K: Real estate, renting and business activities
F: Construction	L: Public administration
G: Wholesale and retail trade, repairs	M: Other services.

Source: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey, 1997.

Table 1.A.6. **Coefficients from logistic regression model^a for likelihood of employer-provided training, for women**

Wage earners and salaried employees, aged 25 to 54 years

	Constant	Age (years)					Working hours status (usual weekly hours)		Educational attainment			Job tenure (years)			
		25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	Full-time	Part-time	Less than upper secondary	Upper secondary	Tertiary	Less one	1-5	5 or more
Austria	-3.64	-	0.15			-0.35	-1.11	-	-0.11	-	0.13	0.35	-	-0.58	-1.09
Belgium	-5.53	-						-	-0.73	-	0.47	1.47	-	-0.26	
Denmark	-4.35	-	0.26	0.48	0.85	0.51	0.64	-	-0.41	-	0.79	1.38	-		0.09
Finland	-2.82	-	-0.36		0.25			-	-0.78	-	0.51	1.30	-		0.20
Germany	-6.43	-						-		-		0.93	-	-1.30	-1.95
Hungary	-5.99	-	-0.29		-0.82		-0.24	-	-0.45	-	1.53	1.81	-	0.17	
Ireland	-3.24	-			-0.56		-0.46	-	-0.21	-	0.35		-	-0.86	-1.16
Italy	-5.17	-					-0.36	-	0.24	-	0.93	1.20	-	-0.27	
Netherlands	-4.44	-	-0.07	-0.27	-0.26	-0.29	-0.39	-	-0.44	-	0.76	0.52	-	0.51	0.25
Norway	-3.22	-		0.73		0.64	0.55	-	-1.00	-	0.71	1.63	-		
Sweden	-2.79	-			0.24			-	-0.38	-	0.45	0.72	-		-0.15
United Kingdom	-1.87	-						-	-0.33	-		0.12	-	0.24	0.33
Unweighted average	-4.12		-0.06	0.32	-0.05	0.13	-0.19		-0.42		0.66	1.04		-0.29	-0.44

	Establishment size (employees)				Industrial sector (NACE ^b)											
	1-10	11-19	20-49	50 +	A	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
Austria	-		0.37	0.93			-0.64	0.97	-1.00	-	-1.16	0.39	1.10		0.64	0.22
Belgium	-			0.37					1.60	-		1.14	1.09		0.57	-0.28
Denmark	-	0.64	0.45	0.54			0.56		0.97	-			1.03	1.13	0.70	0.88
Finland	-			0.25						-			1.31	0.63	0.56	
Germany	-									-			1.47		1.33	1.44
Hungary	-		-0.42	0.21	0.72					-	1.03	0.81	1.94		1.20	1.34
Ireland	-	0.70		0.71						-	-0.55	0.64	0.69	0.84	0.60	0.62
Italy	-		0.34	0.34	1.47		-0.15			-	1.17	1.04	1.48		1.01	1.26
Netherlands	-	0.16	-0.30	0.35	-1.25		0.22	0.57		-	-1.69	-0.29	1.28	0.42	0.65	0.21
Norway	-					1.25				-			0.71	-0.63		
Sweden	-		0.48	0.46						-	-0.71	0.59	0.74			
United Kingdom	-		0.13					1.23		-			0.26	0.28		
Unweighted average		0.50	0.15	0.46	0.32	1.25	0.00	0.92	0.52		-0.32	0.62	1.09	0.45	0.81	0.71

- Category is included in the constant.

a) Parameters are significant at $p < 0.05$. If the cell is empty, the parameter is not significant.

b) NACE categories are:

A: Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	H: Hotels and restaurants
C: Mining and quarrying	E: Transport, storage and communication
D: Manufacturing	J: Financial intermediation
E: Electricity, gas and water supply	K: Real estate, renting and business activities
F: Construction	L: Public administration
G: Wholesale and retail trade, repairs	M: Other services.

Source: EUROSTAT, European Labour Force Survey, 1997.

Annex I.B

Data Sources

Earnings

Part-time earnings data used in this chapter are based largely on EUROSTAT's 1995 Structure of Earnings Survey (SES), which covers 15 countries in Europe. The SES is an establishment survey capturing information on local units operating in industry (including construction) or services and having 10 or more employees. Agriculture, public administration and "other services" (*i.e.* certain community, social and personal services) are the primary excluded sectors. For Greece, only industry is covered.

The SES earnings data refer to remuneration in cash paid directly and regularly by the employer at the time of each wage payment, before tax deductions and social security contributions payable by wage-earners and retained by the employer.

The following elements are included:

- All payments relating to this period including any overtime pay, shift premium, bonus, and commissions.
- Payments for overtime, allowances for team-work, night work, week-end work, and commissions.
- Bonuses and allowances paid regularly in each pay period.
- Payments for periods of absence and work stoppage paid for entirely by the employer.
- Family allowances and other gratuities fixed by collective agreements or voluntarily agreed.

The following are not included:

- Payments paid in this period but relating to other periods, such as arrears or advances of pay for holiday or sickness absence outside this period.
- Periodic bonuses and gratuities not paid regularly at each pay date.
- Payments for periods of absence paid by the employer at a reduced rate.
- Statutory family allowances.
- The value of benefits in kind.
- Allowances for work clothes or tools.
- Reimbursements or payments for travelling, subsistence, etc. expenses incurred in carrying out the employer's business.

The use of the SES for assessment of the situation of part-time workers is subject to several important reservations. First, part-timers are disproportionately represented in enterprises with fewer than 10 employees, so the exclusion of these small firms from the SES biases the results. If smaller firms pay relatively low wages, for example, then the exclusion may lead to an upward bias in the part-time earnings estimates presented in this chapter. On average, European Labour Force Survey (ELFS) data for 1997 show about 45 per cent of part-timers working in

these small firms, but there is wide variation between countries. Similarly, the exclusion of part-timers working in "other services" sector may bias the earnings results. From the ELFS it is known that the "other services" sector includes a relatively high share of part-time workers. In 1996 across the 15 countries for which ELFS data were available, part-timers made up 29 per cent of employment in "other services" but only 16 per cent of total employment in all sectors [EUROSTAT (1997)]. About one in five part-timers worked in the "other services" sector.

Second, there are some variations in the classification of workers according to their working hours. Generally, the SES depends on employer assessments of part-time working status. Some employers may classify workers according to their type of contract rather than by an hours threshold. In some cases, due to the national survey structure, a portion of very short hour part-timers are not covered (*e.g.* in Denmark). In others, hours data are imputed (*e.g.* in Finland) or non-standard definitions are used (*e.g.* there is a 35 weekly hours threshold in Greece).

With respect to the SES data for the United Kingdom, there is a particular problem linked to the use of the New Earnings Survey (NES) as the basis of the sample. The LFS is also used, but only to match in additional variables. The NES gives a comprehensive coverage of full-time adult employees. However, its coverage of part-time employees is more limited because many of those whose earnings fall below the income tax threshold are not covered by the survey. This mainly excludes certain women with part-time jobs as well as a small proportion of young people. These problems arise because the sample frame is one of individuals rather than firms and does not apply to the other countries covered by the SES.

Additional earnings data are drawn from labour force surveys (LFS) from Australia, Canada and the United States. The LFS data are based on household surveys and therefore – being based on the individuals' assessments of hours worked – are not strictly comparable with the establishment data of the SES. The LFS data cover employees without regard to establishment size; this also limits their comparability with the SES data. The LFS data refer to 1997 for Australia and Canada, and 1996 for the United States.

For Australia earnings are based on the last total pay from wage and salary jobs prior to the interview (*i.e.* before taxation and other deductions had been made). For Canada, the earnings are based on the usual wages or salary of employees at the respondent's main job, before taxes and other deductions, but including tips, commissions and bonuses. For the United States, the earnings include wages, salary, commissions, tips, piece-rate payments, and cash bonuses earned, before deductions are made for taxes, bonds, pensions, union dues.

In some cases, sources cited in the text draw on national definitions of part-time working that are not based on a specific hours thresholds, but rather on other criteria such as relative hours thresholds (*e.g.* usual working hours less than full-time). For example, Houseman and Osawa (1995) note that part-time work in Japan is generally defined by the Ministry of Labour as work with fewer hours per day or days per week than regular workers, but may be based on an employer-classification of workers and not necessarily linked to reduced hours.

Training

The training experience of part-time workers uses the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS) and the European Labour Force Survey (ELFS). The IALS was a joint initiative of the OECD and Statistics Canada. The data presented here refer to 1994 and cover 11 OECD countries and regions. The IALS combined a household survey approach with educational testing to obtain information on individuals' literacy. The questionnaires asked whether respondents worked mostly full- or part-time during the preceding 12 months, defining part-time as less than 30 hours per week. The IALS survey groups adult education and training together in a broad definition that includes courses, private lessons, workshops, on-the job training and other forms of structured learning. The respondents were asked about their training and education experiences over the preceding 12 months and were able to describe up to three instances. For the present analysis, training was approached by applying two alternative conditions to the data set. First, training was restricted to include only training or education taken primarily

for career or job-related purposes. Under this condition, observations were excluded if the main reason was personal interest or "other" purposes. Second, training was restricted to include only training or education financially supported by an employer.

The ELFS data are drawn from household surveys and the data set used here covers 12 countries and refers to 1997. The data set is comprised of grouped data, which masks a portion of the variation. Due to differences in the questionnaires, the ELFS training data are not strictly comparable between countries; for more details, see the data discussion in Chapter 3. The ELFS guidelines define training as education or vocational training received during the four weeks preceding the survey and which is relevant for the current or possible future job of the respondent [EUROSTAT (1996)]. Courses for personal interests, hobbies or general application (*e.g.* driving lessons) are excluded. Respondents were generally asked to cite only what they considered to be the most important instance of training or education. For purposes of the present analysis using the ELFS data, only employer-provided training was considered. Employer-provided training is relatively narrowly defined as "specific vocational training in a working environment". This refers to training either received at the place of work or made available or paid for by the person's employer, but specifically excludes "dual system" or apprenticeship-type training. It also excludes employer supported education and some other training that might be considered as employer-provided. For the analysis using the ELFS data, part-time status was defined as normal working hours of 1 to 29 hours per week.

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