

**LABOUR MARKET DYNAMICS AND
ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION**

**THE WAITAKERE GENERAL REPORT
1998-1999**

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Labour Market Dynamics and Economic Participation – Waitakere City

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The Waitakere General Report is one of a series of working papers to be published during the course of the labour market study. Others in the series include the general reports on Hawkes Bay and Tokoroa, and these are to be followed by a series of 'Working papers' on labour market 'transitions' and employment barriers and opportunities.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Historically speaking, New Zealand has placed relatively little emphasis on regional labour markets. Although early studies by groups such as the New Zealand Planning Council (1989) highlighted regional disparities, little attempt was made to explore differences in the structure and functioning of labour markets themselves. Despite the persistence of regional disparities throughout the post-war period, it is only now that variations in labour market conditions are receiving the attention they deserve.

One of the main impediments for policy makers in addressing unemployment, is the absence of sound empirical knowledge as to how the labour market functions at a regional level, with few systematic studies aimed at exploring the interface between individuals in households and paid work (Rose, 1993). Most of the relevant research has been confined to macro-economic analysis derived from what is acknowledged to be a limited database; principally the Household Labour Force Survey administered by Statistics New Zealand. Even those labour market indicators that are available tend to be static in nature, in that they do not provide an adequate understanding of labour market dynamics or transitions.

The labour market programme at Massey University (*Labour Market Dynamics and Economic Participation*) is designed to explain how the labour market functions at a regional level and at the interface between individuals in households and paid employment. It seeks to explain how individuals make decisions about access to, and participation in, the labour market, with particular emphasis on the life cycle of the household. By combining household and ethno-graphic studies, linking life events and work histories, the research team aims to record the extremely complex set of interactions that govern relations between individuals in households, and between households and the labour market.

1.1 Regional Labour Markets

The concept of 'regional' or 'sub-national' labour markets is widely used by a number of OECD countries, with recent conferences (sponsored by the OECD)

drawing attention to the significance of local partnerships in combating unemployment, social exclusion and poverty. Apart from Morrison's Regional Profile (1996) New Zealand's approach to the definition of regions has been problematic to say the least. There is little correspondence between regional boundaries as defined by alternative government departments and as a consequence the 16 regions of the country (as defined by Statistics New Zealand) are based on water catchments rather than industry or labour catchments. The current study has retained the regional delineations of Statistics New Zealand because they provide a basis for comparison.

Three areas were selected for the first phase of the labour market programme: Hawkes Bay, Tokoroa, and Waitakere City. Whereas Hawkes Bay is a region with clearly defined geographical boundaries that correspond with the jurisdiction of the Hawkes Bay Regional Council, both Tokoroa (South Waikato) and Waitakere City are sub-regional areas governed by district and city councils respectively. Waitakere City, which is the focus of this report, is located within the Auckland region, and as such it is dominated by the country's major manufacturing distribution and service centre. The dominance of Auckland has obvious implications for employment in Waitakere City. Sub-regional areas are dependent upon the regional economy, both in terms of investment and consumption, with direct implications for employment opportunities. Almost 50% of the national increase in employment between 1991 and 1996 was generated in the Auckland region (RGF, 1998:5) with long term projections for national employment heavily dependent upon an expanding Auckland economy. 60% of the paid workforce in Waitakere City commute to other parts of the Auckland region, and while the Waitakere City Council would like to reduce the number of workers commuting to outside locations, there must be some doubt as to the feasibility of this objective, given current trends.

Aside from the dominance of the regional economy, Auckland impacts on Waitakere City in two other significant ways. The first concerns the population growth of the region over recent years and the pressure that this has placed on the physical infrastructure, including traffic congestion, the provision of water, the need to upgrade sewerage systems, and the 'overloading' of electricity supply systems. Many of these systems are reaching design capacity, with implications for regional growth and expenditure.

A second factor, which is clearly related to the first, concerns the projections for future population growth in West Auckland. The intensification of population growth in Waitakere City will be concentrated around the three sub-regional centres of New Lynn, Henderson, and Westgate, with additional growth around the smaller town centres of Glen Eden, Sunnyvale, Ranui, Hobsonville, and Te Atatu. These population projections will place increasing pressure on Waitakere based services and in terms of employment it will exacerbate the existing transport barriers confronting those commuting to work outside Waitakere City. Although these issues will be addressed more specifically in a second report dealing with *Employment Barriers and Opportunities*, in the context of the current report they serve to illustrate the significance of the region to which Waitakere City is inextricably linked.

1.2 Waitakere City: Historical Background

A second element that is particularly significant in establishing the context for the labour market study of Waitakere City centres on the history of the area. Just as the Auckland region dominates both the scale of economic activity and the size of the labour force, so the history of West Auckland is important in establishing some of the industry and employment patterns that are evident in the city today. These patterns begin with Maori settlement, which can be traced back over one thousand years.

Te Kawerau a Maki are recognised as tangata whenua of the Waitakere ranges with Ngati Whatua and various subgroups claiming tangata whenua over the isthmus. Tribal links are traced by these two groups to Ngati awa, Nga oho, Tainui and Ngapuhi. Maki, a Ngati awa (Taranaki) chief in the 17th century, migrated north through Kawhia, Waiuku and Tamaki to eventually reach Te Awaroa (Helensville).

This migration did not pass unnoticed with skirmishes and battles between tribes along the way. After early defeats at the hands of Maki and his followers Ngati Whatua of the Kaipara district drove them back to the Waitakere ranges where they eventually settled to claim mana whenua over the ranges and corresponding coastline.

The arrival of European settlers in the 19th century continued the competition for the natural resources of the area with the European introducing the concept of individual land title and ownership of resources. New forms of economic life developed including native timber logging and milling, flax milling, kauri gum digging, clay and brick-works and limited horticulture. Alongside these activities construction and related service industries grew.

Maori did not necessarily view these activities as detrimental to their well-being, seeing opportunities to trade with the new settlers and work in the emerging industries, although usually as workers and seldom as employers. As gum-digging became less economically viable in the mid 19th century, timber milling and clay industries began to flourish. By the 1860s the land was criss-crossed with rail and tramways, mills, dams (for the transport of logs downstream), pit-sawyers pits, brick-works and pottery's. At one stage upwards of 160 timber mills in varying sizes and forms were recorded in the West Auckland area. By the late 19th century the kauri gum fields were becoming obsolete and orchards, nurseries and vineyards started to become more prevalent around Don Buck's hill, Oratia, Lincoln road, and the Henderson valley in particular. Arthur Palmer established his first nursery in a derelict gum-diggers field on the Waikumete hill which was the precursor to the Palmers garden centres of today. Many of the original vintners and orchardists are still in West Auckland today, but coming under increasing pressure from urban development. Colonial pioneers read like a *who's who* in place and street names in West Auckland. Henderson, Pollen, Crum, Malam, Hepburn, Bethell, Swanson, Corban, Babich, Yelas and Palmer are some examples.

The downstream effects of these early industries have been extremely important for 20th century economic development in West Auckland. Major industries that had their roots in these early developments include; Amalgamated Brick and Pipe; Crum Brick, Tile and Pottery; The Auckland Brick and Tile Co. (est. 1883); Crown Lynn; Palmers Garden centres; Corbans Wines and Babich Wines. Today it is little wonder that West Auckland is home to many vintners, potters and artisans building on a rich history and tradition.

Timber milling is still an important part of West Auckland with Carter Holt a major employer. Nearby Riverhead and Woodhill forests provide exotic timbers, replacing the native logging characteristic of last century. Important offshoots are light industry,

furniture making, boat building, and construction. At the same time, the past 10 - 15 years has seen significant change in the Auckland region with a noticeable decline in manufacturing based employment and an increase in service sector employment. Along with this shift in industry focus has come a change in the nature of employment, including an increase in home-based work, part time employment and increasing job insecurity.

West Auckland, which corresponds to the area administered by Waitakere City, now represents a population base of approximately 177,000 including a significant Maori population, along with a diverse range of migrant groups including Pacific Island, Asian, Indian and continental Europeans. Many Maori would also claim to be 'migrant' having moved to the area for employment and a significant group have lost, or no longer find relevant, their tribal links and whakapapa. Consequently two of the largest urban iwi organisations in the country operate within Waitakere City alongside traditional tribal structures.

Waitakere City is a net supplier of labour with one of the lowest rates of resident workers in the Auckland region. Of the workers that leave Waitakere for employment, the greatest percentage travel to Auckland and Manukau Cities, placing stress on arterial routes between these centres. Compounding the need for Waitakere-based employment is one of the fastest population growth rates in the Auckland region.

1.2 Objectives of the Research

Although the history of Waitakere and its regional context establish the framework and parameters for employment in the city, this current report is designed to provide a snapshot of the labour market at a particular point in time. It focuses specifically on individuals and households and the way in which they interact with the labour market in general and paid employment in particular. Subsequent reports will focus on labour market transitions and employment barriers and opportunities.

The overall research programme, funded by the New Zealand Foundation for Research, Science and Technology (FoRST) was conceived as an exploratory study of three regional or sub-regional labour markets in order to close some of the important

gaps in our understanding of why it is that labour markets fail to clear. By focusing initially on the micro level of individuals and households the research term concentrated on **labour market dynamics and transitions** which was one of the major deficiencies identified by Dennis Rose (1993) in his review of labour market statistics. The initial aim therefore, was to generate a new set of data based on an innovative methodology which sought to explore the labour market ‘transitions’ experienced by individuals as they moved from one labour market status to another, such as the transition from unpaid to paid work, from unemployment to work, and from training to paid employment.

The methodology for the foundation phase of the labour market programme was divided into two distinctive parts. The first involved the administration of a structured questionnaire which was designed to gather basic household data (thereby ensuring compatibility with HLFS administered by Statistics New Zealand on a quarterly basis). The second part involved in-depth interviews with individuals drawn from a random sample of 10% of the households engaged in the initial survey. A life events and work histories matrix was developed as the basis of the in-depth interviews, thereby providing retrospective longitudinal data on labour market transitions.

1.3 Labour Market Dynamics and Economic Participation

By focusing on the interface between households and employment, the research programme on *Labour Market Dynamics and Economic Participation* has been designed to explain how individuals enter into, and exit from, paid employment. The study is set within two distinctive frameworks – the first is the context of the ‘life cycle’ of households with particular emphasis on identifying how household attributes, perceptions and incentive structures impact on individual choices and options at different points in the history of the household. The second is provided by the regional context in which the labour market operates and here the emphasis is on the capacity of both formal and informal institutions to mediate labour supply and demand. By fusing these two domains, and by exploring links between households and regional labour markets, the study should complement our existing knowledge as to how labour markets clear and why. The overall objective of the study is to understand the *dynamics* of regional and sub-regional labour markets in order to

inform public policy initiatives aimed at increasing *economic participation* and reducing the levels of unemployment and social exclusion.

CHAPTER 2

WAITAKERE LABOUR MARKET SURVEY

2.1 Introduction

This report is part of the Research programme on Labour Market Dynamics and Economic Participation which is supported by the Public Good Science Fund of the New Zealand Foundation for Research, Science and Technology. It accompanies reports on two other 'regional' labour markets. (Hawkes Bay and South Waikato) which cover the same issues and use the same methodologies. The programme was conducted by a research team from Massey University and administered through the Social Policy Research Centre.

The Study was carried out during late 1997 and early 1998 with the first phase being the household survey based on a structured questionnaire which was designed to gather basic data compatible with the Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS). The second phase, the ethnographic study, involved in-depth interviews drawn from a random sample of ten percent of the households in the general survey.

2.2 Sample Coverage

The household survey in Waitakere covered a random sample of 802 households in the city. Table 2.1 presents the distribution of household responses. Responses were grouped into five categories: full response, partial response, full refuse, non-contact, and ineligible households (where the occupants were aged 65 years or over). Full response indicates that all eligible household members were successfully interviewed while partial response refers to those households in which one or more eligible members refused or was unable to be interviewed. Full refuse households were those households where all members refused to participate in the survey.

Of the 802 households surveyed, 663 households either fully or partially responded, representing 83% of households in the survey. Five households declined to be interviewed and one household could not be contacted during the interview period. Another 17% of households (133) were ineligible due to occupants being 65 years of age or older.

Table 2.1 Household Responses in Waitakere		
Household Responses	Number of Households	Percentage
Full Response	253	32
Partial Response	410	51
Full Refuse	5	
Non-Contact	1	
Elderly Households	133	17
Total(N)	802	100

A description of all individuals covered in the sample is presented in Table 2.2. The sample included 2,444 individuals of whom 528 were children. Two hundred and eighty two people were identified as 65 years or older and not interviewed. Of the remaining 1,630, 57% (938 individuals) were successfully interviewed while another 29% (476) declined. One hundred and ninety one eligible individuals could not be contacted while the response rate for the sample of 1630 adults was 58%. The final sample size was 938 individuals.

Table 2.2 Individual Responses in Waitakere		
Individual Responses	Number	Percentage
Full Response	938	38
Full Refuse	476	20
Non-Contact	191	8
Under 16 Years Children	528	22
Elderly	282	12
Ineligible due to living elsewhere	25	1
Total (N)	2444	100

2.3 Questionnaire

The Waitakere Study was carried out in two phases. The first phase involved a household survey and the second phase comprised an ethnographic survey. The household survey contained two pre-tested questionnaires: a household level questionnaire and an individual level questionnaire. These questionnaires were based on the Household Labour Force Survey administered by Statistics New Zealand with additional questions on labour market transitions. In addition, the Waitakere survey included questions on the availability of transport and home based work. In essence,

these questionnaires were designed to secure information on the labour market behaviour of individuals and households while at the same time ensuring compatibility with the quarterly HLFS surveys.

The household questionnaire sought information on household characteristics such as the number of family members, gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, relationship to the respondent and personal participation codes. Information under the personal participation code was used to screen eligible members for the individual interviews.

The individual questionnaire sought information on work histories, and attitudes and concerns about employment and economic participation.

The following areas were explored:

A. Current employment:

Respondents were asked about their current employment and work status as well as questions relating to tasks and activities in the work place. They were also asked about household factors which were influential in making employment decisions.

B. Unemployment and non-participation in the labour force:

Individuals not in the labour force were asked about reasons for not working, their intentions concerning work in the future, and whether or not they were looking for a job. They were also asked to outline what initiatives they had taken in pursuing employment opportunities.

C. Previous employment:

Information was sought on previous work status, occupation, industrial classifications, and factors influencing decisions to enter or exit the labour market.

D. Perceptions:

Perceptions relating to factors influencing labour market decisions were sought to try and unravel some of the key components.

E. Education and training:

Questions about formal educational qualifications as well as questions on tertiary education were asked to try and gauge the relationship between these factors and labour market participation.

2.4 Field Work and Data Processing

The Questionnaire was designed by the research team and the survey was conducted by Reid Associates. Data entry from the completed questionnaires was organised by

the research team in conjunction with the Computer Centre at Massey University. The editing of data on which the general report is based was carried out using SAS as the software programme.

2.5 Data Quality

The objective of the survey was to collect information on a sample that was representative of the working age population in Waitakere City. Several steps were taken to ensure that interviewers using the questionnaires would gather accurate and reliable data. The questionnaire was repeatedly checked over several iterations. In designing the questionnaire, the research team used previous research findings and their own knowledge to locate questions in an appropriate sequence.

The survey data is compared with 1996 Census and HLFS wherever possible. The sample population compared favourably with 1996 Census data. Table 2.3 presents the distribution of the sample population and the respective Census statistics in Waitakere City.

Table 2.3 Distribution of the Sample Population and Respective Census Statistics in Waitakere			
Population Characteristics		1996 Census % (15yrs +)	Sample Percentage
Gender	Male	49	46
	Female	51	54
Age Group (as a % of sample frame)	15-19	10	11
	20-29	21	18
	30-39	24	30
	40-49	18	21
	50-59	12	15
	60-65	4	5
Ethnicity	Maori	10	9
	Non-Maori	90	91
Marital Status	Never Married		27
	Married		61
	Separated, Divorced, Widowed or Not Specified		12
Labour Force Participation	Employed	64	76
	Unemployed	7	7
	Not in Labour Force	29	17
Employment Status	Wage or Salary Earner		81
	Self-Employed		
	Not Employing Others		4
	Employing Others		14
	Unpaid Workers		2
	Not Specified		
Work Status	Full-Time	80	76
	Part-Time	20	24

Occupational Group*	Legislators/Administrators		10
	Professionals		12
	Technicians and Associates		17
	Clerks		18
	Service and Sales Workers		14
	Agriculture and Fishery Workers		1
	Trades Workers		13
	Plant and Machine Operators		7
	Elementary Occupations		7
	Not Specified		
Industrial Group*	Agriculture, forestry and fishing	0.2	1
	Mining	.02	
	Manufacturing	23.0	16
	Electricity, Gas, and Water	0.31	
	Building and Construction	12.7	6
	Whole-sale, Retail and Restaurants	22.2	18
	Transport and Communication	4.4	8
	Business and Financial Services	11.2	13
	Community, Social and Personnel	23.2	38
Not Specified			

* There were 10 cases with missing values

2.6 Ethnographic Survey

The ethnographic survey was a retrospective longitudinal survey. Ten per cent of the respondents who had been successfully interviewed during the household survey were selected for the in-depth interviews. The survey covered a range of topics related to employment, unemployment, benefits, training and economic participation. The life events and work history matrix was designed to collect historical information on important life events such as marriage and birth of children with these events then being linked to work experiences over the previous 10 years. A semi-structured questionnaire was administered to collect information on circumstances at the time labour market decisions were made.

The household survey and the ethnographic survey were designed to be complementary and provide a wealth of qualitative and quantitative data on the labour market experiences of households in Waitakere City. The present report focuses on the household survey and provides a summary of some of the more significant findings from the survey of 938 individuals and 663 households who participated.

CHAPTER 3

CHARACTERISTICS OF SURVEY PARTICIPANTS

3.1 Introduction.

This section describes the characteristics of survey participants through a number of variables including; household structure, age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, education and income. Changing dynamics in any of these variables has implications for economic participation. For example, recent international studies confirm the increasing participation of women in the paid workforce, a trend that has significant ramifications for the relationship between households and work, especially in terms of child development and domestic responsibilities. Moreover, couples are choosing to have children later or not have children at all with a resultant increase in 'no children' households. The decision to delay parenting can sometimes result in labour force participants carrying the additional responsibilities of caring for both younger and older dependants, a situation that is commonly referred to as the 'sandwich generation'. These changing demographic patterns have major implications for the relationship between households and the labour market and for the level and quality of economic participation.

3.2 Household Characteristics.

The distribution of household characteristics such as family type, family size, and the number of children per household are presented in Table 3.1. Since individuals aged 16 years or older were eligible for interview, children were identified as those 15 years or under. The number of children in a household does not necessarily represent the number of children born in the household.

Family size ranged from 1 to 20 member households; however about one third of the households were occupied by two people and another 25% of households had three or four members. One third of all households had one or two dependent children in the household.

Out of 670 households that fully or partially responded to the survey, 20 households (3%) were identified as headed by one adult with one or more children, another 25% of households had two adults with one or more children, and a further 11% had more

than two adults with children. The number of single adult with children families in the survey was well below the national average of 18% (1996 census) but in line with census data which shows that Waitakere has a relatively small number of single person households when compared with regional and national figures. Sixty-one percent of all the households in the survey did not have any children. Of the households with no children 45% were occupied by two adults and a further 41% were occupied by 3 or more adults.

Table 3.1 Household Characteristics of Respondents in Waitakere		
Background Characteristics	Sample (N)	Percentage
Family Type		
One adult only	54	8
One adult and one child	5	1
One adult and two or more children	15	2
Two adults only	186	28
Two adults and one child	52	8
Two adults and two or more children	114	17
Three adults only	81	12
Three adults and one or more children	40	6
Four or more adults only	89	13
Four or more adults and children	34	5
Total Households	670	100
Family Size		
1	54	8
2	191	29
3	141	21
4	157	23
5	80	12
6	24	4
7	10	1
8	4	1
9	6	1
12	1	
15	1	
20	1	
Total Households	670	100
Number of Children		
0	410	61
1	93	14
2	102	15
3	47	7
4	10	2
5	5	1
6	1	
7	1	
11	1	
Total (N)	670	100

Table 3.2 presents the breakdown of participants by family size, their role in the family and relationship to the reference person. 54 single person households participated in the survey and 49 individuals from these households were successfully interviewed. One quarter of the respondents in the sample were from four member households, another 25% were from two member households. Only 3% of the respondents were from one adult and children households. With regard to other background characteristics; 67% of the respondents have been defined as 'reference persons' while spouses and children accounted for 16% and 7% respectively.

Table 3.2 Respondent's Household Characteristics in Waitakere		
Family Size	N	Percentage
1	49	5
2	223	24
3	207	22
4	230	25
5	130	14
6	42	5
7	23	3
8	8	1
9	18	2
12	2	
15	2	
20	3	
Total(N)	937	100
Relationship to Reference Person		
Reference Person	627	67
Spouse	147	16
Son/Daughter	68	7
Son-in-law/Daughter-in-law	4	
Father/Mother/Father-in-law/Mother-in-law	24	3
Grandparent/Great-Grandparent	1	
Grandchild/Great-Grandchild	1	
Brother/Sister/Brother-in-law/Sister-in-law	31	3
Uncle/aunt/Great Uncle/Great Aunt	2	
Nephew/Niece/Cousin	5	1
Flatmate	12	1
Guest/Visitor	5	1
Boarder	5	
Others	3	
Missing	2	
Total (N)	937	100
Family Codes		
Parent role, first family	616	66
Child, first family	157	17
Parent, second family	28	3
Child, second family	7	1
Parent, third family	0	
Child, third family	1	
Member of subsequent family	2	
Non-family person	75	8
Member of a one-person household	47	5
Others	2	
Total(N)	937	100

A high percentage of respondents were in the parent role of their first family as were children in their first family. Second family parent and child roles were not as prevalent as might have been expected with a national rate of around 30% of marriages now ending in divorce. The number of total marriages has also been declining with around 21,500 marriages in 1996 compared to 27,200 in 1971 (ARC, 1999). This trend is not supported by Waitakere respondents as the marital status and gender breakdown illustrates.

3.2.1 Marital Status and Gender

Table 3.3 illustrates the distribution of all respondents by their marital status and gender. Sixty one percent of all the respondents were married, and little over one quarter of the respondents identified themselves as never married. 12% were previously married (which included those divorced, separated, or widowed).

Marital Status*	Male (%)	Female (%)	Total(%)
Married	59	63	61
Previously Married	9	15	12
Never Married	32	23	27
Total (N)	432	500	932

* Five respondents have not identified marital status in the sample

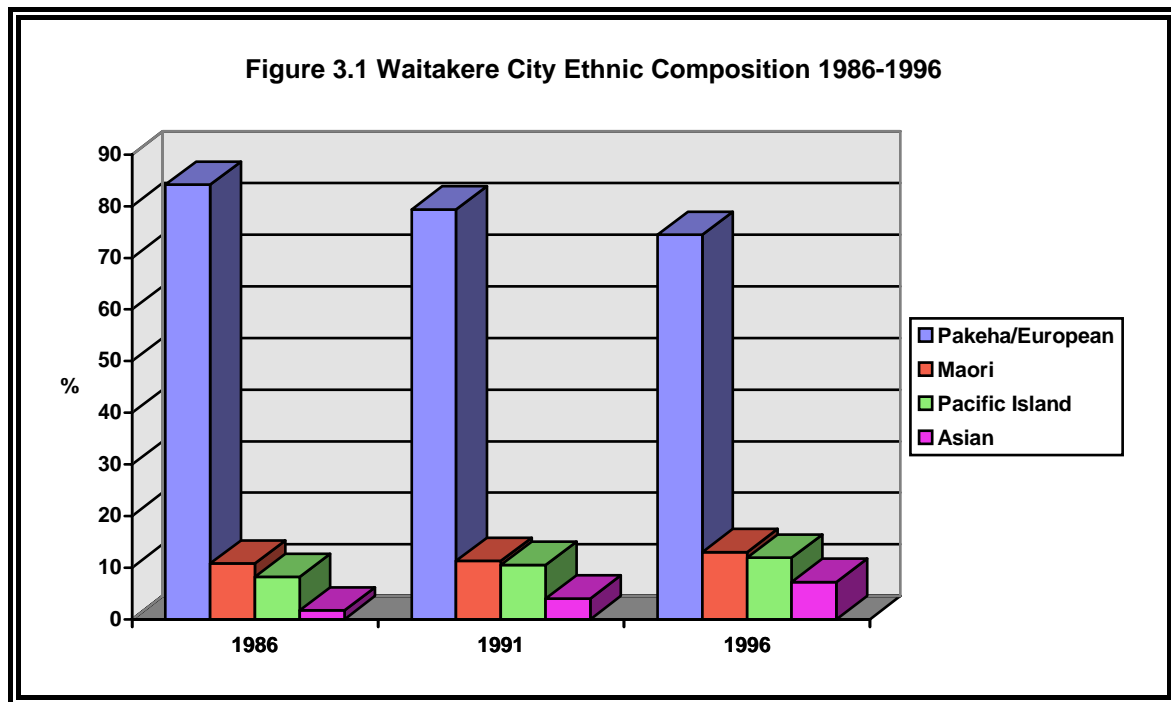
3.2.2 Household Structure and Gender

In Table 3.4 the distribution of all respondents by their household structure and gender is presented. The proportion of female sole-parents was significantly higher than male sole-parents (76% vs. 24%) a ratio that is generally in line with national trends. About 60% of female sole-parents in the survey lived in a two adult member household with some respondents indicating that living expenses were too high to allow them to live on their own. The proportion of respondents by other types of household structures appeared to be equally distributed between males and females.

Table 3.4 Distribution of Household Structure by Gender in Waitakere				
Household Structure	Male		Female	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
One adult only	29	7	20	4
One adult and one child	1		4	1
One adult and two or more	4	1	11	2
Two adults and one child	99	23	119	24
Two adults and one or more	32	7	41	8
Two adults only	63	15	93	19
Three adults only	67	16	59	12
Three adults and children	32	7	37	7
Four or more adults only	73	17	82	16
Four adults and children	32	7	36	7
Total	432	100	502	100

3.3 Ethnicity

Based on the reports of respondent's self identified ethnicity, five groups were identified, namely: Pakeha/European, Maori, Pacific Island, Chinese, and Indian. Three quarters of the sample population were identified as Pakeha/European with significant sub-groups in this category originating from Britain, the Netherlands, Croatia and Australia. Approximately 10% of respondents were Maori, and 7% Pacific people with the balance of Chinese and Indian each accounting for 5%. Pakeha/European were slightly over-represented in the sample as were Chinese and Indian groups while Maori and Pacific people were slightly under-represented when compared to 1996 census figures. Interesting shifts have been occurring where Pakeha/European numbers have been increasing in real terms but decreasing as a percentage of the total population. Conversely Maori, Pacific, and Asian populations have been increasing both in real and percentage terms. Thus the overall composition (figure 4.) is changing while the general population is growing (approximately 25% in the same period).



3.3.1 Ethnicity and Household Structure

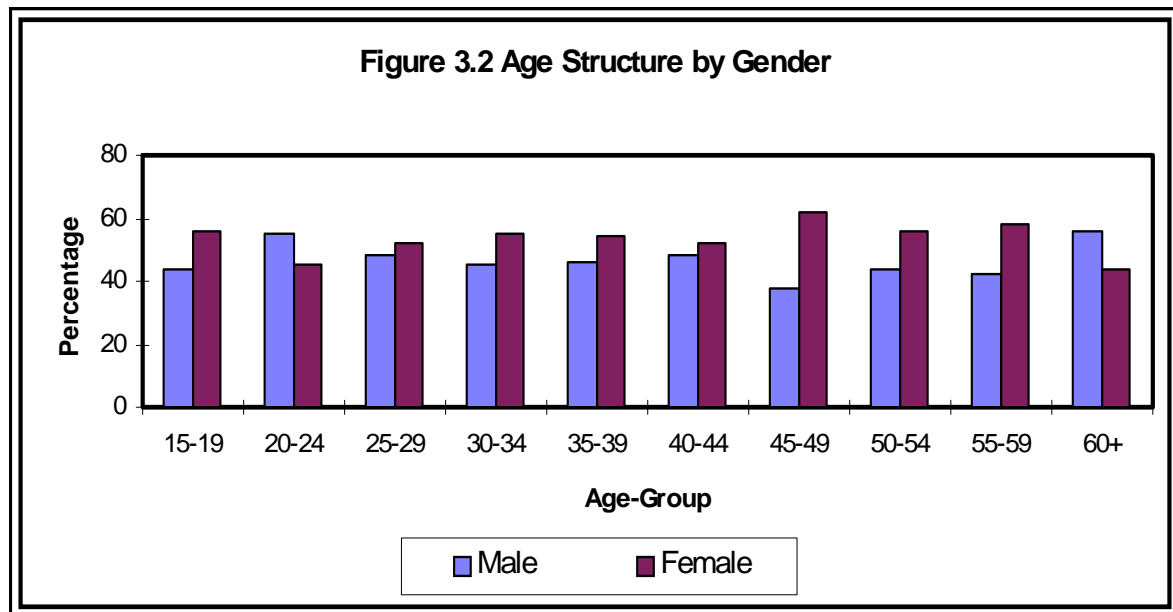
Household structure was examined by ethnicity in Table 3.5. In the Pakeha/European ethnic group a little over one third were from the households with two adults and one or more children as opposed to 17% for Maori, 20% Pacific Island, 24% Chinese and 26% for the Indian group. With regard to households with larger family size, such as four or more adults with or without children, Chinese topped the list at 47% followed by Pacific Island, Maori, Indian, and Pakeha/European with 41%, 32%, 28% and 20% respectively. Pakeha/European family structures still resemble the nuclear family concept the closest with seemingly less acceptance of more than two adults in a household with children. This is illustrated when 'three adults with children' households are added to the above figures (composite of household structures of three adults with children and four or more adults with or without children) where half the Maori, Pacific Island and Chinese families fall into this category while only 26% of Pakeha /European families reflect that composition.

Household Structure	Pakeha	Maori	Pacific Island	Chinese	Indian
One adult only	6	4	2	0	0
One adult and one child	1	0	0	2	0
One adult and two or more	1	1	3	0	4
Two adults and one child	27	15	7	19	11
Two adults and one or more	8	2	13	5	15
Two adults only	18	15	18	12	15
Three adults only	13	16	10	12	20
Three adults and children	6	15	8	5	7
Four or more adults only	15	21	23	21	24
Four adults and children	5	11	18	26	4
Total (N)	693	89	62	43	46

3.4 Age

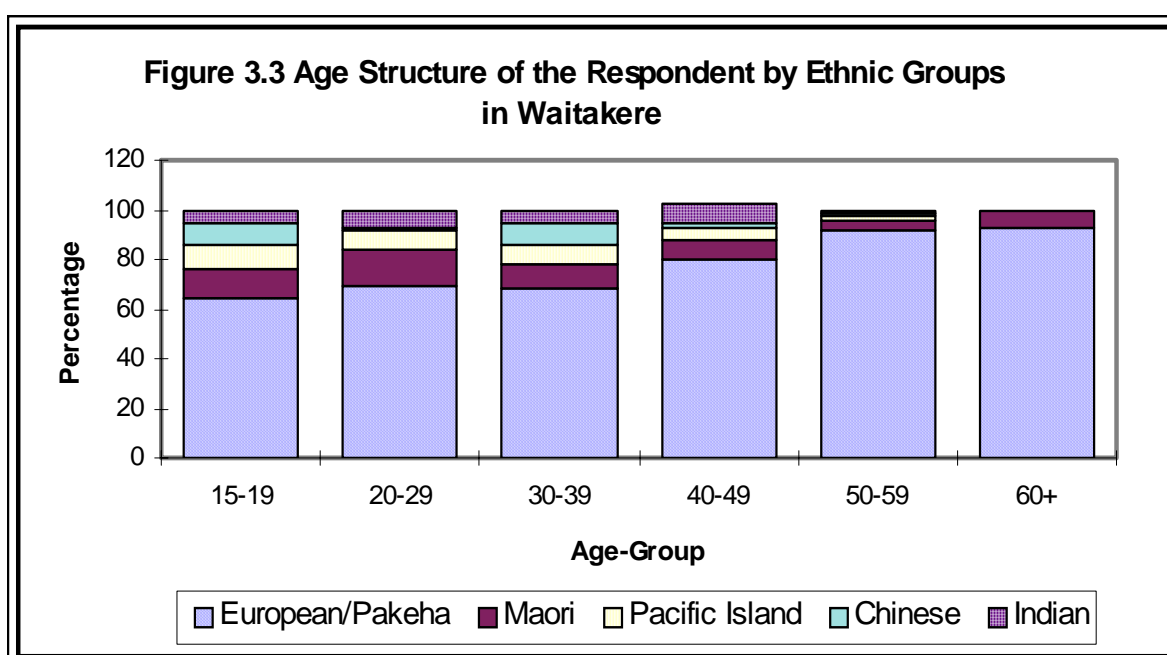
The age composition of the sample was evenly distributed. Twenty three people had missing information on year of birth and were dropped from the sample. Of the remaining 914 respondents, 11% were in the 15-19 years age-group and about 5% of the respondents were aged 60 years or older. One in seven respondents were between the ages of 21 and 50.

Age composition was examined by gender in figure 3.2. The distribution of the sample population by gender showed that female representation was higher than males in all age-groups except in the 60+ age-group in which male representation was slightly higher. Female representation was proportionately higher in the 45-49 age group than in any other age group.



3.4.1 Age and Ethnicity

Next, age-groups were examined by ethnicity. Maori, Pacific, Chinese, and Indian had greater proportions in younger age-groups than Pakeha/Europeans. For instance, Maori and Pacific groups were significantly concentrated under 29 years of age while Chinese were highly represented in the 30-39 and 15-19 age-groups. The Chinese age group cohorts could be representative of an immigrant sample. The overall age/ethnicity composition of respondents illustrates the changing nature of Waitakere City's ethnic composition. (see Figure 3.3). This changing ethnic diversity is characteristic of the Auckland region as a whole over recent years with Manukau the most diverse ethnically followed by Auckland and Waitakere Cities. When age is considered Manukau City is the youngest city with Waitakere not far behind. The median age for the Auckland region is expected to rise from 32.1 in 1996 to 36.9 in 2016 (ARC, 1998) with Waitakere City rising from 31 to 36 in the same period. This trend is indicative of a young cohort moving through the life cycle with 40% of Waitakere residents under the age of 25 and nearly a third under the age of 20. There is also a significant parent cohort in the 30-39 age group. The median age for Maori and Pacific groups in Waitakere is 24 years and half of those under 5 years of age in Waitakere are non-European.



3.5 Education

Education is significant for its correlation with labour market outcomes. Although 71% (665) of respondents had some sort of formal school qualification, 23% had no qualification and another 5% did not report. When asked about the level of qualification, an additional 10 people did not report the level of qualifications and were collapsed into the no qualification group. Table 3.6 reveals that 52% of respondents had either no qualification, not specified or limited school qualifications.

Educational Qualifications	N	%
Any School Certificate*	212	23
Any 6 th Form Certificate	169	18
Higher School Certificate	137	15
University Bursary	143	15
Not Specified	49	5
No Qualifications	227	24
Total (N)	937	100

*This includes 17 cases with primary proficiency examination

3.5.1 Education, Gender and Ethnicity

Table 3.7 illustrates educational qualifications by gender and ethnicity. In terms of those without qualifications there was no significant difference between the genders at 28% and 29% respectively. Females, although behind males in post high school education, are well represented in school qualifications indicating that females are not going on to higher education at the same rate as males even though they are as well or better educated at school level.

Maori had the highest proportion with no school qualifications and the lowest rate with higher school or post high school qualifications. The 'other' ethnic group exceeded both Maori and Pakeha in higher school and post high school qualifications perhaps indicating a higher emphasis placed on the value of school education by these groups. This is an interesting finding to correlate with labour force participation as school qualifications on their own are not necessarily predictive of higher labour force participation or employment status.

Educational Status	Percentage		Percentage		
	Male	Female	Maori	Pakeha	Other
No School Qualifications	28	29	43	27	28
School Certificate	21	24	27	24	14
Sixth Form Qualifications	16	20	19	18	17
High School Qualifications	17	13	6	15	21
Post-High School Qualifications	17	14	6	15	21
Total (N)	432	502	89	693	151

3.5.2 Post School Qualifications

When respondents were asked if they had obtained any tertiary qualifications or training since leaving school, 61% (563) reported having some sort of training while 12 respondents were currently in school and another 5% (47) did not respond to this question. This leaves a balance of 38% (335) who did not have any post school training. Of those who reported that they had obtained some sort of training further questions were asked about the type of training (table 3.8).

Respondents were allowed to mention more than one type of training, therefore the total does not add up to 100%. 18% reported having university qualifications (Post high school and/or bachelors' degrees). 13% had obtained a Trade Certificate and another 13% had gained a Polytech Certificate. Only four percent of all the respondents had more than one certificate.

Tertiary Qualifications	Number	Percentage
Trade Certificate	117	13
Nursing Certificate	26	3
Teachers Certificate	36	4
NZ Technicians Certificate	68	8
Polytech Certificate	115	13
Two or more Certificates	34	4
University Qualification*	159	18
No Qualification	335	38
Total (N)	890	101

* Includes Post-Graduate Qualification Bachelor's Degree

3.5.3 Post School Qualifications, Gender and Ethnicity

Table 3.9 presents the distribution of respondents' training by gender and ethnicity. While a large percentage (45%) of women did not have any training, 16% had university qualifications, slightly lower than males. Another 16% of women had Polytech Certificates as opposed to only 8% of males. A greater proportion of men had trade certificate (22% vs. 4%) while a greater proportion of women had teachers certificates.

With regard to ethnicity, 45% of Maori did not have any training, while 16% had Polytech certificates and 8% had trade certificates. Although, 39% of Pakeha/European respondents did not have any training, 17% stated that they had post high school (university degree) qualifications. About 14% of all Pakeha/European had obtained a trade certificate and 12% had Polytech certificates. Of particular note is the large pool with no tertiary qualifications in all categories. Another significant finding is the relative absence in all categories of teaching and nursing qualifications (especially Maori), even though there is a fair representation in Polytech and

University qualifications. Maori place more value, it seems, on a Polytech certificate than a university degree while the reverse is true of 'other' ethnic groups.

Tertiary Qualifications	Percentage		Percentage		
	Male	Female	Maori	Pakeha	Other
No Qualifications	36	45	45	39	47
Trade Certificate	22	4	8	14	6
Nursing Certificate	1	5		3	3
Teachers Certificate	2	6		4	4
NZ Technicians Certificate	7	7	10	7	5
Polytech Certificate	8	16	16	12	9
University Certificate*	19	16	7	17	23
Two or More Qualifications	6	2	8	3	3
Total (N)	432	502	89	693	151

* Includes Post-Graduate Qualification, Diploma or Bachelor's Degree

3.5.4 Combined Educational Variables

Information on both school qualifications and post school qualifications (training) were combined to create a combined variable to reflect the educational profile of the sample population. About 19% of respondents did not have any educational qualifications (no school or training) while the largest group (49%) had both school qualifications and training. Almost a quarter (22%) of the sample had only school qualifications and another 10% had training only.

3.5.5 Combined Educational Variables and Gender and Ethnicity

Educational qualifications were examined by gender and ethnicity in table 3.10. A slightly higher proportion of females had no educational qualification when compared with males (21% vs. 16%). Although no significant differences were observed in educational qualifications between men and women, 52% of men had both school qualifications and some sort of training as opposed to 46% of women. As noted before, significant differences were observed in educational differences by ethnicity. The proportion of respondents with no qualifications was 27%, 24% and 16% respectively for Maori, other ethnic groups, and Pakeha/European. About one half of

all Pakeha/European and ‘other’ ethnic groups had both school qualifications and training with the corresponding figure for Maori being 39%. Of interest is the higher percentage of Maori in the ‘training only’ category suggesting that Maori find training (for example Polytech courses and apprenticeships) more relevant to their needs or more appealing than school qualifications.

Educational Status	Percentage		Percentage		
	Male	Female	Maori	Pakeha	Other
No Qualifications	16	21	27	16	24
School Qualification and Training	52	46	39	50	49
School qualification only	20	24	18	23	23
Training only	12	9	16	11	4
Total (N)	432	502	89	693	151

3.6 Income

This section covers both personal and household income of all respondents. Maori and Pacific households generally have lower household incomes (Waitakere City Council, 1998) although they tend to have larger households and proportionally more in those categories with more than two adults. Although there is some evidence to show that the personal income position for some sectors of the Maori community has improved over the past 10 years, the household incomes of Maori are still well behind Pakeha.

3.6.1 Personal Income

Table 3.11 presents the distribution of personal income categories by gender. For the purpose of interpretation we shall call the income bands 0 - 25,000 “low”; 25,001 - 70,000 “mid-high”; and 70,001 and over “high”. Of all the respondents 5% stated that they had no personal income, and of these (in real terms) women outnumbered men by nearly four to one. 32% of males were in the low income bands and 51% were in the mid-high income bands. This ratio was virtually reversed for females with 57% in the low income bands and 31% in the mid-high income bands. The trend continues into the high income brackets with 10% of males stating that they earned over \$70,000 per

annum as against 2% of females. Females (as opposed to males) had a higher refusal rate for this question.

Income	Male (%)	Female (%)	
Nil	2	7	5
\$1-5,000	4	10	7
\$5,001-\$10,000	6	9	8
\$10,001-\$15,000	6	14	10
\$15,001-\$20,000	6	10	8
\$20,001-\$25,000	8	7	7
\$25,001-\$30,000	10	9	9
\$30,001-\$40,000	16	14	15
\$40,001-\$50,000	12	6	9
\$50,001-\$70,000	13	2	7
\$70,001-\$100,000	6	1	3
\$100,001 and Over	4	1	2
Don't know	3	3	3
Refused	3	7	5
Total (N)	407	468	875

* 62 respondents did not respond

3.6.2 Personal Income and Ethnicity

Personal incomes were then analysed by ethnicity as set out in table 3.12. Using the same income bands Pakeha were the least represented in the low income bands (42%), although they and the “other” group had respondents with no income whilst Maori did not. Maori and Other groups had 55% and 52% respectively in the low income bands. Pakeha had the highest representation in the mid-high income brackets (44%) with Maori 35% and Other 31%. Maori and Pakeha both had 6% with Other's 2% in the high income brackets. Overall Pakeha had higher incomes than other ethnic groups although Maori have demonstrated some success in gaining entry to the mid range and higher income bands.

Table 3.12 Distribution of Personal Income by Ethnicity in Waitakere				
Income	Maori (%)	Pakeha (%)	Others (%)	Total (N)
Nil	0	5	7	43
\$1-5,000	7	8	5	64
\$5,001-\$10,000	11	7	12	68
\$10,001-\$15,000	16	10	8	91
\$15,001-\$20,000	12	7	10	69
\$20,001-\$25,000	9	6	10	63
\$25,001-\$30,000	9	9	11	82
\$30,001-\$40,000	13	16	13	134
\$40,001-\$50,000	9	10	5	77
\$50,001-\$70,000	4	9	2	62
\$70,001-\$100,000	2	4	1	28
\$100,001 and Over	4	2	1	20
Don't know	0	3	3	25
Refused	5	5	10	48
Total (N)	82	657	135	874

* 63 respondents did not report household income

3.6.3 Household Income

Between the 1991 and 1996 census returns Waitakere moved from being a low-middle income city to a middle income city. The survey results from the labour market study suggest a further strengthening in household income position. In relation to 1996 census figures fewer households today are concentrated in the lower household income bracket 0 - \$20,000 (12.4% compared to 21.8%) while more are in the 70k + brackets (31.2% compared to 20.2%). Of the households that reported ethnicity, 34% of Maori households had total household incomes of less than \$30,000 compared to 16% for Pakeha households.

Table 3.13 Distribution of Household Income in Waitakere 1996 Census and 1998 LM Survey				
Income	1996 Census		Respondents	
	N	%	N	%
\$1-5,000	507	1.3	9	1.3
\$5,001-\$10,000	1,359	3.4	17	2.4
\$10,001-\$15,000	3,597	8.9	26	3.7
\$15,001-\$20,000	3,318	8.2	35	5.0
\$20,001-\$25,000	1,902	4.7	35	5.0
\$25,001-\$30,000	3,495	8.7	43	6.2
\$30,001-\$40,000	5,163	12.8	78	11.2
\$40,001-\$50,000	4,662	11.6	87	12.5
\$50,001-\$70,000	8,055	20.0	148	21.3
\$70,001-\$100,000	5,136	12.6	130	18.7
\$100,001 and Over	3,060	7.6	87	12.5
Total (N)	40,254	100	695	100

* 69 respondents refused to give this information

3.7 Key Issues

Waitakere City has a population base of approximately 177,000 including significant Maori, Pacific, Asian, Indian and continental European groups. The city has the fastest population growth rate in the Auckland region and the fastest rate in the country. As the population is growing, so the ethnic composition of the city is changing. Pakeha/Europeans are increasing in real terms but declining in percentage terms, while Maori, Pacific and Asian populations are increasing in both real and percentage terms. Waitakere has a relatively youthful profile with 40% of the city's population under the age of 25 and nearly a third under the age of 20.

Over one third of the households in Waitakere are 1 or 2 member households, while 25% are four member households. Pakeha/European family structures still resemble the nuclear family concept the closest with apparently less acceptance of more than two adults in a household with children, while Maori and Pacific families generally have a higher level of occupancy and a higher percentage of 'extended family' arrangements. 61% of households in the survey were without children which reflects a national trend towards increasing numbers of non-parenting households and couples without children. Some care needs to be exercised in drawing conclusions from the high level of non-parenting households. As a recent national study observes 'this is a short term phenomenon affected by the peculiar conjunction of the delayed

reproduction of younger couples and the early childbearing.... of their parents, many of whom..... bore their last child over twenty to thirty years ago' (Shirley et al, 1997:227) This phenomenon is referred to as the 'demographic squeeze'.

Seventy-one percent (71%) of Waitakere residents had some sort of formal school qualification, 23% had no formal qualification and 61% of Waitakere residents reported having some sort of post-school training. Maori had the highest proportion with no school qualifications and the lowest proportion with higher school or post-high school qualifications. Conversely, Maori had the highest rate of Polytech or trade qualifications. As a consequence Maori were more likely to have a Polytech certificate than a university degree while the reverse is true of 'other' ethnic groups.

Between the 1991 and 1996 census Waitakere City moved from being a low-middle income city to a middle income city. The survey results suggest a further strengthening in the income position of households although there are still disparities in personal and household incomes by ethnicity. In the 1990's Maori had some success in gaining entry to the mid range and higher income bands, but in percentage terms they still have a large number of households on relatively low incomes. There is anecdotal evidence to suggest that Pacific, Chinese and Indian groups are also less well off.

CHAPTER 4

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION

4.1 Introduction

Labour force participation is a measure of economic activity in a given place. It measures the extent to which men and women participate in the paid labour force. It is calculated as a ratio of all those in employment, self-employment, or involuntarily unemployed against all persons of working age. In New Zealand two main definitions of labour force participation have been used. They are:

1. *The Census of Population and Dwellings* (five yearly) - usually referred to as 'Census labour force participation': it defines labour force participation as those in the working age population who:
 - a) were working for one hour or more for pay or profit or;
 - b) working without pay for a relative for at least 15 hours a week or;
 - c) had a job but were not at work for a number of defined reasons such as sickness, an industrial dispute, or away on holiday or;
 - d) were actively looking for a job.

2. *The Household Labour Force Survey* (HLFS) defines labour force participation as those in the working age population who:
 - a) were working for one hour or more for pay or profit or;
 - b) working without pay for a relative for at least 15 hours a week or;
 - c) had a job but were not at work for a number of defined reasons such as sickness, an industrial dispute, or away on holiday or;
 - d) were actively looking for a job... or;
 - e) had a job to start at a definite date.

The main difference between these two definitions is that the HLFS includes all those who are not working at the time of survey but have a job to start at a definite time. Although Labour Force Participation Rates (LFP) are a measure of economic participation the nature of that participation should be unpacked to give a true indication of employment outcomes. For example high LFP may indicate a high level

of economic participation, but if that participation rate is characterised by lowly paid part-time work, productivity and income status are masked. Therefore LFP is cross tabulated with age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, household structure and education in this chapter with the employment characteristics of those in the labour force to be discussed in chapter 5.

4.2 Employment Status

Respondents were asked whether or not they worked for pay during the last week of the survey, whether or not they were absent from work during that week, whether or not they were looking for a job and whether or not they had a job to start at a definite date. Table 4.1 shows the resultant labour force participation rate. Of the total 937 respondents, 75 percent were employed according to the Census definition while only 10 respondents reported having a job to start on a definite date. Another 7% of all the respondents were looking for a job at the time of the survey. This provided a labour force participation rate of 83% for the survey compared to census 1996 LFP rate of 74.5% in Waitakere City for the same age cohort.

Table 4.1 Employment Status of All Respondents in Waitakere		
Employment Status	Sample (N)	Percentage
Employed Full-Time	533	57
Employed Part-Time	168	18
Not Stated		
Currently Working	701	75
Have a Job to Start in the Future	10	1
Currently Looking for a Job	68	7
Total Labour Force Participation	779	83
Currently Not in Labour Force	158	17
Total	937	100

* The total may not add up to 100 percent due to rounding

As there were only 10 respondents who said they had a job to start at a definite date in the future, there was little difference between the two participation rate definitions (Census 82%, HLFS 83%).

4.3 Labour Force Participation Rates by Gender

Analyses in labour force participation rates have shown significant gender differences in New Zealand. In this analysis labour force participation for men was 15 percentage points greater than for women (90% vs. 75%). Both the male and female labour force participation rates were higher than the national labour force participation rates (census 1996) for Waitakere which were 81% and 66.6% respectively.

Table 4.2 Labour Force Participation By Gender in Waitakere			
	Labour Force Participation		
Gender*	N	Percentage	Sample (N)
Male	390	90	432
Female	377	75	502
Total	767	82	934

* There are 3 cases with missing values

4.4 Labour Force Participation Rates by Ethnicity

Labour force participation rates were examined by ethnicity. The highest labour force participation rates were observed among Pakeha/European at 84% and Maori (81%), with Chinese the lowest at 70%. These rates compared with LFP rates of 80%, 72% and 70% respectively in the 1996 census showing that the Chinese LFP rate is still much lower than other ethnic groups. The Pacific rate is up to 77% from 70% in 1996.

Table 4.3 Labour Force Participation By Ethnicity in Waitakere			
	Labour Force Participation		
Ethnic Group	N	Percentage	Sample (N)
European/Pakeha	580	84	693
Maori	72	81	89
Pacific Island	48	77	62
Chinese	30	70	43
Indian	36	78	46
Total	766	82	933

4.4.1 Labour Force Participation Rates by Ethnicity and Gender

When ethnicity was broken down into gender as in table 4.4, both the highest and lowest labour force participation rates were observed among Maori. Maori men had the highest participation rate of 95% while Maori women had one of the lowest rates

at 69%. Pacific groups had a similar result. This may be accounted for by the high levels of voluntary and unpaid labour undertaken by Maori and Pacific women (Waring, 1999). Chinese and Indian men had noticeably lower participation rates (69% and 76% respectively) than the other male groups, with the female counterparts in both these cases having higher participation rates than the men. The low participation rates for Chinese and Indian males may be accounted for by unpaid labour force participation (such as working age youth helping out in the family business). The Pakeha/European rate reflected the overall participation rate in the survey. The male Pakeha rate was not surprising but male rates for Maori and Pacific groups were higher than census 1996 rates (95% compared to 80.7% and 92% compared to 77.4% respectively).

Table 4.4 Labour Force Participation By Gender and Ethnicity in Waitakere					
Ethnic Group	Labour Force Participation				
	Male		Female		Sample
	N	%	N	%	N
European/Pakeha	290	92	289	76	693
Maori	39	95	33	69	89
Pacific Island	22	92	26	68	62
Chinese	18	69	12	71	43
Indian	19	76	17	81	46
Total	388	90	377	75	933

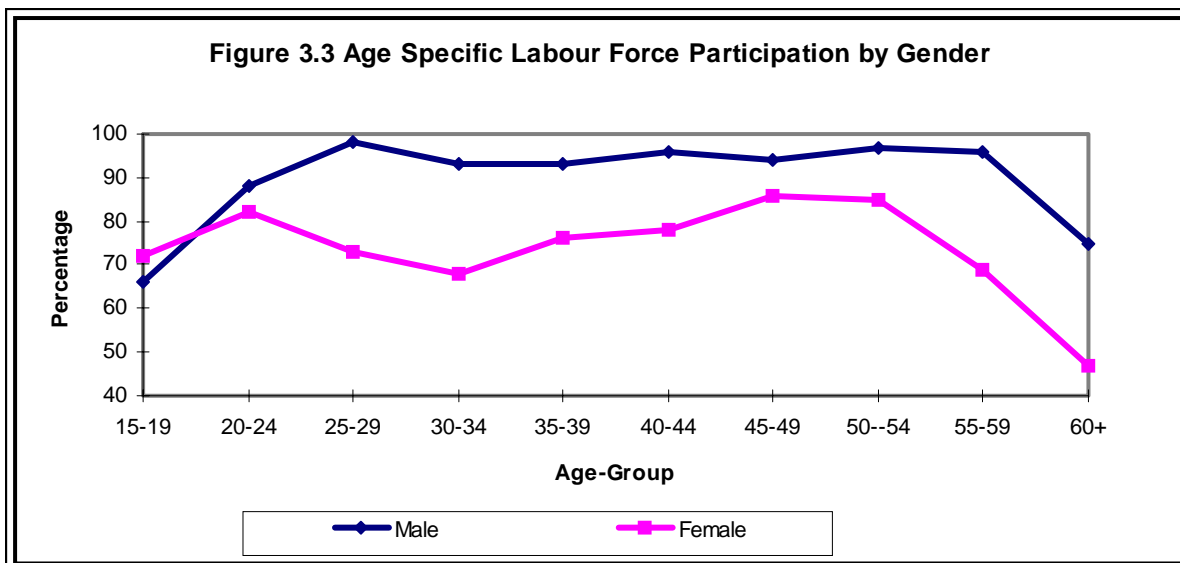
4.5 Labour Force Participation Rates by Age

Table 4.5 presents age-specific labour force participation rates. Rates were the lowest in the youngest (15-19) and oldest age groups (60-65). However even the lowest participation rate of 69% for 15-19 year olds was much higher than the national rate of 55% for this age group and higher than census 1996 for Waitakere at 62%. This higher participation rate among Waitakere's youth may indicate that a significant proportion are entering the labour market directly from school.

Table 4.5 Age-Specific Labour Force Participation Rates in Waitakere		
Age-Group	Sample(N)	Rates
15-19	70	69
20-24	62	85
25-29	78	85
30-34	97	80
35-39	128	84
40-45	90	87
45-49	82	89
50-54	65	90
55-59	50	81
60-65	27	63
Total	749	100

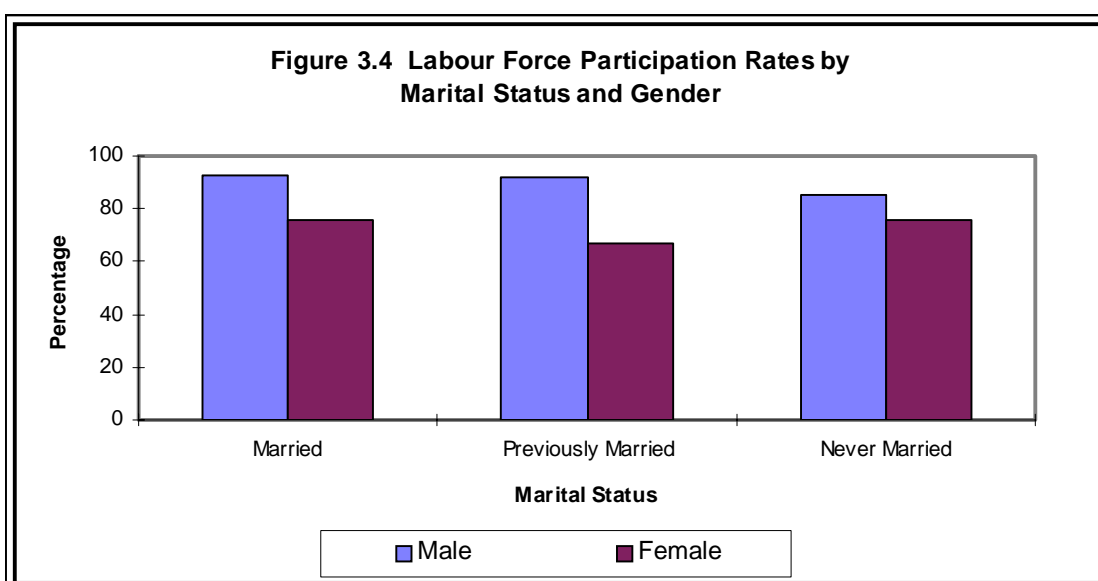
4.5.1 Labour Force Participation Rates by Age and Gender

Figure 4.17 presents age-specific labour force participation rates by gender. Labour force participation rates across age groups are expected to differ for males and females. Higher rates of participation were found for men in all working age groups except for the youngest age group 15-19. The greatest difference was noted in the 25-34 age group reflecting the time when women often withdraw temporarily from the paid labour force to have and care for children. The greatest difference between male and female labour force participation was found in this age group (almost 25 percentage points). The gap narrowed from that point until the 40-45 age group indicating the entry or re-entry of women to the paid labour force. After this age group the gap widened again perhaps indicating that women are undertaking the greater share of unpaid family and community activities. Overall age-specific labour force participation rates indicate that female labour force participation follows the national pattern with participation being fairly high between the ages 15-19, declining in the 20-34 age-group, increasing from age 35 till the early fifties, and then declining again. Female participation rates are much more reflective of life-cycle changes and considerations than their male counterparts.



4.6 Labour Force Participation Rates by Marital Status and Gender

The labour force participation rates for men were lower when they had never married. Women had lower rates if they had been previously married suggesting that women bear the brunt of child-care responsibilities after marriage break-ups. Female labour force participation of previously married respondents was significantly lower than their married and unmarried counterparts, and the gap between the genders is largest in this category (figure 4.2).



4.7 Labour Force Participation Rates and Education

The relationship between the completion of formal education and labour market outcomes has been of considerable interest as they are often closely associated. However the determinants of labour force participation are not often unpacked to provide differential predictors. Here we have attempted to unravel labour force participation by various types of education and training

.

4.7.1 Labour Force Participation Rates by School Qualifications

Although participation rates were lowest amongst individuals with no school qualifications the rates were not significantly different across educational groups. Differences in labour force participation rates by educational qualifications are shown in Table 4.6.

School Qualifications	Sample (N)	Rates
No school Qualification	181	80
School Certificate	181	85
Sixth Form	151	89
High School Qualification	115	84
Post-School Qualification	125	87
Not Specified	16	33
Total(N)	769	82

4.7.2 Labour Force Participation Rates by Combined Educational Variables

Composite variables were constructed for: no school qualifications or post school training; school qualifications and training; school qualifications only; and training only. Table 4.7 presents labour force participation rates of all respondents by their respective educational qualifications. Those who had school qualifications and training had the highest labour force participation rates. Not surprisingly those with no qualifications had the lowest rates. An interesting result was that those with training

only (and no school qualifications) had higher participation rates than those with school qualifications only.

Table 4.7 Labour Force Participation Rates for School Qualifications and Training by Gender in Waitakere			
School Qualifications	Male	Female	All
No school Qualification	70	57	63
School Qualification and Training	97	80	88
School Qualification	88	79	83
Training only	92	82	88
Total(%)	90	75	82

4.7.3 Labour Force Participation Rates by Training

As training was thought to be a good predictor of labour force participation we examined different types of training. The results are presented in Table 4.8. It appears that those who had any type of training or qualification were highly likely to be in the labour force with the highest rate being that of trade certificates and the lowest in nursing. It is likely that the low rate for nursing corresponds to low rates of participation for women. Those with no training were least likely to be in paid employment as expected.

Table 4.8 Labour Force Participation Rates by Training in Waitakere		
Training	Sample (N)	Rates
No Training	281	74
University Qualification*	144	91
One or More Training	30	88
Trade Certificate or Advanced Trade Certificate	110	94
NZ Certificate or Diploma	57	84
Polytechnic Certificate or Diploma	96	83
Teachers Certificate or Diploma	31	86
Nursing Certificate or Diploma	20	77
Total(N)	769	82

4.7.4 Labour Force Participation Rates by Training and Gender

In Table 4.9 labour force participation rates of males and females by training is represented. It clearly indicates higher participation rates for both men and women when compared with their respective overall rates. The mean participation rate for men with training is 96.6% compared with 90% overall (see table 3.13) and the mean female rate with training is 79.1% compared with 75% overall. Particularly impressive were the rates for men with Trade or Polytech certificates (98 and 97% respectively).

School Qualifications	Male	Female	Sample (N)	%
No Training	80	69	382	41
Post-High or University Grad Degree	95	86	159	17
Two or More Training	92	80	34	4
Trade Certificate	98	76	117	12
NZ Certificate	94	77	68	7
Polytechnic Certificate	97	78	115	12
Teacher Training	100	83	36	4
Nursing	100	74	26	3
Total(N)	432	502	934	100

There were only three males who had a nursing certificate

4.7.5 The Importance of Training as a Predictor of Labour Force Participation

The relationship between educational qualifications and labour force participation rates becomes clearer when training is included to form composite educational variables. Labour force participation rates of both males and females were higher among those who had both school qualifications and training, indicating the importance of training for labour market participation. In Table 4.9 “Training only” rated nearly as high as “School qualifications and Training” indicating that Training is a better predictor of labour market participation than school qualifications. The qualitative aspects of that participation are uncertain. One suspects that the ‘training only’ (i.e. no school qualifications) group has a high amount of trade and technical occupations with full time jobs. This pattern is reinforced in Tables 4.10 and 4.11 (labour force participation rates by ethnicity

and marital status respectively) where 'training only' is equated with higher participation rates (when compared with 'school qualifications only') regardless of ethnicity or marital status.

Table 4.10 Labour Force Participation Rates by School Qualifications, Training and Ethnicity in Waitakere					
	Ethnic Groups				
School Qualifications	Pakeha	Maori	P. Island	Chinese	Indian
No school Qualification	74	67	72	100*	67*
School Qualification and Training	88	92	89	81	87
School Qualification	78	68	68	38	55
Training only	87	92	100	0	100*
Total(N)	580	72	48	43	46

* These categories have less than five cases

Table 4.11 Labour Force Participation Rates by School Qualifications, Training and Marital Status						
	Married		Previously Married		Never Married	
School Qualifications	N	Rates	N	Rates	N	Rates
No school Qualification	54	74	16	62	27	82
School Qualification and Training	277	87	48	89	79	92
School Qualification	95	80	7	44	81	71
Training only	51	88	13	87	18	90
Total(N)	477	83	84	76	205	81

4.8 Labour Force Participation and Household Structure.

Labour force participation rates by household structure are shown in Table 4.12. One suspects that there is a complex mix of variables influencing the results here. Where children are involved female participation rates are substantially lower than male (the lowest being two adults and one child at 56%), however when more than one child is involved in two adult families female participation rates go up. Remember also that Pakeha/Europeans had the highest percentage of 'two adults with children' families and the lowest rates among households of three adults or more with children. These combined characteristics could be explained by the cost of raising children, whereby parents find it difficult to survive on one wage when there is more than one child, and a trade-off must be made between quality of life choices and

economic reality. Other factors may include the availability of suitable child care facilities, the cost of those facilities relative to the gains from employment, transport and proximity to work. When all these factors are taken into consideration, it may be that different groups respond to this dilemma in different ways. For example Pakeha/Europeans may respond to increased costs by increasing the level of female labour force participation whereas Maori and Pacific Island groups may respond by increasing the household income with additional adult earners - male and female.

Household Structure	All (N)		Gender	
	N	Rates	Male	Female
One adult only	49	88	90	85
One adult and one child	5	80	100*	75*
One adult and two or more children	15	73	100*	64
Two adults only	218	84	90	79
Two adults and one child	73	70	88	56
Two adults and two or more children	157	82	98	71
Three adults only	126	84	91	76
Three adults and children	70	83	88	78
Four or more adults	156	81	85	79
Four or more adults and children	68	84	91	78
Total (N)	937	100	90	75

* The number of cases in these categories are less than five cases

4.9 Key Issues

Male and female labour force participation rates (as well as combined rates) were higher in this survey than either national rates or the Waitakere rates recorded at the time of the 1996 census. Both the highest and lowest labour force participation rates were observed among Maori. Maori men had the highest participation rate of 95% while Maori women had one of the lowest rates at 69%. Pacific groups had a similar result. Chinese participation rates are very low regardless of the fact that their female LFP rate is higher here than in the 1996 census.

With regard to age, the lowest participation rate of 69% for 15-19 year olds was still higher than the national rate of 55% and the Waitakere City rate of 62% for this age group in the 1996 census. The higher participation rate among Waitakere's youth suggest that significant numbers are entering the labour market directly from school.

Female participation rates reflect demographic trends as well as economic realities. Although female participation rates have increased overall, where children are involved female rates are substantially lower than their male counterparts. Moreover, there is substantial evidence to show that parents are finding it difficult to survive on a single wage (especially when more than one child is involved) and as a consequence 'trade offs' are frequently made on the basis of family circumstances and economic realities. Either female participation rates tend to go up or resources are pooled through the formation of larger households with additional adult members contributing to the household income.

Those with some form of post-school training are more likely to be in the paid workforce than those with school qualifications only, indicating that training is a better predictor of LFP than school qualifications. Of particular interest is the survey result that shows that Waitakere residents with 'training only' have higher participation rates than those with school qualifications regardless of ethnicity or marital status. However those with both school qualifications and post-school training have the highest LFP rates of any educational group and better labour market outcomes.

CHAPTER 5 EMPLOYMENT

5.1 Introduction

This section describes the employment status of workers who were employed at the time of the survey. The analysis of employment status included only those respondents who had reported working during the survey week. Since information on future work was unavailable, respondents with a job to start in the future were excluded from the analysis.

5.2 Employment Status

Table 5.1 presents distribution of employment status by gender. Out of 937 respondents 699 (75%) were currently employed. Of those currently employed 81% were wage earners and 18% were self employed. Approximately one in four of self-employed workers employed others while the remainder worked on their own. About 2% of all workers were working without pay in a family business with women dominating this category. Proportionately more women were in paid employment as salary and wage earners than men, whereas males were twice as likely to be self employed.

Table 5.1 Distribution of Workers by Employment Status and Gender					
Employment Status	Male		Female		Total
	N	%	N	%	
Wage/Salary Earners	272	76	291	85	563
Employer of others	19	5	9	3	28
Self-employed	63	18	32	9	95
Unpaid Workers	2		11	3	13
Total(N)	356	100*	343	100	699

* Percentage may not add up to 100 due to rounding

5.2.1 Employment Status and Ethnicity

Table 5.2 summarises the distribution of workers by employment status and ethnicity. Caution must be taken in interpreting these results as numbers are small in ethnic groups other than Pakeha. However Pacific groups and Maori appear to be mainly wage and salary earners as might be expected. These two groups were also well behind in self employment rates compared to the other groups.

Employment Status	Ethnic Groups %				
	Pakeha	Maori	P. Island	Chinese	Indian
Wage/Salary Earners	79	87	95	77	79
Employer of others	4	6	2	0	0
Self-employed	15	5	0	18	18
Unpaid Workers	2	2	2	5	3
Total(N)	538	63	41	22	34

5.2.2 Employment Status, Marital Status and Gender

Table 5.3 shows the distribution of workers by employment status, marital status and gender. Approximately 90% of all those who were never married and those who were previously married were wage/salary earners. Those who were married were more likely than the other groups to be employers or self-employed. Proportionately more women were in paid employment as salary and wage earners across the categories of marital status. More men were working as employers and in self-employment than women. However, women are more likely to be employers or self-employed if they are married, as are men. The interesting determinant of employer/self-employment status seems to be marriage for both sexes, perhaps reflecting the perceived need for flexibility in working conditions and increased ability to earn.

Table 5.3 Distribution of Workers by Employment Status, Marital Status and Gender								
Employment Status	Wage/Salary Earners		Employer of others		Self-Employed		Unpaid Worker	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Married								
Male	163	71	16	7	49	21	1	
Female	179	80	8	4	30	13	8	4
Previously Married								
Male	26	87	1		2		1	
Female	40	93	1		2		0	
Never Married								
Male	83	86	2		12	12	0	
Female	70	96	0		0	0	3	4
Total(N)	563	81	28	4	95	14	13	2

5.2.3 Employment Status and Age

As might be expected, being an employer or in self-employment is prevalent in the prime working age groups where there is high LFP (30-60 years), peaking in the 40-49 age group. Consequently younger employed respondents were most likely to be wage and salary earners and were also more likely to be participating in unpaid work.

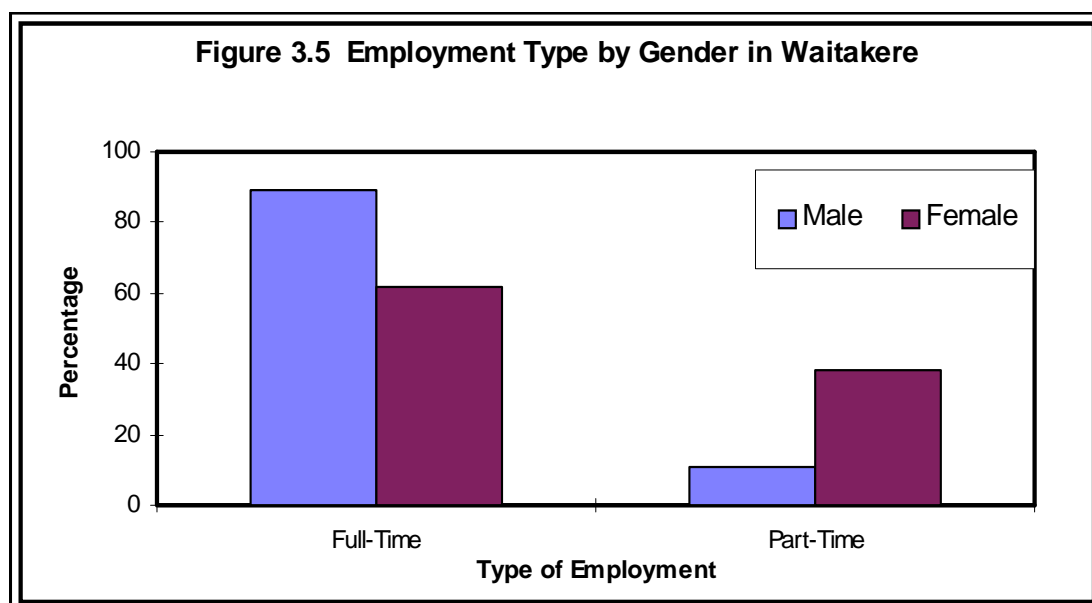
Table 5.4 Employment Status of All Workers by Age in Waitakere				
Age-Group	Wage and Salary Earner	Employer	Self-Employed	Unpaid Work
15-19	96	0	0	4
20-29	87	1	10	2
30-39	79	5	14	2
40-49	74	7	18	1
50-59	79	5	15	1
60+	81	0	19	0
Total (N)	549	28	92	13

Employment status was cross-tabulated with school qualifications, training, and the composite variables; no school qualifications, school qualifications

and training, school qualifications only, and training only. None of these variables were significant in determining employment status.

5.3 Type of Employment and Gender

Of the 699 employed respondents 51% were male and 49% were female. Seventy-six percent (76%) were in full-time employment while 24% were in part-time employment. As expected, women dominated part-time employment (see figure 5.1) and men dominated full-time employment. Thirty-eight percent (38%) of females in the workforce were employed part-time as opposed to only eleven percent (11%) of males.



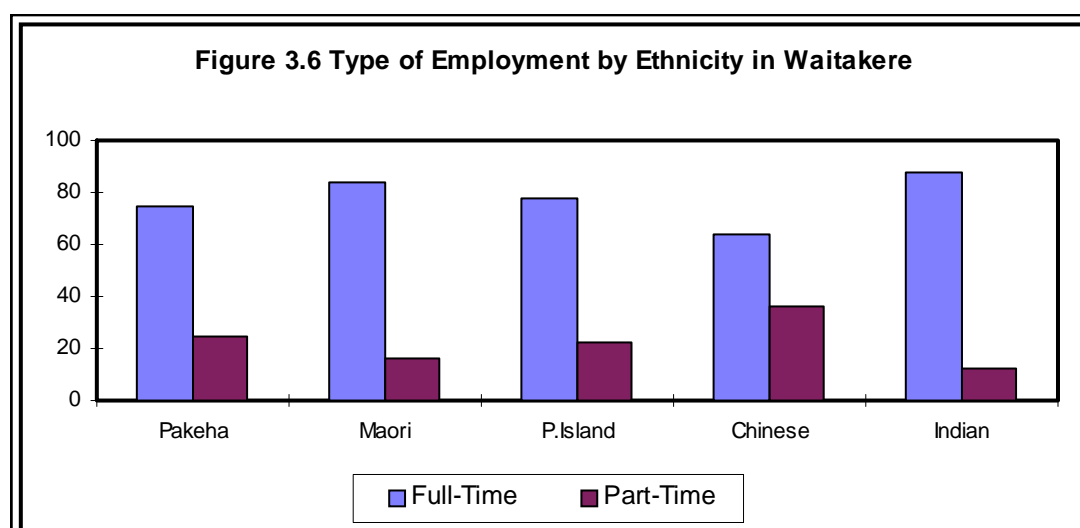
5.3.1 Type of Employment by Gender and Marital Status

Type of employment by marital status and gender is presented in Table 5.6. Married and previously married respondents were more likely to be employed full-time. As might be expected, when gender was considered, females were far less likely to hold full-time positions regardless of marital status. Females who had never been married were more likely to be employed part-time than their married and previously married counterparts, indicating increased pressure to earn whilst married.

Table 5.5 Type of Employment by Marital Status and Gender in Waitakere						
Marital Status and Gender	Employment					
	Full-Time		Part-Time		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Married						
Male	212	93	17	7	229	64
Female	142	63	83	37	225	66
Previously Married						
Male	27	90	3	10	30	8
Female	28	65	15	35	43	13
Never Married						
Male	79	81	18	19	97	27
Female	41	56	32	44	73	21
Total (N)	530	76	168	24	698	100

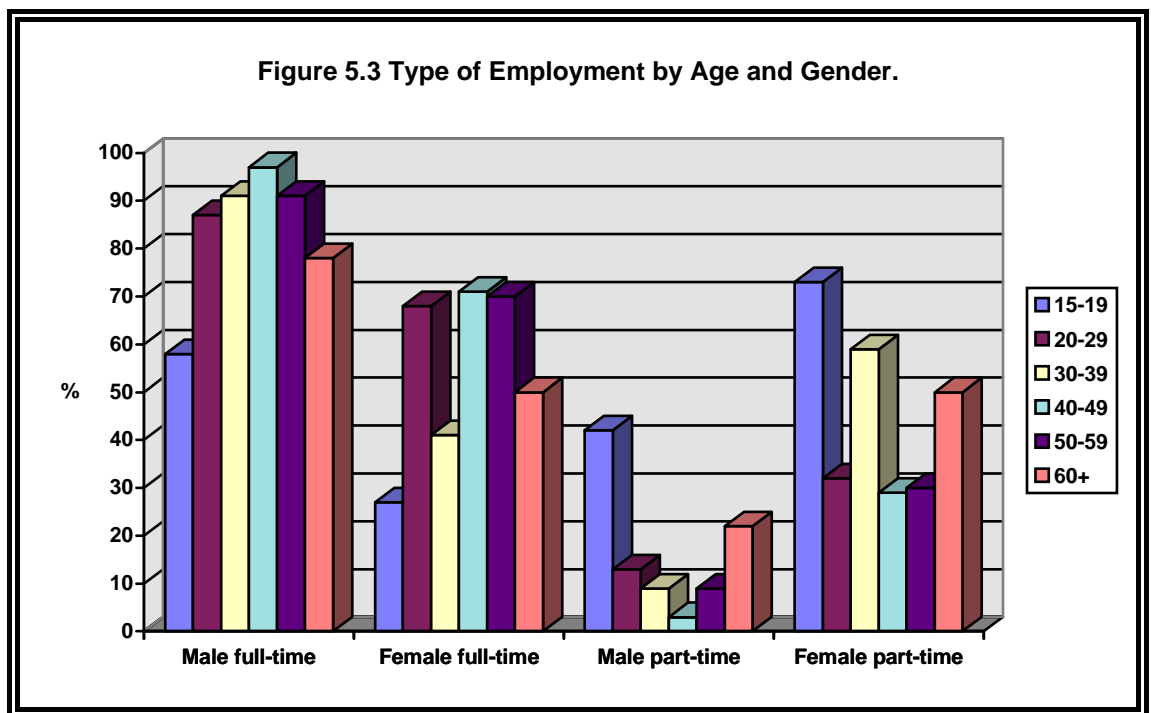
5.3.2 Type of Employment and Ethnicity

Pakeha had the lowest rate of full time employment with the exception of Chinese with 64%. The low Chinese rate of full time employment is compounded by low LFP rates for this group as well. Maori were well ahead in the full time to part time ratio as were Indians (see Fig.5.2)



5.3.3 Type of Employment by Age and Gender

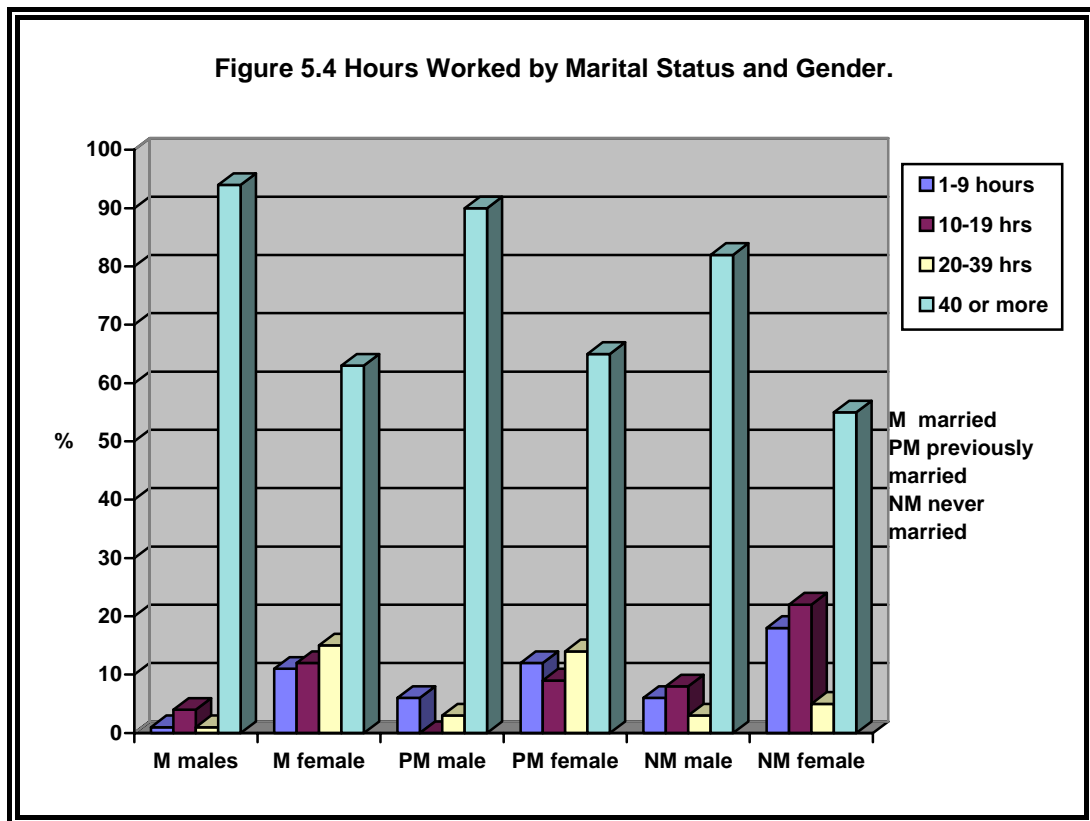
Age as a determinant of employment type is considered in Figure 3.7, and gender in table 5.8. Clearly those in the younger age group (15-19) were more likely to be employed part-time than full-time. However when gender is factored in, 73% of females in this youngest age group were employed part-time. The nature of this work has not been investigated but the high rate of part-time work suggests that it is low paid service sector work. Rates for the main working age groups were reflective of the overall rate; however, note that the full-time rate for females peaks in the 40-59yr. age group, suggesting that females gear their work priorities around a combination of family commitments and economic realities. The male work pattern is characterised by much higher rates of full-time employment from an earlier age (20-29), and that continues through to the 60+ age bracket.



There appeared to be no correlation between type of employment and educational qualifications or training.

5.4 Hours worked by Marital Status, Gender and Age

Having noted the gender differences in employment type, hours worked revealed something of the nature of that work. Overall, hours worked by marital status did not reveal significant differences until gender was factored in. Only 6% of married men in the workforce worked less than 39 hours per week as opposed to married women where 37% worked less than 39 hours per week. Surprisingly, 'never married' females had the highest rate of 45% working less than 39 hours per week. This would, at first glance, tend to indicate lifestyle choices, however when the age breakdown for female workers by hours worked is presented in Table 5.9 we see that the younger age groups are over-represented in the less than 39 hours groups. This accounts for the high percentage in the never married group being in part time work. In fact nearly 60% of those females in the 15-19 age group worked less than 20 hours per week. This reinforces the contention [above] that this group have a high representation in low-paid part-time service sector jobs. Most previously married men worked 40 or more hours (90%), while the corresponding figure for women was 65%. Family care responsibilities are likely to account for this. Among those who worked less than forty hours, most worked under 20 hours per week.



Age-Group	1-9 Hours	10-19 Hours	20-39 Hours	40+ Hours
15-19	29	29	4*	39
20-29	4	10	7	78
30-39	7	2*	10	76
40-49	5	7	6	83
50+	6	12	4*	80
Total(N)	53	62	48	519

*These categories have less than five cases

5.5 Occupational Distribution

Table 5.7 presents the occupational distribution in Waitakere City. Administrative, professional, and technical occupations comprised 39% of all workers while clerical, business and financial services (service/sales) employed another 32%. These proportions were higher than national averages while the 1% employed in the agricultural sector is well below but in line with

previous findings for Waitakere. Another 21% were engaged in trades and machine operating jobs and the remaining 7% were employed in elementary occupations. The importance of sales/services, clerical and technical occupations are illustrated with nearly half of all respondents falling into these categories.

5.5.1 Occupational Distribution by Gender

Significant differences were observed in occupational distribution by gender. Females were twice as likely to be in professional and sales/service occupations, and four times as likely to be in clerical occupations than men. Conversely, men completely dominated trades and were almost twice as likely as women to hold administrative positions. Technical and other occupations were relatively evenly split between genders.

Occupation	Number	Percentage of Workforce		
		Percentage	Male	Female
Administration	69	10	13	7
Professional Occupations	81	12	8	16
Technical	119	17	19	15
Clerical	123	18	7	28
Service/Sales	100	14	9	20
Agriculture/Fisheries	10	1	2	1
Trades	93	13	25	1
Machine Operators	47	7	9	5
Elementary Occupations	51	7	7	7
Total(N)	693	100	350	343

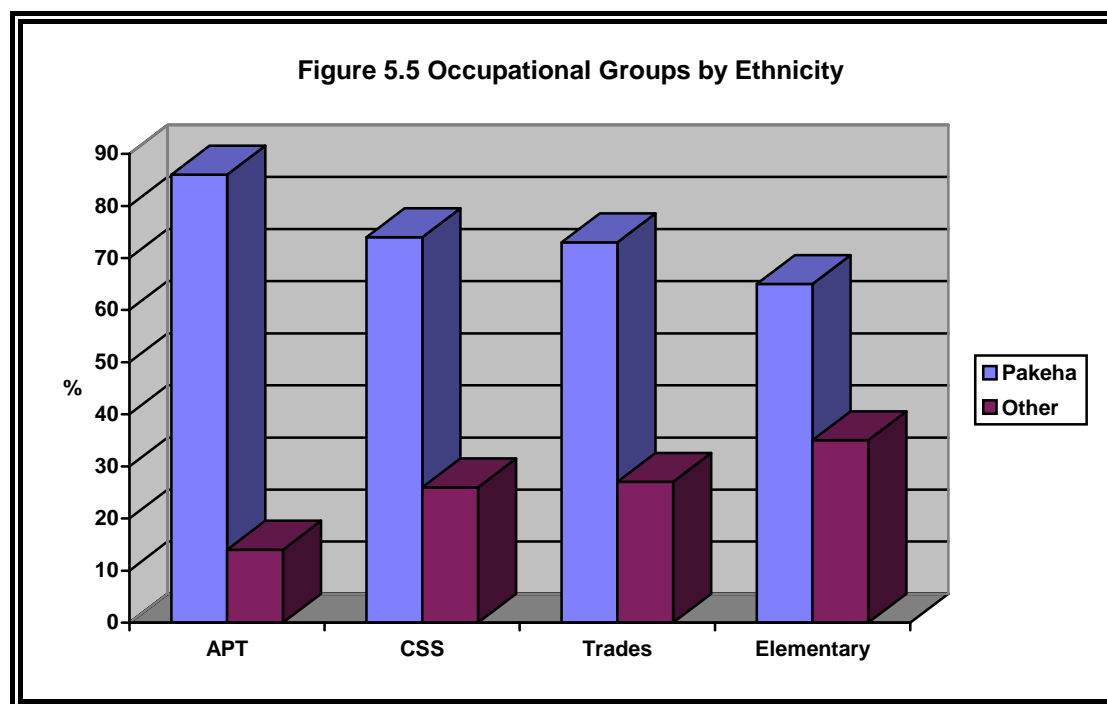
5.5.2 Occupational Distribution by Ethnicity

Diverse occupational composition was found when occupation was examined by ethnicity in table 5.8. Pakeha had a fairly even representation across administration, professional, technical, clerical, service/sales, and trades with a fairly low representation in elementary occupations. Maori were similar although not quite as well represented in professional and administrative

categories. Maori had a higher ratio in elementary occupations. To get a clearer picture of the significance of ethnicity the occupations were collapsed into occupational groupings as in figure 5.5.

Table 5.8 Occupational Structure by Ethnicity in Waitakere.						
Percentage.						
Occupation	Pakeha	Maori	P.Island	Chinese	Indian	Total
Administration	12	5	0	0	12	69
Professional Occupations	13	6	7	0	6	80
Technical	18	19	7	23	6	120
Clerical	18	18	20	18	15	123
Service/Sales	13	11	27	14	24	100
Agriculture/Fisheries	2	0	5	0	0	10
Trades	12	16	10	18	29	92
Machine Operators	5	8	17	14	9	47
Elementary Occupations	7	16	7	14	0	51
Total (N)	533	62	41	22	34	692

Administrative, professional and technical were collapsed into one group **APT**; clerical and sales/service into **CSS**; agriculture/fisheries and trades into **Trades**; and machine operators and elementary occupations into **Elementary**. These groups were then divided into 'Pakeha' and 'Other' ethnic groups to give a picture of occupational groups by ethnicity.



When compared to the percentage of pakeha in the sample population (74%) or 1996 census (68%), pakeha dominated the APT group (high status occupations), were close to representative in CSS and Trades, and under-represented in elementary occupations. On the same basis all other ethnic groups were over-represented in elementary occupations and well under-represented in the high status Admin/Prof/Technical group. This is similar to the national picture and highlights the significance of educational variables within particular ethnic groups as key determinants of labour market outcomes.

5.5.3 Occupational Distribution by Marital Status

Table 5.9 presents the occupational distribution of all workers by marital status. Differences in occupational distribution by marital status were not significant, yet individuals who were previously married or never married tended to be concentrated in clerical, sales and services, and trades. Married workers tended to occupy the APT and CSS groups, whereas those previously married were evenly spread and occupied all four occupational groups in significant numbers. When employment status, employment type, hours worked and occupational structure are considered, married respondents are

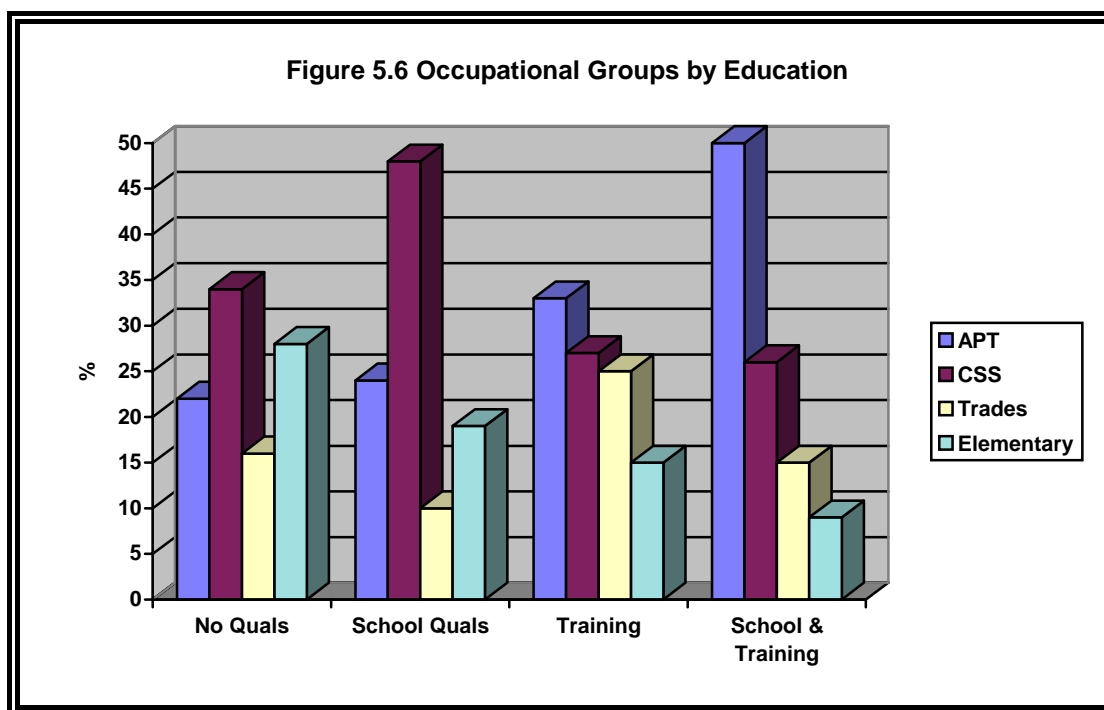
working longer and have a higher earning capacity than their unmarried or previously married counterparts.

Table 5.9 Occupational Structure by Marital Status in Waitakere City

Occupation	% Married	% Previously Married	% Never Married	Total
Administration	13	8	3	69
Professional Occupations	14	15	5	81
Technical	20	12	10	120
Clerical	18	10	21	122
Service/Sales	12	18	21	100
Agriculture/Fisheries	1	3	1	10
Trades	9	18	23	92
Machine Operators	7	7	6	47
Elementary Occupations	6	10	9	51
Total (N)	451	73	168	692

5.5.4 Occupational Distribution by Education

The education and training composite variables were cross tabulated with occupation as in figure 5.6. As expected a greater number of respondents with school qualifications and training were in professional and technical occupations (50% within that group). Accordingly, respondents with these qualifications were less likely to be in elementary occupations than any other group. Of those with school qualifications alone, nearly half were in clerical/sales and services (CSS) and only 10% were in trades. Those with 'training only' had a balanced representation across the occupational groups as opposed to those with school qualifications alone. The training only group had better representation in the APT occupational groups and trades. Those with school qualifications alone had high representations in elementary and CSS occupational groups. As might be expected those with no qualifications were highly represented in elementary occupations and poorly represented in APT occupations.



5.5.5 Occupational Distribution and Type of Employment

These results on their own do not give many surprises other than reinforcing the importance of training. Outcomes however, take on a new meaning when occupational groups are related to type of employment (table 5.11). Most professionals were employed in full-time jobs as expected. Most people who worked part-time were in elementary, clerical, or sales and services occupations. The two educational groups that figure highly in the latter occupations are the “no qualification” and “school qualifications only” groups further reinforcing the need for occupation specific or post school training to improve occupational outcomes.

Table 5.11 Occupational Structure by Type of Employment in Waitakere				
	Part-Time		Full-Time	
Occupation	N	%	N	%
Administration	6	9	63	91
Professional Occupations	21	26	60	74
Technical	21	18	99	83
Clerical	40	33	83	67
Service/Sales	39	39	61	61
Agriculture/Fisheries	2	20	8	80
Trades	5	5	88	95
Machine Operators	7	15	40	85
Elementary Occupations	26	50	26	50
Total(N)	167	24	528	76

5.6 Industrial Distribution

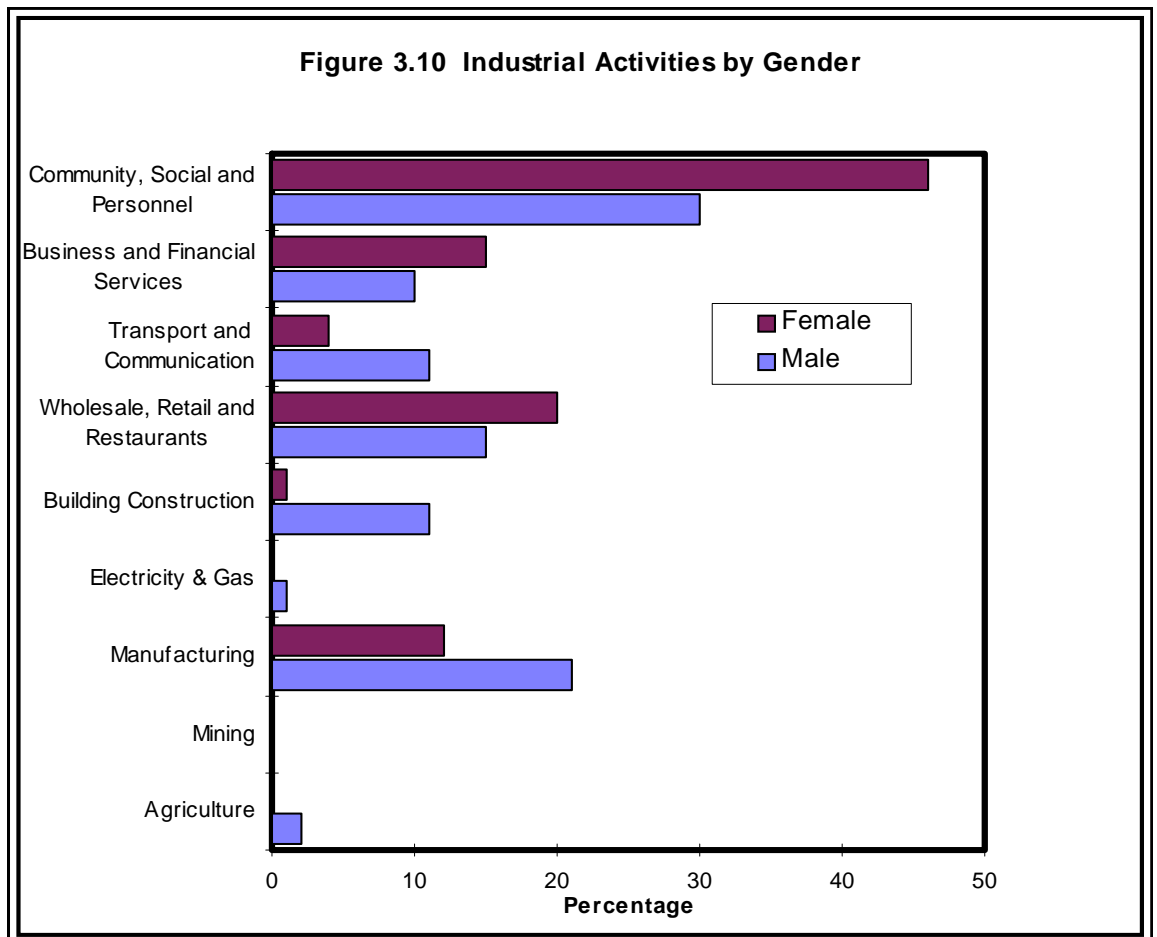
The distribution of employment in the region reflects the importance of various industrial groups. The results shown in Table 5.12 indicated that the service sector was a dominant group in employment consistent with the national trend of growth in the service sector. The service sector included wholesale, retail and restaurants; transport, storage and communications; business and financial services; and community, social and personnel. Almost 77% of respondents worked in these sectors. The service sector was dominated by two groups: community, social and personnel (38%) and whole-sale, retail and restaurants (18%). This is significant when considering the impacts of the increasing “casualisation” of work such as less job security and less bargaining power in pay negotiations. Those industries with the highest rates of part-time work are also the industries with high worker participation in Waitakere City. This adds meaning to the generally high labour force participation rates when one considers that the nature of that participation is often lowly paid, part-time and/or short-term work.

Table 5.12 Distribution of Respondents by Their Industrial Activities in Waitakere		
Industrial Group	N	Percentage
Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing	8	1
Mining	1	
Manufacturing	113	16
Electricity, Gas, and Water	2	
Building and Construction	40	6
Whole-sale, Retail and Restaurants	124	18
Transport and Communication	52	8
Business and Financial Services	89	13
Community, Social and Personnel	263	38
Total	692	100

5.6.1 Industrial Distribution by Gender

Next, industrial distribution was examined by gender as in figure 5.7. Women dominated the service sector with approximately eight out of ten females engaged in service sector employment compared to approximately 65% of men. In the service sector, most women (almost half of all female respondents) worked in community, social and personnel, followed by 20% in sales and 15% in business and financial services.

In contrast, men were heavily concentrated in transport and communication (11% vs. 4%). Manufacturing and building and construction employed 22% of all respondents in which men were noticeably concentrated (about one third of all male respondents were engaged in these activities).



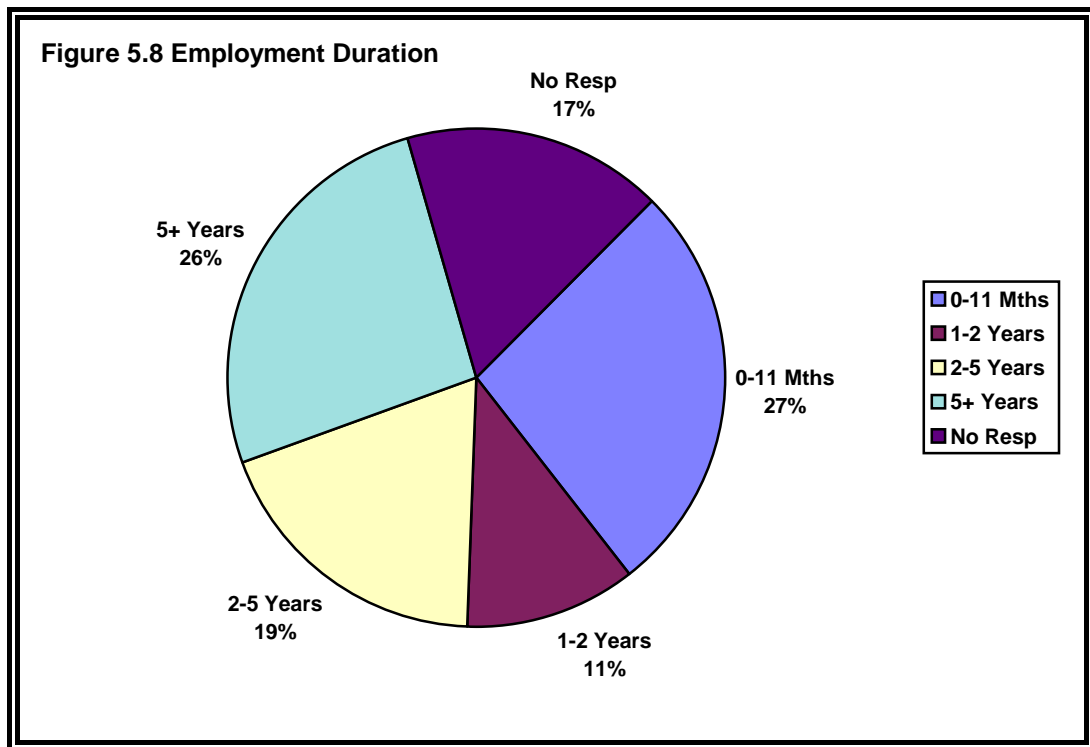
5.6.2 Industrial Distribution by Ethnicity

Table 5.13 presents industrial distribution by ethnicity. This follows, in the main, the same pattern as the overall distribution. However the preceding section on occupational breakdowns may serve to provide a backdrop to this section thereby suggesting that Pakeha may still dominate the high status jobs within these industries. Four industries are well patronised by all ethnic groups. These are: manufacturing; and service sector industries - wholesale, retail and restaurants; business and financial services; and community, social and personnel. Despite national and regional trends, manufacturing is still a significant employer for residents of Waitakere City.

Table 5.13 Industrial Distribution by Ethnicity in Waitakere					
Industrial Groups	Pakeha %	Maori %	Pacific Island %	Chinese %	Indian %
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	1	0	5	0	1
Mining		0	0	0	1
Manufacturing	15	19	20	14	26
Electricity, Gas and Water		1	0	0	0
Building Construction	5	11	10	0	6
Wholesale, Retail and Restaurants	16	11	27	36	32
Transport and Communication	8	6	7	0	0
Business and Financial Services	14	11	10	18	3
Community, Social and Personnel	40	39	22	32	32
Total(N)	532	62	41	22	40

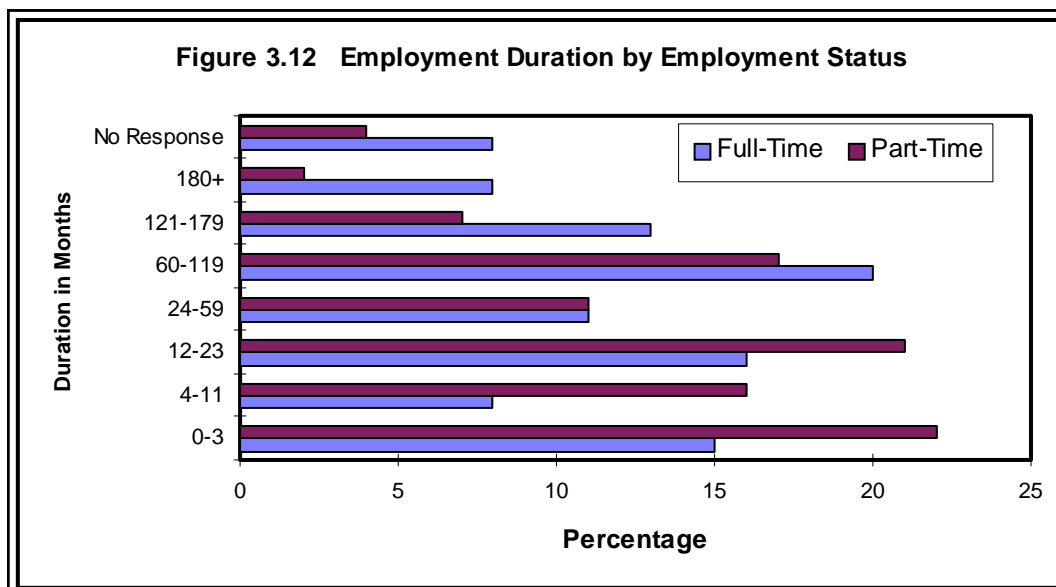
5.6 Employment Duration

Recent trends in the labour market have been towards casualised, shorter term, contract based employment with a “job for life” becoming a thing of the past. With this in mind duration of current employment was examined. 27% of respondents had been in their current employment for less than a year, while an additional 30% had been in their current job for less than 5 years. This would seem to confirm the trend to shorter term employment, although one might have expected to see a larger percentage in the 1-2 year bracket rather than the 2-5 year bracket. However the nature of industrial and occupational breakdowns for Waitakere City (service sector and manufacturing) may limit the potential for contract based employment while at the same time increasing the potential for part-time and short-term employment. These factors at least partly explain the divergence in employment duration.



5.7.1 Employment Duration by Employment Type

In Figure 5.9 employment duration was related to employment type. Part-time positions were especially prevalent in jobs where the duration of employment was less than 2 years. This is a double bind for those in occupations or industries that have high rates of part-time work as it not only means that they are working less hours, they are more likely to be in the job on a short-term basis. Full-time positions were fairly evenly spread with a peak in the 5-10 year category indicating that those who are in full-time positions are holding on to those jobs. This can make it difficult for new entrants to the labour market if there is little movement in the number of full-time positions.



5.8 Work Done From Home

In Auckland as a whole work done from home on a full-time basis has increased in the ten years from 1986-1996 from 5% to 7%, a significant but not large percentage. In Waitakere City currently working respondents were asked whether they worked from home or not. About one quarter (23%) of all the currently working respondents stated that they worked from home. Only a small difference in the percentage of those working from home was observed by gender and by employment type - the proportion of those workers who operated from home was similar for both part-time and full-time workers.

Work at home %	Male	Female	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total
Yes	25	22	23	24	164
No	75	78	77	76	537
Total(N)	356	343	533	168	701

Respondents were also asked about the approximate proportion of work done from home. The findings (Table 5.15) revealed gender differences in terms of amount of work done from home. Of those working from home, 73% of men and 53% of women stated that about one quarter of their work was done from home. Significantly a greater proportion of women reported that almost all of

their work was done from home (28% vs. 19%). Of those who performed almost all of their work from home, 35% were in part-time employment while 20% were in full-time employment. Of those who performed a small proportion of work from home, 70% were in full-time employment as opposed to 43% in part-time jobs. This suggests that part-timer's working from home are more likely to be performing a significant amount (above 25%) of that work at home whereas full-timer's are more likely to be performing only a small proportion of their work from home. This may be a reflection of the nature of work undertaken, where part-time workers are more likely to be employed in elementary occupations (50% part-time), sales and services (39%) or clerical (33%) than in professional, administrative or technical occupations (see table 5.11). It is not necessarily the case that all or most of work done from home is a rapidly growing phenomenon (approximately 7% in Waitakere City) but rather, that there is a greater blurring of the boundaries between work and home with nearly a quarter of the workforce performing some part of their operation from home.

Table 5.15 Proportion of Work Carried Out At Home in Waitakere

Proportion	Male %	Female %	Full-Time %	Part-Time %
0-25	73	53	70	43
25-50	3	14	6	15
50-75	3	5	3	8
75-100	19	28	20	35
Total (N)	89	74	124	40

5.9 Key Issues

Seventy-seven percent of respondents worked in the service sector which was dominated by two groups: community, social and personnel (38%) and whole-sale, retail and restaurants (18%). Women were also dominant in these two industries. Correspondingly the importance of sales and services, clerical and technical occupations in Waitakere City is illustrated by nearly half of all respondents falling into these occupational categories.

More women were in paid employment as salary and wage earners than men whereas men were twice as likely to be self employed. The linking of employment status, employment type, hours worked and occupational structure revealed that married respondents were working longer and had a higher earning capacity than their unmarried or previously married counterparts. Those who were married, regardless of gender, were more likely than other groups to be employers or self employed, perhaps reflecting the perceived need for flexibility in working conditions and an increased ability to earn. However with declining rates of marriage and increases in divorce rates new categories need to be developed to understand the true nature of this relationship. For example, unmarried couples with children were likely to be working the same number of hours as their married counterparts.

Overall 76% of respondents worked in full-time employment while 24% were in part-time employment and as expected, women dominated part-time work. Full-time rates for females peak in the 40-59 age group suggesting that females gear their work habits around a combination of family commitments and economic realities. Females in the younger age group (15-19) were more likely to be employed part-time than full-time, as were men. However the female part-time rate of 73% was much higher than males in this youngest age group and 60% of those females worked less than 20 hours per week.

Females were twice as likely to be in professional and sales/service occupations, and four times as likely to be in clerical occupations than males. Men almost completely dominated trades and were almost twice as likely as women to hold administrative occupations. Technical and other occupations were relatively evenly split between genders. These occupational differences are a reflection of the full-time nature of men's employment and the high part-time nature and varying levels of LFP rates for women.

Pakeha had the lowest rate of full-time employment with the exception of Chinese with 64%. Maori were well ahead in the full-time to part-time ratio. This is contrary to expectations but is somewhat explained by the nature of

occupations when related to ethnicity and employment outcomes. Maori are under-represented in administrative, professional and technical occupations and on average Maori have lower incomes. Pakeha dominated the administrative, professional and technical occupations and were under-represented in elementary occupations. These trends suggest that Pakeha may have the ability (with higher female LFP rates and higher incomes) to pull back their full-time to part-time work ratio. All other ethnic groups were over-represented in elementary occupations and under-represented in the high status Admin/Prof/Technical group. Most professionals were employed in full-time jobs and most people who worked part-time were in the service sector or elementary occupations.

Of those with school qualifications only, nearly half were in clerical, sales and service occupations and only 10% were in trades. Those with training but no school qualifications had better representation in administrative and technical occupations and Trades. Labour force participation as a result of training is more likely to lead to full-time jobs than school qualifications [only] which are more likely to lead to service sector jobs with higher rates of part-time and short-term work. Those with no qualifications also figure highly in service sector occupations. Hence there is a double bind for those in occupations or industries that have high rates of part-time work; it not only means that they are working less hours, they are more likely to be in the job short-term with high movement between jobs.

Waitakere City had a similar rate to the Auckland region of around 7% of workers performing most or all of their work from home. However there seems to be a greater blurring of the boundaries between work and home with nearly a quarter of the workforce performing some part of their work from home. In particular part-timer's working from home were more likely to be performing a significant amount of their work from a residential base. This is one area of labour market participation that requires further investigation.

CHAPTER 6 UNEMPLOYMENT

6.1 Introduction

For the purpose of this section we have excluded those respondents who were unemployed but had a job to start in the future (n=10) from our unemployment calculations and cross tabulations. Therefore the unemployment rate has been calculated as a ratio of those unemployed against the total labour force. In our sample this was 68 unemployed divided by 779 in the labour force (see table 3.11) yielding an unemployment rate for Waitakere at the time of the survey of 8.7%. This definition concurs with the Census unemployment rate.

The HLFS unemployment rate is a widely used and accepted calculation which includes those with a job to start in the future. At the time of the survey this rate of unemployment was 10%.

From the high in unemployment in 1991 of 11% nationally (Census, 1991) rates steadily fell to a national unemployment rate of 7.72% in 1996. Waitakere City mirrored this trend and in 1996 had an unemployment rate of 7.25% with the Auckland Region at 8.26% (Census 1996). However post 1996 there has been evidence of an increase in unemployment in Waitakere. The survey in 1998 found Waitakere's unemployment to be at 8.7% (Census definition) or 10% under the HLFS definition. This is supported by the rise in unemployment benefits from New Lynn, Kelston, Royal Heights and Henderson offices of Income support. In June 1996 4,839 were on unemployment benefits from these branches and in June 1998 8,040 were receiving unemployment benefits from those same branches (Waitakere City Council, 1998).

Differences in unemployment rates by gender, age, marital status, ethnic origin, school qualifications and training are discussed in this section.

6.2 Unemployment and Gender

Table 6.1 presents the proportion of unemployed respondents by gender and their respective unemployment rates. Unemployment rates in Waitakere were similar for male and female and thus the focus shifted to age.

Table 6.1 Proportion of Unemployed and Unemployment Rates in Waitakere				
	Proportion of Unemployed		Unemployment Rates	Total
Gender	N	%	%	(N)
Male	34	7.8	8.6	432
Female	34	6.8	8.9	502
Total(N)	68	7.3	8.7	934

6.3 Unemployment and Age

The first panel of Table 6.2 shows unemployed respondents by age as a proportion of all respondents in that age group. The second panel shows unemployment rates by respective age-groups. Differentials in unemployment rates by age were statistically significant showing an inverse relationship with age. Extremely high unemployment rates were recorded in the younger age groups (30% for 15-19yrs. and 11.4% for 20-29yrs) which then decreased in the older age groups.

Table 6.2 Distribution of Unemployed and Unemployment Rates by Age-Groups in Waitakere					
Age	Proportion of Unemployed*		Unemployment Rate**	Total Labour Force	
	N	%		N	
15-19	21	31.3	30.0	70	101
20-29	16	23.9	11.4	140	165
30-39	17	25.4	7.6	225	275
40-49	7	10.4	4.1	172	196
50-59	5	7.5	4.4	115	134
60+	1	1.5	3.7	27	43
Total(N)	67	100	9.0	749	914

* Proportion of unemployed is a ratio of age group unemployed to total unemployed

** Unemployment Rate is a ratio of age group unemployed to total labour force age group

(The slightly higher overall unemployment rate was due to a slightly smaller sample in this tabulation).

6.4 Unemployment by Marital Status

Of those unemployed over half had never been married and one third were married, while previously married individuals accounted for 16%. The never married group of unemployed also had the highest unemployment rate of 17.1%. Although married individuals had the second highest proportion of unemployed they had by far the lowest unemployment rate at 4.6%.

Table 6.3 Proportion of Unemployed and Unemployment Rates by Marital Status				
Age	Proportion of Unemployed		Unemployment Rates	
	N	%	%	N
Married	22	32.3	4.6	477
Previously Married	11	16.2	13.1	84
Never Married	35	51.5	17.1	205
Total(N)	68	100	8.8	766

6.5 Ethnicity

The distribution of unemployed people by ethnicity is presented in Table 6.4. Aside from small sample numbers in some of the cells and the Chinese unemployment rate, results fit with expectations. Pakeha had the highest proportion of unemployed and the lowest unemployment rate (with the exception of Indian respondents). The Chinese unemployment rate is disturbing and supports census unemployment rates for this group. If this is a true reflection of the Chinese unemployment rate in Waitakere (or indeed anywhere else) then there are potentially serious barriers to employment. However the youthful nature of the unemployed and the lower labour force participation rates for Chinese suggests that they have higher rates of unpaid labour, perhaps working in family businesses. Also the concept of “work” has cultural connotations in that it is not defined solely in terms of paid employment, as it often is in Western societies, and more often includes notions of loyalty, family and community commitment.

Table 6.4 Distribution of Unemployed and Unemployment Rates by Ethnicity in Waitakere				
	Proportion of Unemployed*		Unemployment Rates**	
Ethnicity	N	%	%	N
Pakeha	42	61.8	7.2	580
Maori	9	13.2	12.5	72
Pacific Island	7	10.3	14.6	48
Chinese	8	11.8	26.7	30
Indian	2	2.9	5.6	36
Total(N)	68	100	8.9	766

6.6 Unemployment by School Qualifications

Table 6.5 presents the distribution of unemployed respondents and unemployment rates by educational qualification. As might be expected those with no school qualifications were over-represented with half of the unemployed in this category. This group also had the highest unemployment rate of 17.4%, more than double that of any other category. A somewhat

surprising result was that for the post school qualification category with an unemployment rate of 8%. While still lower than the overall rate (8.7%) it is higher than expected. However the majority of respondents with higher levels of education were recent migrants to Waitakere City.

Educational Qualifications	Proportion of Unemployed		Unemployment Rates	
	N	%	%	N
No School Qualification	34	50.0	17.4	195
Any School Certificate	9	13.2	5.0	181
Any Sixth Form Certificate	7	10.3	4.6	153
Higher School Certificate	8	11.8	7.0	115
Post-School Qualification	10	14.7	8.0	125
Total(N)	68	100	8.8	769

6.7 Unemployment by Combined Educational Variables

Table 6.6 adds the training component to education and once again shows the importance of training along with school qualifications. This group represented a third of the unemployed in real terms but had the lowest unemployment rate of any group at 5.4%. The Unemployment Rate (UR) for the 'no qualifications' group is more than four times as high at just under 24% with the difference from above being the training component. That is, those with no school qualifications but with work related training were less likely to be unemployed than those with no school qualifications (down from 17.4% UR above to 9.5% below). Therefore those with no school qualifications dramatically increase their chances of being employed by engaging in some form of training, such as a trade apprenticeship or Polytech course.

Table 6.6 Distribution of Unemployed by Combined Educational Variables

Combined Educational Variable	Proportion of Unemployed		Unemployment rates	
	N	%	%	N
No Qualifications	26	38.2	23.8	109
School Quals. And Training	22	32.3	5.4	404
School Qualifications Only	12	17.6	7.0	172
Training Only	8	11.8	9.5	84
Total	68	100	8.9	765

6.8 Key issues

The most critical factor in increasing chances of paid employment is education. Those with both school qualifications and some form of post-school qualification are the least likely to be unemployed whereas those with no qualifications are the most likely to be unemployed. Of those registered unemployed in June 1988, nearly half (46%) had no qualifications and a further 15% had less than 3 school certificate passes. This ratio is reinforced in this survey with the figures being 50% and 13% respectively. However those with no school qualifications dramatically increase their chances of being employed by engaging in some form of training, such as a trade apprenticeship or Polytech course.

Extremely high unemployment rates in the younger age groups (30% unemployment rate for 15-19 year olds) is often hidden in official figures due to low registration rates. Consequently the young are underemployed and unemployed, which raises issues of access to employment opportunities. Access is also exacerbated by low educational qualifications, by the 'youthful' demographic profile of Waitakere and by the state of industry training and apprenticeships. Therefore the links between central government, education providers, local institutions, community groups, employers and potential employees are critical in terms of facilitating access to paid employment.,

The 'never married' had an unemployment rate of 17.1%, perhaps explained by the large group of younger unemployed. Married individuals represented the second highest proportion of unemployed but had by far the lowest unemployment rate at 4.6%. Even though married individuals had a low

unemployment rate, they were still significant in number and efforts should be made to address the specific needs of this group as well as those in similar circumstances. There is obvious stress associated with having a family and earning a living, and regardless of whether or not people are married, being unemployed will add to that stress.

Pakeha had the highest proportion of unemployed and the lowest unemployment rate (with the exception of the Indian respondents). As above, even though their unemployment rate is low there are still very significant numbers of pakeha unemployed.

Maori and Pacific groups had unemployment rates nearly twice that of Pakeha/European and the Chinese had the highest unemployment rate of any group. These trends follow national and regional patterns. Maori and Pacific groups have young demographic profiles and below average school and tertiary qualifications in an environment where these qualifications are becoming more and more critical. This is evidenced for example by the high correlation between school qualifications and service sector employment. Those with no school qualifications dramatically increase their chances of being employed by engaging in some form of training, but by far the best outcome is reported for those with a combination of school qualifications and post-school training.

The high unemployment rate (and the low labour force participation rate) for Chinese in particular (but Asian migrants in general) should be examined more closely in order to identify any barriers to economic participation. While the level of Chinese unemployment may be a reflection of cultural characteristics associated with unpaid work for the family business, there is some anecdotal evidence to suggest that Asian migrants have experienced barriers to paid employment as a consequence of language difficulties and the non-acceptance of their professional qualifications by New Zealand authorities.

CHAPTER 7

FACTORS INFLUENCING LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES

7.1 Introduction

A particularly contentious issue is whether those choosing not to work are simply making a lifestyle choice and thereby failing to contribute in a substantive way to economic and social development. This line of thinking places the responsibility for employment solely with the individual and as a consequence little credence is given to those elements that shape labour supply and demand. As most labour market analysts would acknowledge, there are many factors involved in mediating economic participation, and therefore it is advisable to explore the context of decisions as well as the attitudes and intentions of labour market participants before any conclusions can be drawn.

This chapter explores the previous work experience, reasons for leaving previous employment, and job search behaviour of both employed and unemployed respondents. This exploration is supplemented by an investigation into the activities of the unemployed, their availability for paid employment, and potential barriers to employment, such as the availability of transport. The research team was interested in exploring the attitudes and intentions of those respondents who described themselves as out-of-the-labour-force at the time of the survey.

7.2 Previous Work Experience

Table 7.1 presents the work experience of all respondents. Of the 698 currently working respondents 87% had previous work experience. 90% of those who had previous work experience had worked as wage or salary earners, only one worker had worked in unpaid work, with the remainder self employed. Just under 80% of all those currently working had previous full-time work experience and only 21% had worked as part-time workers. Of those who had had previous part-time work experience the majority (75%) had worked 20 or less hours per week. These factors suggest that it is easier to gain full-time employment when you are currently employed full-time, and that

previous work experience is valued highly by employers. Thus reinforcing the need for job related training and education for prospective employees.

Looking at the duration of previous work, one quarter of all the respondents had worked for less than 12 months in their previous job. Another 16% had worked less than two years. About one third had worked between 2-5 years, and the remainder (25%) had worked for more than five years. Therefore around 40% had been in their previous job for less than two years, while 60% had been in their previous job for more than 2 years. This ratio was remarkably similar to current employment patterns with just under 40% in their current job for less than 2 years and just over 60% in their current employment for more than 2 years. These trends suggest a relatively stable workforce and/or the importance of full-time paid employment to those employed.

However a potentially disturbing phenomenon is the proposition that with the importance of previous work experience in terms of employment chances, and a stable workforce, it is increasingly difficult for the young under-employed and under-qualified working age population in Waitakere to get work. This raises issues for school leavers of accessibility to the workforce in a limited job market, where they lack appropriate skills and experience.

Table 7.1 Labour Market Experience of All Respondents by Their Previous Work Experience in Waitakere		
Work Experience	N	%
Currently working with previous work experience	609	65
Currently working without previous work experience	89	10
Currently seeking work with previous work experience	21	2
Currently seeking work without previous work experience	7	1
Currently not in labour force but had previous work experience	64	7
Never in labour force and/or with missing information	147	16
Total(N)	937	100

7.3 Reasons for Leaving Previous Employment

Reasons for leaving previous employment by respondent's labour market status are summarised in Table 7.2. Overall 15.5% stated that they were dismissed or made redundant while 7% reported that they were at the end of temporary employment. 74% had resigned from their previous employment.

Reasons	Current Status in the Labour Market					
	Employed		Unemployed		Not in Labour Force	
	N	%*	N	%	N	%
Dismissed or redundant	92	15	4	19	11	18
End of temporary job	43	7	2	10	3	5
Retired	6	1			2	3
Resigned	452	75	15	71	44	73
Other	4	1				
Missing	12					
Total (N)	609	100	21	100	60	100

* Only valid percentages are reported

As resignation was the major reason for job termination in all categories, the reasons for resigning were examined in Table 7.3. Those who had resigned from their previous job were asked to state as many reasons as applicable for their resignation. Reasons for resigning differed by labour market status. If a respondent was employed he or she had varied reasons for resigning with "other" and/or "job conditions" topping the list. Among those who were no longer in the labour force, personal or family responsibilities dominate as the main reason for the resignation.

Reasons	Current Status in the Labour Market					
	Employed		Unemployed		Not in Labour Market	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Dissatisfied with job or conditions	152	34	3	20	5	11
Personal or family responsibilities	83	18	3	20	24	55
Own health or injury	26	6	1	6	3	7
Wanted to study	31	7				
Wanted to travel or holiday	24	5			2	5
Spouse transferred	4	1			1	
Wanted to live somewhere else	49	11	2	13	5	11
Other	191	42	2	13	10	23
Total (N)*	452		15		44	

* There were 452 respondents currently employed but had resigned from the previous job. They were asked to state as many reasons as applicable for their resignation. Hence the total may not add up to sample size and 100 percent

Those respondents who had resigned from their previous work were further asked if their decision to resign was influenced by their household circumstances. Of the currently employed respondents who stated that they were influenced in their decision to resign by their household circumstances, 37% gave family responsibilities as the main reason, compared to 67% of those no longer in the labour market. Of those no longer in the labour market, job related factors did not feature as a reason for resignation. It would seem that when people drop out of the labour market it is most often for family reasons or responsibilities. It is also apparent that job conditions or job related reasons have very little influence on the decision to leave the labour force. This would tend to reinforce the contention [above] that those employed are holding on to their jobs in a limited job market and will only exit for reasons outside of the work environment, whereas those who resign for job related reasons are likely to be moving to other employment. As might be expected the reasons for resigning amongst those still employed are many and varied.

Table 7.4 Household Circumstances At the Time of Resignation by Current Labour Market Status in Waitakere						
Household Circumstances	Current Labour Market Status					
	Employed		Unemployed		Not in Labour Market	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Family Responsibilities	66	37	5	50	26	67
Economic Reasons	15	8			7	18
Job Related Reasons	59	33	2	20	0	0
Other Family and Personal Reasons	39	22	3	30	6	15
Total (N)	179	100	10	100	39	100

The responses were then differentiated by ethnicity and gender as in table 7.5. There were no significant differences when related to ethnicity. Of those who gave household circumstances as their reason for resignation, 62% were female and 38% male. Half of the women resigned due to family responsibilities, whereas half of the men gave job related reasons influencing their household circumstances as their reason for resigning. The motivation to change jobs for women is heavily influenced by household and family circumstances, whereas for men (even when they regard their household circumstances as having influenced their decision to resign) they still see their job as the focus of their tension. This suggests that the genders see the interface between the home and workplace differently, with men perhaps prioritising work commitments over home commitments, and women juggling household and family circumstances with work commitments. This reinforces the notion that women, having entered the workforce in greater numbers in recent times, are still shouldering the lions share of family responsibilities.

Household Circumstances	Gender				Ethnicity					
	Male		Female		Maori		Pakeha		Other	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Family Responsibilities	9	13	57	51	6	32	53	37	7	39
Economic Reasons	7	10	8	7	2	11	13	9	0	0
Job Related Reasons	34	50	25	23	8	42	46	33	5	28
Other Family and Personal Reasons	18	26	21	19	3	16	30	21	6	33
Total (N)	68	100	111	100	19	100	142	100	18	100

7.4 Job Search Behaviour

This section discusses job search activities undertaken by those currently in the labour force. That is, those respondents who were employed as well as those registered as unemployed.

The most popular job search activities among those who were working at the time of the survey were job advertisements (50%), writing, phoning, or visiting employers (39%), and contacting families and friends (27%). Only 16% had contacted a private employment agency while 14% had contacted the Department of Labour Employment Services. Another 12% stated that their current job was offered to them. (Note that respondents were able to give more than one strategy).

Job Search Activities	N*	%*
Looked at job advertisements	353	50
Written, phoned, or visited employer	272	39
Contacted a private employment agency	109	16
Contacted the Dept. Of Labour Emp. Services	96	14
Placed an advertisement	16	2
Contacted friends and relatives	186	27
Taken steps to set up own business	81	12
Contacted career advisers	50	7
Anything else(job offered)	83	12
Total(N)	701	

* N and % columns do not total as respondents were asked to reply with all search activities used

Table 7.7 describes job search activities undertaken by the unemployed. Eight in ten unemployed people in Waitakere reported that they had looked at job advertisements; however only 46% stated that they had written, phoned, or visited prospective employers. A little over one third of the unemployed respondents stated that they had contacted family and friends in order to find work.

Job Search Activities	N	%
Looked at job advertisements	56	82
Written, phoned, or visited employer	31	46
Contacted a private employment agency	12	18
Contacted the Dept. Of Labour Emp. Services	11	16
Placed an advertisement	1	
Contacted friends and relatives	25	37
Taken steps to set up own business	2	
Contacted career advisers	7	10
Anything else(job offered)		
Total(N)	68	

Job search behaviour differed between employed and unemployed workers. Those already employed had a greater range of strategies for finding/creating work opportunities. The unemployed relied heavily on job advertisements (80%), writing, visiting or phoning an employer, or contacting friends and relatives, whereas those employed has less reliance on these strategies, picking up more job offers and taking steps to set up their own businesses. One of the explanations for these differences (as suggested in the international literature) identifies employed workers as having greater networking opportunities and as a result, greater access to jobs that never make it to the classifieds or job market.

Richard Nelson Bolles (1996) lists want ads (job advertisements) and employment agencies as two of the least effective ways of getting a job with success rates of between 5% and 25% (meaning for every 100 people using these strategies, as few as 5 will gain employment). He lists “approaching an

employer in person” as much more effective with a success rate of 46% (for every 100 people using this strategy 46 will gain employment). This may place those who are unemployed at a greater disadvantage. Not having a wide network of contacts for access to prospective employers, less confidence to approach an employer in person, and using low chance strategies (such as replying to newspaper advertisements, writing or phoning prospective employers) may reduce the chances of the unemployed competing for jobs in a limited market.

7.5 Characteristics of Those Not in the Labour Force.

In this section, the characteristics as well as the activities of those respondents who were not in the labour force at the time of the survey are described.

Those who were not in the labour force were asked about their main activities during the week of the interview. The responses are summarised in Table 7.8. Two thirds of respondents were either looking after children or studying. A further 11% had retired. Only 7% of respondents did not list studying or home related activities as their main activity.

Table 7.8 Main Activities Undertaken by Respondents Not In The Labour Force During the Week of the Survey in Waitakere		
Activities	N	Percentage*
Studying	43	27
Retired	18	11
At home looking after children	65	41
At home not looking after children	20	13
Doing something else	12	7
No Response	10	
Total(N)	168	100

* Percentage may not add up to 100% due to rounding

When asked about their availability for paid employment, 28% said they were available while 68% were not available. No gender or ethnic differences were noted in these responses.

Availability	N	Percentage
Yes	46	28
No	111	68
Don't know	2	1
Depends	4	3
No Response	5	
Total(N)	168	100

Apart from the obvious reasons for not seeking paid employment (such as household and/or childcare responsibilities and/or study) 8% of respondents said that they did not need to work, while 32% stated they did not have access to transport. One can reasonably assume that those who were available for work (28%) but counted themselves as out of the labour force were largely the same respondents who were without transport.

7.6 Key Issues

Previous work experience is highly valued by employers thereby reinforcing the need for job related training and education for prospective employees. With the importance of previous work experience, and a stable workforce in full-time positions, it is becoming increasingly difficult for young under-employed and under-qualified groups to enter the workforce. Furthermore, of those with previous part-time work experience the majority (75%) had worked 20 or less hours per week giving them limited job exposure.

Resignation was the major reason for leaving previous employment. Among those who had resigned and left the labour market, family responsibilities dominate as the main reason for resigning. The motivation to change jobs for women is heavily influenced by household and family circumstances whereas men are more likely to prioritise work commitments over home commitments. Women are more likely to try and juggle work and family commitments and leave the paid workforce for those reasons.

Job search behaviour differed between employed and unemployed workers. Those already employed had a greater range of strategies for finding and creating work opportunities. The unemployed may be disadvantaged in job search outcomes through having a smaller network of contacts for access to prospective employers, less confidence to approach an employer in person, and using low chance strategies such as replying to newspaper advertisements, and writing or phoning prospective employers. They may also lack relevant work experience, especially if they are young.

These difficulties are compounded for the unemployed if they are not well trained or have limited school qualifications. It is a situation that is exacerbated by the tendency for employers to contract out training programs and human resource functions. Employment agencies in the main are concerned with matching client skills to job descriptions and are less inclined to “take a chance” on someone that does not have the appropriate skills. Employers are less willing to commit resources to training and development in an environment characterised by part-time, casual or contract work. All of these factors add up to the need for job-related training or job-specific education for prospective employees. However a combination of formal education and job-specific training has the best outcome in employment terms of any educational category emphasising the need for both.

When asked about the reasons for not seeking paid employment, 32% of respondents said that access to transport was a problem. It is a problem that is compounded by the lack of public transport both within Waitakere and between the city and other destinations in the Auckland region where nearly 60% of Waitakere’s workforce is employed. Transport is consistently identified as a major barrier to employment in a city where 9% of households do not own a private car and at least one adult in 25% of households does not have access to a car during the day.

The combination of factors such as an underemployed and unemployed youth cohort, high rates of part-time and service sector work, a heavy reliance on private transport to access employment and the lack of full-time employment

opportunities and apprenticeships, is likely to be of major concern to labour market analysts in Waitakere. These factors combined far outweigh any public perception of 'reluctance' to work among those who are currently unemployed (or underemployed) and seeking full-time work. Likewise, the job search behaviour of applicants and especially the importance of informal and formal institutions in mediating access to employment have emerged as issues requiring further investigation.

CHAPTER 8 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Summary and Key Issues

The regional reports generated by the labour market programme (*Labour Market Dynamics and Economic Participation*) are designed to explain how the labour market functions at a regional level with particular emphasis on the interface between individuals in households and paid employment. These reports examine how individuals in households make decisions about access to, and participation in, the labour market, and in this examination due emphasis is placed on the 'life cycle' of the household. By linking life events and work histories to the dynamics of the 'regional' labour market, the research team aims to record the extremely complex set of interactions that govern relations between individuals in households and between households and the labour market.

The general report on Waitakere summarises the household survey which was designed to provide a 'snapshot' of the labour market with subsequent reports focussing on labour market transitions and employment barriers and opportunities. Although the focus of this report is on Waitakere City (and in that sense it focuses on a sub-regional labour market) the city is inextricably linked to the history and dynamics of the Auckland region. The influence of the region is evident in the rapid growth of the population over recent years and the concomitant pressure this growth has exerted on the availability of land in West Auckland. As a consequence wine-growers have become wine-makers and orchards have been converted to residential developments. The profile of industry has also changed across the region with traditional strengths in manufacturing declining while service sector industries have been expanding. That said, manufacturing still remains one of the most important employers in Waitakere and should not be underestimated for its contribution to the provision of paid employment.

Another regional dynamic to surface in the context of this report is the residential profile of Waitakere and the availability of city based employment. Waitakere has always been a dormitory suburb supplying workers for the regional labour market, with nearly 60% of the labour force commuting to other parts of the Auckland region during the week. The Waitakere City Council has set its sights on reversing this trend and although it is an issue that will be examined in subsequent reports, it is clear that the policy objective to date has had very limited success. In the context of the current report, it is the related issue of transport that has emerged as a major barrier to employment.

Apart from identifying the regional context as a key determinant of employment in Waitakere, the household survey has focussed on individuals and families in order to secure information on the labour market behaviour of individuals. At the same time the study has sought to identify those household characteristics that shape economic participation, with the first set of factors to be considered focussing on demographic trends and transitions.

Demographic trends and transitions

Demographic trends in Waitakere are dominated by a rapidly increasing population, by the youthful profile of the City, and by the changing characteristics of the paid workforce. As the fastest growing city in New Zealand, Waitakere has been expanded by both domestic and international migration and by a natural increase to the population generated largely because of the 'family' structure of the city and its youthful constituents. Forty percent (40%) of Waitakere residents are under the age of 25 and nearly a third are under the age of 20. As the population is expanding so the ethnic composition of the city is changing. Pakeha/Europeans as a percentage of the population have declined by over 10% since 1991 and at the same time Maori and Pacific populations are increasing both in real and percentage terms. Waitakere's youthful profile is exemplified by its Maori and Pacific populations. Whereas the median age for the total Waitakere population is 30.6 years, for Maori and Pacific communities the median age is 24 years.

The demographic profile of 'the family' is also changing and while some of these changes, such as delayed marriage and parenting, along with a significant increase in single-parent households reflect national trends, these trends (and in particular the Waitakere version of these trends) need to be carefully interpreted. Although the number of sole-parent families is increasing, the Waitakere rate of sole-parent households is well below regional and national figures. One of the reasons for this is the number of extended family households in Waitakere – the City ratio is almost double the national rate. Many single parents have been absorbed within extended family structures with these initiatives reflecting the adaptive capacities of families and households as they respond to economic pressures and labour market realities. Although Pakeha/European households tend to resemble the traditional 'nuclear family', Maori and Pacific families generally have a higher level of occupancy and a higher percentage of extended family arrangements.

Similarly, the significant number of households without children as identified in this study reflect a national trend toward increasing numbers of non-parenting households, but this is a short-term phenomenon created by a peculiar conjunction in the life cycle of the community. It represents a time in which the delayed parenting of younger couples coincide with the early childbearing of their parents resulting in what has been referred to as 'the demographic squeeze' (Shirley et al, 1997). While the immediate outcome is a significant number of households without children, that trend is not likely to continue and as a consequence the high number of non-parenting households will decline.

Households and the labour market

When these demographic characteristics are related to labour market trends in Waitakere, a number of issues emerge with these issues dominated by factors such as gender, age and ethnicity. Changes in household composition where women are opting out of having children altogether, having children later, or caring for children and supporting the family income at the same time, are all occurring at the interface between the economic and social needs of the

household and demand factors in both the local and regional labour markets. For women, household responsibilities have to be juggled with career and income considerations and as this study reveals, the motivation to change jobs for women is heavily influenced by household and family circumstances. It is not surprising therefore to find women dominating service sector jobs and part-time positions. The overall ratio of full-time to part-time work as identified in this survey was approximately 3:1 with women dominating part-time work. Women were twice as likely to be in professional and sales/service occupations, and four times as likely to be in clerical occupations, whereas men completely dominated trades and were almost twice as likely as women to hold administrative positions.

When it comes to household income, the labour market survey endorses recent census interpretations which show that Waitakere has moved from being a low-middle income city to a middle income city. These broad changes in household income generally reflect national and regional trends, but they also disguise significant disparities within the city. Although there is some evidence to show that the personal income position for some sectors of the Maori community has improved over the past 10 years, the household incomes of Maori are still well behind their Pakeha counterparts. Thirty-four percent (34%) of Maori households had total household incomes of less than \$30,000 compared to 16% of Pakeha households. At the same time, a general increase in the number of working parents is evident, indicating that households with children have come under increasing economic pressures. The factors that have led to the increasing economic pressures on households include: the earning capacity of the household and the ability of wage-earners to meet their financial commitments, especially the costs of raising children; the availability of child care and pre-school facilities and the cost of these facilities relative to any gains from employment; mortgage repayments and in the case of those renting accommodation the level of market rentals; transport costs and proximity to paid work. There is substantial evidence to show that parents are finding it difficult to survive on a single wage (especially when more than one child is involved) and as a consequence trade-offs are frequently made on the basis of family circumstances and economic realities. Either female

participation rates go up (as is evident when there is more than one child in a family) or resources are pooled leading to the formation of larger households with additional adult members contributing to the household income.

Age is also a significant factor when related to economic participation. The young are underemployed and unemployed when compared with other cohorts and this is graphically illustrated by 15 to 19 year olds in this survey with an unemployment rate of 30%. Both males and females in the younger age group (15-19) were more likely to be employed part-time than full-time, but the female part-time rate of 73% was much higher than the male rate. Sixty percent (60%) of the women in this group working part-time were employed for less than 20 hours per week. The significance of 'age' in terms of labour market access becomes even more potent when related to ethnicity. While Maori and Pacific people currently comprise 25% of the Waitakere population, in the 0-5 age group they constitute 35% of the population, which is a ratio of more than one in three. As this cohort moves through the life cycle it will inevitably create major dilemmas for school leavers, for employers, and for industry training providers.

As far as labour market participation was concerned, more women than men were in paid employment as wage and salary earners, whereas men were twice as likely to be self-employed. By combining factors such as employment status and type, hours worked and occupational structure, the survey revealed that married respondents were working longer and had a higher earning capacity than their unmarried or previously married counterparts. However, the participation rates of married and unmarried couples with children appeared to be similar. Male and female labour force participation rates (as well as combined rates) were higher in this survey than either national rates or the Waitakere rate recorded at the time of the 1996 census. Both the highest and lowest labour force participation rates were recorded among Maori with Maori men having the highest participation rate while Maori women had one of the lowest rates. Pacific groups registered participation rates that closely resembled the rate for Maori women.

Issues affecting the labour supply

Apart from those factors that have already been addressed in this report (aimed as it is at exploring the relationship between households and the labour market) three additional issues stand out as being critical to the labour supply in Waitakere. The first is education and training. The most important factor in increasing employment opportunities is education, with ‘training’ a better predictor of labour market participation than school qualifications. Those with both school qualifications and some form of post-school training are more likely to be employed – those without qualifications are more likely to be unemployed. Of those identified as unemployed in this survey, 50% had no qualifications and a further 13% had less than three School Certificate passes. Moreover, those with no school qualifications dramatically increase their chances of being employed by engaging in some form of training, such as industry training or apprenticeships. If education and training options are as significant to labour market participation as this report suggests, then there is likely to be some concern within Waitakere at the large number of secondary students travelling to schools outside the city (nearly 30%) coupled with the fact that Waitakere does not have a single tertiary institution in the city.

The second issue that presents as a major obstacle to employment is transport. Of the unemployed respondents in this survey, 32% identified access to transport as a major problem. Nine percent of households in Waitakere do not own a car and at least one adult (in 25% of households) does not have access to a car during the week. Given the large number of Waitakere residents who commute to work outside the city (nearly 60%) coupled with the state of public transport (both in terms of access and cost) transport is clearly a barrier to employment opportunities. Those most affected are: women searching for paid work in order to supplement the household income; young people (especially the unemployed) seeking access to the labour market let alone exploring employment options; and those living in low income households. There are also implications for those wanting to improve their employment opportunities through education and training, given the need to travel outside the city in order to access tertiary education.

The third issue that affects the labour supply concerns those formal and informal institutions that facilitate access to paid employment. In this survey, the job search behaviour of the unemployed requiring 'personal action' was divided between contacting employers (46%) and contacting friends and relatives (37%). These preferences generally endorse a 1996 study by Bolles who maintains that pursuing work through the scanning of job advertisements and seeking the assistance of employment agencies are two of the *least effective* ways of getting a job. Bolles argues that approaching an employer is a much more effective strategy in terms of accessing paid work. More recently Brian Easton (1994) has argued that the informal networks available to those seeking work are a primary means of accessing a job. If these observations are accurate, then they suggest major implications for those households and groups who do not have employment networks or find themselves concentrated in the secondary labour market. Maori and Pacific groups come readily to mind but the notion of secondary labour markets has obvious implications for working class households and even for cities such as Waitakere and Manukau when compared with Rodney or the North Shore. Such comparisons are based on the proposition that middle class neighbourhoods and cities have greater clout when it comes to 'cultural capital'. This is an aspect of labour market participation that clearly warrants further examination.

Conclusion

Although most labour market studies in New Zealand are derived from macro-economic constructs and national surveys, the significance of this report is its contribution to a range of micro-level studies that focus on the dynamic interaction of households and the labour market. The intricate set of relations between individuals in households allows us to explore the actions and aspirations of individuals as well as the complex rules and practices that govern the *modus operandi* of the household. Similarly, the way in which households engage in *paid work* gives us the opportunity to understand how labour markets function at the local level. If these different sets of

relationships can be ‘captured’ and ‘controlled’ then it should be possible to identify those factors that either promote or impede economic participation.

That in essence is the purpose of the Labour Market Programme as a whole. The organisational behaviour of individuals in households is at the centre of the study, because these behaviours vary between different sectors of the population and they change over the life cycle of the household. Such changes are evident as partnerships are formed and dissolved and as new members of the household come and go. At the same time ‘the household’ does not exist in a vacuum. The neighbourhood, the labour market, the industrial system, and the broader patterns of economic and social development provide the context in which any examination of economic participation is conducted. This report merely represents the first stage in this process. Subsequent reports are designed to shed further light on these issues, on labour market transitions in particular, and on employment barriers and opportunities in general.

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