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The Employment Experiences of Permanent and Temporary Workers in a New Zealand Study of Young People

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PREFACE

The 'Pathways to Sustainable Employment' (PASE) project is a five year, FRST funded project which examines the impact of the increasing variability of employment pathways on both younger workers and employers. Over the life of the research a range of methodologies are being used to examine the way in which individuals understand and negotiate access to employment, and how employers obtain and manage labour, in an increasingly dynamic labour market. The key questions explored in the research centre on: the contribution of training and education to various employment outcomes and trajectories; the acquisition of skills; mobility and search techniques; the approach and behaviour of employers; the influence of social networks; and the planning and aspirations of individuals. Ultimately, the research will identify the opportunities and constraints experienced by individuals, employers and communities in a changing labour market.

The overarching aims of the project are to:

- explore the various ways in which 15-34 year olds understand pathways into employment and negotiate their own employment pathways;
- provide the research information through which tangible, relevant and user-oriented initiatives are generated both for the communities concerned and those agencies that have a policy responsibility in the area of employment;
- provide information on best strategies for achieving the economic goals of sustainable employment for younger people, through the meaningful participation in paid work leading to independent adulthood; and
- establish the extent to which there is an alignment between labour supply and demand, in relation to people within the chosen age cohorts.

The project has two major components. Objective 1 investigates supply-side employment issues, in particular the way in which younger people (15-34 year olds) understand and negotiate access to employment (see Dupuis; Inkson and McLaren, 2005/1; Dupuis and McLaren, 2006/1; Cunningham, Fitzgerald and Stevenson, 2005/3). Objective 2 has a demand-side focus concentrating on the strategies and expectations of employers in organising labour supply (see de Bruin, McLaren and Spoonley, 2005/2; Fitzgerald and McLaren, 2006/2). The data reported in this paper is drawn from a survey of 966 participants aged between 15 and 34 years domiciled in four regional areas in New Zealand. This survey provided the base-line data for Objective 1 (see Dupuis, Inkson and McLaren, 2005)

In this report, we investigate the labour market experiences of both full-time and part-time young New Zealanders between the ages of 15 and 34 in permanent and temporary employment relationships. This report is structured as follows. After the introduction and a brief comment on the methodology used for this part of the project, the remainder of the report compares and contrasts the employment experiences of permanent and temporary workers in our sample. Section 1 focuses on full-time workers and Section 2 on part-time workers.

INTRODUCTION

In the PASE research programme, we chose to focus on the employment pathways of young adults because they have entered and are entering the labour market when labour market conditions are very different from those of earlier decades (see Fenton and McDermott, 2006). A high degree of job changing is seen as a feature of the employment experiences of young people (Dupuis, Inkson and McLaren 2005; Fenton and McDermott, 2006) and researchers have found that the transition to work has altered and lengthened. Labour market dynamics have changed fundamentally and significantly reshaped working life with the post-Fordist growth of service economies which has frequently required companies to undertake economic restructuring, downsizing and reorganisation (Elman and O'Rand, 2002). In many parts of the Western World, the landscape of pathways to employment has changed. Demographically, women are delaying childbirth (OECD, 2002; Giele and Holst, 2004), family size is declining and the life span is lengthening (Larson, Wilson, Brown, Furstenberg and Verma, 2002). In addition, there is more extensive education and training, the transition to work has lengthened as has the growth of temporary employment contracts.

The growth of temporary work has been apparent in Australia and New Zealand over the last two decades. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) refers to 'temporary employment' as an umbrella term 'for all dependent employment of limited duration' (Tucker, 2002: 14). Just as Kalleberg and Schmidt (1996), in relation to contingency, emphasise the nature of the relationship rather than the work or tasks involved, Vosko (2000) adopts a similar focus in relation to temporary employment. She refers to the notion of the temporary employment relationship which can be thought of as applying to any role or job that is not regular, full-time with an ongoing employer-employee relationship.

While it is readily acknowledged that part-time and temporary forms of employment are not novel, what is new however, is that these working relationships are increasingly replacing full-time and permanent ones (Kalleberg and Schmidt, 1996). This growth is partly reflected in the expanding service economy and increasing employment of women. For instance, the New Zealand 2001 Census showed that 46.9 percent of the workforce was women and this was similar when disaggregated into ethnic groups (Eise and Bishop, 2003). The lack of statistics on temporary versus permanent employment relationships in New Zealand means that we do not have an accurate insight into our labour market dynamics making any assessment of underemployment and underutilisation of the skills unreliable. There is constant reference to our low rates of unemployment but given that anyone employed for one hour or more in the week (Statistics New Zealand) is counted as employed makes this a misleading statistic.

Unlike New Zealand, almost all other OECD countries collect statistics differentiating between temporary and permanent employment. Within the OECD, temporary employment has grown in most member nations over the last 20 years but this varies country by country. For example, in Spain, one out of every three jobs is temporary, whereas in Luxembourg and the USA, fewer than one in twenty are temporary (OECD, 2002:130). According to Burchell (2002:62), the main reason for this is that in the USA, permanent workers have so little protection that employers can dismiss them easily whereas in Spain, for example, there is such strong protection from dismissals and redundancy that employers avoid employing people permanently.

France is an interesting study in the volatility of employment relationships. At the time of writing this report, the French government is considering a proposal that would enable employers to lay off young workers aged under 26 within the first two years of their employment with no real justification and little notice (Bennhold, 2006). Consequently, thousands of French university students and trade unionists took to the streets in a campaign to force the government to reconsider this proposal. Advocates of this scheme claim it would reduce France's chronic youth unemployment which stood at 23 percent in December 2005 – twice the national level of 9.5 percent. The justification was for policy makers to focus on getting those unemployed into work rather than protecting those already in employment. However, opponents say that the new employment contracts will entrench job insecurity. Instead, economists have recommended that more flexible contracts should apply to everyone (Bennhold, 2006).

This scenario is just one that emphasises a current argument (see for example Beck, 2000; Bauman, 2005) that contemporary labour markets in the more developed countries are characterised by the spread of temporary or insecure employment relationships and discontinuity. Beck has called this the Brazilianisation of labour markets which for thirty years or so after the second world war had been characterised by full employment. Beck's argument is that in a semi-industrialised economy such as Brazil, full-time waged or salaried permanent secure employment is only a reality for a minority of the economically active population (Furlong and Kelly, 2005). In Canada, Lowe (2001) reports that the standard job is now less common amongst youth than any other age cohort, although Felstead et al. (1997) point out that it is also becoming less common for older workers. Australia reflects a similar trend with the youth labour market increasingly characterised by casualisation (Riele, 2004; Tresize-Brown, 2005; Kellock, 2005). According to a 2005 Dusseldorp report, on average it is taking longer for a young person in Australia (as in most OECD countries) to make a successful transition to sustainable employment. Full-time jobs for Australian teenagers and young adults have declined by 15.2 percent since 1995 (Tresize-Brown, 2005). Moreover, despite a series of reforms introduced to education and transition services throughout the 1990s, the proportion of Australian youth not in full-time education or work has not changed, remaining around 15 percent (Dusseldorp, 2005). Furthermore, while most young people seem to eventually settle into a stable work pattern, the exceptions to this norm are increasingly numerous (Lowe, 2001).

The New Zealand context appears equally problematic since in the face of a healthy economy and falling total unemployment rates, youth unemployment remains disproportionately high. The Household Labour Force Survey (September 2006) showed that the youth unemployment rate sits at 13 percent for young people aged 15-19. The total unemployment rate, however, is 3.8 percent.

According to Debels (2005), temporary jobs can also be seen to allow for flexibility of the individual but she states that individual choice should not be overestimated because most temporary workers work this way out of necessity because they cannot find permanent employment.

Labour market dynamics are central to understanding modern states. An assumption is often made that there is an increase in insecurity and precariousness with the rise of non-permanent employment and the erosion of full-time permanent work (Beck, 2000) but others claim that the disadvantages of temporary jobs are often exaggerated (Martin et al., 2002). Marks (2005), analysing the Australian Youth Survey, concluded that casual and part-time employment is more of a 'stepping stone' than a 'dead-end'. Others, like Long (2004), are more pessimistic claiming that stable, long-term employment relationships are more resilient.

This aim of this report is to examine whether there is any relevance in the distinction between permanent and temporary work and whether the consequences of certain employment contracts make it a relevant distinction. In some instances, the distinction between temporary and permanent employment is contractual and not in any other aspect of the employment relationship. We investigate this in the report. It is also intended that this descriptive report encourages further discussion about the nature and incidence of temporary employment relationships in New Zealand.

METHODOLOGY

Data for the first survey of 966 participants were collected using two different approaches. First, a Computer Aided Telephone Interview (CATI) survey of a stratified sample of 866 people aged from 15 to 34 years was undertaken. The CATI survey for the first stage of Objective 1 was conducted by a professional Auckland-based research company. Prospective participants were initially contacted by random digit dialling in four selected geographical areas of New Zealand, and those meeting the study parameters (i.e. aged between 15 and 34) were invited to participate. All interviews were completed in June and July 2004.

Conducted separately, and using the same interview schedule, was a complementary piece of research, in which a further 100 Maori participants were surveyed. The sample chosen for the specific Maori component of this part of the research was drawn from an existing longitudinal study of Maori households: 'The Best Outcomes for Maori: Te Hoe Nuku Roa', being undertaken by the School of Maori Studies at Massey University (see Fitzgerald and Durie, 2000). The larger study from which our smaller sample was selected involves a representative stratified random sample of 650 Maori households, including some 2,000 Maori individuals, recruited from the Manawatu-Wanganui, Gisborne-East Coast, Auckland and Wellington regions. The sample of 100 Maori individuals for this project was randomly selected from across each regional cohort of 15 - 34 year olds. Initial contact and the subsequent interviews were conducted by trained Maori telephone interviewers. The results of these two surveys were collated and for the purposes of this report have been analysed as for one sample.

The key variable around which the CATI questionnaire was structured was current employment status. It was this element that directed participants to various parts of the questionnaire and allowed us to understand their employment experiences – current, past and future. For this report, only those young people who gave their 'main activity' as being in full-time or part-time employment were included. Consequently, the employment experiences of 340 permanent and 22 temporary **full-time** and 64 permanent and 41 temporary **part-time** workers are examined in this report. This makes up almost half (48.3 percent) of the initial sample of 966 15 to 34 year olds who described their main activity as full-time or part-time employment. We have not included those participants who perceived their main activity as something other than being in paid employment. Thus, we have omitted from consideration those participants whose main activity might have been studying or caring for children, but who were also in some form of employment. Nor does the report include the 31 young people in self-employment, as we have confined this analysis to those in 'dependent employment', temporary or permanent in nature.

SECTION ONE: FULL-TIME WORKERS

Introduction

The 362 respondents who were employed on a full-time basis were disaggregated from the full sample for the analysis undertaken for this section of the report. This sample is made up of 340 permanent workers and 22 workers on temporary employment contracts made up of casual, fixed-term, temporary agency and seasonal contracts. Table 1 shows the breakdown of types of temporary employment relationships of those in our sample. Almost half are fixed-term contracts followed by seasonal (27.3 percent) and casual (22.7 percent) contracts. Although the number of permanent workers in our sample was much greater than the number of temporary workers, it is interesting and valuable to compare their employment experiences. Given the dearth of New Zealand research and literature around the employment experiences of different groups of workers, this report offers an empirically-based starting point to that enquiry.

Table 1: Type of Temporary Employment Relationship

Type of contract	No	%
Casual	5	22.7
Fixed-term	10	45.5
Temporary agency	1	4.5
Seasonal	6	27.3
Total	22	100

Table 2: Age and Sex by Employment Relationship

Age group	Males				Female				Total			
	Permanent		Temporary		Permanent		Temporary		Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
15-19	13	54.2	2	50.0	11	45.8	2	50.0	24	100	4	100
20-24	37	46.3	6	85.7	43	53.8	1	14.3	80	100	7	100
25-29	40	38.8	3	42.9	63	61.2	4	57.1	103	100	7	100
30-34	68	51.5	1	25.0	65	48.9	3	75.0	133	100	4	100
Total	158	46.5	12	54.5	182	53.5	10	45.5	340	100	22	100

Our data indicate that over half (12 or 54.5 percent) of the young people in temporary full-time employment are males even though there were fewer males in the overall sample (42 percent as opposed to 58 percent females). This does not concur with the findings in much of the contemporary literature (see, Tucker, 2002; Brosnan and Walsh, 1996) where temporary employment is seen to be predominantly female in composition. Males constitute 46.5

percent of permanent workers in the sample, slightly higher than the percentage of males in the overall sample.

Table 3: Employment Preference

Preference	Employment preference			
	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Permanent	333	97.9	18	81.8
Temporary	7	2.1	4	18.2
Total	340	100	22	100

What did not surprise us was the overwhelming number of temporary workers (81.8 percent) who suggested that they would prefer permanent employment. For example, all seven of the plant and machine operators wanted permanent employment (see Table 6 for a breakdown of occupations). Those temporary workers who stated a preference for permanent work included one worker in a management role, a technician and a trades person. This finding confirms the data from the European Commission (cited in Debels, 2005:4) which showed that 80 percent of temporary workers in that study would have preferred permanent employment. By comparison, only 20 percent of part-time workers entered this arrangement involuntarily. In our study, this was higher with 56.1 percent of part-time temporary workers preferring temporary employment (see page 24). The latter is an interesting finding and highlights the potential under-reporting of underemployment in New Zealand where underemployment is measured as those working part-time hours who would prefer more hours. Furthermore, the number of temporary full-time workers wanting permanent employment indicates that there is a need to broaden the measures for underemployment to include, for example, temporary workers wanting permanent employment with all the benefits attached.

Demographics

Table 4: Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Employment status			
	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Pakeha/NZ European only	217	63.8	10	45.5
Maori only	42	12.4	5	22.7
Pacific Peoples only	31	9.1	2	9.1
East Asian only	10	2.9	1	4.5
South Asian only	12	3.5	2	9.1
MELAA	2	.6	-	-
miscellaneous	5	1.5	-	-
Maori/Pakeha	14	4.1	1	4.5
Pacific Peoples/Pakeha	6	1.8	-	-
Maori/Pacific Peoples	1	.3	1	4.5
Total	340	100	22	100

The ethnicity breakdowns support trends observed internationally (see Tucker, 2002) indicating that those in temporary employment are more likely to be ethnic minorities. Of the permanent workers in our study, 63.8 percent are New Zealand European/Pakeha as opposed to 45.5 percent in temporary work. Almost one-quarter (22.7 percent) of the temporary workers gave their ethnicity as Maori only, 13.6 Asian and 9.1 percent Pacific peoples.

A slightly larger percentage of temporary workers were not New Zealand-born (27.3 percent as opposed to 21.8 percent of permanent employees). This is a common finding in the literature (see Tucker, 2002) and our data confirms that temporary workers are more likely to be migrants than those born in New Zealand.

Permanent workers (50 percent) were far more likely to be legally married or living with a partner than were those in temporary employment relationships (27.3 percent). There was no difference in the number who had student loans – 27 percent of both groups. Again, both groups relied on wages and salaries as their main sources of income (100 percent of temporary workers and 99.4 percent of permanent ones).

Table 5: Annual Gross Income

Annual gross income	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
< \$10,000	4	1.2	-	-
\$10,000 and \$19,999	17	5.0	5	22.7
\$20,000 and \$20,999	53	15.6	5	22.7
\$30,000 and \$30,999	98	28.8	6	27.3
\$40,000 and \$40,999	69	20.3	2	9.1
\$50,000 and \$50,999	40	11.8	1	4.5
More than \$60,000	43	12.6	1	4.5
Refused/not answered	16	4.7	2	9.1
Total	340	100	22	100

In terms of income, however, there is a difference between the two groups. Forty-five percent of those with temporary employment contracts earned less than \$30,000 a year more than double the percentage of permanent employees (21.8 percent). Many other studies (for example, Tilly, 1992; Lane et al., 2001) have shown that temporary workers earn a lower hourly rate than their full-time counterparts. For example, Tilly (1992) found that in identical occupations and with the same personal characteristics, temporary workers in America earned an average of 10-15 percent less per hour and Segal and Sullivan (1998, in Lane et al., 2001) found a 15-20 percent wage differential. Lack of equivalence in employment benefits and pay was found in one of our previous studies on the working experiences of contingent, non-standard workers (McLaren et al., 2004). This lack of income equivalence should be one of the major policy concerns given the rising incidence of temporary contracts. This indicates that the distinction between permanent and temporary work is not always only contractual or legal in nature, but that the type of employment relationship may often result in unequal reward for the work done.

The Employment Experience

The following section examines the jobs held by participants at the time of the survey, time spent in those jobs and how they were acquired.

Table 6: Occupations by Employment Relationships

	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Legislators/admin/manager	33	9.7	2	9.1
Professionals	65	19.1	3	13.6
Technicians & associated professionals	50	14.7	2	9.1
Clerks	48	14.1	4	18.2
Service and sales	75	22.1	1	4.5
Agriculture and fisheries	5	1.5	1	4.5
Trades	45	13.2	1	4.5
Plant and machine operators	12	3.5	7	31.8
Elementary occupations	5	1.5	1	4.5
Missing data	2	.6	-	-
Total	340	100	22	100

The largest group of temporary workers are plant and machine operators (31.8 percent) followed by 18.2 percent clerks and 13.6 percent professionals. This profile is quite different from that of the permanent workers. Surprisingly, the largest group are in service and sales (22.1 percent) followed by 19.1 percent as professionals, 14.7 percent technicians and 14.1 percent working in clerical occupations. Only 3.5 percent are machine operators, an interesting finding given that currently plant and machine operators are one of the occupational categories experiencing high levels of skill shortages. McLaren and Spoonley (2005), in their study of employment and skills requirements of employers in nine industries in Waitakere City, found that there was a severe shortage of machine operators such as bus and truck drivers in the Auckland region. Several employers mentioned a shortage of 5,000 drivers. Yet seven of the full-time workers in this category are on temporary contracts. This supports evidence of the shift that has occurred in the early 1990s from temporary work generally found in so-called lesser skilled roles to across the occupational spectrum. Several commentators (see, for example, Feingold et al., 2005) suggest that this has occurred as firms have moved away from traditional full-time and long term employment towards the use of more flexible employment arrangements and the growth in part-time workers and independent contractors.

Table 7: Industry by Employment Relationship

	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Agriculture, forest, fisheries	7	2.1	2	9.1
Manufacturing	37	10.9	6	27.3
Electricity, gas & water supply	8	2.4	1	4.5
Construction	31	9.1	1	4.5
Wholesale trade	6	1.8	1	4.5
Retail trade	36	10.6	3	13.6
Accommodation, cafes & restaurants	19	5.6	-	-
Transport & storage	13	3.8	-	-
Communication services	19	5.6	-	-
Finance & insurance	27	7.9	-	-
Property & business services	14	4.1	1	4.5
Government, admin & defence	20	5.9	2	9.1
Education	47	13.8	4	18.2
Health & community services	20	5.9	-	-
Cultural & recreational services	4	1.2	-	-
Personal & other services	14	4.1	-	-
IT (industry not specified)	17	5.0	-	-
Missing	1	.3	1	4.5
Total	340	100	22	100

Over one-quarter (27.3 percent) of the temporary workers are employed in the manufacturing sector – the largest group in this study. This is followed by 13.6 percent in the retail trade. None of the participants in temporary work reported working in the accommodation, café and restaurant sector. The permanent workers were more evenly represented across the industry sectors. This is probably due to the much larger sample in this group. The largest group in this sample work in education (13.8 percent) followed by 10.9 percent in manufacturing and 10.6 percent in the retail trade.

Combining the permanent and temporary full-time workers in our sample, 5.8 percent worked in more than job.

Table 8: Length in Current Job

	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
< 6 months	42	12.4	8	36.4
6 months to < than 1 year	33	9.7	3	13.6
1 year to < 2 years	61	17.9	4	18.2
2 years to < 3 years	47	13.8	3	13.6
3 years to < 4years	45	13.2	-	-
4 years to < 5 years	23	6.8	1	4.5
Over 5 years	88	25.9	3	13.6
missing	1	.3	-	-
Total	340	100	22	100

Half the temporary workers had been in their jobs for less than a year as opposed to 22.1 percent of permanent workers. What is interesting to note, however, is that half those on temporary employment contracts had been in their jobs for over a year with just under a third (31.7 percent) in their jobs for over two years. This finding confirms a trend we found and reported on in an earlier survey of 32 men and women in contingent working arrangements (McLaren et al, 2004). Despite the very tenuous nature of their employment on a day-to-day basis, almost two-thirds of the people we interviewed had been in their current jobs for over a year and nearly one-third had been in the same role for over two years. The size of the latter group in both surveys highlights the trend that this is becoming an increasingly common way of working and points to the growing phenomenon of 'permanent casuals' that is posing challenges for central government policy makers in Australia (see Owens, 2001). At one extreme in our earlier study, a couple of participants had maintained this form of non-standard employment for over 14 years. In the current survey, three people reported being in the same job for 5 years or more. Evidence in Europe indicates that the majority of the temporary workers have considerable continuity of employment (OECD, 2002). In Australia, Wooden (1999, cited in Watts, 2001) estimates that the average job tenure for casual (adult) employees is almost four years.

Table 9: Intentions regarding future work

Working in 2-years time	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	319	93.8	20	90.9
No	9	2.6	2	9.1
Don't know	12	3.5	-	-
Total	340	100	22	100

Table 9 shows the responses to questions that asked participants about their working lives two years from the time of the survey. Nearly 94 percent of the full-time sample indicated that they would be working in two-years time and

of those, just over one-third (34.6 percent) suggested that they plan to start their own businesses.

Table 10: Why Current Work is Chosen

Why work chosen	Permanent (n=335)		Temporary (n=22)	
	No.	% of cases	No.	% of cases
Financial reasons	51	15.2	7	31.8
Interesting / nature of work / ambition / fun	128	38.2	7	31.8
Suited qualifications / experience	58	17.3	2	9.1
Came along / fell into / available	27	8.1	1	4.5
Convenient	14	4.2	-	-
Flexible / lifestyle	15	4.5	-	-
No other options	11	3.3	1	4.5
Good opportunity	24	7.2	4	18.2
Social aspect / people	16	4.8	1	4.5
Gain experience / learn skills	5	1.5	-	-
Undemanding nature of job	4	1.2	-	-
Was asked / headhunted	13	3.9	1	4.5
Contacts	14	4.2	-	-
Needed a job	12	3.6	1	4.5
Family business / tradition / influence	9	2.7	4	18.2
Got sick of last job / change	10	3.0	-	-
Good conditions / company	12	3.6	-	-
Challenge	23	6.9	-	-
Something to do	2	.6	1	4.5
Not sure / don't know	3	.9	-	-
Satisfaction / achievement	8	2.4	-	-
Security	4	1.2	-	-
Other	4	.9	-	-
Total	469		30	

Almost one-third (31.8 percent) of the temporary workers chose their jobs for financial reasons as opposed to about half that percentage of those in permanent work (15.1 percent). Similar numbers in the two samples chose their work for the interest it held. Temporary workers were more inclined to suggest the good opportunity their jobs provided and for permanent workers it suited their qualifications and experience.

Table 11: How Current Job Obtained

How Job was Obtained	Permanent (n=340)		Temporary (n=22)	
	No.	% of cases	No.	% of cases
Through job advertisements	100	29.4	4	18.2
Through friends or other contacts	73	21.5	4	18.2
Through relatives	24	6.7	8	36.4
Wrote, phoned or applied in person to an employer	44	12.9	1	4.5
Through an employment agency	36	10.6	3	13.6
Invited to apply	22	6.5	-	-
Started with the employer on a job placement or training scheme	12	3.5	-	-
Through WINZ	7	2.1	-	-
Internet search	8	2.4	2	9.1
Became self-employed	3	.9	-	-
Through school	1	.3	-	-
Worked there while studying	5	1.5	-	-
Other	9	2.6	-	-
Don't know	1	.3	1	4.5
Did a temporary job for the employer and it was made permanent	3	.9	1	4.5
Recruitment drives (tertiary, army)	4	1.2	-	-
Worked there previously / promoted	7	2.1	-	-
Through volunteer work	1	.3	-	-
Total	360		24	

Job procurement differed between temporary and permanent workers. Whereas those workers who had permanent employment most commonly gained their jobs through advertisements (29.4 percent) and friends or other contacts (21.5 percent), temporary workers relied most heavily on family (36.4 percent) to gain employment. Arguably, this may lead to restricted ambition, predominantly among those whose parents' occupations confine them to lower socio-economic strata (see Dupuis et al, 2004). Particularly in the early steps along the pathway, parents' social capital is more important to young people than their own. Parents' networks may be restricted or 'dense'. Although we cannot make any generalisations from our data, it is interesting to note that those in our sample on temporary employment contracts relied more heavily on friends and relatives than did those in more advantageous permanent roles.

Employability

The following section examines education and training of our participants. The preliminary analysis of a qualitative follow up for a percentage of the survey sample suggests that increasingly, young people perceive diverse experiences and ongoing training opportunities as critical to their long-term success in the labour market. Employability, skills or individual assets are increasingly being seen as necessary to ensure continuous employment, particularly in the changing world of work with less secure employment relationships (Houston, 2005). So, to be employable, importance is given to emphasising skill-based solutions to economic competition (McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005: 202).

The younger people in our survey are more educated than the national population. While temporary employees are slightly more likely to be less educated, even among temporary workers half the sample had tertiary qualifications.

Table 12: Highest Qualifications

Highest Qualification	Permanent		Temporary		% Total pop. ¹
	No.	%	No.	%	
No qualifications	26	7.6	3	13.6	19.7
SC (or *NC Level 1)	33	9.7	1	4.5	13.1
Sixth Form Certificate (or *NC Level 2)/ UE/ NZ **HSC or ***HLC/Bursary/Scholarship	80	23.5	5	22.7	23.8
Total School	113	33.2	6	27.3	36.9
Trade certificate/ Polytechnic diploma/teaching diplomas	81	23.8	6	27.3	23.5
Bachelors degree	90	26.5	5	22.7	10.6
Postgraduate qualification	26	7.6	-	-	2.6
Total tertiary qualification	197	57.9	11	50.0	36.7
Other (includes post school qualifications not specified in HLFS)	4	1.2	2	9.1	5.4
Total	340	100	22	100	100

There is an interesting distinction between permanent and temporary workers when current study is examined. Whereas one-fifth of permanent workers are currently studying, only one person working in a temporary role is doing further study. However, Table 13 gives a different profile and indicates the strong interest temporary workers have in studying in the future.

¹ Statistics New Zealand (2005), Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS), National Population Estimates: March 2005 Quarter

Table 13: Planning Further Study

Planning further study	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	222	65.3	15	68.2
No	96	28.2	5	22.7
Don't know	22	6.5	2	9.1
Total	340	100	22	100

It is interesting to note that almost two-thirds (65.5 percent) of the permanent full-time workers and over two-thirds (68.2 percent) of temporary workers were planning on studying in the next two years suggesting that employees are very aware of the need to ensure ongoing employability which simply defined is the 'character or quality of being employable' or, according to the Confederation of British Industry, 'Employability is the possession by the individual of the qualities and competencies required to meet the changing needs of employers and customers and thereby help realise his or her aspirations and potential in work' (McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005: 199). For part-time workers, the intention to study further was even more pronounced (see table 31).

One interesting distinction between the two groups is that permanent full-time employees are more likely to be working in positions that are related to their studies than temporary workers are (67.4 percent compared with 45.4 percent). Perhaps this is because temporary workers are just that – and are waiting to find employment with permanent tenure that is better suited to their qualifications.

Australian research conducted by Tresize-Brown (2005) found that while external job training was a low priority for employers, both internal and external job training was a high priority for more than a third of the young workers in her sample. On-the-job training offered to our survey participants indicates that employers are offering to train people on the job. Almost two-thirds of the permanent workers and over half of the temporary employees received on-the-job training in their current jobs. Although temporary employees received less training than their permanent counterparts, the finding does, to an extent, counter one of the outcomes commonly reported on (see Worth, 2005) that temporary employment contracts mean that employers often do not offer on-the-job training because of the costs associated with this.

Table 14: On-the-job Training

Receive on-the-job training	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	220	64.7	12	54.5
No	120	35.3	10	45.5
Total	340	100	22	100

Furthermore, all those temporary workers receiving on-the-job training are satisfied with the training received, as were 93.6 percent of the permanent workers we interviewed.

Feelings about the job

To further determine whether there is any distinction between permanent and temporary employment experiences in our sample, we compare the feelings of satisfaction our participants expressed when talking about their current jobs.

Table 15: Satisfied with Job

Job satisfaction	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Satisfied	302	88.8	21	95.5
Neither	8	2.4	-	-
Dissatisfied	29	8.5	1	4.5
missing	1	.3	-	-
Total	340	100	22	100

We were very interested to find that only one of the temporary workers interviewed was unhappy with their jobs in spite of the finding that most of these workers wanted permanent employment. Furthermore, Table 16 shows that temporary workers were more satisfied with their jobs than the permanently employed people we interviewed. Not surprising, however, temporary workers felt less secure, (22.8 percent of temporary full-time workers saying they felt insecure compared with 3.6 percent of the permanent full-time workers).

Table 16: How Secure

Security	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Secure	315	92.6	17	77.2
Neither	7	2.1	-	-
Insecure	12	3.6	5	22.8
Don't know	6	1.8	-	-
Total	340	100	22	100

An interesting profile has emerged so far and one that we did not anticipate. Temporary workers on the whole were satisfied with their jobs, any on-the job training they received and over three-quarters felt secure in their current employment (77.2 percent) (see Figure 1). The only significant and unsurprising result is that they were less optimistic about future job prospects than their permanently employed counterparts with 36.4 percent of temporary full-time employees describing their job prospects in their current job as good, compared with 68.5 percent of permanent full-time employees. This supports findings of our previous reports on non-standard work and knowledge workers which suggest that temporary employees are secure in their knowledge of ongoing employability, but uncertain about their immediate future in their jobs (Firkin et al., 2004). The distinction between insecurity and uncertainty is an important one given changing employment relationships.

Table 17: Prospects in the Job

Prospects	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Good	233	68.5	8	36.4
Average	80	23.5	11	50.0
Poor	24	7.1	3	13.6
Don't know	3	.9	-	-
Total	340	100	22	100

Figure 1: Comparison between Job Satisfaction, Security and Job Prospects

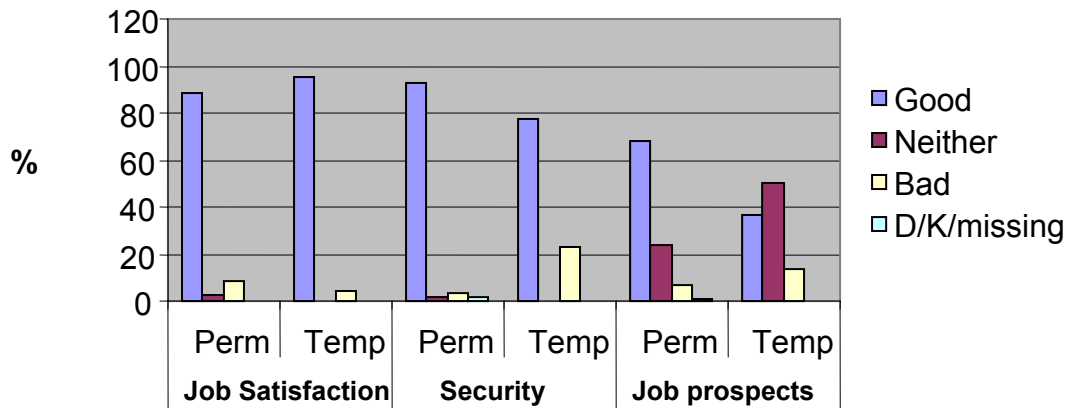


Table 18: Expect to Remain in Current Job

Expect to remain in job	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
< than 1 year	60	17.6	11	50.0
1-2 years	77	22.6	4	18.2
2 years or more	186	54.7	2	9.1
Don't know	17	5.0	5	22.7
Total	340	100	22	100

Given that the job prospects of temporary workers are fairly unclear, 22.7 percent could not comment on how long they thought they might remain in their current jobs, half thought they would be in their job for less than another year and 27.3 percent for one year or more.

Summary of Interesting Findings: Full-time Workers

- A larger percentage of males were in temporary (54.5) as opposed to permanent employment (46.5 percent)
- 82 percent of temporary workers would prefer permanent employment
- Temporary workers are more likely to be Maori or Asian migrants
- 45 percent of those on temporary contracts earned less than \$30,000 a year compared with only 21.8 percent of workers in permanent full-time employment
- The largest group of temporary workers in this sample are found in the manufacturing industry (27.3 percent)
- Half the temporary workers have been in their jobs for over a year
- Over one-third (36.4 percent) got their current jobs through relatives
- Only one is currently studying but almost three-quarters of the temporary workers and 72 percent of permanent full-time workers plan on further study
- Over half (54.5 percent) of the temporary workers are receiving on-the-job training and all are happy with the training they receive
- 95.5 percent of the temporary workers are satisfied with their jobs compared with 88.8 percent of permanent full-time employees in our study
- Over three-quarters of the temporary workers are secure in their jobs but only 36.4 percent are optimistic about future prospects in the job compared with over two-thirds of the permanent workers.

SECTION TWO: PART-TIME WORKERS

There were 105 young people who took part in the survey who identified their main activity as part-time employment. Of these, 64 were in permanent and 41 in temporary employment. Unlike the full-time workers, where the overwhelming preference was for permanent employment, among temporary part-time workers, over half (56.1 percent) preferred temporary employment and 96.9 percent of the permanent part-timers suggested that this was their preference. The majority of temporary workers were on a casual contract (58.5 percent) followed by fixed-term contracts (34.1 percent). Only two workers were on seasonal contracts and one working for a temporary help agency. However, two-thirds of temporary part-time workers and 46.9 percent of permanent part-timers said that they would prefer full-time employment if the 'right sort of work came along'. As a group, over half (52 percent) would have preferred full-time employment – a sign of underemployment as measured by Statistics New Zealand where a worker is considered to be underemployment if he/she is working fewer hours than desired thus reflecting an underutilisation of skills.

Almost half (48.8 percent) of the temporary part-timers suggested that they might start their own business in the future as opposed to only one-third of permanent part-time workers.

Table 19: Age and Gender by Employment Status

Age group	Males				Female				Total			
	Permanent		Temporary		Permanent		Temporary		Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
15-19	6	27.3	13	68.4	16	72.7	6	31.6	22	100	19	100
20-24	2	22.2	5	50.0	7	77.8	5	50.0	9	100	10	100
25-29	1	14.3	2	40.0	6	85.7	3	60.0	7	100	5	100
30-34	3	11.5	1	14.3	23	88.5	6	85.7	26	100	7	100
Total	12	18.8	21	51.2	52	81.3	20	48.8	64	100	41	100

The majority of the sample (72 of 105) in part-time employment was female. However, as with full-time employees in temporary employment, 63.6 percent of the males in part-time employment had temporary contracts yet only 27.7 percent of females in part-time employment were temporary employees. Again, this counters the finding in much of the literature (see, for example, Tucker, 2002) that temporary employment is dominated by females.

Table 20: Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Employment status			
	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Pakeha/NZ European only	43	67.2	21	51.2
Maori only	9	14.1	6	14.6
Pacific Peoples only	1	1.6	1	2.4
East Asian only	2	3.1	6	14.6
South Asian only	6	9.4	5	12.2
MELAA				
miscellaneous				
Maori/Pakeha	1	1.6		
Pacific Peoples/Pakeha	1	1.6	1	2.4
Maori/Pakeha/Pacific Peoples	1	1.6		
Maori/Pacific Peoples			1	2.4
Total	64	100	41	100

The ethnic breakdown of part-time temporary workers shows that fewer New Zealand European/Pakeha are in temporary employment (51.2 percent) compared with permanent work (67.2 percent) confirming the trend reported on in the previous section on full-time employment. There are over twice the number of Asians in temporary employment (26.8 percent) as in permanent part-time work (12.5) supporting the studies that show that migrants are more likely to be in temporary employment than New Zealand European/Pakeha. There were similar percentages of Maori in temporary and permanent employment.

As we found in the full-time profiles, there were more non-New Zealand born people in temporary jobs (65.9 percent) than there were in permanent employment (82.8 percent).

Table 21: Marital Status

Marital status	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Single	38	59.4	31	77.5
Legally married	17	26.6	7	17.5
De facto/living with partner	7	10.9	2	5
Separated	1	1.6		
Divorced	1	1.6		
Total	64	100	40	100

Temporary part-time workers in our sample tend to be single (77.5 percent) and 22.5 percent are legally married or in a relationship, while 27.5 have children in their households. Permanent part-timers, on the other hand, are more likely to be in a relationship (37.5 percent), 59.4 percent single and just over half (52.5 percent) have children living with them.

A larger percentage of temporary part-time workers (31.7 percent) have student loans than those with permanent contracts (21.9 percent).

Table 22: Main Source of Income

Main source of income	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Wages/salaries	52	81.3	28	68.3
Family/Whanau support	3	4.7	7	17.1
WINZ benefit	9	14.1	5	12.2
Total	64	100	41	100

Unlike the sample of full-time workers, the earnings of permanent and temporary part-time workers did not differ significantly in this sample although a higher proportion of the permanent part-timers relied on wages or salaries as their main source of income (81.3 percent).

Table 23: Annual Gross Income

Annual gross income	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
< \$10,000	24	37.5	18	43.9
\$10,000 and \$19,999	14	21.9	10	24.4
\$20,000 and \$20,999	12	18.8	6	14.6
\$30,000 and \$30,999	4	6.3	2	4.9
\$40,000 and \$40,999	4	6.3	-	-
\$50,000 and \$50,999	2	3.1	1	2.4
More than \$60,000	2	3.1	1	2.4
Refused/not answered	2	3.1	3	7.3
Total	64	100	41	100

The Employment Experience

Table 24 shows the extent to which the part-time workers in our sample were clustered in sales and service occupations (i.e. 51.5 percent of permanent part-time workers and 43.9 percent of temporary part-time workers). For temporary workers the next most common occupational categories were clerical (14.6 percent) and elementary occupations (14.3 percent). This is consistent with the growth in temporary staffing with the more general growth in service work across industrial economies (Feingold, et al., 2005). For permanent part-timers in our study, it is in professional (15.6 percent) and clerical (12.5 percent) occupations.

Table 24: Occupation

	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Legislators/admin/manager	2	3.1	1	2.4
Professionals	10	15.6	4	9.8
Technicians & associated professionals	4	6.3	3	7.3
Clerks	8	12.5	6	14.6
Service and sales	33	51.6	18	43.9
Agriculture and fisheries	-	-	-	-
Trades	1	1.6	3	7.3
Plant and machine operators	3	4.7	-	-
Elementary occupations	-	-	6	14.3
Missing data	3	4.7	-	-
Total	64	100	41	100

The profiles for industry groups were very similar and not unexpected as these are traditional industries in terms of employing part-time workers. Retail and the hospitality sectors were the most common employers of part-time workers.

Table 25: Industry

Industry	Permanent (n=64)		Temporary (n=41)	
	No.	%	No.	%
Agriculture, forest, fisheries	3	4.7	1	2.4
Manufacturing	2	3.1	3	7.3
Electricity, gas & water supply	-	-	-	-
Construction	3	4.7	4	9.8
Wholesale trade	3	4.7	-	-
Retail trade	19	29.7	7	17.1
Accommodation, cafes & restaurants	11	17.2	5	12.2
Transport & storage	1	1.6	2	4.9
Communication services	3	4.7	2	4.9
Finance & insurance	1	1.6	1	2.4
Property & business services	-	-	-	-
Government, admin & defence	-	-	-	-
Education	5	7.8	5	12.2
Health & community services	6	9.4	2	4.9
Cultural & recreational services	4	6.3	3	7.3
Personal & other services	3	4.7	4	9.8
IT (industry not specified)	-	-	2	4.9
Total	64	100	41	100

Table 26: Length in Current Job

	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
< 6 months	8	12.5	17	41.5
6 months to < than 1 year	9	14.1	6	14.6
1 year to < 2 years	18	28.1	7	17.1
2 years to < 3 years	10	15.6	5	12.2
3 years to < 4years	7	10.9	2	4.9
4 years to < 5 years	3	4.7	-	-
Over 5 years	9	14.1	1	2.4
missing	-	-	3	7.3
Total	64	100	41	100

The time spent in their current job also differs between permanent and temporary part-time employees. Over forty percent (41.5 percent) of temporary workers were in their jobs for less than six months as opposed to only 12.5 percent of the permanent part-timers. Seventeen percent of the temporary workers had been in their jobs for over a year and almost one-fifth (19.5 percent) for over two years. A higher percentage of temporary workers

were multiple job holders (12.2 percent) than permanent part-timers (7.8 percent).

Table 27: Reasons for Working Part-time

	Permanent (n=62)		Temporary (n=41)	
	No.	%	No.	%
Financial reason	24	38.1	24	58.5
Study	10	15.9	7	17.1
Way into permanent job	-	-	4	9.8
Childcare prevents full-time work	22	34.9	2	4.9
Lack of full-time/permanent jobs	3	4.8	2	4.9
Fits employer requirements	1	1.6	3	7.3
Aspects of job itself	4	6.3	-	-
To help family	2	3.2	2	4.9
Work experience	3	4.8	1	2.4
Fits with social life	1	1.6	1	2.4
Prefer part-time work	4	6.3	-	-
Something to do	2	3.2	-	-
Other	4	6.3	-	-
Total	80		46	

Well over half (58.5 percent) of the temporary part-time workers suggested that they were working part-time for financial reasons whereas only 38.1 percent of the permanent workers gave this as one of the reasons for working part-time. For this latter group, over a third (34.9 percent) suggested that childcare prevented full-time employment whereas only 4.9 percent of the temporary workers gave this as their reason for working part-time.

Table 28: Why Current Job Chosen

Why work chosen	Permanent (n=62)		Temporary (n=40)	
	No.	%	No.	%
Financial reasons	10	16.1	11	27.5
Interesting / nature of work / ambition / fun	13	21.0	8	20.0
Suited qualifications / experience	9	14.5	3	7.5
Came along / fell into / available	8	12.9	5	12.5
Convenient	11	17.7	-	-
Flexible / lifestyle	11	17.7	2	5.0
Good opportunity	2	3.2	-	-
Social aspect / people	3	4.8	4	10.0
Gain experience / learn skills	3	4.8	2	5.0
Undemanding nature of job	2	3.2	6	15.0
Was asked / headhunted	1	1.6	3	7.5
Contacts	1	1.6	5	12.5
Needed a job	2	3.2	2	5.0
Family business / tradition / influence	3	4.8	-	-
Good conditions / company	2	3.2	-	-
Something to do	1	1.6	1	2.5
Security	1	1.6	-	-
Through student programme	-	-	1	2.5
No other options	2	3.2	3	7.5
Total	85		60	

Responses to the question of why participants chose their current job also showed some clear differences. Of particular interest is the greater percentage of temporary part-time workers who had chosen the jobs they were in primarily for financial reasons (27.5 percent), the interesting, fulfilling nature of the work (20 percent), while for some it was the undemanding job content (15 percent) and others enjoyed the contacts and social aspects of the job. The profile was slightly different for the part-time workers on permanent employment contracts. Twenty-one percent had chosen the job because it was interesting and 17.7 percent because of the convenience and the same number because of lifestyle. Many of these would be parents combining child care and employment.

Table 29: How Current Job Chosen

	Permanent (n=64)		Temporary (n=41)	
	No.	%	No.	%
Through job advertisements	18	28.1	6	14.6
Through friends or other contacts	16	25.0	14	34.1
Through relatives	5	7.8	10	24.4
Wrote, phoned or applied in person to an employer	12	18.8	3	7.3
Through an employment agency	3	4.5	2	4.9
Invited to apply	2	3.1		
Started with the employer on a job placement or training scheme	-	-	2	4.9
Through WINZ	-	-	2	4.9
Internet search	2	3.1	2	4.9
Became self-employed	2	3.1	-	-
Worked there while studying	-	-	1	2.4
Through student job search	1	1.6	-	-
Other	1	1.6	-	-
Don't know	1	1.6	-	-
Did a temporary job for the employer and it was made permanent	1	1.6	1	2.4
Worked there previously / promoted	1	3.1	-	-
Total	66		43	

Once again, social capital played an important role in the job acquisition for over half (58.5 percent) of the temporary workers who were surveyed. This was less important as a job search tool for permanent workers (32.8 percent). Many in this group acquired their jobs through advertisements or contacting employers directly (46.9 percent).

Employability

It is interesting to note that the qualifications of those in temporary part-time employment are generally higher than the employees in permanent part-time employment. When compared with permanent employment, however, fewer part-time workers had tertiary qualifications (31.7 percent) than those working full-time (57.4 percent). This finding is supported by the results of the Bristol study (Fenton and McDermott, 2006) where 58 percent of women who were working full-time held degrees compared with 22 percent of those working part-time.

Table 30: Highest Qualifications

Highest Qualification	Permanent		Temporary		% Total pop. ²
	No.	%	No.	%	
No qualifications	10	15.6	5	12.2	19.7
SC (or *NC Level 1)	7	10.9	10	24.4	13.1
Sixth Form Certificate (or *NC Level 2)/ UE/ NZ **HSC or ***HLC/Bursary/Scholarship	25	39.7	12	29.3	23.8
Total School	32	50.6	27	53.5	36.9
Trade certificate/ Polytechnic diploma/teaching diplomas	6	9.4	3	7.3	23.5
Bachelors degree	10	15.6	9	22.0	10.6
Postgraduate qualification	3	4.7	2	4.9	2.6
Total tertiary qualification	19	29.7	14	34.2	36.7
Other (includes post school qualifications not specified in HLFS)	2	3.1	-	-	5.4
Total	63	100	41	100	100

A greater percentage of part-time workers (72.3 percent) were planning further study compared with 57.1 percent of the full-time workers. It is becoming increasingly evident that young people are very aware of the need to remain employable and to enhance employability which is seen as necessary to ensure ongoing life-time employment in the face of decreasing security offered by employers (Houston, 2005:221).

Table 31 : Planning Further Study

Planning further study	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	46	71.9	30	73.2
No	13	20.3	9	22.0
Don't know	5	7.8	2	4.9
Total	64	100	41	100

Similar numbers received on-the job training (59.4 percent of permanent and 56.1 percent of temporary part-timers) again refuting some of the suggestions that employers are generally reluctant to invest money in training temporary employees. Furthermore, most of those receiving training were satisfied with the training they had received.

² Statistics New Zealand (2005) Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS), National Population Estimates: March 2005 Quarter

Table 32: Satisfied with the Training

Satisfied with training	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	35	92.1	19	82.6
Neither	-	-	2	8.7
No	3	7.9	2	8.7
Total	38	100	23	100

For just over half of the permanent (53.1 percent) and a third (34.1 percent) of the temporary part-time workers found that their qualifications were relevant to the jobs they were doing. These percentages are lower than those of permanent employees we interviewed (67.4 percent permanent compared with 45.4 percent of temporary full-time workers).

Table 33: Relationship of Current Work to Qualifications

Qualifications related to work	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Related	34	53.1	14	34.1
Neither	3	4.7	4	9.8
Not related	27	42.2	23	56.1
Total	64	100	41	100

Feelings about the Job

Job satisfaction was once again high amongst the two groups of part-timers with temporary part-time workers only slightly less satisfied than their permanent part-time counterparts. Furthermore, the same proportion felt secure in their employment.

Table 34: Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Satisfied	59	92.1	34	82.9
Neither	-	-	4	9.8
Dissatisfied	5	7.9	3	7.3
Total	64	100	41	100

Table 35: How Secure in the Job

Security	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Secure	59	92.1	34	82.9
Neither	-	-	-	-
Insecure	5	7.9	7	17.1
Total	64	100	41	100

Table 36: Prospects in the Job

Prospects	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Good	34	53.1	17	41.5
Average	18	28.1	15	36.6
Poor	10	15.6	8	19.5
Don't know	2	3.1	1	2.4
Total	64	100	41	100

When asked about how good job prospects were, part-time workers were far less optimistic than their full-time counterparts. Less than half (41.5 percent) of the temporary workers, and slightly over half (53.1 percent) of the permanent part-timers, felt that their job prospects were good. As expected, the temporary workers did not make assumptions about ongoing employment with 61 percent expecting to remain in their jobs for less than one-year. Only one-quarter of permanent part-timers expected to remain in their jobs for less than one-year.

Table 37: Length of Time Expected to Remain in Current Job

Expect to remain in job	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
< than 1 year	16	25.0	25	61.0
1-2 years	17	26.6	10	24.4
2 years or more	27	42.2	4	9.8
Don't know	4	6.3	2	4.9
Total	64	100	41	100

Table 38: Working in 2-years Time?

Working in 2-years time	Permanent		Temporary	
	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	58	90.6	39	95.1
No	5	7.8	1	2.4
Don't know	1	1.6	1	2.4
Total	64	100	41	100

Interesting to note is that slightly more temporary workers (95.1 percent) aim to be employed in two years time than permanent part-timers (90.6 percent) and significantly more suggest that they might start their own businesses (48.8 percent as opposed to 33.3 percent).

Summary of Findings: Part-time Workers

- 56.1 percent of temporary part-time workers preferred that way of working although two-thirds would have preferred full-time employment if the right job came along
- 46.9 percent of the permanent part-timers would prefer full-time employment
- Almost half of the temporary workers suggested that they might start their own business in the future
- 63.6 percent of males working part-time were on temporary contracts
- There were over twice the proportion of Asian participants in temporary part-time employment than there were in permanent work
- Qualifications of those in temporary part-time employment were generally higher than employees in permanent part-time jobs
- Higher number of temporary part-time employees have student loans (31.7 percent) than those working in permanent part-time employment (21.9 percent)
- Unlike the full-time workers in our survey, the earnings of temporary and permanent part-timers did not differ significantly
- Higher percentage of temporary part-time workers held multiple jobs
- Social capital played an important role in the job acquisition of temporary part-time workers
- Almost three-quarters of the temporary and permanent part-time employees received on-the-job training
- Most were satisfied with that training
- Feelings of job satisfaction and security was high
- Part-time workers were less optimistic about job prospects than their full-time counterparts

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Recent sociological literature has focussed on the segmented nature of labour markets principally into so-called 'good' and 'bad' jobs. 'Good' jobs are characterised by security, permanent tenure and reasonable levels of pay, conditions and prospects of advancement. 'Bad jobs', on the other hand, are seen as insecure, not well remunerated with poor opportunities and limited advancement (see Beck, 1998 cited in Houston, 1995). Findings in our study have been mixed but do not support the stark contrasts often identified in the literature. Rather than simply seeing the labour market as divided into good and bad jobs, we take the position that there are many factors that affect the ability of individuals to remain employable and to ensure ongoing employment. McQuaid and Lindsay (2005:209-210) point to three types of factors: individual factors such as attributes, characteristics, qualifications and transferable skills; personal circumstances such as household circumstances, access to resources; and external factors such as labour market features.

The young people in our sample who are in so-called insecure, temporary 'bad jobs' reported on their attitudes to, and experiences of, employment in ways that did not generally support the scenario outlined by commentators like Beck, Bauman and Sennet. Focusing on full-time employment, we were surprised to find that a greater percentage of men worked in temporary employment relationships than did women, contrasting with the majority of overseas findings that temporary employment is generally female in composition. What did not surprise us, however, was that over 80 percent of full-time temporary workers would prefer permanent tenure. However, this did not detract from the enjoyment of their jobs (95.5 percent), or their feelings of security of employment (over three-quarters felt secure in their job). However, only just over one-third were optimistic about their job prospects. This could indicate that participants in our study who were in temporary employment were secure in their knowledge of ongoing employability yet uncertain about their future in their current job. This is an important distinction and one we found when we interviewed knowledge workers about working in non-standard ways (Firkin et al., 2003). Some support for our approach in relation to insecurity and uncertainty comes from other research (Kunda et al., 2002) where differences in how these ideas were conceptualised by those they interviewed were also highlighted. Kunda et al. noted that uncertainty was about workflows and security was about the ability to get another job or contract.

Skill development is an area that has received attention in the literature. Human capital theory predicts that companies are reluctant to invest in training for non-permanent staff member (Feingold et al., 2005). In a study of more than 4,000 temporary help agency workers, Feingold et al. (2005) found that less than one-quarter of the temporary workers interviewed took part in training. Our sample showed a different profile. Over half (54.5 percent) of the full-time temporary workers and 56.1 percent of part-time temporary employees were offered on-the-job training. Furthermore, levels of satisfaction with this training were high (100 percent and 82.6 percent respectively).

Perhaps the overall buoyant labour market experiences of the 366 people in our survey is partly because of the current external labour market in New Zealand and the severe skills shortages that have been experienced by employers in the last few years.³

It is difficult to estimate levels of temporary employment in New Zealand. Although we cannot make any generalisations from our study, it does show some interesting trends. Almost forty percent of the part-timers were on temporary employment contracts and 6.5 percent of the full-time workers. Of the 105 part-time workers in our study, 54.3 percent would prefer to work full-time and of the 22 temporary full-time workers, 81.8 percent would prefer permanent employment. Given these indications of potential under-employment, and the lack of statistics on temporary versus permanent employment, there is the ongoing need to convince Statistics New Zealand to widen the measure of labour market indicators to include and identify the different types of employment relationships. In the contemporary labour market, it is no longer sufficient to concentrate on full-time and part-time employment and unemployment only without having any indication of how secure this employment might be. It is important to know how significant the underutilisation of labour is by broadening such measures to get a better indication of labour market dynamics.

³ An August 2006 New Zealand Department of Labour *Skills in the Labour Market* survey found that 25 percent of the businesses surveyed had difficulties finding skilled staff, with 15 percent of the companies stating that an inadequate supply of labour was the main factor constraining the expansion of their business.

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