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Part Time employment in seven European Union Countries

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past 25 years part-time working has increased dramatically. Although it is doubtful, if part-time employment can eliminate the conflict between work and family life, both of which are time-consuming and demanding (Hakim 2001), the increase in female participation rates can be attributed mainly to part-time work in most European Countries and the US. As MacInnes (2005) found for Britain it is illogical to expect that workers with family obligations might compete with those free of such responsibilities. Common part-time work may also fulfil the desire of an increase in the availability of more flexible forms of employment, demanded especially by different groups of workers. Those who combine work with education, retirees, or those who suffer from stress or health problems. In fact, in vast majority of Western countries part-time work has been on increase for many years, sometimes at very rapid rate and often made a substantial contribution to job growth. This is because, as Warren (2004) suggest, part-time jobs provide women with an opportunity to reconcile employment with family responsibilities, and responsibilities tend to be fewer thus reducing stress and physical demand.

On the other hand in many countries part-time employment is concentrated in objectively poor quality, low paid jobs, which reduce employees' ability for assuring own current (low earnings) and future (not enough pension fund accumulated) financial self-sufficiency.

In many countries part-time work has changed substantially. Next to the role as an activity that mainly accommodates the needs of shorter hours, it appeared to play a role in meeting employers needs and preferences for flexible staffing and lowering costs. Part-time employment is flexible since it can be relatively easy increased and decreased, and can be moved to a different time during the day (Kallenberg 2005). It decrease costs because, on average, the hourly pay of part-timers is lower than this of full-timers, and sometimes, especially in case of workers, who are employed for very short hours, employers are not obliged to pay social security contributions.

Along with these developments has come increased concern about quality of part-time jobs, their consequences for individuals, career prospects, satisfaction and preferences of part-timers. These issues are

especially important when having in mind that while the share of part-time employment has been rising in recent years, the proportion of involuntary part-timers is also on rise.

The results of the study highlight the fact that part-timers: (1) are on average relatively less paid the full-timers, (2) are less likely to be trained at employers' costs, (3) in many countries feel afraid of becoming

redundant, (4) have less stable jobs, (5) are less satisfied with their jobs. On the other hand working part-time has strong advantages, which cannot be overlooked: people working part-time, are on average more satisfied with their life than their full-time counterparts, part-time support combining work with others activities and responsibilities (especially family life).

Part-time employment in European countries

There is a wide variation among European countries in reference to incidence of part-time work. This form of employment is mostly common in the Netherlands, which is sometimes characterized as the only part-time economy of the world. Working part-

time is also common in some of the Scandinavian countries, United Kingdom and Belgium. By contrast in constitutes relatively small proportions of the labour force in Eastern and Southern Europe countries (see the table 1.1).

Part-time employment – the definition issues

Part-time employment is usually defined as regular wage employment in which the hours of working are less than “normal”. But the definition

varies across countries (Kalleberg 2000). There is a lack of international standards of part-time work which can be used for international comparisons.

Table 1

Part-time employment in 2005 (as a proportion of total employment)

country	all	male	female
Belgium	22,0	7,6	40,5
Czech Rep.	4,9	2,1	8,6
Denmark	22,1	12,7	33,0
Germany	24,0	7,8	43,8
Estonia	7,8	4,9	10,6
Greece	5,0	2,3	9,3
Spain	12,4	4,5	24,2
France	17,2	5,7	30,7
Ireland	16,8*	6,1*	31,5*
Italy	12,8	4,6	25,6
Cyprus	8,9	5,0	14,0
Latvia	8,3	6,3	10,4
Lithuania	7,1	5,1	9,1
Luxembourg	17,4	2,5	38,2
Hungary	4,1	2,7	5,8
Malta	9,6	4,5	21,1
Netherlands	46,1	22,6	75,1
Austria	21,1	6,1	39,3
Poland	10,8	8,0	14,3
Portugal	11,2	7,0	16,2
Slovenia	9,0	7,2	11,1
Slovakia	2,5	1,3	4,1
Finland	13,7	9,2	18,6
Sweden	24,7	11,5	39,6
United Kingdom	25,4	10,4	42,7

*2003,

Source: Eurostat

Eurostat defines part-time employees as *those who, in accordance with a contract with the employer, did not perform a full day's work or did*

not complete a full week's work within the local unit. According to the definition proposed by ILO part time work means: *regular employment in*

which working time is substantially less than normal. In both cases part-time is defined in relation to full-time employment which leads to limited comparability among countries. The main reason for that is the lack of internationally accepted definition as to the minimum number of hours a week that constitute full-time work. It explains why many studies use the dividing line either on a country-by-country basis or through the use of special estimations.

What does the normal working hours in a full-time employment depend on? The answer is complex: firstly, on the statutory provisions in force; secondly, on collective agreements by industry and occupation; thirdly, on the individual contract with an employer who is not subject to collective agreement. As a direct result the number of working hours in full-time jobs (see table 1.1) varies from activity to activity but also from country to country (Van Bastelear at al.; 1997).

Essentially three main approaches to defining part-time work can be distinguished (Van Bastelear at al.; 1997):

(1) a classification based on the worker's *perception* of his/her employment situation

(2) a *cut off* based on *usual working hours* with persons usually working fewer hours being considered as part-timers,

(3) a comparable *cut-off* based on actual hours worked during the reference week.

The difficulties in making international comparison referring to part-time employment are due to the increasing use of schemes whereby weekly hours may vary considerably around average over a reference period and the differing role of collective bargaining and legislation. Other particular problems include: the existence of different ways of calculating working time, with annual, rather than weekly calculations increasingly common in some countries; and the fact that in some countries working time reductions have been introduced through extra days off or cuts in annual hours, leaving the normal working week relatively unchanged (EIRO 2005). Using cut off based on usual working hours is also problematic in term of comparing working time between countries as they do not take overtime into account.

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.

Table 2
Average collectively agreed

Data

The usefulness of the part-time employment definition depends on the study aims. The report provides an international comparison of part-time employment in seven countries. For example if the purpose is to study part-time employment as a method for reconciling work and family life, than the cut-off based hours usually worked seems to be the best solution. In this case the criterion by which part-time employment is judged, is time needed for family obligations. On the other hand for comparison of the quality of part-time employment it would be better to use to scrutinize the working hours established in contract. Because of the reasons mentioned above we

(or set by law)
normal weekly hours, 2004

country	Working hours
Poland	40
Spain	38.5
Belgium	38
Germany	37.6
Finland	37.5
United Kingdom	37.2
The Netherlands	37

Source: EIRO

decide to use a classification used by workers' perception.

The data used in the analysis come from the Internet-based survey WAGEINDICATOR. The WAGEINDICATOR is a unique survey based on standardised questionnaire. The data collection covers a wide range of topics: employment, income, family life, demographics characteristics. It also provides information on individuals' preferences, perception and satisfaction. Some of the data are very unique. For instance, WAGEINDICATOR is the only, to author's knowledge, international, large scale survey which provides data on individuals satisfaction with combining work and family responsibilities.

table 3
the number of respondents in the countries of study

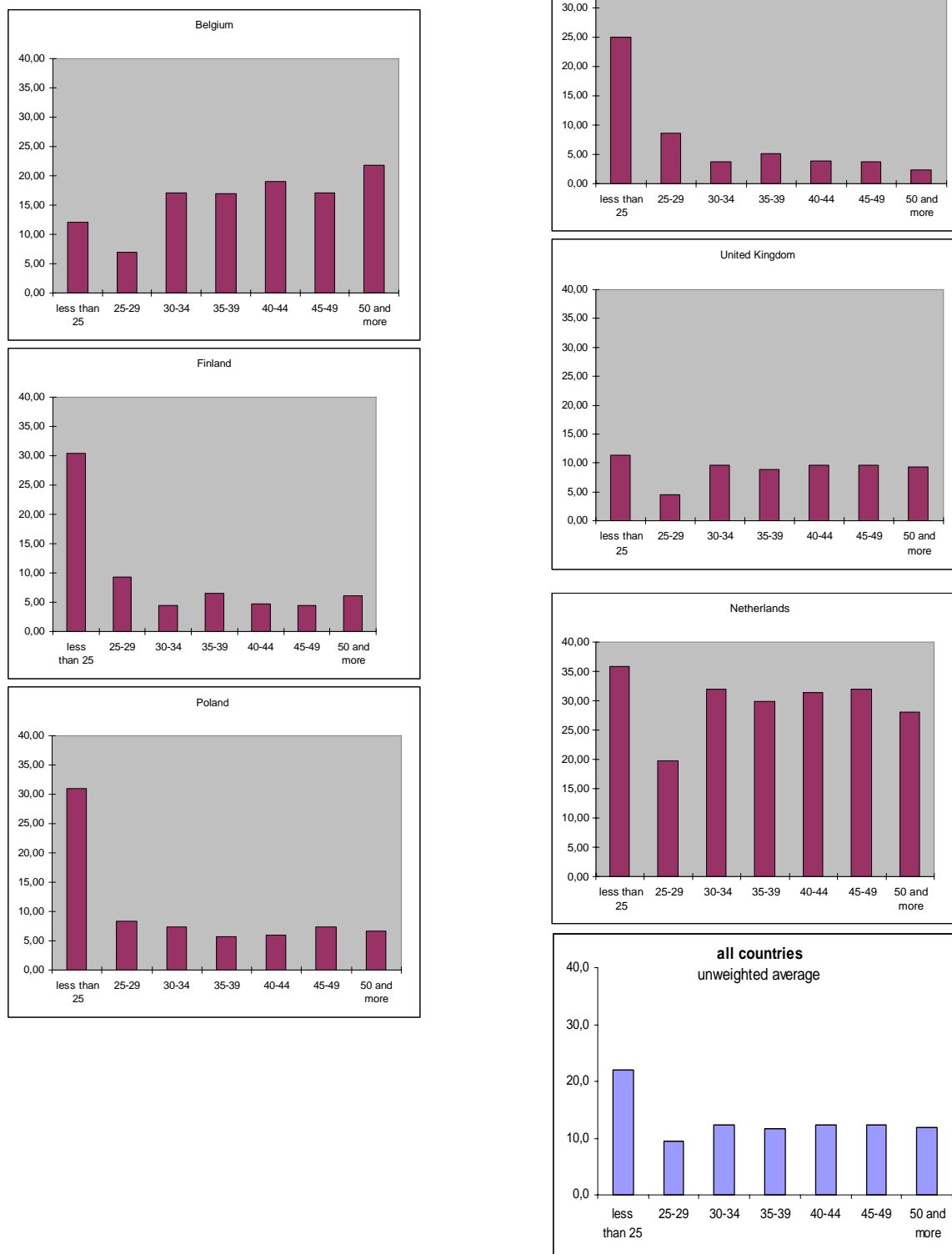
	BEL	FIN	GER	NL	PL	SP	U.K
part-time	2223	505	4738	18712	592	767	1295
full-time	12672	5290	47421	47354	5127	10011	14570
Total	14896	5795	52159	66067	5720	10778	15865

The data were collected for 15 months between the beginning of January 2005 and the end of March 2007. The survey is voluntary and the number of respondents who fulfil the questionnaire is different in different countries (see the table 1.3).

The report provides results of study of part-time employment in seven European countries: Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland, Finland, Spain, Germany and the United Kingdom. All of the countries are EU members, but they differ in their market labour institutions, policies, situations and developments. It refers to tax policies, childcare facilities, social contributions, One of the most pronounced difference is the level of unemployment from 4,7 % in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, to 17,7 in Poland in 2005 (Eurostat). The report scrutinise the quality, reasons and work-life satisfaction linked with working part-time. We can expect that the differences mention above may lead to significant differences between the countries.

We can see three different patterns of part-time employment in

the countries of research. In Poland, Spain and Finland the youngest (less than 25) make the highest proportion the part-timers' population. In the United Kingdom and Germany the part-time employment rates are modest (around 10%) and broadly unaltered for all age groups. In the Netherlands and Belgium the rates of part-time employment remain generally constant for all age groups but they are relatively much higher than in Britain and Germany.

Figure 1**Share of part time workers according to age**

The report

The report is divided into three sections. The first one provides a comprehensive comparison of quality of part-time vs. full-time employment. On one hand it focuses on wages (and a rise of wages), contracts (permanent or temporary), job security (both objective and perceived), promotion and training opportunities, on the other hand on the perceived career opportunities, working in unsocial hours or dangerous conditions, mental or physical exhaustion, stress and boredom. The second section serves one purpose: comparing the reasons for part-time employment given by part-time employees across the seven countries. The special attention is paid to the comparison across age groups and gender of the respondents. The last section deals with the issue of satisfaction. We expect to observe cross-national differences in life satisfaction of part-time and full-time employees. We also show that reasons for working part-time would meaningfully influence self-reported satisfaction with pay, work-life balance etc.

Chapter 1

PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT QUALITY

Introduction

Long taboo to European trade unions part time jobs (and temporary jobs) is becoming by far the richest source of new jobs across Europe. There is no need any more to look for confirmation that part-time employment contributes to increased flexibility of labour market relations. The proponents of part-time jobs underscore that it helps to approach undisturbed market clearing, and employment goals. The advantages are best seen when facing the economic fluctuations as the type of contract is usually less strictly legally protected than the full-time employment. On the supply side, part-time employment is likely to give some more opportunities to individuals and, as a result, draw inactive people into labour market and unemployed into employment. Part-time work is one means of reconciling employment with other activities i.e. childcare, education or partial retirement (Fagan 2003). Moreover, part-time employment is often seen as a means of reducing unemployment as a form of “work sharing” and

redistribution of employment. Part-time work meets employers’ needs and preferences for such thing as lower cost and flexible staffing.

The critics of part-time employment highlight risks associated with it. Some studies revealed that part-timers earn relatively less than their full-time counterparts. So what is an advantage from employers point of view (decrease of labour cost), tend to be considered as a serious disadvantage for workers. In addition to lower wages and fringe benefits, the type of contract gives lower chances for promotion and job-related training. For employers, part-time work may be connected with higher fixed costs, such as recruitment and training costs and complicates work organisations. Recruiting, hiring and training costs, as well as non-wage benefits not proportional to hours increase hourly cost of part-time relative to full-time workers (Hirsch 2005).

Among both men and women the pattern of jobs has been changing with part-time employment rising more rapidly than full-time jobs. The

increase in proportion of part-time employment can be expected to continue, because its main driving forces i.e. service sector expansion, women employment, and employers'-objective and subjective measures. According to some analyses, the cumulative rise in part-time employment observed since the early 1980s explains between one fifth and one third of the total increase in the employment rate over the same period. Desire for flexibility seems to persist for the next decades. On the one hand the trend may appear to be driven by worker's preferences: aren't employers simply accommodating the wishes of housewives, students, retirees and others who prefer short-hours schedules? On the other hand the possible explanation of part-time jobs expansion is because employers view them as a means to cut labour cost (Tilly1991). The non-traditional (non full-time, 5 days a week) forms of work have been growing in relative terms in part because of the decline of full-time employment opportunities (see Morris, Mallier 2003). So for example, older people involuntarily withdraw from full-time labour market before retirement age as a response to anticipated job loss and/or lack of alternative job opportunities.

Answering the question is beyond the scope of the section. In the chapter the focus is on quality of part-time jobs in relation to full-time jobs.

Part-time employment has been contributing to job creation in all EU countries, especially in the case of females. But there is a widespread concern about the quality of part-time jobs compared to full-time jobs; earnings and training opportunities in particular. The subject gains on importance in the light of European Employment Strategy (EES). The employment guidelines approved by Council in 2003 set three overarching objectives: full employment, quality and productivity of work and strengthening social cohesion and inclusion (European Communities 2005).

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

- How to the earnings of part-time workers compare to those of full-time workers?
- How much training do part-time workers receive compare to full-timers?
- What are the part-time employee career opportunities compared to full-timers?
- To what extent can part-time job guarantee the employment security?

▪ Are there any differences between full-time and part-time jobs in respects of: monotony in work, boredom, work-related exhaustion, working in unsocial hours or on weekend?

Thus, the structure of this section is as follows. The subsection *hourly earnings* provides information on the earnings of part-timers relative to those of full-timers. The subsection *training* briefly describes the differences in access to training opportunities funded by employers. The third subsection serves to present

the comparison part-time and full-time workers in the respect of perceived and objective job security. The subsection *non-contractual aspects of work* deals with the characteristics of employment that, beside earnings, training and job-security, can be of crucial importance for job quality. It compares full-time and part-time work in aspects of stress, boredom and exhaustion.

Hourly earnings

method

One of the most basic issues in measuring and reporting the full-time vs. part-time employment wage differences is the choice of measure used to indicate the average income. In the report the median income, as the less skewed by a few people making very high or very low earnings, is used. The types of wages used for comparison may be also controversial. Making comparisons of part-timers wages with those of full-timers requires to be based on earnings per hour, rather than earnings per month or week, because of the need to control in

number of hours worked by part-timers and full-timers. This makes it harder to obtain accurate data. Ordinary wages exclude overtime pay, fringe bonuses, and awards (Lips 2003). This measure makes the wage differences look smaller because part-timers are less likely to access to these “extras” than full-timers.

In the report the data on earnings are combined with data on hours. The method of measurement of the earnings differences has its limitation, because employees may give only a rough estimate of their actual hours of work (OECD 1999).

The third problem with a reliance on hourly measure of wage is that it

assumes equivalency of all workers in their choice of limit or expand the number of hours worked (Lips 2003). However, individuals who work part-time because of family and other personal reasons may be less free to accept the opportunities if they are presented.

Although for wage comparison between full-timers and part-timers an hourly wages seem to be the best solution, but it lacks a broader context. We can not forget the relative differences of hourly wages are only part of story, the other is the annul wage, which in fact determines what kind of life the person can afford. Even relatively small differences in hourly wages are of large importance for individuals' financial conditions.

Reliance on hourly measure of wage in international comparison may only partly explain the differences in supply of part-time employment. One has to be careful because of social benefits which are not included in the calculations. The social policy analysts distinguish between incomes "before" and "after" transfers, which can substantially change the financial situation of an individual and his/her family.

Results

The study reveals that in all of the seven countries *the median hourly earnings for part-time workers is lower than those for full-time workers.*

The median of hourly earnings of part-time workers represent between around 59 per cent in U.K and 88 per cent in Belgium (see table 1.1). The disparity, in case of few countries quite wide one, is larger for men than for women. The exception that proves the rule is Poland, where male and female part time workers alike earn around three quarters of full time workers median hourly earnings. The study indicates that male part-time worker earn much less than their full time counterparts, thus working part time can be found relatively much less attractive for them. The significant difference between earnings of female full-time and female part-time workers can be seen mainly in Poland (26 percentage points) and United Kingdom (30 percentage points). On the other hand the women who work part-time in Belgium and the Netherlands earn, on average, almost the same hourly wage as their full-time counterparts.

Table 1.1
Earnings of part-time workers

(The median of part-time workers' hourly earnings as a percentage of median of full-time workers' hourly earnings median)

	all	females	males
Belgium	88,4	97,2	93,4
Finland	77,6	82,2	78,2
Germany	76,1	89,6	75,4
Netherlands	87,0	97,1	83,6
Poland	72,7	74,0	76,9
Spain	70,4	83,1	65,0
United Kingdom	59,3	69,7	50,3

The examination of the earnings of women and men reveals significant gender gap both for full-time and part-time workers exception part-timer in the United Kingdom (1.2). It is worth to underline the relatively smaller gender gap between earnings of part-time workers, than between full-time workers (except Poland). Although the differences in hourly earnings for men

are larger than for women, the male part-time worker gets on average more than female part-timer; with United Kingdom as the only exception (table 1.2). Thus, if criterion of hourly earning is considered, the relative attractiveness of part-time working for men is higher rated than for women, but much lower than for male full-time workers.

Table 1.2
Gender differences in hourly earnings

(the median of females' hourly earnings as a percentage of median males' hourly earnings)

	part- time workers	full-time workers
Belgium	86,4	83,0
Finland	83,0	78,9
Germany	91,6	77,1
Netherlands	96,5	83,1
Poland	74,0	76,9
Spain	95,8	74,9
United Kingdom	104,6	75,4

Comparing the averages leaves aside the relation between the lowest part-time hourly earnings and the lowest full-time hourly earnings. It is

examined here by looking at the first decile of the distribution that is maximum earnings of those workers whose earnings are in the bottom tenth

of all workers. In every of the seven countries, the bottom decile of part-timers' earnings distribution is lower than that for full-time workers. The most marked difference was observed in Finland that equals to nearly 28 per cent points. In Poland and the United Kingdom the last decile of part-timers earn less than one third of full-timers hourly earnings. Significant influence on the level of the lowest part-time hourly earnings, which can partly explain the national differences, have minimum wage laws, minima in collective agreements and laws against part-time workers discrimination which can mitigate the downward pressure on hourly earnings (OECD 1999).

Part-time workers receive considerably lower hourly earnings than do full-time workers. On the supply side the explanation starts from the premise that some individuals (students, mothers, older workers) prefer to work part-time and are willing to accept the lower wages. Hirsch (2005, p. 526) underscores that differences in preferred hours do not explain the total part-time penalty. If workers preferring part-time or full-time job had identical skills and there were no fixed costs to employers wage rates could be equalised. Thus a wage differential arises if the workers (full-time and part-time) are heterogeneous and employers are not indifferent as to how they schedule hours among workers.

Table 1.3.
First decile part-time and full-time hourly earnings
(As percentage of median full-time hourly earnings)

	Part-time	Full-time
Belgium	48,82	65,61
Finland	41,42	69,35
Germany	38,69	53,00
Netherlands	39,91	62,51
Poland	30,46	46,56
Spain	41,21	54,65
United Kingdom	31,99	50,21
unweighted average	36,25	53,47

Hourly earnings and job tenure

It is not the purpose of the report to reveal or scrutinise the causes for part-time wage penalty. Thus we pay

our attention only to one factor: job tenure.

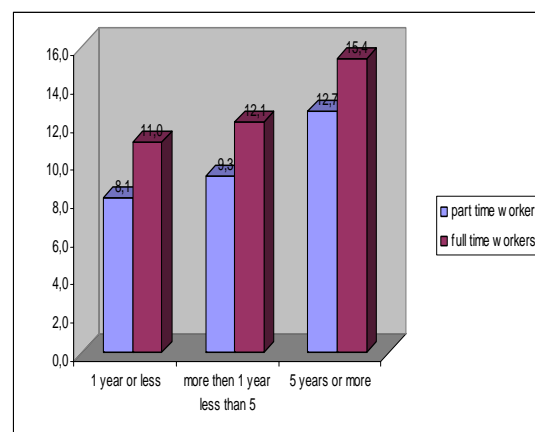
Part-time wage penalty is very small at entry. Hirsch (2005) indicates that part-time workers have not

regularly labour market participation and substantially slower wage growth than full-time workers. The relatively lower increase in wages may be a reflection of lower levels of accumulated human capital owing to fewer hours of prior work i.e. a higher frequency and duration of part-time and non-employment spells. If the thesis was correct, individuals who during their professional career have always worked part-time would experience a relatively lower hourly wage increase than individuals who have always worked full-time.

The results partly confirm the significance of human capital, but there are two findings that make necessary to look for further explanation. Firstly, we can expect that the initial gap between median of full-time and part-time workers' earnings is due to differences in education level of the workers. But if the accumulated human capital is to be a factor influencing the size of the gap, the difference in earnings between part-time and full-time workers should increase along with the job tenure. The data do not confirm that. The gap does not increase, just the opposite is true, it slightly decreases along with job tenure (see figure 2.1).

Figure 1.1
Earnings and work experience

(The average of medians of hourly earnings of full-time and part-time workers for seven countries)



Secondly, comparison of the individuals with 1 or less years of job tenure vs. individuals with 2 to 5 years of experience shows that in every country the median hourly wage of part-timers increases relatively more (or at least the same amount) than for full-timers. The study indicates that only in two countries; Finland and Spain, (see the table 1.4), there is a significant drop of median hourly wage of part-time workers in relation to full-time workers among individuals with 5 or more years of experience.

Table 1.4
Earnings and work experience

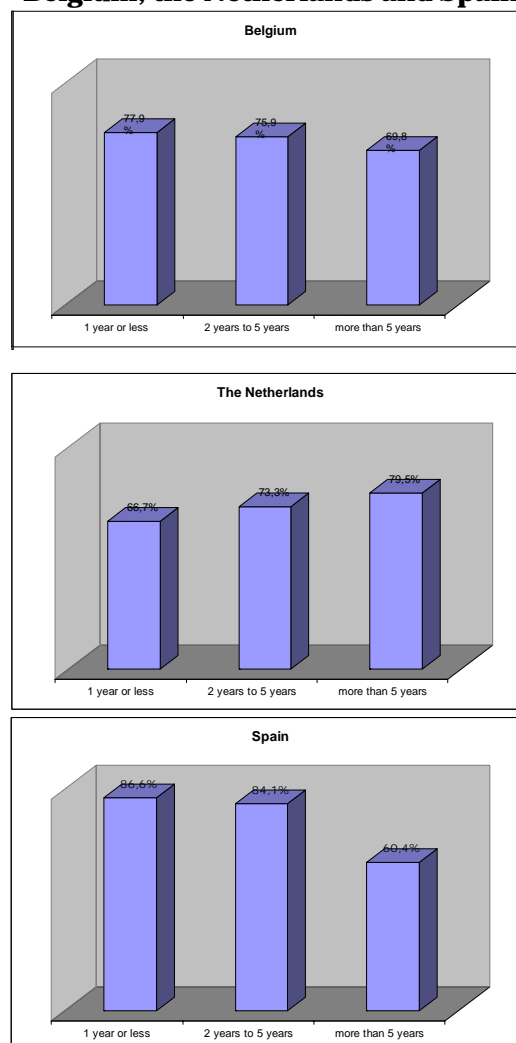
(median of hourly earnings of and part-time workers as share of median for full-time workers, according to years of work experience)

	1 year or less	more than 1 year less than 5	5 or more years
Belgium	86,1%	88,6%	84,6%
Finland	77,2%	86,0%	79,3%
Germany	76,2%	76,1%	75,2%
Netherlands	73,8%	81,3%	87,4%
Poland	77,3%	94,5%	64,8%
Spain	83,5%	85,7%	70,7%
United Kingdom	58,9%	61,6%	59,0%
Average	76,2%	82,0%	74,4%

The Wageindicator data give the opportunity for comparison of three countries: Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain. The results for Spain and Belgium (see the figure 1.2) confirm the thesis, the median hourly earnings of part-time workers (individuals who always work part-time) slightly decreases along the increase of the number of work experience. The substantial drop can be observed in Spain, especially in the group of workers with a work experience more than five years. The Netherlands is an interesting case with median hourly earnings of part-time workers increasing along the job tenure

relatively to median hourly earnings of full-time workers. The results raise doubt about the explaining power of human capital theory. The possible explanation of the phenomenon can be twofold; firstly, there are factors which influence the relatively smaller increase of the full-time workers' earnings, on the other hand there are factors causing substantially increasing the pay rise of part-timers.

Figure 1.2
Earnings and work experience in Belgium, the Netherlands and Spain



Answering a question: how do part-time jobs compare to full time jobs?, is usually limited to a comparison of wages and training opportunities of the individuals. On one hand it is useful, for earnings and training opportunities represent two highly relevant indicators of the quality

of part-time jobs. On the other hand, many important job related aspects remain unconsidered. Boring, monotonous, physically or mentally exhausting, dangerous or insecure work, can make part-time much less valued.

Training

Other risk commonly associated with part-time employment can be characterised as typical economic externality. Part-time workers take as long to train as full time workers, leaving a shorter time to return on the investments. In addition, where part-time workers have relatively high job turnover, this is also likely to lower incentives for employers to provide job-related training (European Communities 2005). The study confirms that part-time workers are less likely to be trained at employers'

cost than their full-time counterparts. The largest differences between the two groups were observed in Finland. However part-time (as well the full-timers) workers the least likely to be trained are in Spain. It is worth to emphasise that there are both relative differences between incidence of training received by full-time and part-time workers and incidence of training received by employee. So for example full-time employees in Spain are much less likely to be trained than part-timers in Belgium and the Netherlands.

Table 1.5
Training received from employer last year* (%)

	Belgium		Finland		Netherlands		Spain	
	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t
None	43,7	35,1	55,1	31,8	44,8	35,5	69,3	55,2
1 - 2 days	24,2	18,5	19,4	21,7	21,0	17,5	11,0	8,5
3 - 6 days	23,0	25,5	13,8	23,3	19,9	22,6	7,4	13,5
1 - 2 weeks	5,8	13,0	5,6	14,0	6,8	12,3	5,1	9,9
3 - 4 weeks	2,2	4,6	3,6	4,5	3,0	6,1	2,9	5,4
1 - 2 months	0,4	1,5	0,5	2,2	1,5	2,4	1,4	2,5
2 months or more	0,5	1,8	2,0	2,5	3,0	3,6	2,9	5,0

* Only individuals with job tenure more than 1 year

Job security

One of the reason for flexibility leads to insecurity – economic fluctuations

In all of seven countries full-time working individuals are less likely to experience job-break. However, one has to be careful to interpret the results as a serious disadvantage of part-time employment, because of job insecurity. There are at least two arguments that make such explanation of limited trustworthiness. Firstly, a large share of part-time employees are mothers who had a career break because of childbirth and have returned to employment but on part-time basis. Secondly, a significant share of part-

time workers are student who combine work with education, and very often work temporary which makes the career breaks look as something “natural”. The opponents of part-time employment indicate that it is often insecure. Employment insecurity can be a vital characteristic that affect the quality of job. Because of the reasons mentioned above a number of career breaks is an objective but not an ideal measure of job security. The subjective measure can shed new lights on the issue. The results indicate that an incidence of perceived job insecurity is much the same for part-time and full-time employees, with the only exception of Finland.

Table 1.6
Number of breaks in employment for longer than 3 months
(%) of the part-time and full-time workers according to job tenure

		job tenure 2 to 5 years				job tenure more than 5 years			
		never	1	2	3 or more	never	1	2	3 or more
Belgium	part-time	50%	24%	5%	21%	55%	24%	9%	12%
	full-time	73%	16%	8%	4%	72%	17%	6%	5%
Finland	part-time	38%	31%	15%	15%	33%	18%	13%	36%
	full-time	67%	18%	8%	7%	55%	21%	11%	13%
Germany	part-time	68%	22%	8%	1%	35%	39%	17%	10%
	full-time	86%	11%	2%	1%	68%	22%	6%	3%
Netherlands	part-time	64%	22%	8%	5%	57%	24%	10%	9%
	full-time	78%	14%	4%	3%	74%	15%	5%	6%
Poland	part-time	32%	21%	20%	24%	30%	22%	22%	26%
	full-time	56%	26%	11%	8%	53%	25%	11%	11%
Spain	part-time	31%	27%	16%	24%	21%	15%	21%	42%
	full-time	52%	28%	8%	12%	41%	27%	14%	19%
U.K	part-time	48%	31%	13%	8%	33%	30%	20%	17%
	full-time	68%	23%	6%	3%	57%	25%	10%	9%

Table 1.7
Perception of job insecurity
 (%) of part-time and full-time employees who worry about their job security

	Belgium		Finland		Germany		Netherlands		Spain	
	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT	PT	FT
Worries about job security	29,7	29,9	47,5	38,8	39,4	33,2	29,9	27,5	51,1	46,3

No data for Poland and the United Kingdom

The study emphasises that perceived job insecurity is mainly country specific phenomenon. There are significant differences between countries.

In the context of job insecurity it is worth to mention the issue of permanent vs. temporary employment. Temporary employment represents a type of non-standard job which may potentially solve the problems of labour market inflexibility by lowering firing jobs and allowing the outsiders to compete with insiders. The expansion of temporary employment has raised concerns that the contracts may lead to insecurity and precariousness for workers. The potential drawbacks of that option; they do not give an employee a feeling of stability and may lead to exclusion.

However some individuals may prefer to be employed in temporary rather than permanent jobs for a number of reasons e.g. temporary jobs may involve less commitment to the employer and, hence, better opportunities to combine work with other activities. Other individuals may value temporary jobs as a means of entering labour market (OECD 2002).

The study indicates that in all countries part-timers are relatively less likely to be employed on permanent basis than full-timers with the most significant differences observed in Finland, Spain and Poland (see table 1.8). In Poland the share of employees with permanent contract is relatively very low both for full-time and part-time workers.

Table 1.8
Permanent employment contract
(%) of employee with permanent employment contract

	Belgium	Finland	Germany	Netherlands	Poland	Spain	U.K
Part-time	88	55	73	73	34	46	81
Full-time	93	86	86	81	69	78	91

Non-contractual job characteristics

Completing monotonous tasks, boredom and insufficient variation of job can negatively influence work attractiveness. Two groups of countries can be distinguished according to the work characteristics mention above. In Finland and Spain more often than in other countries both part-timers and full-timers find their work boring, insufficiently varied and monotonous. Simultaneously in the two countries there is a meaningful difference between part-time and full-time employees opinion (see the table 1.8).

Working in dangerous and/or unhealthy conditions is more common among full-time employees than among their part-time counterparts. Again, the only exception is Finland.

Advantage of working part-time is that it is less stressful and mentally exhausting than working full-time. Within the countries there are not differences between share of part time and full time employees who find their work physically exhausting. The only exception includes Finland with

relatively higher proportion of part-timers doing physically exhausting work, which can be partly explain by regular working on weekends and in evenings (see below).

It is often argued that part-time workers tend to be employed in low-graded jobs excluded from supervisory posts and having limited career opportunities. The study indicates that in Finland, Poland and, to less incidence, in Spain relatively large share of part-timers expects to change their employer within one year, which can suggest that they treat the employment as a stepping stone towards better quality (full time) employment contract. In Belgium, the Netherlands, United Kingdom and Germany the shares of part-time and full-time employees who expect to change their employer are largely the same.

In all countries, with exception of Finland, part-timers evaluate their career opportunities relatively worse than full-timers (table 1.8). However, from cross-country perspective, the

optimism level for professional future is very much country related. For example, the part-timers in United Kingdom evaluate their career opportunities better than full-timers in Spain, Germany and Finland. Particularly poorly their career opportunities appraise German and Spanish employees. Only one in eight of German part-timers is optimistic about his/her professional future. Poland is an interesting case, with the highest proportion both full time and part time employees expressing faith in a bright professional future. We expected that the reason for that is the overrepresentation of young individuals among Internet respondents in Poland. But even after the variables are controlled for age Poland remains the country of career-optimists, although the differences in relation to other countries are not so wide. The cross-national comparison of perceived career opportunities among people 35 and younger reveals that in all countries the level of optimism for career opportunities is relatively higher (than for all respondents), however the rank of the countries remains mostly unchanged. The results suggest that in Poland part-time employment is perceived mostly as a stepping stone to a more lucrative job. That is not

surprising when taking into account the fact that in the country part-time employment is widespread mainly among young people, at the very beginning of their professional career. However, it cannot be the only explanation to the Polish phenomenon, while in countries with a very similar distribution of part-timers according to age, i.e. Finland and Spain, part-timers (and full-timers as well) poorly evaluate their career opportunities.

Working on weekend tend to substantially limit attractiveness of employment. The same is true for non-social hours i.e. evening. In five countries covered by the survey (no significant data for Poland and Germany) relatively more part-time than full-time employees work regularly on Saturday and/or Sunday. However, the differences vary quite markedly between countries from 36 percent points in Finland to less than 3 percent points in the Netherlands (Saturday). Comparing the share of part-timers and full-timers who work regularly in evening highlights the considerably diversity among countries. In Finland and the United Kingdom part-timers relatively more often work on regular basis in evening, just the opposite is true for Belgium, Spain and the Netherlands.

Table 1.9
Part time and full time job non-contractual characteristics
(%) of individuals who agree or fully agree with the statements

	Belgium		Finland		Germany		Nether-lands		Poland		Spain		U.K	
	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t
Has good career opportunities*	31	42	28	25	13	27	37	51	53	55	17	21	34	50
Has good career opportunities**	36	45	32	32	19	35	40	55	54	56	19	23	41	56
Expect being with the employer in a year	84	84	50	83	80	85	69	74	(36)	64	64	74	78	81
Works regularly on Saturday	31	27	52	15	n.a	15	37	34	n.a	n.a	33	19	38	27
Works regularly on Sunday	18	15	22	10	n.a	11	24	20	n.a	n.a	19	10	25	18
Works regularly in the evenings	30	39	51	23	n.a	28	39	45	n.a	n.a	48	68	34	32
Works in unhealthy conditions	17	20	24	21	7	17	19	21	n.a	n.a	21	25	n.a	n.a
Works in dangerous conditions	7	11	14	12	n.a	n.a	7	13	n.a	n.a	10	12	n.a	n.a
Work is physically exhausting	25	24	39	26	n.a	n.a	23	23	24	24	43	43	n.a	n.a
Work is mentally exhausting	37	42	47	53	n.a	n.a	31	35	35	46	59	68	n.a	n.a
Job is sufficiently varied	70	74	53	66	71	79	70	75	n.a	n.a	48	57	n.a	n.a
Job involves monotonous tasks	24	21	53	44	34	26	23	19	n.a	n.a	66	54	n.a	n.a
Finds job boring	17	14	32	25	n.a	n.a	14	13	15	10	28	26	n.a	n.a
Work is stressful	57	66	44	56	43	59	52	64	n.a	n.a	48	56	n.a	n.a

*the career opportunities for individuals younger than 55

** the career opportunities for individuals younger than 35

() – limited reliability, number of respondents less than 50, but more than 25

Table 1.10
Promotion and pay rise (%)

	Has been promoted in current firm		Received pay raise last year*	
	part-timers	full-timers	part-timers	full-timers
Belgium	25	41	26	37
Finland	29	43	44	51
Germany	14	29	26	40
Netherlands	34	48	42	46
Poland	21	43	28	49
Spain	20	41	12	18
United Kingdom	29	46	60	66

* The individuals who work more than 1 year

Part-time and full-time employees differ according to whether they have

been promoted or not in the company they have been working for. The first

observation to be made in all countries full-timers are notably much more likely to be promoted than their part-time counterparts (see table 1.9). This confirms the argument advanced in the introduction namely part-time employees experience difficulties in climbing the companies hierarchical ladder. Promotion, especially to managerial posts, means not only prestige but more responsibility and supervision. Being in charge of other people requires more devotion to work and company, which sometimes remains impossible in case of (partly) voluntarily part-timers or people who have devoted their time to other activities, e.g. childcare. The other aspects to look from at the problem are on one hand individuals work part-time due to degradation in companies hierarchy (which often the case of involuntarily part-timers) on the other hand some of the full-timers today were part-timers before the promotion.

The widest differences between part-time and full-time employee have been observed in Poland and Spain, 22 and 21 percentage points respectively. However, the less likely to be promoted

are German part-timers (and full-timers as well) only one in seven has been promoted in their current firms.

Pay rise or its absence can be a consequence of many national economy or company related circumstances, which make the comparison between countries more complex. However, comparing the full-time and part-time workers according to whether they received pay rise in the last year or not, gives an opportunity to evaluate part-time jobs in relation to full-time jobs. This is hardly surprising part-time workers in all of seven countries were less likely to get a pay rise than full-timers (see table 1.10). After comparing the hourly wages in the first subsection (see above), it appeared obvious that full-timers are expected to experience more dynamic pay-rise. The study reveals that Dutch, British and Spanish part-timers are at best situation relative to their national full-time counterparts. The worst according to pay rise opportunity of part-time in relation to full-time workers is the situation in Poland and Germany.

Main findings

- Part time workers are on average paid lower hourly rate than full time workers. It can be due to number of reasons:
 - part time workers tend to work in sectors, where hourly rates of pay are low in comparison to national average,
 - p/t workers tend to be employed in low graded jobs, excluded from supervisory posts, and are more likely to be excluded from supplementary payments,
 - women and young people dominated among part-timers thus the lower pay of part-time workers partly reflects the discrimination and low job tenure.
 - part-timers may be also excluded from different rights and benefits, entitlement to which is a subject of a minimum number of hours worked.

These disadvantages are compounded by a type of discrimination, referred to as invisible, which affects their investment and promotion prospects (Bolle 1997)

- Guaranteeing quality of part-time employment is important both for part-time and full-time workers, for

deterioration of employment conditions of part-timers may cause, through a “levelling down process”, deterioration in the situation of their full-time counterparts.

- Part-timers are less likely to be trained at employer's cost. However, large differences between countries have to be highlighted. Both part- and full-time workers are more likely to be trained in the Netherlands and Belgium, than in Spain or Finland.
- Although one must be careful with drawing a conclusion, the study results suggest that part-time employment in most countries is rather of insecure nature. In five countries of the study (no data for Poland and U.K) the proportion of part-timers who are afraid of losing their jobs in the future is higher than the proportion of full-time workers. It was observed especially in Finland and Spain.
- Part-timers are less likely to be promoted and to receive a pay rise.

To conclude: the study reveals that part-time employment is of lower quality than full-time employment. But it would be reasonable to suggest that the eventual explanation of the

phenomena is that in some countries (Poland, Spain and Finland) working part-time is treated both by employers and employees only as a temporary solution. In countries where working part-time is very common, the Netherlands and Belgium, not large differences were observed between part-time and full-time employment with reference to job quality.

Chapter 2

REASONS FOR PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT

Introduction

Part-time work as one of the mostly widespread non-standard work arrangement is assumed to offer good opportunities to reconcile work with other activities. It tends to be perceived as a tool for combining employment with caring for children, other household obligations or gradual withdraw from labour market, since it gives employees more time for their private responsibilities and interest than full-time job. Decreasing the amount of time spend on working can due to stress, health problems or time needed for self. In every of these cases people find beneficial to limit their work engagement. From this point of view individuals work part-time because they want to. In the literature they are described as “voluntary part-timers” in contrast to involuntary part-time workers i.e. individuals who work part-time for they cannot find full-time job. However the terms voluntary – done willingly or involuntary, can be partly misleading in the context. In the countries with limited availability of affordable, good quality childcare arrangements, mothers (or fathers) of

small children are rather forced than encouraged to work part-time. It is risky to say that individuals experiencing health problems or stress work part time which expresses their willingness. To some extent they may work part-time because of the lack of other opportunities. It seems that the “ideal” type of voluntary part-timers represent individuals who work part-time to have more time for themselves, do some education, have two or more jobs, do housekeeping or are retired. However, it remains questionable too. These people can originally work short hours for any of those reasons now desire to work more hours but continue to declare the original (voluntary) reason for working part-time. It appears complex issue to find out if the involuntary part-timers would really work full-time if given an opportunity. They may report the willingness because of economic reasons but not really willing to work additional hours.

The other aspect is the compatibility of part-time work and life outside of work. As it is highlighted in

a report of Eurofound (2006) it depends on the structure of part-time working regime. Financial conditions, social protection, career prospects, distribution of working hours during the day or week, and many others factors determine whether part-time working options are attractive alternative to standard full-time. The attractiveness of part-time jobs in relation to full-time jobs was scrutinised in section 2, here it is only worth to mention that the comparison may provide an explanation why part-time employment is more widespread in some countries than in others. And it allows us to think that in many countries there are individuals who would prefer to work part time but because of individual, labour market related and institutional circumstances they do not opt for that.

This section of the report offers a comprehensive characteristics of reasons individuals give for working part-time. We expected that the

The results of the study, like those of earlier investigation on part-time employment reasons, reveal considerable differences between countries and between different groups. There are marked national differences in the rates of part-time employment and reasons why people

reasons can vary considerably according to age, gender, level of education, work experience, health, family situation and personal preferences for leisure time and so on. To reflect the variation the respondents in Wageindicator questionnaire were asked to decide which of nine reasons listed below made them to work part time:

- looking after children
- job is too stressful
- education
- health problems
- housekeeping
- cannot find full time job
- retirement
- second job
- time needed for self

The individuals were free to choose between the reasons and to choose more than one reason at the same time.

Why people work part-time?

work part-time. The differences are due to varied combination of factors including differences in the state of economy and labour market and in the organisation of childcare, education and retirement systems.

Part time employment is one means of combining work with other

activities, which require time. On a one hand, reasons for part time work expresses individual desire; on the other, the reasons are influenced by objective factors within which individuals plan their lives; individual characteristics; employment, household and economic situation, work organisation and regulation (see Bielenski at al. 2002). For example, looking after children can be a reason for part time work, because individuals want to spend more time with their children and/or because the good quality childcare facilities are unavailable. Thus the reasons for part time work are, to some extent, compromises between what is desirable and what is feasible. Investigating the reasons pictures the extent to how useful and demanded part time work is for adjusting working to different life phases and individuals' situations.

In the survey the part-timers were questioned about the reasons they work part-time. We expected that the reasons can vary considerably according to age, gender, level of education, work experience, family situation and personal preferences. Not all of the potentially influential factors find their reflection in the research.

There are four reasons for part-time work which are, on average, given relatively more often than others. The most frequently cited one, on average in seven countries,

is “ *I work part-time to look after children*”, which suggests that working part-time is common mostly among parents (mothers in particular). Then comes *education*, as the second most widespread reason for working part-time. On average for all countries one fourth of all part-timers prefers to work full-time but does not have any opportunity for doing so. Slightly more than one in four of respondents, gives *time needed for self* as a reason for part time work.

Although the reasons mentioned above are mostly common for all the countries, large differences between two groups of countries were noticed. The first observation to be made is that the fact of living in particular country has a significant influence on self-declared reason for part-time employment. In Poland, Finland and Spain most of the respondents work part-time involuntarily (because they cannot find full time work) and/or because they find it as way to combine work and education. Only one tenth of Polish and Finish part-timers, and one

fifth of their Spanish counterparts indicate looking after children as a reason for not working full-time, which stands in total contrast to Belgium, Germany, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. In the latter group of countries the share of part-timers citing this reason is particularly high (around 50 %). Although combining work with education is quite common in the latter group of countries it is relatively less widespread in the

former. Just the opposite happens in the case of *time needed for self*.

The data may suggest that in contrast to other countries in Poland, Finland and Spain working part time is mainly demanded as way of combining work and education and/or as an initial stage of the professional career. Some light on the issue may shed the analysis of the reasons for part-time employment according to age and gender.

Table 2. 1
Reasons for part-time work
(%) of part-time workers

	BEL	FIN	GER	NL	PL	SP	U.K	average
looking after children	54	10	45	48	9	20	50	34
job is too stressful	12	8	5	10	5	9	8	8
education	6	33	18	23	45	36	21	26
health problems	7	3	4	8	3	1	5	4
housekeeping	25	5	18	19	5	5	13	13
cannot find fulltime job	11	40	23	10	42	31	10	24
retirement	3	7	5	2	5	4	3	4
second job	4	5	8	6	12	10	6	7
time needed for self	37	10	24	32	14	14	20	21

Table 2.2.

Involuntary part-time work		
The share of involuntary part-time workers		
(%) or respondents who answered: I cannot find full time job		
	Eurostat	Wageindicator
Belgium	16	11
Finland	27	40
Germany	20	23
NL	4	10
Poland	28	42
Spain	31	31
U.K	8	10

Age and reasons for part-time work

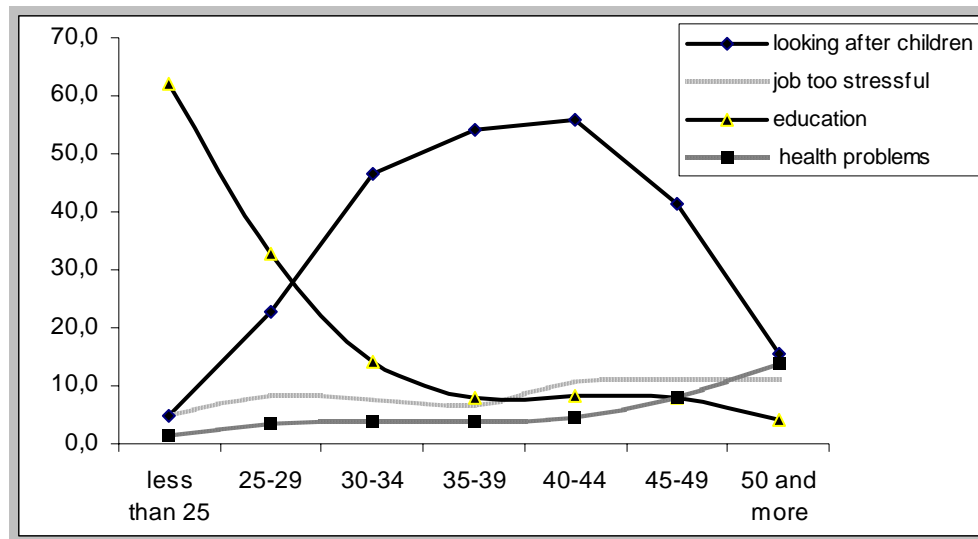
There is a variety of possible reasons for uneven distribution of working time over life course: individuals may tend to work part-time at the beginning and end of their working lives, with full time work being concentrated in the middle years.

The results shown in table 2.1 may suggest that the distribution of different age groups among part-timers is different in different countries. Since the main reason for part-time work in Finland, Spain and Poland is education it could be expected that the group of

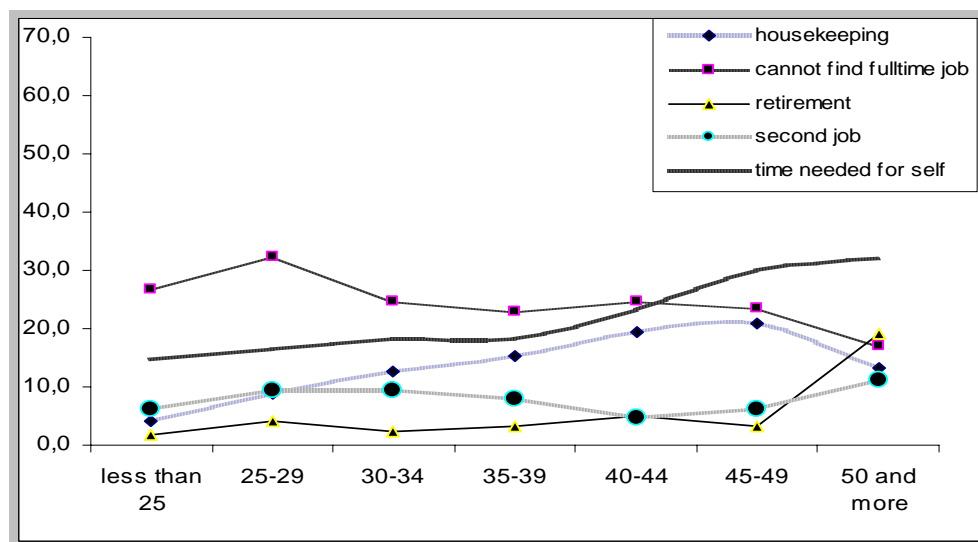
the youngest respondents (less than 25) is relatively largest (see figure 1, section “data”). On the other hand, it is safe to assume that, at least in some countries, young and prime age individuals are overrepresented among Internet based survey respondents. If it is so, it would be useful to make the comparison according to age.

Figure 1**Reasons for part-time employment according to age**

(share of part-time employees in an age group, unweighted average for all countries)

**Figure 1 (cont.)****Reasons for part-time employment according to age**

(% of part-time employees in an age group, unweighted average for all countries)



What makes people to work part-time differs along with age. As would be expected most of the young people (under 30) prevail among those who

reported to work part-time because of education. Where large proportions of young people are engaged in higher education this can create a pool of

students available for part-time employment, particularly if grants and other sources of financial support are limited.

The figure 1 vividly illustrates that the highest proportion of part-time employees who declare to work part-time because of looking after children increases substantially for individuals in their thirties, and drops for individuals in their late forties and fifties. The data suggest persuasively that people limit their engagement in employment when the children are born (the average age of giving first birth across EU countries is around 30) and young. The teenagers and older children, even if living at family home, do not require so much time and attention.

The older part-time employees the larger proportion of those who report to work because of housekeeping, stress, they time needed for self, health problems and, obviously, retirement. The older the respondents the more rarely they work part-time involuntarily i.e. because they cannot find full time job. It can be partly explained by the increasing experience of the workers which allows them to find employment which suits their needs better.

Figure 1 provides an overview of how the incidence for of the reasons for part-time employment, however, as shows table 2 there are substantial differences between countries.

In Poland, Finland and to some extent in Spain the pattern of self-reported reasons for part-time employment appears to be very similar. In all three countries the proportion of involuntary part-timers remains, for all age groups, meaningfully higher than in other countries. In Poland and Spain part-time employees in their thirties more often than in other countries have at least two jobs. There is also a significant difference between Poland or Finland and the other five countries in respect to looking after children as a reason for part-time employment. In the two countries it is relatively rare to combine work and family responsibilities by working part-time. For Poland the peak point is 24 percentage of part-time employee (the age group 30-34) and for Finland 28 (the age group 40-44), comparing to Belgium, the United Kingdom, and Netherlands all with peak point 75 percentage or more.

Table 2.3**Reasons for part time employment according to age**
(%) of part timers in the age group

	looking after children	job is too stressful	education	health problems	housekeeping	cannot find fulltime job	retirement	second job	time needed for self
Less than 25									
Belgium	7	4	42	3	11	40	2	4	15
Finland	3	8	53	0	0	37	1	5	5
Germany	5	6	53	1	5	30	2	11	15
NL	5	7	72	3	5	13	2	7	20
Poland	3	2	79	1	2	27	1	5	17
Spain	1	3	68	0	1	26	4	6	12
U.K	10	5	69	3	3	14	0	5	20
25-29									
Belgium	38	11	14	4	14	24	5	10	24
Finland	4	10	47	2	2	43	5	9	11
Germany	18	5	45	2	6	30	6	8	14
NL	30	13	24	7	16	17	3	8	35
Poland	12	7	25	1	6	58	9	17	8
Spain	4	8	51	2	4	40	2	8	14
U.K	52	5	26	5	14	15	0	6	10
30-34									
Belgium	75	7	3	4	19	8	0	5	23
Finland	21	13	22	3	10	41	3	5	11
Germany	42	5	23	2	12	27	5	11	22
NL	62	9	9	7	16	7	1	6	33
Poland	24	7	11	5	14	49	2	18	17
Spain	25	10	20	1	2	35	6	14	14
U.K	78	3	10	4	15	6	0	8	8
35-39									
Belgium	73	11	5	8	28	6	1	3	29
Finland	19	4	13	0	10	51	2	4	11
Germany	63	5	10	2	19	18	4	8	25
NL	76	7	7	7	21	5	1	5	28
Poland	10	0	5	5	10	52	13	18	5
Spain	61	11	5	0	4	19	3	13	11
U.K	77	7	10	3	16	9	1	5	19
40-44									
Belgium	69	13	4	8	35	7	1	3	42
Finland	28	12	21	4	13	42	4	0	17
Germany	65	5	7	5	26	19	2	7	22
NL	75	10	8	9	29	5	1	5	33
<i>Poland *</i>	<i>36</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>69</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>8</i>
Spain	49	18	11	2	16	24	7	10	23
U.K	70	9	9	3	17	7	1	9	18
45-49									
Belgium	57	18	3	8	35	9	1	4	43
Finland	22	11	11	6	11	39	6	0	21
Germany	56	6	6	7	29	21	3	7	31
NL	64	14	7	11	32	8	1	7	43
<i>Poland *</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>56</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>17</i>
Spain	35	13	10	0	10	23	6	7	23
U.K	49	15	9	7	19	9	1	2	32

Table 2.3 (cont.)**Reasons for part time employment according to age**

(%) of part timers in the age group

50 and more									
Belgium	23	15	1	11	13	7	10	2	57
Finland	2	5	0	17	5	26	50	7	12
Germany	23	6	3	11	21	26	15	6	32
NL	34	17	4	17	23	11	8	7	46
<i>Poland *</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>31</i>	<i>25</i>
<i>Spain *</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>21</i>
U.K	18	11	7	10	11	10	19	5	31

* limited reliability : sample size less than 25

Reasons for part-time employment and gender

The two main category of male part-time workers are those, who combine employment with education or need time for self. Comparing gender gaps shows that women prevail among part-timers in every country, although there are meaningful differences between countries.

In recent decades in all industrialised countries the rates of part-time work have increased. The majority of part-timers are women, concentrated among mothers. In every of the seven countries more than 90 % of females have at least one child living at home. The share of males remains much lower, however is relatively higher in the countries where part-time employment is common mainly among the youngsters and where individuals asked about the reason give: “education” and “cannot find full time job”.

The main reason for working part-time declared by female part-timers varies quite markedly between two groups of countries. In the first group: Belgium, the United Kingdom Germany, the Netherlands; the proportion of women who work part-time because they want (which express the preferences) or must (which express the non-preferential factors) care for children is very high. The other group includes: Poland, Finland and Spain; in the countries females work part-time rather involuntarily, for they cannot find full time job, or to combine work with education. In the latter group of countries females relatively seldom decide to work part time to do housekeeping, for they need time for self, or because they find their job too stressful.

Table 2.4
Reason for part-time employment according to gender (%)

	looking after children	job is too stressful	education	health problems	House- keeping	cannot find fulltime job	retire- ment	second job	time needed for self
FEMALES									
BEL	61	13	6	7	28	11	2	3	32
FIN	12	9	32	3	6	42	6	5	8
GER	55	5	13	4	22	22	3	6	22
NL	52	11	21	8	21	9	1	6	32
PL	12	4	43	3	7	45	5	12	10
Sp	28	9	29	1	6	32	4	8	11
U.K	59	8	18	4	16	8	2	5	19
Av.	40	8	23	4	15	24	3	6	19
MALES									
BEL	22	10	8	10	10	11	7	8	56
FIN	2	8	40	2	0	32	14	4	18
GER	18	6	32	6	8	27	9	14	29
NL	22	9	38	9	8	12	5	10	32
PL	4	5	48	3	2	37	5	13	20
Sp	5	9	49	1	2	31	4	13	19
U.K	8	6	37	8	2	19	12	8	25
Av.	12	8	36	6	4	24	8	10	28

The study does not reveal large differences between reasons for part-time employment given by males in different countries as it was observed in case of females. In all countries significant share of male part-timers gives: education, time for self, and problems with finding full-time job as the main reasons. The only exception is Belgium where relatively very small proportion of male part-timers indicates education as a reason for not working full-time, and at the same time, almost three fifth of them (the highest proportion in all countries) works part-time to have more time for themselves.

As would be expected there is a wide disparity between share of females and males who work part-time for domestic-related reasons. Although the differences are observed in every of the seven countries, it is particularly meaningful in United Kingdom and Belgium, where two thirds of women gives caring as a reason for not working full-time, but only two (Belgium) or one (U.K) in ten of men. The picture in Poland and Finland stands in sharp contrast to that. Although in the two countries females more often decide to work part-time, but the gender differences are relatively small and the reason of childcare is rarely given. The same

applies to housekeeping, in all of seven countries more women than men give the reason but differences between genders are much smaller in Poland, Finland and Spain than in other countries.

The study reveals wide national differences. In four countries: Belgium, U.K, Germany and Netherlands women in part-time employment sought it to fit in with other activities like childcare and housekeeping. Alike, with the only exception of Germany, only very small minority works part-time involuntarily

(i.e. due to the lack of full-time employment opportunities). In Poland, Finland and Spain either men or women work part-time to combine employment with education or because a lack of full-time opportunities. Relatively uncommon to the first group of countries it is to decide for part-time pattern, because of domestic or childcare responsibilities. It suggests that working part-time is “no option” decision rather than voluntary.

Part-time employment and children

Employment rates of women have been rising but, in contrast to men, women are disproportionately part-time employed and experience career interruptions over the life-cycle which are linked to family formation (Fitzberger & Wunderlich 2004). “Caring for children” is the main reason for part-time employment, it deserves more attention. Part-time work makes it easier to reconcile family responsibilities with employment with an added advantage of maintaining a

link with working life, thus avoiding a total break, which can create problems referring to subsequent skills upgrading. In Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Spain it occurs that having a child leads to increase in proportion of part-time employed women. It is not the case in Poland and Finland. In both countries the proportion of part-time employed childless women is higher than for mothers.

Table 2.5
Women and men working part-time according to number and age of children
living at home (% of employed population)

	Belgium	Finland	Germany	Netherlands	Poland	Spain	United Kingdom
CHILDLESS							
females	12,4	15,3	10,6	33,2	14,5	10,9	6,9
males	4,0	6,8	4,6	10,4	10,7	5,8	3,5
the youngest child 3 or less							
females	36,3	12,5	n.a.	78,7	10,4	19,1	
males	2,9	2,1		7,5	4,4	1,6	
the youngest child 10 or less							
females	41,9	13,3		76,6	9,4	16,2	
males	2,8	2,2		6,5	3,8	1,7	
The youngest child 10 to 18*							
females	37,3	5,3		63,3	7,5	9,8	22,3
1 child living at home							
females	31,3	8,3	37,3	67,7	8,6	12,5	22,3
males	4,0	1,0	2,9	6,7	4,4	2,1	1,1
2 children living at home							
females	49,2	9,7	48,9	77,5	9,3	14,9	32,0
males	3,0	2,9	2,2	6,0	4,6	1,5	2,0
3 children living at home							
females	56,8	12,1	56,0	74,6	6,7	9,1	32,1
males	5,4	3,6	1,9	6,0	3,6	1,2	2,7

*limited reliability for males

As was expected the gender differences are most pronounced between individuals with children living at home. In all countries the rate of male part-time employment does not change either due to age or to number of children. Conversely women are more likely to work to limit their working time when a child arrives (except Poland and Finland). Many, mostly feminist, authors indicate a “male breadwinner” division of responsibility as a reason for differences in female employment participation. According to the thesis females burdened with unpaid work (caring for children, housekeeping, shopping etc.) need more time for non-employment responsibilities than men, which reduces their availability for paid work. But the study reveals that this is a part of a story. Firstly, in two countries; Finland and Poland, part-time employment does not seem to be an attractive alternative for combining work and family responsibilities. In both countries about two fifth mothers with the children three years or younger work part-time involuntary. It may be due to labour

market conditions: high unemployment, low quality (in sense of pay and training) and limited availability of part-time jobs. Secondly, if we premise that time needed for childcare decreases along the age of a child, and have in mind that “childcare” is the most commonly given reason for part-time employment, it should be expected that the older the children the smaller proportion of women work part-time. The study reveals that it is not true in Belgium and only partly true in the Netherlands. In the two countries the proportion of part-time employed women remains almost unchanged for all children’s age groups. Simultaneously the rate of females who as a reason for part-time work give “time needed for self” increases along the children age.

Main findings

- The reasons for part-time employment change with age of the employees. The most vivid examples are: “education” and “looking after children”, which prevail in the group of twenties and thirties respectively.

- There are meaningful differences between countries in the self-reported reasons for part-time employment even when the data are controlled for age and gender. We can distinguish two groups of countries:

Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, the United Kingdom;

in which individuals are more likely to work part-time voluntarily (because of time needed for self) or partly voluntarily (because looking after children, housekeeping)

Poland, Finland, Spain; the countries where the prevalent part-time employment reasons are: education, no full-time job opportunities, and too less extent “second job”.

- On average for all countries the most vivid difference between male and female part-timers according to self-reported reasons for part-time work appeared to be: caring for children, housekeeping, education and time needed for self. The former two are mostly given by women, the latter two by men.

- There are extreme differences between reasons for part-time work

reported by women in the countries of scrutiny. More than two fifth of Polish female part-timers cannot find full time job or/and combine work with education, which is in sharp contrast to, for example, Belgium with 11 and 6 percentage of female part-timers respectively.

- Relatively large group of Dutch, Belgian, and German male part-timers decided for non-full time job to care for their children. In six countries, except Belgium, males work part-time to combine work with education. The dissimilarities between men in the seven countries were observed in reference to “time needed for self” and “cannot find full time job”.

- For all countries for which data are available the number and age of children living at home influence the possibility of women (but not men!) to work part-time. Though, it is worth to be highlighted, the patterns are different in different countries. In Belgium and the Netherlands mothers are more likely to work part-time than the childless women, and the share of women remains relatively high (around 40

%) for all age groups of children. In Poland and Finland the share of female part-timers is higher for childless women than for mothers, and in the two countries and Spain, the rate of part-time employment among mothers decreases with age of children. In countries with the highest part-time employment rates the number of children living at home appears to be connected with the share of women who work part-time.

- The data suggest that the objective factors do not fully explain the reasons for part-time employment. Women with children living at home more often work part-time, but when the children are older the self-reported reason is rather “time needed for self” than “looking after children”. The data suggest that even if women temporarily limit their job-devoted time to look after small children, part-time employment remains an attractive alternative for them when the children grow up.

Chapter 3

Part time work and satisfaction

Economic things matter only in so far as they make people happier.

Andrew J. Oswald

introduction

As Green (2006, p. 153) states: *Economics is built upon the foundation of utility theory which it inherited from the utilitarian tradition in philosophy.(...) In the mainstream neoclassical tradition (...) which still dominates all economics teaching across industrialised world, individuals are at the centre of the analysis, but their well-being is regarded as in principle unmeasurable.* If it could be accepted that the satisfaction data are informative about the different levels of utility well-being it would throw wide open the study of economics.

In the chapter we use the terms: subjective well-being, life satisfaction and happiness interchangeably. Next

to the part on life satisfaction there are four other which scrutinize satisfaction which refers to some domains of life and work. We assess people's satisfaction by asking respondents to state how satisfied they are. The validity, reliability and comparability of the respondents' replies are intensively discussed in literature. Contextual influences like finding a dime, or the outcome of a soccer game may substantially change people's perception of their life, job or even pay. The answers are also affected by the order of questions and the nature of alternatives (Schwarz and Strack 2003, p. 62). But as Easterlin sums up his literature review: *"if one is concerned with comparing the subjective well-being of sizeable groups of people, the similarity of feelings about the sources of*

happiness give credence to such comparison” (2001, p. 467). Thus we believe that our research based on a large number of participants gives trustworthy results, and the distractions to be averaged out.

The problem about studying satisfaction is to determine what is a cause and what is result. Are people more satisfied with their life because they are more satisfied with their job, or the opposite is true; people are more satisfied with their job because they are more satisfied with their lives. The chapter provides mostly cross-sectional analysis of part-time and full-time workers': life, job, work-life balance, pay and leisure satisfaction. The analysis presented in the chapter is based on cross-sectional analysis thus it is not possible to test the causality of certain variables. However, our aim is not to answer the question on the sources of individuals' satisfaction. Our interest is to study part-time workers' satisfaction levels and compare them with those of full-time workers.

Table 3.1 Correlation between job, leisure, pay, work-life balance and life satisfaction.

	job	leisure time	life	pay
work-family reconciling	,362*	,671**	,390*	,248*
job		,289*	,380*	,421*
leisure time			,346*	,243*
life				,302*

Novelty of our study can be found in scrutinizing a relationship between reasons for part-employment and life satisfaction. Previous chapters showed that part-timers are very heterogeneous. We suggest that diversity of reasons for part-time employment can, partly, explain the differences between life satisfaction of workers.

The differences in employees' self-reported satisfaction between part-time and full-time workers has been hardly addressed yet. Booth and van Ours (2006) investigated the part-time work and three indicators of satisfaction: satisfaction with working hours, overall job satisfaction and life satisfaction. They found that women working part-time are more satisfied with

their working hours than the full-time female workers. But there is not such a relationship for job satisfaction. The authors found that women's life satisfaction is reduced by working full-time (but it increases with partner working full-time), and just the opposite happens in case of males.

Booth and van Ours (2006) indicate that the part-time work may lead to increase in hours satisfaction but it might not necessarily increase overall job satisfaction. There is a problem which derives from the lower quality of part-time employment. So if the part-time jobs are of lower quality the overall job satisfaction may drop, even when working time adds substantially to one's satisfaction.

What is the connection between part-time work and life satisfaction? The shortest answer given by the literature is: we do not really know. Part-time work may play vital role in allowing an individual to balance work and non-work life. At the same time it maintains an individual self-esteem and social connection, which is not the case for unemployed.

Life satisfaction

We expect that individuals who choose to work less than full-time find the burden of work, and wage relatively less attractive than some additional time for self and/or other activities (like housekeeping, childcare etc.). Working part-time may be a good solution for individuals who do not want life to be subordinated to their job. It gives an opportunity (time) to be actively involved in different, eventually even more satisfying, spheres of life. As people choose to be employed part-time, because they expect to be better off, it should not affect their life satisfaction or it should affect it positively.

However the positive consequences for individuals' well-being derived from a decrease in a number of working hours, are likely to diminish if one prefers to work full-time instead of part-time. Involuntary part-time employees can be treated as partly unemployed, they want to work more but because of circumstances cannot do it. So consequently they can be treated as partly unemployed. It has been

empirically proven that self-reported life satisfaction of unemployed is much lower than that of employed persons (see: Frey and Stutzer 2002; Di Tella, MacCulloch & Oswald 2001; Clark & Oswald 1994). Thus *we expect that individuals working part-time because they could not find full-time job have relatively lower life-satisfaction* than other part-time employees.

If working part-time affects positively individuals' life satisfaction this is mostly because of

additional time free of work responsibilities one can use for other activities. So logically if someone works part-time, because of second job, the effect is not going to appear. In this case part-time employment provides an opportunity to work somewhere else. Because of that, it is reasonable to expect that people who give "second job" as a reason for not working full-time should experience relatively lower life satisfaction than voluntary part-timers.

Table 3. 2
Average level of self-reported life satisfaction of part-time employees according to the reason for part time employment (scale 1-10)

	BEL	FIN	GER	NL	PL	SP	U.K.	unweighted average*
full timers	7,22	7,49	6,64	7,2	6,77	6,75	6,33	6,91
part timers	7,29	7,27	6,46	7,25	6,53	6,64	6,34	6,83
Reason for part time employment								
no f/t job	6,45	(6,93)**	5,82	6,78	(6,33)	6,20	5,41	6,13
housekeeping	7,37	(7,74)	6,92	7,26	n/a	6,63	6,42	6,92
children	7,41	7,52	6,76	7,27	n/a	6,74	6,37	6,91
time for self	7,53	(7,80)	7,01	7,45	n/a	6,91	6,61	7,10
second job	7,25	n/a	6,34	7,19	n/a	7,06	6,52	6,87
retirement	7,49	(7,10)	7,40	7,15	(6,28)	(7,20)	7,16	7,28
ft too stressful	6,94	(7,15)	6,31	6,90	n/a	6,65	5,72	6,50
education	7,20	7,53	6,36	7,36	(6,97)	6,79	6,59	6,86

* Poland and Finland not included

**(...) – limited number of respondents, more than 20 less than 50

The cross-sectional analysis (table 3.2) does not provide a opportunity for testing causality but

it confirms, to some extent, our expectations. In every country of the study part-time employees who

could not find full time job were on average much less satisfied with their life than the other groups of employees. To explain the results it can be useful to look at the group as partly unemployed. Number of researches show that being unemployed is harmful for individual's life satisfaction. As Frey and Stutzer summarise their findings and study review: "unemployment (...) has a substantial negative effect on the happiness of the people experiencing it" (2002; p. 97). Although it needs further research we suppose that the negative effects of involuntary part-time employment may be explained in three ways: (1) *pecuniary cost*, the involuntary part-time employees can suffer from a relatively bad financial situation. They report a willingness to work full-time, and one reason for that can be their, subjectively stated, miserable conditions. (2) Part-time employment, especially in countries like Germany, Spain and Poland; may produce *anxiety of becoming redundant*. Persons who work part-time voluntarily may feel more relaxed and can adjust more easily to

the circumstances. (3) Individuals tend to evaluate their own situation relatively to other persons. If a person voluntary decides to limit working hours and there are many persons who decided to work part-time because of the same reason (children, housekeeping, time for self) self-esteem is preserved. When one has been forced to accept the conditions and a reference group is dominated by persons working full-time self-reported life satisfaction can substantially drop. In countries where part-time employment is a common phenomena people may find it easier to make comparison with others who work part-time as well.

Four groups of part-timers are on average very satisfied with their life, those who decided to limit their working hours because of: time needed for self, caring for children, retirement and housekeeping. The respondents were free to choose between different reasons for part-time employment and a number of options to chose was not limited. Thus it is reasonable to suspect that housekeeping and looking for

children were correlated. The study shows a weak correlation ($r=0.239^{**}$) between those two. Even weaker correlation appeared to be between “housekeeping” and “time needed for self” ($r=0.203^{**}$) as a reason for part-time employment. As people choose to limit their working hours because of one of the reasons listed above, it is not unreasonable to think, that they expect to be better off. Limiting working hours gives an opportunity to better balance work and life. Individuals who decided to work part-time because they find full-time employment to be too stressful are, on average, less satisfied with their life than other groups of part-timers.

To conclude; we suggest that relation between part-time employment and life satisfaction depends, among others, on reason for part-time employment.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as an individuals' subjective valuation of their job. Increase in a job satisfaction may be due to three different things: improvement in the

objective aspects of job (i.e. pay, working conditions, training opportunities etc.), reduced expectations or because dissatisfying aspects of the job are downplayed while pleasing aspects are given greater weight (Gaziloglu and Tansel, 2006)

Job satisfaction depends not just on the well-being that the jobs conveys, but also the expectations level. It is very likely that individuals with different levels of expectation would report different levels of job satisfaction when facing the same conditions. The problem is even more vivid in case of trend analysis because of changes in norms of what counts as satisfactory in a job.

Recently there has been a resurgence of interest in the analysis of (job) satisfaction. The subject itself is considered as a very much interest worth, and from a very practical point of view the game is worth the candle. What are the reasons to analyse job satisfaction? Sousa-Poza and Sousa Poza (2001) listed the arguments;

- job satisfaction is one of the most important predictors of overall well being¹,
- turns out to be correlated with worker's behaviour, it is often argued that increasing workers' satisfaction is positively linked to productivity, however the direct link was not yet established
- low satisfaction have been found to be correlated with future quits and absenteeism;
- it is important in service-based economy, because it has been found that there is positive relationship between employee and customer satisfaction
- and, which especially important to researchers, it can be used as a proxy measure of utility of work, upon which a great deal of microeconomics is based (Clark 1997, p. 343-344).

The usual method to measure the job (and others kind) satisfaction relies on satisfaction questions with a

scale of answers. In the Wageindicator questionnaire the wording in the job satisfaction question is: *How satisfied are you with your job?* Respondents were then allowed to classify their satisfaction level on a 5 point-scale (ranging from "highly dissatisfied" to "highly satisfied"). Using the method for international comparative studies has its limitation: some people do not use the same scale of answers of job satisfaction in the same way as other people. Partly it can be culturally motivated biased perception (see; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000). Individuals coming from different culture background are more likely to perceive the same words in different manner. The results of Sousa-Poza and Souza-Poza show, that even if language is a source of possible differences in international studies, it is not the only one (2000; p. 523) . Clark (1997) highlights the correlations between satisfaction and overall being or worker behaviour have been found which suggest that there is a common "zone", a signal in the noise.

¹ The other two are: marriage and family satisfaction.

Table 3.3,
Levels of self-reported job satisfaction

country		Dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied (%)	Satisfied or highly satisfied (%)	Average score (scale 1-5)	Average score for all employees
Belgium	p/t	15	57	3,6	3,64
	f/t	15	61	3,6	
Finland	p/t	30	50	3,3	3,44
	f/t	19	56	3,5	
Germany	p/t	20	56	3,5	3,54
	f/t	18	60	3,5	
Netherlands	p/t	18	61	3,6	3,64
	f/t	17	62	3,6	
Poland	p/t	25	45	3,4	3,30
	f/t	23	46	3,3	
Spain	p/t	34	38	3,0	3,07
	f/t	31	40	3,1	
United Kingdom	p/t	27	39	3,1	3,18
	f/t	26	43	3,2	

Some interesting results: (1) Workers in Belgium and the Netherlands reported the highest average level of job satisfaction. (2) Employees in Spain and United Kingdom reported the lowest level of job satisfaction (3) In all countries of the study the proportion of employees who are (highly) satisfied with their jobs, is much higher than the proportion of employees who are (highly) dissatisfied with their jobs. (4) In every country of the study full-time employees were more likely to answer: satisfied or highly satisfied, than their part-time counterparts. Consequently part-time employees

more often reported to experience unsatisfying job. (5) Although the pattern can be observed within countries it fails to be confirmed across countries. Part-timers in the Netherlands, Belgium and Germany reported to be much more satisfied than full-timers in Poland, Spain, Finland and the United Kingdom.

As a result we find it reasonable to think that job satisfaction is too much extent determined by specific conditions of a labour market, job quality etc., or, as some authors suggest, culture differences.

Many previous studies of job satisfaction indicated few relations

between job satisfaction and individual's characteristics (see for review Oswald 1997). Some of the findings seem to be of much importance in relation to part time/full time dichotomy. (1) Women are more satisfied with their jobs than men, which reflects their lower expectations, which arise from traditionally lower position at the labour market (Clark 1996, Blanchflower and Oswald 2001). (2) Happiness is apparently U-shaped in age, which means that on average people at the beginning and at the end of their career are mostly satisfied with their job (Oswald 1997).

If the populations of part-timers and full-timers were the same in the

sense of gender and age, the results presented above would be likely to reflect the differences in job satisfaction between the two groups of employees. But as said before and stated by former research; women and young people are, on average, more satisfied with their jobs than men in their thirties and forties. Thus because a proportion of women and young people among part-timers is larger than among full-timers, we expect that the difference in job satisfaction would be larger if we control for gender and age. Thus logically if we want to reveal a real difference between job satisfaction of part-timers and full-timers, we need to control the data for, at least, these two characteristics (age and gender).

Table 3.4
Level of self-reported job satisfaction of women aged 20 and 30

country		Dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied (%)	Satisfied or highly satisfied (%)	Average score (1-5)
Belgium	p/t	14	61	3,7
	f/t	19	59	3,5
Finland	p/t	34	42	3,1
	f/t	22	53	3,4
Germany	p/t	21	54	3,4
	f/t	23	53	3,4
Netherlands	p/t	21	57	3,5
	f/t	21	58	3,5
Poland	p/t	27	37	3,2
	f/t	27	43	3,2
Spain	p/t	32	39	3,1
	f/t	37	35	2,9
United Kingdom	p/t	33	35	3,0
	f/t	29	39	3,1

The table presented above in correspondence with table 3.3 provides few interesting findings:

- (1) The differences between full-time and part-time employees self-reported job satisfaction increase, as expected, but only in two countries: Finland and Poland.
- (2) In every of the seven countries women aged 20 to 30 employed full-time are less likely to be satisfied with their jobs than average full-timer.
- (3) In five of seven countries, with exception of Belgium and Spain, young women working

part-time are less job-satisfied than average part-timer in their countries.

- (4) In three countries: Belgium, Germany, Spain; young female part-timers are more satisfied with their jobs than their full-time counterparts.

A study of job satisfaction according to part-time employment reasons does not provide results which allow us to formulate suggestion of the relationship. There are large differences between countries in the level of self-reported job satisfaction, so we rather compare the ranks than the results

expressed in proportions. Among Dutch and German part-timers the most satisfied with their jobs are those who decided to work part-time because of housekeeping. In Belgium and in Spain individuals who decided to limit their working hours because

of time need for self are, on average, relatively most satisfied with their jobs. On the other hand in United Kingdom the most satisfied are part-time workers who have already retired.

Table 3.5

A proportion of part-timers (highly) satisfied with their job according to the reason for part-time employment

	BEL	FIN	GER	NL	PL	SP	U.K	AV.
children	60%	(49%)	60%	62%	n/a	32%	36%	50%
stress	48%	(52%)	42%	57%	n/a	28%	21%	41%
health	49%	n/a	43%	59%	n/a	n/a	20%	43%
housekeeping	59%	n/a	60%	64%	n/a	(39%)	43%	53%
not full time job	55%	43%	48%	52%	(41%)	31%	29%	43%
retirement	58%	n/a	53%	61%	n/a	(39%)	58%	54%
second	45%	n/a	53%	59%	n/a	47%	47%	50%
education	52%	48%	58%	62%	48%	34%	46%	50%
time for self	61%	(69%)	56%	62%	n/a	57%	39%	57%

() – more than 20 less than 50 respondents,

Pay satisfaction

Thanks to a number of cross-tab studies it has long been acknowledged that people who earn more are happier at a particular moment. On the other hand people do not get happier as they get richer. This is because, as Easterlin (1974, 2001, 2005) and others suggest, individuals compare their income with income of individuals from reference group. Easterlin suggested that people get utility not from

income *per se*, but from a comparison of themselves with others; happiness is relative. If relative income does not change it means; all incomes increase in the same proportion, so does the level of happiness. To picture; women are, on average less paid than men, but their pay satisfaction was found to be higher. The explanation which prevails in literature is: they compare their earnings with that of other

women, and they expect to be less paid (see; Argyle 2001).

Full-time employees, as it was shown in previous chapters, earn, on average, more than their part-time counterparts both per hour and month (week). Thus it is reasonable to expect that they are more satisfied with their pay. But there are at least two arguments why it can be the other way: (1) It is not absolute wage but the difference between expected and real wage, which determines one's pay satisfaction. Part-time employment is in most countries

related to lower wages, the fact is well-known (not only to researchers but to people who make up their minds) which means, that if individual voluntarily decided to work part-time, he or she was aware of relatively lower payment. So the gap between aspirations and achievements should not be large. (2) Women and young people are in majority of part-timers, and because these two groups are found to have lower pay expectations, it may happen that they are so called "happy low waged employees".

Table 3.6
Level of self-reported pay satisfaction

country	Satisfied or highly satisfied		Dissatisfied Or highly dissatisfied		Score (scale 1-5)	
	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t
BEL	34%	39%	35%	32%	2,9	3,0
FIN	25%	26%	55%	47%	2,5	2,6
GER	29%	33%	45%	39%	2,7	2,8
NL	37%	36%	34%	35%	3,0	3,0
PL	19%	23%	60%	50%	2,3	2,5
SP	17%	21%	66%	55%	2,1	2,4
U.K	22%	23%	51%	47%	2,5	2,6

It is worth to highlight there is not any country among the seven under study where respondents are, on average, satisfied with their pay

(score higher than 3.0). The most satisfied both full-timers and part-timers are employees in the Netherlands and Belgium. Only in

the former country there more both part-time and full-time employees who reported to be (highly) satisfied than (highly) dissatisfied. On the other end of the scale there are Poles and Spaniards. In the latter country two in three part-time workers are (highly) dissatisfied (in Poland three in five) and more than half of the full-timers.

The study reveals that in all countries, except the Netherlands, part-timers are less likely than full-timers to be (highly) satisfied with their pay, and they are much more likely to be (highly) dissatisfied. We suggest the results' interpretation may be twofold. Firstly, countries with the lowest differences in pay between part-timers and full-timers; Belgium and the Netherlands (see:

chapter 2) are also the countries with the lowest differences between in self-reported pay satisfaction of the two groups of workers. At the same time both countries have the largest proportions of (highly) satisfied part-timers (and the smallest proportions of dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied). On the other hand countries with the large differences between pay level of part-timers and full-timers; United Kingdom, Poland, Spain and Finland, have the lowest level of pay satisfaction. As a conclusion; if it is true, that it is comparison which influence individuals' pay satisfaction, part-time workers compare their pay with both: other part-timers and full-timers.

Satisfaction with combining work and family life

Comparisons of job satisfaction suffer from validity deficit, because it does not adequately reveals the whole range of emotional responses to job (Green 2006, p.153). Work-family balance is an important factor of subjective well-being. As

presented in the table 3.1 the satisfaction from reconciling work and family is correlated with life satisfaction and job satisfaction.

We find it reasonable to compare work-life reconciling satisfaction of individuals with children. Parents, especially

mothers, are those who experience the tension of work-family responsibilities. The results of our study are not surprising; part-timers are on average much more likely to be satisfied with combining work and family. Dutch workers both full-timers and part-timers are on average most satisfied with combining work and family life.

The results of the study provided in the table 3.7 reveal clearly that combining work with family responsibilities is mainly females' issue. In almost all countries (except Finland, - no data for Poland) the difference between satisfaction of females working part-time and females working full-time is larger than 12 percent points, in favour of the former. In Belgium,

Germany and, especially, in Spain the difference is enormous. Although we can see the differences between male part-time and full-time workers as well, they are not so large (they do not exceed 11 pp.) and in U.K male part-timers are even less satisfied with combining work and family than full-timers. The reason for that is the relatively high level of satisfaction achieved by males working full-time. It appears that if woman works full-time she finds it difficult to combine employment with family life, but it is man he is less likely to feel overburden, despite the fact that he spends a lot time at work. The explanation of the phenomena is probably an unequal division of responsibilities for childcare and housekeeping.

Table 3.7
Self-reported satisfaction with combining work and family life among employees
with at least one child living in the household
(% of satisfied or highly satisfied)

	all		males		females	
country	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t
BEL	59,2%	48,4%	63,1%	52,5%	58,7%	37,9%
FIN	52,0%	47,6%	(50,0%)	48,3%	52,4%	46,9%
GER	57,1%	47,1%	55,2%	48,3%	57,4%	40,4%
NL	64,5%	61,6%	67,4%	63,7%	64,2%	52,4%
PL		44,1%		45,7%		42,6%
SP	54,5%	44,3%	(45,9%)	48,0%	56,8%	34,3%
U.K	46,6%	36,9%	33,3%	38,2%	47,7%	34,6%

() – more than 20 less than 50 respondents,

Leisure satisfaction

Why measuring leisure time satisfaction? The reason is complex. Firstly, there is a substantial relation between leisure and subjective well-being. Participation in fulfilling leisure experiences influence individuals' life satisfaction through reduction of stress, emotional satisfaction and enjoyable social contacts. Secondly, thanks to leisure time a person has opportunity to satisfy his or her psychological, physiological, aesthetic, social, educational and relaxation needs. Thirdly, it is reasonable to believe that leisure time satisfaction differs much between part-time and full-time employees. At the first sight it is logically justified to expect that part-timers are more satisfied with their leisure time, because they spent less time at work, so they simply have more of it. But if we think more it appears not to be so obvious. There is a group of employees, who work part-time because of second job or on regular basis work overtime – so in their cases, there is no “time

bonus” applicable. A large majority of employees decided not to work full-time because of: housework, education or childcare. Although these activities cannot be labelled as “employment” but the term “leisure” is not correct too. Probably the best way to describe it is “unpaid work”. So the time gain of part-timers in relation to full-timers may be not so big as expected.

What makes people satisfied with their leisure is not only the amount of time they have, but also, which probably can be even more important, access to leisure resources and opportunities. We expect that individuals who work part-time because full-time employment is too stressful or because of health problems, are relative less satisfied with their leisure time. And there is also a financial aspect; relatively lower level of part-timers earnings limits, among others, their spending for leisure activities.

Table 3.8
Self-reported level of leisure satisfaction

	Satisfied or highly satisfied		Dissatisfied Or highly dissatisfied		Score (scale 1-5)	
country	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t	p/t	f/t
BEL	53%	48%	22%	24%	3,4	3,3
FIN	49%	37%	30%	34%	3,3	3,0
GER	54%	38%	23%	35%	3,5	3,0
NL	61%	53%	16%	21%	3,7	3,5
PL	29%	31%	43%	44%	2,8	2,8
SP	42%	29%	37%	49%	3,1	2,7
U.K	36%	30%	35%	40%	3,1	2,8

The main findings:

- (1) There are large differences in leisure satisfaction between countries,
- (2) part-time employees are, on average more satisfied with their leisure time, than full-time

employees. The only exception is Poland.

- (3) In U.K, Spain and Poland there are more full-time employees who report to be (highly) unsatisfied than full-time employees who are (highly) satisfied with their leisure time.

Table 3.9
Part-time employees satisfied or highly satisfied with their leisure, according to a reasons for part-time employment.

A reason for p/t employment	BEL	FIN	GER	NL	PL	SP	U.K
second job	47%	(55%)	47%	58%	n/a	40%	40%
time for self	63%	(65%)	65%	66%	n/a	61%	48%
retirement	65%	(77%)	65%	73%	n/a	(46%)	(56%)
housekeeping	50%	n/a	54%	60%	n/a	(29%)	36%
education	52%	39%	49%	64%	(30%)	40%	39%
too stressful	45%	(41%)	49%	56%	n/a	36%	43%
looking for children	47%	32%	47%	54%	n/a	40%	27%
health problems	50%	n/a	54%	60%	n/a	(29%)	36%

() – more than 20 less than 50 respondents,

The results (table 3.9) reveal substantial differences between self-reported leisure time satisfaction according to the reason for part-time employment. As expected, the least, on average, satisfied with their leisure are individuals who work part-time because of looking after children or second job. It confirms the findings by Warren (2004). Her study of British part-timers pointed out that having a dependent child substantially decreases females' leisure satisfaction. Warren found that women without dependent children were on average much more likely to be satisfied with the amount of time for their leisure, with their use of that leisure time and with their social lives than were mothers (2004, 109).

In case of the former group it seems to be reasonable to say that work is not equal to employment, caring for a child is a work too. When it comes to leisure time availability the latter group is, as a matter of fact, not much different than full-time employees. The most satisfied with their leisure are individuals who decided to work part-time because of time needed for oneself or retirement.

The results show that amount of time available for leisure activities is what really matters. In context of

leisure time people who work part-time because of different activities, which are not fully voluntary, experience the same limitations as full-time employees.

main findings

- There are large differences in self-reported satisfaction (life, job, pay, leisure and combining work and life) between countries of the study. They are even larger than between part-timers and full-timers within countries. The results let us think that differences in contract working hours may only to limited extent explain level of worker's satisfaction. It is reasonable to think that for example job satisfaction is too much extent determined by specific conditions of a labour market, job quality etc. and/or, as some authors suggest, culture differences.
- Pointing to the results of our study we claim that life satisfaction of part-time workers is partly determined by a reason for not working full-time. Firstly, in every country of the study, there is a substantial difference between life satisfaction of voluntary and non-voluntary part-

timers, in favour of the former group.

- In countries like: Poland, Spain and Finland where part-time employment is not common, and of relatively lower quality than full-time employment, life satisfaction of part-timers is lower than of their full-time counterparts.
- In every country of the study full-time workers are more likely to be more satisfied with their jobs than their part-time counterparts.
- Workers in all countries of the study are, on average, dissatisfied with their pay, and part-timers are more likely to be dissatisfied than full-timers. Not surprisingly level of self-reported pay satisfaction have appeared to be correlated with job satisfaction.
- Looking after children, second job and finding full-time job as too stressful as reasons for part-time employment affect negatively individuals' self-reported leisure satisfaction.
- Fact that women are those who on average do most of the housekeeping and caring at household, affects individuals' satisfaction from combining work and family. Females who work

full-time experience, relatively to males, substantial drop in the self-reported satisfaction.

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