

Part-Time Opportunities for Professionals and Managers:

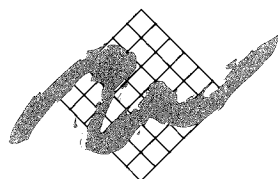
*Where Are They,
Who Uses Them and Why*

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The Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR) is a public policy research organization dedicated to informing and stimulating the debate on issues of critical importance to women and their families. IWPR focuses on issues of poverty and welfare, employment and earnings, work and family issues, the economic and social aspects of health care and domestic violence, and women's civic and political participation.

The Institute works with policymakers, scholars, and public interest groups around the country to design, execute, and disseminate research that illuminates economic and social policy issues affecting women and families, and to build a network of individuals and organizations that conduct and use women-oriented policy research. IWPR, an independent, nonprofit organization, also works in affiliation with the graduate programs in public policy and women's studies at The George Washington University.

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About this Report

Part-Time Opportunities for Professionals and Managers: Where Are They, Who Uses Them and Why reports on a three-year IWPR research project undertaken to assess reduced-time opportunities for professionals and managers throughout the economy. The research was supported by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation as part of a series of projects on alternative work arrangements conducted by researchers across the country. An institutional support grant from the John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation assisted in the publication and dissemination of the report. The views expressed in the report are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the position of the Institute or any of its advisors or sponsors. In accordance with procedures established by the Institute's Program Advisory Committee, the report was reviewed by a panel of experts from outside IWPR.



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Executive Summary

Married women with children have entered the workforce in unprecedented numbers during the last two decades, and part-time employment is one strategy that could potentially help employees successfully integrate their work and family responsibilities. This study by the Institute for Women's Policy Research provides new information about an important and large group of employees—managers and professionals, who together constitute 29 percent of the labor force.

This report uses a nationally-representative sample of men and women to examine the use of part-time employment (defined as fewer than 35 hours per week) among managers and professionals over the life cycle, and to learn about the men and women who are employed part-time, the kinds of careers that offer part-time employment, and the salaries and benefits that are provided to these part-time managers and professionals. The self-employed are excluded.

The report is based on survey information provided by 15,533 managers and professionals who were studied in the Census Bureau's annual Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) and 37,314 managers and professionals that were studied in the Census Bureau's annual Current Population Survey (CPS). The CPS survey data were collected in 1992-93 and the SIPP data are from the 1987, 1988, 1990, and 1991 panels, which include information gathered between 1987 and 1993.

The findings of the study indicate that, compared with other U.S. employees, very few professionals and managers are employed part-time and very few careers offer financial incentives to work part-time. Only 12 percent of managers and professionals are employed part-time compared with 22 percent of all U.S. employees, and 29 percent of these part-time professionals and managers would prefer to work full-time. In fact, more than twice as many professionals and managers work more than 45 hours per week as work less than 35 hours per week.

Who Works Part-Time and Where?

Part-time managers and professionals differ from their full-time colleagues in terms of many demographic and human capital characteristics, and the importance of race, marital status, age of children, and income varies for men and women. Most part-time professionals and managers are women and many of these women have young children. The women who are employed part-time are also more likely to be white and to have husbands with higher salaries. In contrast, the men who work part-time are more likely to be unmarried and to be Asian, and less likely to have young children. Lower educational attainment is associated with part-time employment for men and women, as is being in the youngest and oldest age brackets. Contrary to expectations regarding financial need, most men's part-time work is unrelated to greater family resources; in fact, men with wives with higher earnings are **less** likely to work part-time.

We also found that part-time professionals and managers are more likely to be located in different types of work places than full-time professionals and managers. Part-time employees are more likely to work in small, private firms and in the service sector industries. They also tend to be employed in particular occupations, such as teachers, nurses, librarians, social workers and social scientists, lawyers and judges, sales representatives, writers and artists, entertainers and athletes, and doctors and other health diagnosing professions.

Attractive Career Locations

Since there are so many different occupations, industries, and firm sizes where individuals work in the public and private sector, it was necessary to create a reasonable number of categories of employment in order to meaningfully evaluate part-time and full-time employment opportunities. New career catego-

ries were created based primarily on occupation, which also simultaneously took into account industry, public/private sector, and large/small firm size, referred to as **career locations**. Nineteen occupational categories were developed in the managerial and professional careers, and then subcategories were created by industry, sector, and firm size. This resulted in 51 career locations which included enough part-time and full-time employees in the survey sample to meaningfully evaluate for this study.

In order to assess the attractiveness of part-time employment in these career locations, a composite index was developed that measured compensation, in terms of hourly salary, the ratio of hourly earnings for part-time employees to full-time employees in the same career location, and the percentage of part-time employees that receive employer-provided health insurance or pensions.¹ As separate measures of a career location's attractiveness for part-time employment, we also evaluated the proportion of part-time employees who wanted to work part-time rather than full-time, and the proportion of part-time employees who worked only part of the year and therefore might have low job security were also evaluated.

After evaluating the salaries and benefits provided in various career locations, findings indicate that only four career locations offer part-time jobs with hourly earnings that are comparable to or better than hourly earnings for full-time jobs and also provide health care benefits and pensions to approximately half their part-time employees. These career locations are nursing (public or private sector), scientists (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and natural scientists) in large, private firms, and special education teachers. These career locations pay their part-time employees, on the average, between \$15 - \$22² per hour; unfortunately, they comprise only four of 51 career locations that are identified and represent only 13 percent of part-time professional and manager positions.

Since three of the four career locations with the best compensation for part-time employment are in the very traditional female career locations of nursing and special education, it is not surprising that women are more

likely than men to be employed in career locations with better compensation for part-time work. Although the better compensation for these part-time positions is good news for women, it does not make up for the overall poor pay and benefits for part-time work for professionals and managers, most of whom are women.

There are a few other career locations that offer relatively generous salaries to part-time employees, such as "lawyers and judges," and "scientists in small, private firms (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and natural scientists);" however the majority of those employees do not receive employer-provided pensions or health insurance benefits. In contrast, the vast majority of professional and managers who are employed part-time do not receive generous salaries *or* pensions *or* health insurance benefits. In fact, despite assumptions that positions classified as professionals or managers are the best-paying positions available for full-time and part-time employees, several of the career locations that are classified as professionals and managers offer part-time salaries that, even at 34 hours per week, are insufficient to support a family of four above the poverty line and almost never provide employer contributions to health insurance or pension benefits for their part-time employees. Examples include managers in personal services in large private firms, managers in retail and other distributive services in small or large private firms, and private sector preschool and kindergarten teachers; for the latter, even a full-time salary would not support a family of four above the poverty line.³

Of course, there are many ways to measure the quality of part-time work in addition to salaries and benefits. Many of the potential measures, such as access to job training, opportunity for advancement, and sense of satisfaction, were not included in the national data sets that were analyzed, and comparisons can not be made. However, there is evaluation regarding whether working part-time is the employee's choice or the employer's choice, which is certainly a very important aspect of the quality of one's job.

When all the career locations are evaluated in terms of the proportion of part-time jobs that are vol-

untary or involuntary, the public and large private sector nursing careers again scored best: fewer than 15 percent of individuals working part-time in those career locations report that they would prefer to work full-time. In contrast, a rather large number of teachers who work part-time stated that they would prefer to work full-time. These findings are difficult to interpret; the survey does not include information about whether these teachers are considered part-time while working standard teaching schedules (i.e., 8:30 - 3:30), or whether they are paid less than most teachers because they are involuntarily working less than a typical teaching schedule. It may well be the latter; the career location with the largest proportion (53 percent) of part-timers who would prefer to work full-time is special education, which is the best compensated teaching career location and certainly the one that inherently seems most easily adaptable to part-time work.

The third measure, part-year employment, is very high for virtually all career locations, ranging from 30 to 78 percent. Although there is some evidence that several of the career locations (scientists and nursing in public and private sector) that offer the best compensation are less likely to be potentially insecure (part-year), these very high part-year rates in all careers made any findings difficult to interpret.

Who Works in Attractive Career Locations?

Since it is expected that working voluntarily in a part-time position would be more likely if the part-time position offered particularly attractive compensation, it is also expected that some of the demographic and “human capital” predictors of working in attractive career locations would be the opposite of those predicting involuntary part-time employment. That expectation is supported by several characteristics; for example, women, especially those with children under the age of five, are more likely to work in attractive career locations and more likely to be voluntarily working part-time. Similarly, more educated men and women tend to work in more attractive career lo-

cations, more educated men are more likely to work part-time voluntarily and women with associate’s degrees are more likely to be employed part-time voluntarily than women with other degrees. Greater income from family assets is also associated with women working in more attractive career locations and with voluntarily working part-time.

In contrast, other characteristics, such as age, are very similar for individuals working in attractive career locations and for individuals working part-time **involuntarily**. Men and women are increasingly likely to work in career locations with attractive part-time employment and to work part-time involuntarily as they grow older until their 40’s, and then, as they age, the likelihood decreases. The characteristics of individuals working in attractive career locations and those working part-time involuntarily are inconsistent for men and women in terms of marital status, spouses’ earnings, and race/ethnicity.

Child Care

Findings confirm that women who work as professionals and managers are integrating their careers with their family lives, and most are not choosing one over the other. Perhaps the most surprising finding is that part-time employment does not appear to be a common strategy in response to specific events involving child birth or child care. Instead, the vast majority of women return to work within three months of the arrival of a new child, and most stay employed full-time. Moreover, most women apparently make a long-term decision that they either want to work part-time or full-time, or leave the labor force for a period of time, and generally stay with that decision regardless of the birth of another child or a breakdown in child care arrangements. Although there is a tendency to reduce the average hours of work after a child enters the family, this does not usually mean a reduction from full-time to part-time work. In fact, findings show that there are more women who change from part-time work during pregnancy to full-time work after childbirth than vice versa. It is especially surprising that the decision

whether to work part-time or full-time after childbirth seems to have little or no association with greater family financial resources or the quality of part-time compensation in the career locations where these women and men are employed.

Even though only 15 percent of the women switch from full-time to part-time work after childbirth, the majority of women *reduce* their hours of employment after childbirth, as do one-third of the men. In contrast, 19 percent of the women increase their work hours after childbirth, as do 35 percent of the men.

Public debate regarding employed mothers often assumes that mothers return to the workforce after childbirth because they need to contribute to the family's economic security. Although that is undoubtedly true, findings indicate that many of the women who work part-time as professionals and managers earn very little and spend a large proportion of their earnings on child care. It may be that they need money so badly that they are willing to work for a very small economic benefit, but it seems more likely that many women who work as professionals and managers are motivated primarily by factors other than financial need or compensation. Nevertheless, women with better paying jobs tend to return to their jobs sooner, which suggests that jobs that offer more attractive compensation may provide a greater incentive to return to work, regardless of financial need.

Findings also indicate that professionals and managers who are employed part-time or full-time do not differ greatly in their use of relatives or non-relatives for child care. However, mothers who are employed part-time are more likely to depend on their husbands to provide most of the child care that they use. This is especially true for women in the best compensated career locations, which tend to include nursing and other shift work that enables mothers to work during the hours that their husbands are at home.

Changes in child care during the course of the year are more likely among full-time employees, unmarried women, women with more children, and women with greater income from family assets. They are less likely among Hispanic women. These find-

ings suggest that changes in child care partly reflect greater needs (a result of more children and no spouse to assist in child care), but also greater resources to make changes when needed.

Retirement

Compared with most of the professionals and managers who are younger than 65, those who are 65 or older are considerably more likely to choose part-time employment, although a rather surprising proportion of older professionals and managers who are employed continue to work full-time even into their 70s and 80s. Part-time employment is somewhat more likely among older women than their male colleagues, but older men are much more likely to work part-time than their younger male colleagues, and the oldest of these older men are the most likely to work part-time.

There are occupational differences associated with working part-time, with managers less likely to work part-time than men and women in many professional fields, and professionals and managers in smaller firms more likely to work part-time than their counterparts in larger firms. Men in social services are more likely to work part-time than men in the transformative sector, such as manufacturing.

There are few significant demographic differences between the older employees working part-time and those working full-time, although disabled men and women (which is defined as including those with health problems that limit employment opportunities) are more likely to work part-time. The data also suggest that older workers who are employed full-time rather than part-time as professionals and managers may do so partly because of greater financial need, as measured by their Social Security benefits and men's pension benefits.

There are few demographic differences between the older professionals and managers working in career locations with the best part-time compensation and those working in career locations with worse part-time compensation, although the former tend to be younger and better educated.

Policy Implications

These findings suggest that part-time employment is not currently a viable alternative for most managers and professionals who are juggling career and family responsibilities, except possibly those juggling the family responsibilities of elder care that are experienced by men and women in their sixties and older. Except for older workers, many of whom have retirement income, our findings clearly indicate that most managers and professionals could not afford to support a family in middle class comfort on a part-time salary, and they would be dependent on spouses for health insurance. Most troubling of all, many of the female professionals and managers who are able to afford to work part-time because of their husband's salary and family health care benefits may find themselves with little or no pension benefits in their own name when they retire. This has serious implications for their future well-being: previous research by IWPR has found that women who are widowed, divorced, or separated are more likely to become impoverished than other women when they retire, and that the lack of pensions is a major cause of their poverty.

These findings indicate that in most career locations, part-time work involves an enormous financial sacrifice of pay and benefits: a manager or professional earning \$800 for a 40-hour week, would typically instead earn only \$300, and possibly as little as \$200, for a 20-hour week.

Given the existing wage gap between women and men for full-time employment, part-time employment becomes unaffordable for most women. Other research has indicated that employers believe that part-time employees are less committed to their jobs and less productive; it may well be that these very low part-time salaries, almost nonexistent benefits, and, in some cases, the involuntary or temporary nature of part-time work contributes to low morale among part-time employees. All these shortcomings would be expected to adversely affect employee motivation and dedication to getting their job done well.

The poor compensation and other problems associated with part-time work among professionals and managers may create a vicious cycle—employers are unwilling to hire part-time workers at reasonable salaries because they believe them to be less productive or hardworking, and so the individuals who are willing to work part-time may become less productive or hardworking. In order to break that cycle, public and private employers should to experiment with more equitable part-time arrangements, so that the potential for part-time work can be fully realized.

Based on the research findings presented here, there are several ways that new public and private sector policies could increase the viability of part-time employment.

Federal Policies

The federal government, the largest employer in the U.S., has written policies that increase the likelihood of equitable pay and ensure the availability of health insurance and pension benefits for permanent part-time employees. Despite those policies, the number of part-time employees, especially among professionals and managers in the federal government, remains low. More information is needed about why those numbers remain low, and how the availability of part-time government jobs could be increased.

In the meantime, if the goal is to make part-time work a viable option for more employees, the federal government could stimulate more equitable policies for part-time employees in the private sector and among state and local government employees by requiring equitable policies for entities that do business with the federal government.

Another potential strategy would be for the federal government to establish a new labor standard to require that any business that offers benefits to full-time employees must pay a proportional share of the same benefits for their part-time employees. New federal legislation could also require equal hourly pay and equitable training opportunities for part-time and full-time employees with identical job responsi-

bilities. The federal government could also encourage employers to provide equitable training opportunities to part-time employees, thus improving their chances of career advancement.

Public Education

Women's advocacy organizations, national magazines and other media, and the U.S. Department of Labor have been acknowledging and publicly praising a variety of family friendly policies in the corporate world in recent years. In the same way that providing child care and other amenities has been publicly praised and has received positive media attention, equitable policies regarding salaries and benefits for part-time work also deserve more attention. The dangers of long-term work in positions that do not provide pensions is an issue that deserves a great deal of public education. Public acknowledgments and public education via the media and other mechanisms can increase the likelihood of better policies in the private sector.

Private Sector

A major question is whether laws are required to improve part-time jobs in the private sector, or whether the private sector will voluntarily make these changes. As the job market continues to tighten, employers may be more responsive to the demands of employees who

want part-time employment with hourly pay and benefits comparable to full-time work. In the same way that older women and men have apparently managed to find part-time employment as professionals and managers despite existing prejudices against older workers, it appears that younger women and men who want to decrease their career and family conflicts will be able to demand better compensation for part-time work when they work in career locations where employers are motivated to be accommodating.

In fields like teaching and nursing, unions have successfully negotiated for more equitable compensation for part-time employees. In recent years, unions have also become more likely to negotiate for other types of family friendly policies, such as child care and parental leave. In the years to come, professionals may become increasingly interested in unions as a strategy for improving opportunities for part-time work and other family-related policies.

In order for part-time employment opportunities to substantially improve in the private sector, dramatic changes in employer attitudes are probably necessary. Those changes are much more likely if there is persuasive research evidence supporting the cost-effectiveness of hiring part-time employees, public education that persuades employees and employers that these changes are long overdue, and incentives or pressure provided by the federal government, state governments, and unions to make those changes.

Chapter 1

What is Known About Part-Time Employment

Introduction

Women have entered the workforce in unprecedented numbers during the last several decades. The increase in employment has been especially dramatic among married women with children. As a result of this social revolution, the public and private sectors have become increasingly interested in developing “family-friendly” workplaces and policies that strengthen the workforce by helping employees achieve balance between their work and family lives.

Strategies to combine work and family responsibilities differ according to social class and occupation. If they can afford it, women in low-skilled occupations are often able to leave the workforce for a few years to focus on family responsibilities without seriously harming their ability to find work in the future. In contrast, women who are managers or professionals have found that leaving the workforce for more than a few months can interfere with their career paths. As more and more women have become managers and professionals over the past few decades,⁴ interest in policies that help women and men to combine career and family roles has increased. In addition to family leave and flex time, reduced hours—part-time work—offer a potential solution for some families.

At the same time that the number of employed mothers and female managers and professionals has increased, the aging of the workforce has also stimulated interest in part-time employment for male and female managers and professionals. Increasing longevity and the aging of the baby boom generation have caused concerns about the burden of financing retirement for so many workers, and proposals for

raising the normative age for retirement are increasingly common. Raising the retirement age may be unrealistic, however, because many older workers are unable to work on a full-time basis due to health problems, physical and cognitive changes associated with aging, or the need to take care of other family members, such as spouses or elderly parents. Part-time work could be a solution, especially if these older employees can afford to work part-time.

These demographic, economic and social changes converge to make part-time employment for managers and professionals an important policy issue for employers, employees and policymakers across the country. This study examines part-time work among managers and professionals in a nationally-representative sample with particular attention to the child-bearing and child rearing years and the pre- and post-retirement years. Using data sets from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, interview information on the availability, location and compensation for reduced-time work⁵ for professionals and managers is analyzed. The study determines which careers offer part-time work with attractive pay and benefits compared with those that do not, as well as which careers provide part-time work for men and women who choose to work part-time compared with those who would prefer to work full-time. The study also describes the demographic and “human capital” characteristics of the employees who work part-time and full-time in those careers, and the extent to which part-time employment becomes more or less prevalent over the course of an adult’s life-span.

This study is one of a series on part-time work funded by the Alfred B. Sloan Foundation. The findings from this study are intended to comple-

ment findings from qualitatively-oriented, in-depth case studies on reduced-work opportunities in various professions.

Defining Part-Time Work

The federal government defines part-time schedules as fewer than 35 hours of work per week (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997). It also divides part-time workers into two categories—those who work part-time for economic reasons⁶ but would prefer to work full-time (involuntary), and those who work part-time for non-economic reasons (voluntary).

The distinction between voluntary and involuntary work only begins to capture some of the dimensions of the broad spectrum of part-time work. Feldman (1990) presents four other dimensions of part-time work—permanent/temporary, organization-hired/agency-hired, year-round/seasonal and main job/second job. Olmstead and Smith (1994) describe “voluntary reduced work time” as a formalized policy that allows full-time employees to shift to a reduced schedule for a limited period of time, with the understanding that they will eventually return to a full-time schedule. Tilly (1991) defines “short-time” as a policy whereby employees agree to reduce their hours rather than be laid off during slow periods of business. “Job sharing” is an arrangement between two employees to share the duties, responsibilities, hours, pay and benefits of one full-time job (Employee Benefit Research Institute, 1994).

Recent History of Part-Time Employment Strategies

In 1978, Congress passed the Federal Employees Part-Time Career Employment Act (P.L. 95-437) which required federal agencies to establish part-time hiring programs and provide part-time employees with fringe benefits that are proportional with their hours of work. It also specified that part-

time workers be counted by full-time equivalents (rather than as a full position) for purposes of personnel ceilings. Despite some managerial resistance to part-time hiring, the number of part-time workers increased by almost 10,000 during the first 30 months following enactment of the law. Almost one-third of these part-timers converted from full-time government positions (Harriman, 1982). Sponsors hoped that this legislation would provide a model for private sector employers. As Congresswoman Patricia Schroeder stated:

Changes in the family, economic conditions and lifestyles have made employees interested in having more choice over their work schedules. Employers have also learned that they can reap benefits from greater utilization of alternative work schedules (forward to Harriman, 1982: ix).

During the 1980s, the stereotype of part-time workers as not being career-oriented began to wane, and a select group of corporations began to implement programs allowing employees to better balance work and family obligations by reducing their work hours (Olmsted and Smith, 1989). These family-friendly programs were characterized by increased access to maternity leave, family leave, child care, and elder care, as well as by alternative hour arrangements (see, for example, the Work and Family Handbook published in 1988 by the American Express Company). In a 1988 survey of 2,775 of the country’s largest companies (with a response rate of 18 percent), the Conference Board found that 9 out of 10 of the responding companies offered part-time work (Christensen, 1989). More than half of the responding companies saw part-time scheduling as a means to retain valuable employees, and almost half viewed part-time scheduling as a way to cut labor costs.

By the early to mid-1990s, researchers were pointing to the increased attention to family-friendly policies as well as the need for continued progress. In 1993, the Families and Work Institute asserted:

In the past ten years, efforts by employers to help their employees balance work and family life have moved from the innovative fringe into the mainstream. Today, virtually all large corporations in the country as well as many small businesses, have begun to address work-family issues in one way or another (Families and Work Institute, 1993:3).

In a study of 70 companies published that same year, Catalyst (1993) reported that senior management believed they had demonstrated their commitment to reconfiguring work schedules by creating new policies, but that employees often did not know about the policies.

Olmsted and Fink (1995) report that the use of part-time work arrangements is becoming more formalized and strategic, and guidelines are being adopted. However, a recent conference of the International Society for Work Options included, as two of the "burning issues," the need to make senior management more comfortable with workplace flexibility and the need for more support for working fathers in their quest for flexibility (Olmstead and Fink, 1995).

Overall, research indicates that career-enhancing part-time work is a crucial issue for both employers and employees. Many employers still claim that part-time work results in declines in productivity and reflects a general lack of job commitment. It is difficult for employees to find part-time jobs that enhance their careers and offer adequate compensation.

There is a general consensus that the supply of permanent part-time work does not meet the demand. The majority of part-time workers do not hold permanent positions (Spalter-Roth and Hartmann, 1998). In addition, research indicates that part-time work is less available for men than women and that when it is available, men appear to have trouble taking advantage of this option (Gershuny and Robinson, 1988; Robinson, Andreyenkov, and Patrushev, 1988; Pleck, 1993). The men who trade "fast-track" careers for less de-

manding full-time jobs and fulfillment as fathers and husbands face the same barriers to career advancement as do working mothers who make similar decisions (Gerson, 1993). The aging of baby boomers is likely to increase the demand for part-time employment among men and women; almost three-quarters of employees in their 50s would like to continue doing some paid work after retirement but think that their employers would not let them move to a less-demanding job (National Institute on Aging, 1993).

Potential Benefits of Reduced-Time Arrangements

Proponents of part-time work arrangements claim that these arrangements benefit firms, workers and their families, and society. The benefits to firms include retention of workers with firm-specific training, reduced costs from employee turnover and enhanced worker productivity (Schwartz, 1989; Olmstead and Fink, 1994). Similarly, part-time or flexible work schedules and better work/family policies could potentially enable employers to recruit and retain "the best and the brightest" employees especially during periods of corporate downsizing (Christensen, 1989; Olmstead and Fink, 1995).

The greater availability of part-time work arrangements would also benefit workers and their families. Workers who might otherwise need to change jobs in order to decrease their work hours would benefit from job stability and uninterrupted employment income, as well as increased expertise at a particular job. Additionally, families are thought to benefit from decreased hours of employment in terms of decreased psychological distress and marital tension (see Glass and Riley, 1995, for a review of this literature). It is assumed that children benefit from these arrangements since part-time work allows workers more time and energy for parenting.

Recent research emphasizes the importance of alternative work schedules for fathers as well as for mothers. For example, fathers' work schedules and

involvement in child rearing are related to their children's improved academic achievement and social outcomes (see Brayfield, 1995a, for a review of this literature).

Finally, society may benefit in several ways from part-time work arrangements. First, society retains the productivity of workers who might otherwise spend time unemployed or out of the labor force. Second, society can benefit when workers spend more time caring for or coordinating care for family members, including children of all ages and elderly parents (Hoyert and Seltzer, 1992; Martin-Matthew and Rosenthal, 1993). Third, society can benefit when children's aspirations are influenced by seeing both of their parents engaged in both employment and caregiving (Brayfield, 1995b; Gerson, 1993).

Disadvantages of Part-Time Work

Despite the many advantages of part-time work, improvements in work-time flexibility have been the slowest in the professional occupations (Daly, 1996). In some careers, such as law and banking, part-time employment is rarely available in large organizations. Furthermore, even in many career locations where there is greater flexibility, anything less than total availability and commitment to the job is associated with limited possibilities for promotion and career advancement.

Ronen (1984) listed four reasons cited by employers to explain the lack of part-time opportunities in professional and managerial occupations:

- 1) Top jobholders require a high level and quantity of up-to-date information for making decisions, and that is more likely to require working overtime than part-time.
- 2) Successful daily operations in many professions require all members of a specific network to be available simultaneously during regular working hours to respond to unforeseeable needs.

- 3) Part-time workers cannot cope with emergencies that arise outside their normal working hours.
- 4) Employers believe that filling one full-time position with two part-time employees doubles the number of persons to whom and through whom information must be transmitted.

Although there are employers who view part-time employment as a means to reduce turnover and increase productivity in the workplace, there are also employers who are concerned about decreased schedule flexibility and, in some cases, high pay and/or higher expenses associated with benefit compensation to part-time workers. As a result of these variations in employer attitudes, salaries and benefits vary greatly. In some companies, part-time workers do not receive health insurance or pension coverage and earn much lower hourly wages than full-time workers. In other companies, part-time employees receive the same hourly wage as full-time employees and are likely to be covered by employer-provided health insurance and/or pension plans.

For women workers, part-time professional and managerial jobs may have other, non-economic costs. When part-time work is an accommodation to family responsibilities, it reinforces rather than challenges conventional definitions of a "woman's role" and the gendered division of labor (Negrey, 1993). As a result, women who work part-time may not feel personally fulfilled by their decision, despite their ability to better integrate wage work and household responsibilities (Negrey, 1993). This is especially likely because women who cut back their work schedules often find themselves spending more time on a wide range of domestic tasks, including shopping and cleaning (Silver and Goldsheider, 1994). Since women employed full-time spend less time on housework, women's part-time employment does not necessarily lead to a decrease in overall work time, but rather a reallocation of work from paid work outside the home to unpaid work performed inside the home.

Who Works Part-Time?

Gender Differences

Many parents find it difficult to balance their work responsibilities and family obligations. This is a problem for women, many of whom continue to bear the majority of caretaking responsibilities, and for men, many of whom no longer have a full-time homemaker to take care of the children and home. Inflexible workplace practices make juggling work and family a challenge for workers in any occupation.

Despite recent research findings that some men are interested in becoming more involved with child rearing and homemaking (Barnett and Rivers, 1996) and that many male managers would like to work shorter hours (Wajcman, 1996), almost twice as many female as male professionals and managers work part-time (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997). The majority of women who work part-time report that they do so in order to devote more attention to family (Harriman, 1982; Hochschild, 1989; Hertz and Ferguson, 1996). And in a society where women are the primary caretakers, it is often more acceptable for women to reduce their hours because of family responsibilities. Many men who use alternative schedules for family reasons fear stigmatization and prefer not to tell co-workers or bosses why they reduced their work time (Pleck, 1993). Often couples have preferred women to fulfill the traditional homemaker role. For example, in the 1980s, Moen and Dempster-McClain (1987) found that both husbands and wives preferred that the wives reduce their schedules to meet family needs.

It also may make more economic sense for women, whose salaries tend to be lower relative to men's, to shorten their work schedules. This is especially true for women who have invested less time in their careers. In the early 1980s, Long and Jones (1981) concluded that wives who were employed part-time were more likely to have lower earnings potential and less likely to have vocational training or to have worked in previous years than full-timers. Their study also revealed that the higher the husband's income, the more likely his wife was to remain home

regardless of her earnings potential or the human capital she had accumulated. In a dual-career couple, therefore, it is most likely the wife's professional progress that will suffer as a result of the couple's efforts to minimize work/family conflicts.

But what if part-time work were constructed as a career-enhancing alternative to full-time schedules? Raabe (1996) describes the advantages of pluralistic career arrangements in which a variety of work arrangements (such as reduced hours or family leave) are perceived as equally viable. In her review of the research, Raabe concluded that reduced work schedules result in the highest levels of productivity when they are coupled with equitable compensation, when they are perceived as a normal alternative to standard work schedules and mutually beneficial to employers and employees, and when non-employment activities are understood to improve, not undermine, worker output. In this scenario, rather than slotting part-time workers into separate career tracks or halting their progress altogether, career-enhancing part-time work allows its users to rearrange their priorities without losing their place on the career ladder.

Such career-enhancing alternatives to standard work schedules are particularly important for women because their patterns of labor force participation often fluctuate due to their primary role as caretaker. For women, scaling back work hours or exiting the labor market completely have been common responses to childbirth, child care, and elder care needs, even at a time when 60 percent of mothers with children under three are working outside the home (Folk and Beller, 1993). According to Shaw (1988), women are at a disadvantage every time they reenter the workforce, because time spent out of the labor market not only curtails work experience but also depresses their wages and depreciates their job skills. The option of career-enhancing part-time work at key stages in the life cycle would mean not just continuous labor force attachment but ongoing career progress, enhanced wages and up-to-date job skills for men and women who have strong commitments to both career and family. The following sections address three life

cycle stages at which employees are particularly likely to benefit from part-time work: childbirth, caring for children ages 0–12 years and caring for adults.

Childbirth and Child Care

Currently, 56 percent of women return to work within six months of childbirth, many of them on part-time schedules (Hofferth, 1996; O'Connell, 1990). However, the jobs that new mothers return to and their reasons for going back to work, vary widely. Estes and Glass (1996) report that women who stay with their pre-birth employers will more likely maintain their wage level and have better family-related employee benefits than those who change jobs when they go back to work after pregnancy and child birth. The latter group is more likely to experience wage loss in their new jobs. Furthermore, Estes and Glass found that decent compensation is generally coupled with good family and health-care benefits. In Hofferth's (1996) study, mothers with higher wages were more likely to return to work after the birth of a child. She also found that the existence of a part-time work option is more likely than any other family-friendly benefit to positively influence mothers' return to work after pregnancy.

For many women, the decision to work part-time, or even to be employed at all, is intertwined with the availability of child care. Hofferth and Collins (1997) found that mothers with back-up care are more likely to remain in the labor force (either part-time or full-time) than those with only one child care provider. Furthermore, women who use relatives or home-based care (also called "non-market care") or who use a day care center that is not easily accessible are more likely to leave their jobs. Although most child care studies do not address mothers' occupational status to any great extent, Folk and Beller (1993) found that women who work part-time and use non-market care are more likely to be employed in a sales and service occupation and/or be on a variable schedule. This may be in part because few day care centers offer discounted rates for shorter days (Lehrer, 1983), and since part-time professionals and managers earn more than those in sales and service occupations, they

can likely afford center-based fees. Mothers who are employed full-time are more likely to rely on day care centers (Hofferth and Wissoker, 1992) whereas mothers who are employed part-time more often take advantage of non-market care (Presser, 1986).

Caring for Adults and Other Issues of an Aging Workforce

Part-time work is not just a solution for work/family conflicts related to young children. Many older workers, particularly women, must interrupt their careers because of the health problems of spouses or elderly relatives (Shaw, 1988; Kahne, 1985; Gustman and Steinmeier, 1984). In 1996, 18 percent of part-time workers were 55 or older, and the proportion of workers on part-time schedules increased with age after 55 (U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997; Quinn and Kozy, 1996). As the United States population ages⁷ and more elderly people stay healthier longer, remaining in the workforce past traditional retirement age is becoming a desirable alternative for many senior citizens. Indeed, several polls have revealed that more older people who are currently retired would continue working on a part-time or even full-time basis if they could find challenging employment and the wages did not interfere with their Social Security income (Christensen, 1990). Under current law, Social Security benefits are reduced for those earning more than an "exempt amount"—this is referred to as the "earnings test." In 1997, this amount was \$8,640 for those below the age of 65 and \$13,500 for those ages 65 to 69. Beginning at age 70, no earnings test is applied. Policymakers have responded to these trends of continued employment by making some changes in Social Security rules⁸ and continuing to debate the feasibility of eliminating the earnings test altogether (Burtless and Moffitt, 1985). Many private pension plans continue to penalize workers who remain on the job in a part-time capacity by reducing the value of expected benefits, since benefits are often determined by the most recent years of earnings history (Quinn and Kozy, 1996).

Currently, part-time work options for older workers are somewhat limited. Although many employers are enthusiastic about hiring older workers,⁹ few companies have formal policies that encourage the retention or acquisition of older workers (Doeringer and Terkla, 1990). Older workers who want or need to reduce their work schedules before retiring completely often become self-employed (Quinn and Kozy, 1996) or switch to lower-paying jobs in occupations and/or industries different from those in which they had established their careers. In one study, Ruhm (1990) found that most workers start long-term career jobs in their twenties or thirties but that these jobs often end well before full retirement. For instance, more than 50 percent of workers in Ruhm's sample did not retire from their career jobs (defined as the longest job held, which for two-thirds of the sample was 15 years or more) and almost three-quarters of the sample switched industry or occupation when moving to the "bridge" job they held before retirement. Doeringer and Terkla (1990) found that a significant number of these bridge jobs exist in smaller, more flexible firms, and in retail and service industries. Jobs in these locations are likely to offer lower wages and diminished status compared with the older workers' career positions. At the same time, those businesses that do offer good part-time opportunities to older workers are more likely to draw from internal labor markets, making lateral moves between companies difficult. Therefore, older workers who want to continue to work part-time past retirement in their career jobs must, like professionals and managers in general, negotiate their employment terms on an individual basis.

Part-Time Work Across Occupations and Industries

The availability of part-time employment varies widely across industries and occupations. In an analysis of national data sets, Tilly (1996) found that part-time employment opportunities are much less prevalent in managerial occupations (7 percent) and

professional occupations (16 percent) compared with other occupations such as sales (26 percent). The prevalence of part-time opportunities differs even more across industries; for example, approximately one-third of employees in the wholesale and retail trade industries are engaged in part-time work compared with only eight percent of employees in manufacturing industries (Tilly, 1996). Part-time employment is slightly more prevalent in the private sector (22 percent) than in the public sector (18 percent) (Employee Benefit Research Institute, 1994).

Tilly also found that much of the overall increase in part-time work is attributable to efforts by retail and service industry employers to cut costs and respond more flexibly to peak demand. In fact, between 1969 and 1993, part-time work grew most rapidly in sales, service and clerical occupations.

In addition to occupation and industry, firm size also affects the extent of part-time employment. Small firms are more likely than large firms to hire part-time workers. Tilly (1996) found that the proportion of the workforce with part-time hours falls from one-third in firms of fewer than 10 employees to just over one-sixth in firms with 100 or more workers. For example, an editor in a small consulting firm is much more likely to work part-time than a manager in a big, private manufacturing firm. Thus, the availability of part-time employment not only varies by specific occupation but also by industry, firm size and public or private sector.

Wages and Benefits for Part-Time Employment

Good part-time jobs have many of the same characteristics as good full-time jobs. Tilly (1996) characterizes good part-time jobs as those with good compensation, job security, on-the-job training and opportunities for growth, and "bad" part-time jobs as those with low pay, few or no benefits, limited job security and little room for advancement. In most broad occupational categories, including professionals and managers, part-time workers are employed at lower hourly rates

of pay than full-time workers. For example, Blank (1990) found that male and female professionals and managers who worked part-time had lower pay than those working full-time, but multivariate analyses indicated that those differences in compensation decreased for women who worked part-time voluntarily, after controlling for education, work experience and other personal and job characteristics. When Blank also eliminated the impact of other “self-selection” characteristics, women voluntarily working part-time appeared to be relatively well paid. Blank found that men and women who worked part-time **involuntarily** received lower wages than full-time workers with similar characteristics. Similarly, an earlier study of women workers found that previous years of part-time work experience did not contribute to higher wages for women in the same way that full-time work experience did (Corcoran, Duncan, and Ponza, 1983).

Part-time workers are less likely than full-time workers to receive fringe benefits such as health insurance and pensions. For example, a previous IWPR study found that among adult women who were working fewer than 24 hours, only 13 percent had access to health insurance provided by their own employer compared with 24 percent for women working between 25 to 34 hours, and 62 percent for women who worked for more than 35 hours (Yoon, et al., 1994). Snider (1995) found that 48 percent of full-time workers but only 11 percent of part-time workers reported that they participated in a pension or other retirement plan (other than Social Security) offered by their employer. Blank (1990) found that enormous differences in the receipt of pensions and health insurance remained for all occupations and both sexes even after controlling for education, work experience and a wide range of other variables.

Even for full-time workers, wages and fringe benefits differ by industry and firm size. Service-producing industries typically provide fewer benefits for full-time workers than goods-producing industries, but the extent of benefit coverage varies widely within the service sector (Burke and Morton, 1990). Service-producing industries include transportation and public utili-

ties firms that offer almost universal benefits coverage for full-time workers as well as retail trade establishments in which coverage is much less extensive. Full-time employees in large organizations typically have higher earnings and more fringe benefits compared with employees of small organizations.

In her review of 1992 Department of Labor statistics, Snider (1995) reported similar differences in employer-related health-care and pension benefits for part-time employees in different industries and firm sizes. Part-time workers in firms with fewer than 25 employees were much less likely to receive health insurance as a job benefit than their full-time counterparts. Part-time workers who were most likely to receive health insurance through their employer were in transportation, communications and utilities (36 percent) and in finance, insurance and real estate (22 percent). Part-time workers in retail trade, construction and services were less likely to receive health benefits from their employers. Pensions were also related to firm size for part-time workers: 54 percent of part-time employees in firms with 1,000 or more workers were covered by an employment-based pension plan, compared with 8.2 percent in firms with fewer than 10 employees. Industry differences were similar to those for health insurance: 46 percent of part-time employees in transportation, communications and utilities had access to pension plans compared with 17 percent of those working in construction. Women were more likely than men to work for firms that sponsored a pension plan, and individuals ages 25–44 were the age group most likely to be covered by an employment-based pension plan (Employee Benefit Research Institute, 1994).

Part-Time Work for Professionals and Managers

For men and women in professional and managerial positions, working conditions can either facilitate or hinder the ability to address work/family conflicts. Workplace norms governing professionals and managers allow a certain amount of freedom that blue-

collar workers and lower-level white collar employees (those in clerical and administrative positions) do not enjoy. For example, professionals' and managers' access to better leave policies (Glass and Fujimoto, 1995) as well as their ability to leave their work stations, take a long lunch or use the telephone without asking for permission, can facilitate the resolution of family problems that occur during work time and that might otherwise require the employee to leave work for the rest of the day.

In a recent study, Catalyst (1997) found that 10 percent of full-time professionals and managers in the four organizations they studied anticipated working part-time in the future (17 percent of women and seven percent of men). Career-building norms, however, place constraints on professionals and managers that are not experienced by other workers who want to work part-time. Scaling back to a part-time schedule or leaving the workforce to fulfill family obligations can seriously hinder professionals' and managers' progression up the career ladder. For example, long hours (or "face time") are often considered an indication of commitment to one's career (Bailyn, 1993). In addition, employer biases about working mothers as less committed to their jobs may be heightened when they choose to work part-time (Catalyst 1994). While blue-collar and lower-level white-collar workers have less autonomy than their professional and managerial counterparts, dropping out of the labor force or moving to a part-time schedule may pose less danger to their career status.¹⁰

One explanation for the current paucity of part-time managers and professionals is that their employers tend to allow reduced schedules primarily in response to employee requests. White-collar workers desiring alternative schedules must often negotiate reduced time on an individual basis, after proving their value as full-time employees and with the expectation that the situation is temporary (Bailyn, 1993).

Employers' reluctance to offer part-time schedules to professionals and managers more formally and frequently also stems from several misconceptions about part-time work and its users. Many employers believe

only certain kinds of jobs are suitable for part-time schedules. According to Kahne (1985), early studies suggested that jobs most likely to accommodate reduced schedules were those

with discrete tasks 'with a clear beginning and end,' those with repetitive functions or stress, ...those requiring a minimum of supervision or start-up or shut-down costs, ...those where a periodic or cyclical demand for goods or services existed over the course of the day or week, where business hours extended beyond the normal work day, and stockpiling of production was difficult. (p. 33)

Other researchers argue that a wide variety of work can be tailored to part-time schedules particularly if the part-time employee is flexible and keeps the lines of communication open with coworkers (Ronen, 1984). Although employers assume part-time workers are absent or tardy more often, less productive and less committed to their jobs than their full-time counterparts, research indicates that the opposite is true. In summarizing the outcomes of 10 studies of managers' experiences with part-time subordinates, Ronen reports that most supervisors describe their part-time employees as more productive, less likely to quit and more likely to have strong attendance records compared with full-timers. Many part-time managers and professionals say they get more done in fewer hours because their shorter schedules leave them less fatigued, and the full lives they enjoy outside of work have an energizing influence (Harriman, 1982; Raabe, 1996).

Gaps in Knowledge

In contrast to the information available for full-time workers, little is known about the women and men who work part-time and how job quality differs for part-time workers in different career locations, especially for managers and professionals. The quality of part-time jobs, like the quality of full-time jobs, is ex-

pected to differ across career locations according to occupation, industry and firm size. The purpose of this project is to explore this issue, using earnings, fringe benefits, percentage of underemployed workers, voluntary versus involuntary part-time work and part-year schedules as measures of job quality for managers and professionals.

Despite numerous pronouncements about the importance of reduced work schedules for achieving better work/family balance, many existing studies are based on inadequate data and methodologies. For example, many studies are based on data gathered from surveys of specific firms; these firms may not be typical and the surveys often have low re-

sponse rates. In fact, there is little nationally representative research on the extent and types of reduced-hours work arrangements. Most of the nationally representative research does not focus on professionals and managers and does not compare part-time job opportunities in specific professional and managerial occupations, industries, or types of firms. It is unfortunately true that, despite assumptions about the difficulty of juggling work and family responsibilities, very little is known about the extent to which professionals and managers use part-time work arrangements to achieve a more comfortable balance between family and work during various phases of their lives.

Chapter 2

The Study

Research Questions

In this study, the use of part-time work by a nationally representative sample of managers and professionals is investigated.¹¹ In addition to providing base-line data about reduced-hours arrangements used by professional and managerial employees, the research is designed to answer the following questions:

1. What are the demographic and other characteristics of professionals and managers who work part-time?
2. Which career locations are most likely to offer part-time employment to professionals and managers, and which career locations offer the most attractive part-time employment in those occupations in terms of salaries, benefits, voluntary rather than involuntary part-time work and fewer part-year, part-time workers? (Career location is defined as the intersection of occupation, sector, industry and firm size);
3. What are the demographic and other characteristics of the individuals who work in the career locations with the most attractive part-time positions, and what are the characteristics of individuals who are most likely to work part-time involuntarily or only part of the year?
4. How does childbirth, the need for child care, and aging influence the decision to work part-time? Are professionals and managers employed at the career locations with the most attractive part-time employment more likely to work part-time during specific life events, such as the birth or adoption of a child, a child care crisis, or after age 65?

Data Sets

Data from the March 1992 and 1993 Supplements to the Current Population Survey (CPS),¹² the 1987, 1988, 1990 and 1991 full panels of the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) and two topical modules on employment history and child care from each SIPP panel were analyzed for this study.

Current Population Survey (CPS)

The CPS, a nationally-representative survey of approximately 57,000 American households conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, collects monthly data on the economic status and activities of the population of the United States. Each household is interviewed once each month for four consecutive months in one year and then is re-interviewed 12 months after the first interview. The CPS provides data on labor force experience and reasons for working part-time in the week prior to the survey. In this study, data came from the March Supplement, which provides information about the longest job held during the previous year, including full-time/part-time status, reasons for working part-time, earnings, benefit receipt (such as health care and pension coverage), and firm size.

The CPS is especially useful for this study because of its relatively large sample sizes and wealth of information on labor force activity and benefit coverage. A total sample size of 37,314 managers and professionals from the two years was obtained. Individuals who are self-employed, working on an unpaid basis or under the age of 16 are excluded from the sample. Professionals and managers are defined as those who had reported working for pay in those occupations at the longest held job during the previous year.

PANEL DATA

In reading and interpreting this report, it is important to understand the use of panel data. **Panel data**, or longitudinal data, are data from surveys that track a number of individuals over time, interviewing the same people at regular intervals over the years. Panel data contain more information than simple cross-sectional data taken from surveys at a single moment in time, precisely because they incorporate a time dimension. Unlike cross-sectional data which, for example, include those working part-time at a particular time, the panel data used in this study show the changes in employment status over time of men and women who were employed in any given professional or managerial position at some point during the survey period.

The SIPP is a multi-panel longitudinal sample survey of adults that measures their economic and demographic characteristics every four months during a period of at least two years. The information from these interviews comprises a panel; the data examined in this study came from the 1987, 1988, 1990 and 1991 SIPP panels. Most

SIPP panels include eight interviews (also called waves) over a period of two and a half years, but because of government budget cuts, the 1987 panel has only seven interviews, conducted between February 1987 and May 1989, and the 1988 panel has only six interviews, conducted between February 1988 and January 1990. The 1990 panel has eight interviews, conducted between February 1990 and September 1992. The 1991 panel has eight interviews, conducted between February 1991 and September 1993.

To facilitate field procedures, one-fourth of each sample was interviewed each month. At each interview, respondents were asked to provide information covering the four months following the previous interview. This four-month span is the "reference period" for the interview. Since four panels that varied in length between 24–32 months were combined, data were restricted to the time period that was available for all four panels, which totaled 24 reference months for each.

Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP)

The U.S. Bureau of the Census' SIPP provides detailed longitudinal information on changes in family composition, labor force activity, benefit coverage, educational background and field of academic study. Special topical modules of the SIPP provide information on child care arrangements, employment history, retirement benefits and assets. The SIPP is especially useful for studying hours of work, earnings, benefit receipt, other income sources, and life events such as the birth of a child or retirement. Each full SIPP panel tracks a nationally representative sample of 12,000–22,000 households and 36,000–69,000 individuals ages 16 and older who were members of these households during the 28–32 months of the survey periods. In order to enhance the size of the sample of managerial and professional workers, the data from four panels of the

SIPP—the 1987, 1988, 1990 and 1991 panels—were combined. The four panels provide a sample size of 15,533 professional and managerial employees excluding those who are self-employed or unpaid. The special topical modules on employment history and child care were merged into the full-panel files. Professionals and managers are defined as those who had reported working for pay in those occupations as their primary occupation during at least one of the four month periods evaluated during the 28–32 month survey period.

Creating Career Locations from the CPS

As demonstrated in the review of the research, there are significant differences in part-time employment opportunities in different occupations, industries, sectors of the economy, and in firms of

CONSTRUCTING CAREER LOCATIONS

Career locations were created by creating or combining subcategories of 19 occupations based on six industrial categories, large or small firm size, and public or private sector. In order to create a reasonable number of career locations from the potential 456 career locations based on those four criteria, any potential career locations that did not include a reasonable number of employees in the nationally representative sample were eliminated. In order to be included as a career location in the study, the total employees in the sample must equal at least 200, and the total number of part-time employees must equal at least 20. These 20/200 cutoffs represent unweighted sample sizes. A few occupations, such as registered nurses, included so many full-time and part-time employees that it was possible to separately analyze those working in large and small private firms and those working in the public sector. Other occupations, such as elementary school teachers, included enough employees to separately analyze public and private sector employees, but not enough to separately analyze those employed at large private schools and those at small private schools. Of course, many occupations, such as nursing and teaching, which are found generally in specific industries (such as health care and education), were not separately categorized by industry.

Since there were so few small public sector agency employees, firm sizes for the public sector were combined, but large and small companies in the private sector were analyzed separately and thus the following three categories were developed: small private firms, large private firms, and public sector employers.

Some occupational groups were disaggregated (such as managers) by Browning and Singelmann's industry groupings,¹⁵ and the following categories were developed:

- *Managers in the Transformative Sector.* The transformative sector is mainly composed of construction, manufacturing, and public utilities.
- *Managers in Distributive Services.* Distributive services are defined as sectors that deliver goods to the ultimate consumers, such as transportation, communications, and wholesale and retail trades.
- *Managers in Producer Services.* Producer services are industries that "provide services to other producers and to individuals who control property in its various forms" such as

banking, insurance, real estate, engineering, accounting, miscellaneous business services and legal services.

- *Managers in Social Services.* Social services cater to collective demands such as health, education and public administration.
- *Managers in Personal Services.* Personal services are industries that provide services to individuals and include domestic services, hotels, food service, repair, laundry and entertainment.

Although there was a sixth industrial category, which included extractive industries such as agriculture and mining, there were too few who were managers or professionals in the sample to analyze them even when the public sector and large and small private firms were combined.

After combining occupation/industry with the sector/firm size dimensions noted above, 51 distinct career locations that met the minimum size criteria were created. Several patterns emerged from these combinations (see Table 2-1).

Seven occupational groupings that are not disaggregated by industry, sector or firm size were created because their cell sizes would be too small—health diagnosing; other health assessment and treating; secondary school teachers; special education teachers; librarians, archivists, and curators; lawyers and judges; entertainers and athletes. In contrast, five occupational groupings—managers in social services; scientists (including engineers, mathematicians and computer and natural scientists); registered nurses; teachers not elsewhere classified; and social scientists and social workers—are disaggregated by sector and firm size.

Most managerial occupations, some of the management-related occupations and sales representatives are differentiated by industrial groupings, sector or firm size. Management-related occupations in the transformative sector and distributive services are all in the private sector and are not differentiated by firm size.

In most cases, firm sizes within sectors were combined when the numbers were insufficient for separate analysis. However, for writers and artists, large, private firms were combined with the public sector because small private firms are likely to be significantly different and deserve separate analysis.

Table 2-1: Ratio of Part-Time/Full-Time¹ Professionals and Managers In 51 Career Locations

Occupational Groups	Private Sector		Public Sector
	Small Firms	Large Firms	
Executives and Administrators	0	0/1	1 8% (68/809)
Managers in Extractive Industries (Agriculture, Mining)	2/51	0/56	0
Managers in Transformative Sector (Const., Manuf., Utilit.)	2 5% (44/840)	3 1% (20/1,731)	0
Managers in Distributive Services (Transp., Comm., Trades)	4 6% (50/813)	5 6% (82/1,425)	0
Managers in Producer Services (F.I.R.E., Eng., Acct. Legal)	6 11% (89/816)	7 2% (22/1,049)	0
Managers in Social Services (Medical, Educ., Welfare)	8 18% (150/843)	9 5% (39/862)	10 9% (101/1,119)
Managers in Personal Services (Domestic, Hotel and Restaurant)	11 14% (53/380)	12 9% (23/270)	0
Management-Related in Extractive Industries	1/12	0/26	0
Management-Related in Transformative Sector	13 4% (32/803)		0
Management-Related in Distributive Services	14 9% (59/659)		0
Management-Related in Producer Services	15 10% (52/506)	16 4% (38/991)	0
Management-Related in Social Services	17 15% (68/444)		18 6% (59/1,026)
Management-Related in Personal Services	14/50	19/91	0
Scientists ²	19 7% (36/507)	20 3% (81/2,527)	21 4% (27/717)
Health-Diagnosing Occupations	22 8% (38/451)		
Registered Nurses	23 39% (108/278)	24 30% (433/1,436)	25 18% (72/410)
Other Health-Assessment and Treating Occupations	26 20% (141/710)		
Post-Secondary Education Teachers	27 33% (121/362)		28 37% (280/756)
Pre-Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers	29 44% (173/396)		30 18% (47/262)
Elementary School Teachers	31 16% (50/304)		32 15% (292/1,900)
Secondary School Teachers	33 13% (211/1,647)		
Special Education Teachers	34 13% (45/347)		
Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified	35 56% (132/235)	36 30% (65/217)	37 33% (74/227)
Librarians, Archivists and Curators	38 30% (87/294)		
Social Scientists and Social Workers	39 23% (140/610)	40 13% (65/513)	41 11% (65/613)
Lawyers and Judges	42 7% (36/557)		
Writers and Artists	43 30% (176/595)	44 13% (103/804)	
Entertainers and Athletes	45 36% (132/372)		
Sales Representatives in Extractive Sector	0/10	0/8	0
Sales Representatives in Transformative Sector	46 13% (36/277)	47 8% (43/525)	0
Sales Representatives in Distributive Services	48 9% (53/580)	49 6% (43/670)	0
Sales Representatives in Producer Services	50 18% (104/587)	51 9% (71/822)	0
Sales Representatives in Social Services	3/14	1/10	1/33
Sales Representatives in Personal Services	3/12	2/25	0
TOTAL	17% (1,715/9,868)	9% (1,513/16,922)	14% (1,447/10,503)

Key:

- Career locations with fewer than 20 part-time workers and 200 total workers
- Career locations with at least 20 part-time workers and 200 total workers
- Career location number

Notes:

1. Part-time is defined as fewer than 35 hours per week. Full-time is defined as 35 or more hours per week.
2. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

different sizes. In order to provide useful information about part-time employment opportunities for professionals and managers, it is necessary to create career categories that simultaneously take into account occupations, sectors of the economy (public versus private), firm size¹³ (small firms versus large firms) and industrial categories. Therefore, new career categories based primarily on occupation but also considering industry, public/private sector and firm size were created that are referred to as “career locations.”

Using the three-digit occupational codes in the sample, 19 occupational categories in the managerial and professional groups were developed.¹⁴ If each of these 19 occupational categories were examined in terms of the subcategories of public or private sector, six categories of industry and large or small firm size, 456 career location categories would have resulted (some of which would have had few or no employ-

ees). In order to analyze employment in a meaningful way, categories of career locations: were created that either combined or maintained the various potential subcategories depending on the number of employees in those subcategories in the sample. Two criteria were used to construct career locations: total employees had to equal at least 200 in the nationally representative sample, and part-time employees had to equal at least 20. For example, based on these criteria, lawyers, librarians and secondary school teachers were not categorized separately by industry, sector or firm size whereas engineers and registered nurses were categorized by sector and firm size. As a result of these and other combinations, 51 career location categories were created, which are presented in Table 2-1. A detailed explanation of the occupational and industrial categories used in the development of career locations is presented in the “Constructing Career Locations” box.

Chapter 3

Who Works Part-Time Where

The first findings describe the types of individuals who work part-time as professionals and managers in terms of their gender, age, race, educational attainment and other demographic characteristics. In order to describe these individuals, part-time work must be defined.

What Do We Mean By Part-Time Work?

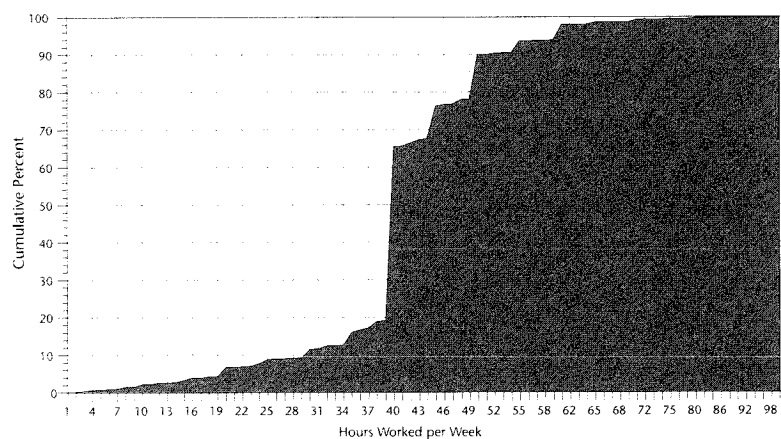
The Bureau of Labor Statistics defines part-time work as fewer than 35 hours per week. This definition will be referred to as the “conventional definition.”

In this study, two alternative definitions of part-time were developed and their potential usefulness was considered. In preliminary analysis of the distribution of work hours per week, there was a large spike at 40 hours. Figure 3-1 shows that about 19 percent of professionals and managers worked up to 39 hours per week, and an additional 46 percent of professional and managers worked 40 hours per week.¹⁶ Therefore, a definition of part-time work as 39 hours or fewer which we called the “less than 40 hours definition” was created. Next, a “relative definition” of part-time which includes those who work fewer than the median hours for their career locations was created. This measure was developed because there is a prevailing notion that each profession has its own norms.

This “relative” part-time definition responds to the argument that what is considered full-time in one lo-

cation is not considered full-time in all locations. On the other hand, this relative definition may greatly overestimate the extent of part-time employment by misclassifying some employees working 35–44 hours as part-time employees when they are actually considered full-time by their employers.

Figure 3-1: Cumulative Percentages of Hours Professionals and Managers Worked per Week

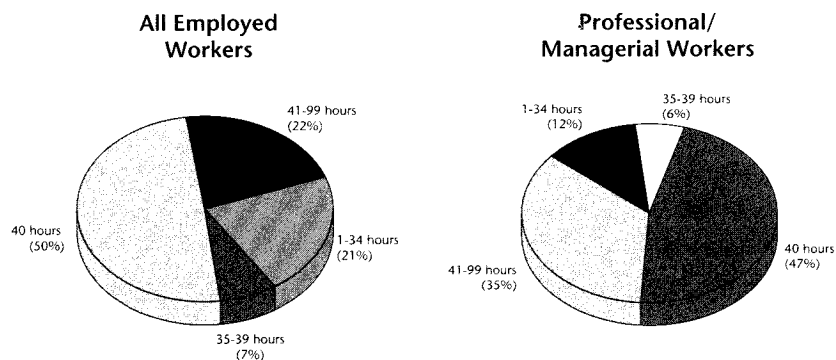


Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

How Many Managers and Professionals Work Part-Time?

Using the **conventional definition**, the proportion of part-time employees among managers and professionals is significantly lower than that of the entire civilian workforce. **Twenty-one percent of all workers** work fewer than 35 hours per week while only **12 percent of the employees in managerial and professional specialties** do so (see Figure 3-2).¹⁷ The advantage of the conventional definition is that the resulting findings are comparable to other research in the field.

Figure 3-2: Number of Hours Professionals and Managers Worked per Week Compared with All Employed Workers



Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

As described earlier, when 40 hours per week is the norm, working fewer than 40 hours may be considered to be part-time by the employer. Approximately 28 percent of the labor force work 39 hours per week or fewer, while 18 percent of managers and professionals work such hours (see Figure 3-2).

To create a “relative definition” of part-time work, the median hours worked for each of the 51 career locations using the Current Population Survey was examined. Table 3-3 shows that the median weekly hours of work varied from one career location to another. For all professionals and managers and for 44 of the career locations, the median weekly hours worked is 40; five career locations have median hours greater than 40 hours. The median hours for health-diagnosing occupations, such as doctors, is 50 hours. The median for three career locations is 45 hours: lawyers and judges; managers in transformative sector (e.g., manufacturing, construction) in large, private firms; and managers in distributive services (e.g., retail trades, transportation and communication) in large, private firms. Similarly, 43 hours is the median for managers in personal services in large, private firms. In contrast, only two career locations, both in teaching, have median hours fewer than 40 hours. Median hours for pre-kindergarten and kindergarten teachers in the private sector is 35; for teachers in small private schools who

were not elsewhere classified, it is 30.

Since it was suspected that in occupations where 50 hours per week is the norm and where working fewer than 50 hours may be considered to be part-time by the employers, a “relative definition” of part-time work for employees with fewer than the median hours of employment at each career location was created. For example, the median weekly hours for professionals in health-diagnosing specialties is 50 hours; therefore, physicians that work 49 hours per week or fewer were classified as part-time in this definition.

Figure 3-4 shows the extent of part-time work for professionals and managers using the conventional and relative definitions. As would be expected, the proportion of both women and men working part-time varies greatly depending on which definition of part-time is used. It ranges from 12 percent of professionals and managers (both sexes) using the conventional definition to almost twice as high (22 percent) when using the relative definition.

When the three different definitions of part-time work (conventional, relative and less than 40 hours) were examined, it was found that the patterns of differences between part-time and full-time were similar although the numbers of individuals working part-time were smaller when the more conventional definition was used. Given the potential problems of using a new definition of part-time work that is so different from the conventional definition, the conventional definition is used throughout the remainder of this report.

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Who Works Part-Time?

In this section, the professionals and managers who are employed part-time, using the conventional defi-

Table 3-3: Median Hours Professionals and Managers Worked per Week in 51 Career Locations

Career Locations	Median Hours
1 Executives and Administrators; Public Sector	40
2 Managers in Transformative Sector; Small, Private Firms	40
3 Managers in Transformative Sector; Large, Private Firms	45
4 Managers in Distributive Services; Small, Private Firms	40
5 Managers in Distributive Services; Large, Private Firms	45
6 Managers in Producer Services; Small, Private Firms	40
7 Managers in Producer Services; Large, Private Firms	40
8 Managers in Social Services; Small, Private Firms	40
9 Managers in Social Services; Large, Private Firms	40
10 Managers in Social Services; Public Sector	40
11 Managers in Personal Services; Small, Private Firms	40
12 Managers in Personal Services; Large, Private Firms	43
13 Management-Related in Transformative Sector; Private Sector	40
14 Management-Related in Distributive Services; Private Sector	40
15 Management-Related in Producer Services; Small, Private Firms	40
16 Management-Related in Producer Services; Large, Private Firms	40
17 Management-Related in Social Services; Private Sector	40
18 Management-Related in Social Services; Public Sector	40
19 Scientists; Small, Private Firms ¹	40
20 Scientists; Large, Private Firms ¹	40
21 Scientists; Public Sector ¹	40
22 Health-Diagnosing Occupations	50
23 Registered Nurses; Small, Private Firms	40
24 Registered Nurses; Large, Private Firms	40
25 Registered Nurses; Public Sector	40
26 Other Health-Assessment and Treating Occupations	40
27 Post-Secondary Education Teachers; Private Sector	40
28 Post-Secondary Education Teachers; Public Sector	40
29 Pre-Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers; Private Sector	35
30 Pre-Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers; Public Sector	40
31 Elementary School Teachers; Private Sector	40
32 Elementary School Teachers; Public Sector	40
33 Secondary School Teachers	40
34 Special Education Teachers	40
35 Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified; Small, Private Schools	30
36 Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified; Large, Private Schools	40
37 Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified; Public Schools	40
38 Librarians, Archivists and Curators	40
39 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Small, Private Firms	40
40 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Large, Private Firms	40
41 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Public Sector	40
42 Lawyers and Judges	45
43 Writers and Artists; Small, Private Firms	40
44 Writers and Artists; Large Private Firms and Public Sector	40
45 Entertainers and Athletes	40
46 Sales Reps. in Transformative Sector; Small, Private Firms	40
47 Sales Reps. in Transformative Sector; Large, Private Firms	40
48 Sales Reps. in Distributive Services; Small, Private Firms	40
49 Sales Reps. in Distributive Sector; Large, Private Firms	40
50 Sales Reps. in Producer Services; Small, Private Firms	40
51 Sales Reps. in Producer Services; Large, Private Firms	40

Note: 1. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

dition are described, looking at men and women separately and together. Only statistically significant results are reported as differences for these comparisons of each characteristic.¹⁸

One of the major study questions is: "What are the demographic and other characteristics of professionals and managers who work part-time?" Based on previous research in other occupations, it was predicted that part-time managers and professionals would be more likely to be:

- women, especially married women with young children
- students
- near retirement age or older
- white
- have other sources of income such as spouses' higher earnings or family assets

In general, the results support the predictions. As expected, the results indicate that part-time professionals and managers are likely to be women, especially white mothers with young children (but not single mothers). In contrast, unmarried men are more likely to work part-time than married men. For men and women, part-time work as professionals or managers is most common among those who are younger than 24 years or older than 62, and with moderate levels of education. This section describes their characteristics in detail.

Gender

- **Women professionals/managers are more likely than their male counterparts to work part-time** (see Figure

3–4). This pattern is quite consistent regardless of which definition of part-time work is used. As seen later in this chapter (Table 3–8), it is also true for women and men working in the same occupations (except for entertainers and athletes) or industry groups.

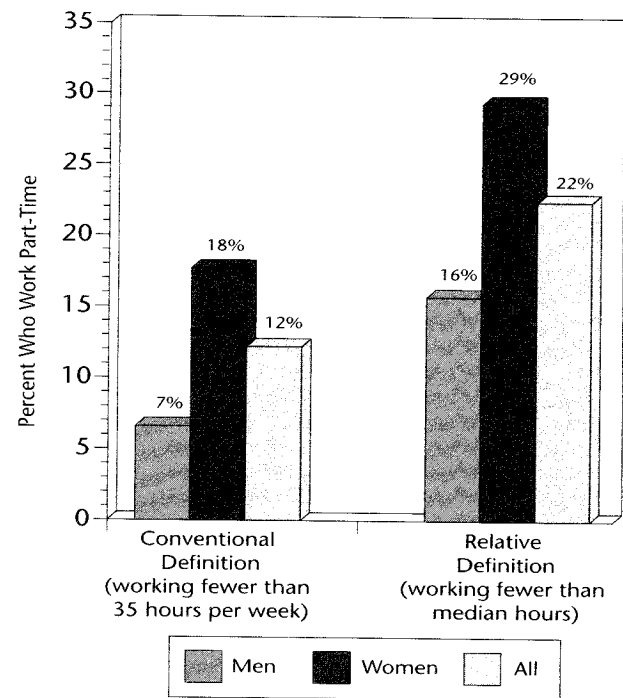
Race

- Among all professionals and managers, there are no significant racial differences in part-time employment. In contrast, among women, African Americans are slightly less likely to work part-time (see Table 3–5). As shall be seen, however, race is a more complicated predictor of part-time employment when other demographic characteristics, such as educational attainment and marital status, are controlled. Those results will be presented later in this chapter.

Age

- Younger or older professionals and managers tend to work more as part-time employees, with some significant gender differences during the middle years (see Figure 3–6 and Table 3–5). Young professionals and managers may work part-time as assistants or interns until they finish their schooling or until they find the kind of job they are looking for (Heckman, Roselius, and Smith, 1994). Older professionals and managers may reduce hours before or after retirement to balance their desire for a reduced work load with their need for income or their desire to continue their careers. Working part-time under age 25 or over age 61 is much more common than during the prime working years, even for women. In the youngest age group, more men than women work part-time.
- The pattern of part-time work over the life cycle varies by gender. Between the ages of 16–24, many men and women work part-time, nearly one-third. During the major child-rearing years (the ages between 25 and 44), women and men decrease their

Figure 3-4: Part-Time Work Among Professionals and Managers Using Different Definitions of Part-Time



Note: The relative definition of part-time was defined as at least one hour less than the median hours for the specific career location of the employee.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

use of part-time schedules dramatically, but it remains between 14–19 percent for women while it drops to 3–5 percent for men (see Figure 3–6 and Table 3–5). This pattern probably reflects a gendered division of labor within the household in which women focus on family responsibilities while men make up for their wives' lower earnings by increasing their own work hours.

Marital Status

- Married women are more likely to work part-time than unmarried women. This may reflect the availability of other income sources as well as the presence of children (see Table 3–5). As will be seen in the logistic regression later in this chapter, when these other characteristics are controlled in the logistic regression, marital status is unrelated to part-time employment status for women.

Table 3-5: Percent of Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time¹ by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, Age, Marital Status and Presence of Children, and Education

	Percent of Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time			Total Number of Professionals and Managers (in thousands)		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Race/Ethnicity						
White, Non-Hispanic	6%	19%	12%	13,700	13,400	27,100
African American, Non-Hispanic	10%	10%	10%	800	1,200	2,000
Hispanic American	8%	16%	12%	600	600	1,200
Asian American/Other, Non-Hispanic	11%	17%	14%	600	400	1,000
All	7%	18%	12%	15,700	15,600	31,300
Age Distribution						
16-24	32%	28%	30%	1,000	1,200	2,100
25-34	5%	14%	10%	4,300	4,700	9,100
35-44	3%	19%	11%	4,700	5,000	9,700
45-54	2%	13%	7%	3,400	3,200	6,600
55-61	4%	19%	10%	1,500	1,000	2,500
62+ ²	29%	40%	33%	900	600	1,500
All	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500
Marital Status and Presence of Children						
Married	4%	21%	12%	11,000	9,700	20,700
With Children under 18	1%	26%	13%	6,000	5,100	11,100
With Children under 6	2%	29%	14%	3,000	2,400	5,400
No Children	7%	16%	11%	5,100	4,600	9,700
Unmarried	13%	13%	13%	4,800	6,000	10,800
With Children under 18	26%	16%	18%	500	1,400	1,900
With Children under 6	12%	16%	15%	100	400	500
No Children	11%	12%	12%	4,300	4,700	9,000
All	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500
Education Level³						
Less than High School Diploma	24%	31%	28%	300	300	600
High School Diploma	7%	16%	12%	2,100	2,700	4,800
Some College	10%	20%	15%	2,500	2,500	5,000
Associate's Degree	5%	23%	16%	1,000	1,600	2,600
Bachelor's Degree	5%	17%	11%	5,800	5,500	11,300
Advanced Degree	6%	15%	10%	4,100	3,000	7,100
All	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500

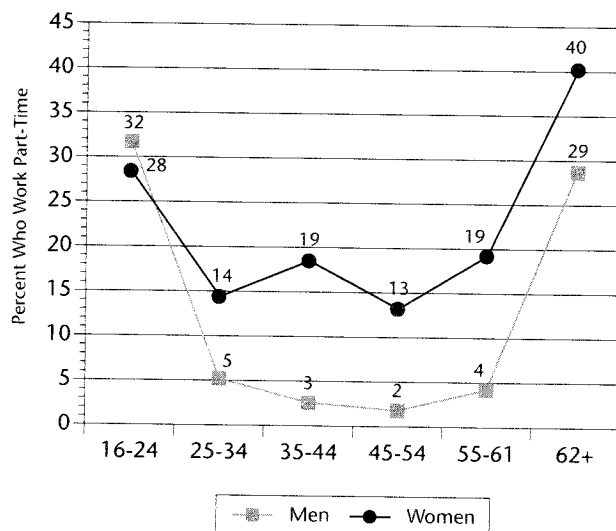
Notes:

1. Part-time is measured by the conventional definition, individuals who worked 1 to 34 hours for the longest job in the previous year.
2. Older workers range in age to 90 years old.
3. Highest level completed.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

- In contrast, **unmarried men are more likely to work part-time than married men.** This may be partly due to age differences since unmarried men are usually younger than married men (see Table 3-5). It probably also reflects the lack of family responsibilities, using 1991 SIPP data, it was found that 6.5 percent of unmarried professional and managerial men worked part-time while they were enrolled in school while only 1.3 percent of their married counterparts worked part-time while they were in school.¹⁹
- **Among the married professionals/managers, women are more than five times as likely to work part-time as men** (21 percent compared with 4 percent). However, among the unmarried professionals/managers, there is no gender difference; 13 percent work part-time (see Table 3-5).

Figure 3-6: Percent of Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time by Gender and Age



Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

Family Type and the Presence of Children

- **When children are present in the family, women are much more likely to work part-time than men. In addition, married women with pre-school age children are more likely to work part-time than other women whereas married men with pre-school age children are less likely to work part-time than other men.** Among married couple families with pre-school age children, 29 percent of women and two percent of men work part-time. Among the single parent families with pre-school age children, 12 percent of men and 16 percent of women work part-time (see Table 3-5).
- **Single fathers are more likely to work part-time than married fathers, but single mothers are less likely to work part-time than married mothers** (see Table 3-5). This apparently reflects the differing financial needs of and cultural expectations towards single mothers and fathers; whereas single mothers are usually more financially needy than married mothers and there is a greater expectation that they work full-time, all fathers are ex-

pected to work full-time but it may be more acceptable for single fathers to reduce their hours in order to help care for their children.

Education

- Only two percent of all professionals/managers had less than a high school education, and a relatively large proportion of those men and women work part-time, presumably because many of them are still in school. If individuals who have less than a high school education are excluded, a somewhat curvilinear relationship between educational attainment and the proportion working part-time is seen. **People with some college experience or associate's degrees are more likely to work part-time than high school graduates or those who have bachelor's degrees or advanced degrees** (see Table 3-5).²⁰ These differences are not large and may reflect the fact that individuals with more than a high school diploma and less than a bachelor's degree are working part-time while in college.

- **The relationship between education and part-time status is similar for women and men.** Among male managers and professionals, those with some years of college education are most likely to work part-time (10 percent), and among female managers and professionals, those with associate degrees (23 percent) or some college (20 percent) are most likely to work part-time (see Table 3–5). As shall be seen in the logistic regression later in this chapter, this education difference is independent of the specific type of careers these men and women choose.

Spouse's Earnings

The tabular results indicate that women who work part-time tend to be married to men with higher earnings whereas there is a tendency for men who work part-time to be married to women with high or low (but not moderate) salaries (see Table 3–7). Of course, spouses' salaries may be associated with other demographic variables as well, which we will examine at the end of this chapter.

Income from Family Assets

When family assets are examined in the tabular analysis (Table 3–7), there is a slight tendency for women with higher assets to work part-time and for men with the most or least (but not moderate) assets to work part-time. These results are very similar to the results for spouse's earnings.

Where Are Part-Time Careers Located?

The types of jobs that are most likely to employ part-time managers and professionals are described in this section. Results show that there are more part-time jobs for professionals than managers, more part-time jobs in small firms than large firms, and there are also significant differences in terms of specific occupations, type of industry, and sector professionals than are described in this section. These are described in detail in Table 3–8.

Occupation

- **Professionals are more likely to hold part-time jobs than managers, with a few exceptions** (see Table 3–8). Professionals in engineering, natural science and computer science are the only ones that have fewer part-time opportunities than managers. Lawyers and judges have similar part-time opportunities as the managers.
- **The five occupations with the largest proportion of part-time jobs are: teachers, n.e.c.** (not elsewhere classified) (39 percent), **entertainers and athletes** (37 percent), **post-secondary school teachers** (36 percent), **kindergarten teachers** (34 percent) and **registered nurses** (28 percent).

Industry

- Professionals and managers in the **service sector are more likely to work part-time** than in the transformative industries (such as manufacturing) or extractive industries (such as agriculture). Among those who are in service industries, **personal services or social services** offer more part-time work than retail sales and other distributive services or producer services such as banking and real estate (see Table 3–8).

Sector

- Professionals and managers working in the public sector comprise 27 percent of the total employees in professional and managerial specialties. These **public sector employees are slightly more likely to work part-time** (see Table 3–8). Similarly, when men are analyzed separately, men in the public sector are more likely to work part-time than men in the private sector. However, as will be demonstrated in the logistic regression at the end of this chapter, **these differences are not maintained when other factors are taken into account, such as occupation, industry, firm size, education and other demographic and family characteristics.**

Table 3-7: Percent of Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time¹ by Gender, Spouse's Earnings and Income from Family Assets

	Percent of Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time			Total Number of Professionals and Managers (in thousands)		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
All Married Employees	3%	21%	12%	8,300	9,100	12,400
Spouse's Earnings						
Low	4%	17%	8%	4,100	1,700	5,600
Medium	2%	16%	9%	2,800	2,900	5,300
High	3%	25%	20%	1,400	4,500	7,800
All Employees	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500
Income from Family Assets						
Low	8%	16%	12%	4,900	5,800	10,800
Medium	5%	17%	11%	5,100	5,100	10,200
High	7%	20%	13%	5,700	4,800	10,500

Note:

1. Part-time is measured by the conventional definition—individuals who worked 1 to 34 hours per week at the longest job in the previous year.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

- On the other hand, professional and managerial **women in the public sector are slightly less likely to work part-time than women who are in the private sector** (see Table 3-8). (This difference is maintained in the logistic regression.)

Firm Size

- **Large firms have a smaller portion of part-time professionals and managers** than small firms (see Table 3-8). Women working part-time tend to be more highly concentrated in these small firms than men. Within firms of the same size, **women are still more likely than men to work part-time** (see Table 3-8). Snider (1995) suggests that three factors—economies of scale, employment traditions of large firms and union pressure—can explain the lower prevalence of part-time employees in larger firms.

Logistic Regression Analyses

As described above, there are many demographic and occupational differences between professionals and managers who are employed part-time and those who are employed full-time. However, some of these differences may overlap; for example, married women may be more likely to work part-time than single women because married women are more likely to have young children, therefore, the presence of young children may be a more important predictor of part-time employment rather than marital status. In order to determine **which of these demographic and work variables independently predict part-time employment status (the dependent variable)**, it is necessary to statistically analyze all the potentially influential variables simultaneously in a logistic regression analysis. The independent variables include: occupations, industry, sector, firm size, educational

Table 3-8: Percent of Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time by Gender, Occupation, Industry, Sector and Firm Size

	Percent of Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time ¹			Total Number of Professionals and Managers (in thousands)		
	Men	Women	All	Men	Women	All
Occupations						
Executives and Administrators	4%	12%	7%	400	300	600
Managers	4%	10%	7%	5,100	3,600	8,700
Management-Related Occupations	4%	10%	7%	1,700	2,200	3,900
Scientists ²	2%	9%	4%	2,700	600	3,300
Health-Diagnosing Occupations	4%	18%	8%	300	100	400
Registered Nurses	10%	29%	28%	100	1,700	1,700
Other Health-Assessing Occupations	7%	24%	19%	200	400	600
Post-Secondary Teachers	26%	50%	36%	500	400	900
Kindergarten Teachers	50%	34%	34%	10	500	500
Elementary School Teachers	11%	16%	16%	200	1,500	1,800
Secondary School Teachers	10%	16%	13%	600	700	1,300
Special Education Teachers	3%	15%	13%	40	200	300
Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified	30%	45%	39%	200	300	600
Librarians, Archivists and Curators	24%	28%	28%	30	200	200
Social Scientists and Social Workers	11%	19%	15%	600	800	1,400
Lawyers and Judges	4%	12%	7%	300	100	400
Writers and Artists	11%	27%	20%	600	700	1,300
Entertainers and Athletes	38%	35%	37%	200	100	300
Sales Representatives	6%	15%	10%	2,000	1,100	3,100
Total	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500
Industry³						
Extractive Industries (Agriculture, Mining)	0%	12%	4%	200	100	200
Transformative Industries (Const., Manuf., Utilit.)	2%	9%	4%	4,200	1,500	5,700
Distributive Services (Transp., Comm., Trades)	6%	12%	8%	2,600	1,800	4,400
Producer Services (F.I.R.E., Eng., Acct., Legal)	6%	10%	8%	2,900	2,500	5,400
Social Services (Medical, Educ., Welfare)	10%	22%	17%	5,400	9,400	14,900
Personal Services (Domestic, Hotel and Restaurant)	18%	29%	23%	600	500	1,100
Total	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500
Sector						
Private	6%	18%	12%	12,400	10,700	23,100
Public	9%	17%	14%	3,400	5,100	8,500
Total	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500
Firm Size						
Small Firms (Less than 100 employees)	10%	25%	17%	4,400	4,600	9,100
Large Firms (Over 100 employees)	5%	15%	10%	11,400	11,100	22,500
Total	7%	18%	12%	15,800	15,700	31,500

Notes:

1. Part-time is measured by the conventional definition—individuals who worked 1 to 34 hours per week at the longest job in the previous year.
2. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.
3. See Singelmann and Browning, 1980.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

attainment, age, gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, presence of preschool-age children, spouse's earnings and income from family assets.

Two logistic regression analyses were conducted—one for women and one for men. In order to illustrate the impact of the different demographic and work characteristics, a “baseline” man and woman with identical characteristics was created: managers in the transformative sector, in large private firms, who were 30 years old, white, with bachelor's degrees, not married, with no pre-school age children and no income from family assets or from spouse's earnings. The logistic regression (Table 3–9) indicates that only 1.1 percent of the men and 3.2 percent of the women with these baseline characteristics held part-time jobs. The likelihood of working part-time increased or decreased dramatically when these characteristics were varied. The findings indicate that most of the demographic variables that increased the likelihood of working part-time when they were analyzed above, also significantly increased the likelihood of part-time employment for the “baseline” man or woman if that characteristic was varied while holding the others constant. Although the impact of many of these variables appears small, especially for men, the effects are statistically significant and proportionately impressive given the very low probability of part-time work of the baseline man and woman.

Part-time professionals and managers tend to be:

- **women, especially those with younger children**
- **unmarried men**
- **less educated**
- **either young or old (but not in-between)**
- **teachers; registered nurses; librarians, archivists and curators; social workers and social scientists; lawyers and judges (women only); sales representatives; writers and artists; entertainers and athletes; and professionals in other health-assessing occupations**
- **in the service sector industries**
- **in the private sector (women only)**
- **in small firms.**

These variables are each associated with part-time employment independently of their associations with each other. In addition, there are a few differences between the logistic regression results and the descriptive statistics that were presented earlier in this chapter. For example, in the descriptive statistics, married women are more likely to work part-time than single women but in the logistic regression, there is no difference between married and single women when other differences between the women, such as age and education, are taken into account. However, in the logistic regression, having pre-school age children is associated with mothers being more likely to work part-time and fathers being less likely to work part-time, which is similar to the findings for married men and women in the descriptive statistics. Race/ethnicity is a stronger predictor of part-time employment when other demographic variables are controlled: Asian men are more likely to work part-time than white men, whereas African American and Hispanic women are less likely to work part-time compared with white women. The logistic regressions also provide additional information about the impact of age, indicating that the probability of working part-time decreases with age up to a certain point, and then increases after that.²¹ This turning point occurs at age 44 for male professionals and managers and at age 40 for their female counterparts.

When characteristics are compared in the cross tabulations, some college and associate degrees are associated with part-time employment (which could be related to the relatively large number of nurses, likely many with associate degrees, among part-time professionals). In the logistic regression, when their occupations and demographic characteristics are statistically controlled, “some college” increases the likelihood of part-time work (relative to a bachelor's degree) while an associate's degree is insignificant. However, the most highly educated women (with a bachelor's degree or higher) are less likely to work part-time. The relationship between education and part-time work is weaker but similar for men. The results related to income are also slightly different in

Table 3-9: The Effect of Selected Characteristics on the Probability of Working Part-Time

Men (N = 18,462)		Women (N = 18,831)	
Baseline: Probability of Working Part-Time ¹	1.1%	Baseline: Probability of Working Part-Time	3.2%
Occupation: Managers		Occupation: Managers	
Industry: Transformative Sector (Const., Manuf., Utilit.)		Industry: Transformative Sector	
In Private Sector		In Private Sector	
In Large Firms		In Large Firms	
Educational Attainment: Bachelor's Degree		Educational Attainment: Bachelor's Degree	
Age: 30 Years		Age: 30 Years	
Race/Ethnicity: White, Non-Hispanic		Race/Ethnicity: White, Non-Hispanic	
Family Characteristics		Family Characteristics	
Not Married		Not Married	
No Pre-School Children		No Pre-School Children	
Income from Family Assets: None ²		Income from Family Assets: None ²	
Spouse's Earnings: None ²		Spouse's Earnings: None ²	
More Likely to Work Part-Time		More Likely to Work Part-Time	
Occupation		Occupation	
Post-Secondary Teachers	8%	Post-Secondary Teachers	34%
Librarians, Archivists and Curators	8%	Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified	19%
Entertainers and Athletes	5%	Entertainers and Athletes	13%
Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified	5%	Writers and Artists	12%
Registered Nurses	4%	Librarians, Archivists and Curators	11%
Secondary School Teachers	3%	Registered Nurses	11%
Elementary School Teachers	3%	Kindergarten Teachers	10%
Writers and Artists	3%	In Other Health-Assessing Occupations	9%
In Other Health-Assessing Occupations	2%	In Health-Diagnosing Occupations	8%
Sales Representatives	2%	Sales Representatives	7%
Social Scientists and Social Workers	2%	Special Education Teachers	7%
Industry		Elementary School Teachers	7%
In Social Services (Medical, Educ., Welfare)	3%	Secondary School Teachers	7%
In Personal Services (Domestic, Hotel and Restaurant)	3%	Lawyers and Judges	7%
In Producer Services (F.I.R.E., Eng., Acct., Legal)	2%	Social Scientists and Social Workers	7%
In Distributive Services (Transp., Comm., Trades)	2%	Scientists ³	5%
In Small Firms	2%	Industry	
Educational Attainment		In Personal Services (Domestic, Hotel and Restaurant)	8%
High School Diploma or Less	2%	In Social Services (Medical, Educ., Welfare)	8%
Some College	1.4%	In Distributive Services (Transp., Comm., Trades)	4%
Age		In Small Firms	6%
Age 25	2%	Educational Attainment	
Age 60	2%	High School Diploma or Less	5%
Race/Ethnicity		Some College	4%
Asian American/Other, Non-Hispanic	2%	Age	
		Age 25	4%
		Age 60	6%
		Family Characteristics	
		If Married, Spouse's Earnings: \$39,000/year ²	6%
		Presence of Pre-School Children	5%
		Income from Assets: \$1,600/year ²	4%
Less Likely to Work Part-Time		Less Likely to Work Part-Time	
Educational Attainment		In Public Sector	2.5%
Advanced Degree	0.8%	Educational Attainment	
Age		Advanced Degree	1.5%
Age 40	0.5%	Age	
Family Characteristics		Age 40	2.6%
Married	1.0%	Race/Ethnicity	
Presence of Pre-School Children	0.8%	African American, Non-Hispanic	1.9%
If Married, Spouse's Earnings: \$39,000/year ²	0.8%	Hispanic American	2.6%
Insignificant Results		Insignificant Results	
Occupation		Occupation	
Executives and Administrators		Executives and Administrators	
In Health-Diagnosing Occupations		In Management-Related Occupations	
In Management-Related Occupations		Industry	
Lawyers and Judges		In Extractive Industries (Agriculture, Mining)	
Scientists ³		In Producer Services (F.I.R.E., Eng., Acct., Legal)	
Special Education Teachers		Educational Attainment	
Industry		Associate's Degree	
In Extractive Industries (Agriculture, Mining)		Race/Ethnicity	
In Public Sector		Asian American/Other, Non-Hispanic	
Educational Attainment		Family Characteristics	
Associate's Degree		Married	
Race/Ethnicity			
African American, Non-Hispanic			
Hispanic American			
Family Characteristics			
Income from Family Assets ²			

Notes:

1. Variable excluded for men—kindergarten teachers.
2. To illustrate the impact of changes in earnings or income from family assets in this table, specific dollar amounts were evaluated. However, the logistic regression assesses the impact of higher or lower earnings or income from assets rather than specific amounts. Earnings and income are presented in 1997 constant dollars.
3. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR calculations analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

the logistic regressions than they were in the descriptive analysis above. The logistic regression results show that when other characteristics are taken into account, men's part-time work is unrelated to income from family assets, whereas women are more likely to work part-time when they have greater income from family assets (see Table 3–9). Men with more highly paid wives are less likely to work part-time whereas women with more highly paid husbands are more likely to work part-time.

The logistic regression analyses also indicate that many of the differences that were significant when job variables were considered, such as occupation, sector, industry and firm size, are still significant when the effects of other job variables and demographic characteristics are statistically controlled. As was the case in the descriptive statistics, the logistic regression indicates that there are more part-time male and female employees in service industries and smaller firms. In addition, there are 17 occupations that are especially likely to have part-time employees among female professionals and managers and 11 occupations that are especially likely to have part-time employees among male professionals and managers. However, the logistic regression indicates that part-time employees are more likely to be in the private sector whereas the descriptive statistics had suggested that men in the public sector were more likely to have part-time jobs than those in the private sector.

Summary

“Full-time” hours vary between 30 and 50 for professional and managerial career locations, but for most locations, 40 is the median number of hours worked. When the conventional definition of part-time employment (fewer than 35 hours per week) is used, only 12 percent of managers and professionals work part-time. This is much lower than the 22 percent of all U.S. employees that work part-time.

As the logistic regression shows, part-time managers and professionals differ from full-timers in terms of many demographic and human capital characteristics, and the importance of race, marital status, age of children, and income varies for men and women. Women are more likely to be employed part-time than men, and the women who are employed part-time are more likely to have young children, to be white, and to have husbands with higher salaries. In contrast, the men who work part-time are more likely to be unmarried Asian-American, and less likely to have young children. Lower educational attainment is associated with part-time employment for men and women, as is being in the youngest and oldest age brackets.

Part-time professionals and managers are more likely to work in small, private firms and in the service sector industries. They are also more likely to be employed in particular occupations, such as teachers, librarians, social workers and social scientists, sales representatives, writers and artists, entertainers and athletes and nurses and other health-assessing professions.

Chapter 4

Career Locations And Their Attractiveness

As explained in Chapter 2, 51 career locations were created that simultaneously take into account occupations, industries, sectors of the economy and firms of different sizes in order to investigate how part-time work varies across the labor market. In this chapter, the relative attractiveness of these career locations and the characteristics of the professionals and managers that work in the most and least attractive career locations are examined.

Creating a Composite Score to Measure Attractiveness for Part-Time Jobs

The next step was to develop a measure of the attractiveness of the part-time work that was available in each career location. Many part-time jobs offer low

salaries and few benefits whereas others offer salaries and benefits that are similar to those for full-time work in the same field. The Current Population Survey includes information about whether an employee participated in an employer-provided benefit program but not if he or she chose *not* to participate when it was offered by an employer. In general, employees may not participate in pension plans or take up health insurance if the cost to them is high or they have other adequate coverage. The measure of benefits associated with part-time work in this report is necessarily a measure of participation rather than a measure of what the employer offers.

Using the conventional definition of part-time work, an analysis was conducted of the intercorrelation among five variables that were believed likely to be related to the attractiveness of part-time work. The ma-

Table 4-1: Intercorrelations Among the Potential Attractiveness Measures Using 51 Career Locations as Units of Analysis

	Percent Part-Time	Part-Time: Hourly Earnings	Ratio of Hourly Earnings (PT/FT)	Part-Time: Direct Coverage (Health Insurance)	Part-Time: Pension Coverage
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
(1) Percent Part-Time	1.00 ***	-0.17	0.30 *	-0.38 **	-0.23
(2) Hourly Earnings—Part-Time		1.00 ***	0.61 ***	0.53 ***	0.49 ***
(3) Ratio of Hourly Earnings (PT/FT)			1.00 ***	0.10	0.21
(4) H.I. Direct Coverage—Part-Time				1.00 ***	0.80 ***
(5) Pension Coverage—Part-Time					1.00 ***

Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

trix in Table 4–1, based on data from the Current Population Survey, shows the extent to which the levels of hourly earnings for part-time employees, participation in employer-provided health or pension benefit programs among part-time workers, and the percent of part-time jobs in a career location are related to each other and to the ratio of hourly earnings for part-time employees compared with full-time employees.

The matrix shows that the career locations with more part-time positions do not necessarily pay higher or lower wages to part-time employees, but these career locations tend to provide part-time salaries that are similar (on an hourly basis) to full-time positions. Also, part-time professionals and managers working in career locations with more part-time positions are less likely to receive health care coverage from their employers, but there is no association with participation in employer-provided pension plans.

Career locations that offer higher earnings to part-time professionals and managers pay them more equitably compared with full-time employees than do career locations that offer lower salaries for part-time positions. Career locations that provide higher salaries to part-time employees also have more employees that receive health care benefits and pension benefits. Similarly, career locations with higher participation in health insurance plans among part-time employees tend to have higher participation in pension plans among part-time employees. The level of earnings is highly correlated with earnings ratios of part-time to full-time workers and with receiving benefits, but earnings *ratios* are not significantly related to benefit receipt.

Examining the correlation matrix based on the 51 career locations confirms that the “availability” of part-time work (measured by percent part-time) is distinct from the “attractiveness” of the salaries and benefits of part-time work. Based on these findings, four indicators that were associated with one another were selected for the composite index; the prevalence of part-time work was not included. The composite index adds together standard scores to produce a rating of how good the compensation is for part-time

jobs based on earnings²² and fringe benefits.²³ The four indicators include: 1) hourly earnings for the part-time employees; 2) ratio of hourly earnings for the part-time compared with full-time employees; 3) the proportion of part-time workers who receive employer-provided health insurance; and 4) the proportion of part-time workers who participate in a pension plan at each of the career locations.²⁴ Possible scores range from 0–40 and, as Table 4–2 shows, the attractiveness scores for the 51 career locations range from less than 1 for managers in personal services in large, private firms, to 36 for registered nurses in the public sector.

Defining Best/Average/Worst Career Locations for Part-Time Jobs

To categorize part-time jobs according to the attractiveness of their salaries and benefits, several different potential cut-offs in the compensation composite index scores presented in Table 4–2 were examined. The composite scores ranged from less than 1.0 to more than 36.0 but only 12 of the 51 were above 20.0, which represents half the maximum possible score of 40. The scores tended to be very similar for several career locations; the largest gap between scores received was between the scores of 25 and 32; therefore it was examined as a potential cut-off point to categorize the most attractive part-time jobs.

When individual factors that contribute to the composite scores are reviewed, the career locations with the highest composite scores (ranging from 32–36) offer equity in pay compared with full-time locations²⁵ and, on average, provide health insurance and pensions to approximately half their full-time employees (see Table 4–4). These jobs are also, on average, the most highly paid. The “natural” cut-off point of the composite score therefore can be used to designate a group of career locations that offer very attractive compensation to their part-time professionals and managers. This definition is exclusive, however; using this definition, only 13 percent of all professionals and managers are working in the four career loca-

Table 4-2: Attractive Part-Time Index Items and Attractiveness Composite Index Score in 51 Career Locations

Career Locations	Part-Time Hourly Wage ¹	Ratio of PT/FT Hourly Wage	Percentage of Employer-Based Health Benefits for Part-Time	Percentage of Employer-Provided Pension Coverage for Part-Time	Attractiveness Composite Index Score
25 Registered Nurses; Public Sector	\$21.55	1.05	50%	63%	36.29
24 Registered Nurses; Large, Private Firms	\$21.95	1.11	43%	52%	34.06
20 Scientists ² ; Large, Private Firms	\$21.28	0.94	53%	49%	32.97
34 Special Education Teachers	\$14.67	0.95	56%	58%	31.70
19 Scientists ² ; Small, Private Firms	\$22.00	1.09	28%	17%	24.86
42 Lawyers and Judges	\$24.38	0.84	36%	17%	24.40
21 Scientists ² ; Public Sector	\$14.19	0.66	56%	37%	23.86
13 Management-Related in Transformative Sector; Private Sector	\$15.29	0.89	41%	31%	23.44
3 Managers in Transformative Sector; Large, Private Firms	\$14.67	0.59	50%	40%	22.23
26 Other Health Assessment and Treating Occupations	\$16.72	0.92	33%	26%	22.09
30 Pre-Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers; Public Sector	\$10.99	0.76	45%	43%	22.06
9 Managers in Social Services; Large, Private Sector Firms	\$14.93	0.79	41%	31%	21.87
18 Management-Related in Social Services; Public Sector	\$10.27	0.62	49%	39%	19.98
2 Managers in Transformative Sector; Small, Private Firms	\$15.11	0.89	32%	16%	19.02
17 Management-Related in Social Services; Private Sector	\$11.44	0.83	35%	28%	18.79
27 Post-Secondary Educ. Teachers; Private Sector	\$14.81	0.78	37%	18%	18.76
15 Management-Related in Producer Services; Small, Private Firms	\$12.75	0.85	33%	21%	18.14
33 Secondary School Teachers	\$11.33	0.68	37%	34%	17.88
47 Sales Reps. in Transformative Sector; Large, Private Firms	\$11.33	0.54	42%	37%	17.52
39 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Small, Private Firms	\$10.50	1.00	26%	17%	17.00
23 Registered Nurses; Small, Private Firms	\$14.62	0.90	19%	22%	16.93
1 Executives and Administrators; Public Sector	\$9.40	0.49	47%	35%	16.50
7 Managers in Producer Services; Large, Private Firms	\$13.57	0.67	23%	36%	16.16
40 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Large, Private Firms	\$10.56	0.82	25%	25%	15.49
10 Managers in Social Services; Public Sector	\$9.82	0.49	39%	38%	15.40
16 Management-Related in Producer Services; Large, Private Firms	\$13.05	0.80	34%	5%	15.38
32 Elementary School Teachers; Public Sector	\$10.30	0.65	29%	35%	15.30
31 Elementary School Teachers; Private Sector	\$8.98	0.81	28%	22%	14.64
28 Post-Secondary Educ. Teachers; Public Sector	\$12.06	0.58	36%	21%	14.52
51 Sales Reps. in Producer Services; Large, Private Firms	\$9.82	0.60	34%	24%	13.63
41 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Public Sector	\$9.06	0.62	29%	31%	13.56
22 Health Diagnosing Occupations	\$14.73	0.58	32%	11%	13.53
44 Writers and Artists; Large Private Firms and Public Sector	\$10.61	0.64	25%	24%	12.74
37 Teachers Not Elsewhere Classified; Public Sector	\$10.09	0.70	27%	15%	12.35
35 Teachers Not Elsewhere Classified; Small, Private Schools	\$9.96	0.99	13%	6%	11.85
8 Managers in Social Services; Small, Private Firms	\$11.02	0.75	19%	15%	11.76
6 Managers in Producer Services; Small, Private Firms	\$11.85	0.77	16%	11%	11.22
11 Managers in Personal Services; Small, Private Firms	\$9.15	0.77	23%	6%	10.47
38 Librarians, Archivists and Curators	\$9.02	0.60	20%	25%	10.32
48 Sales Reps. in Distributive Services; Small, Private Firms	\$10.61	0.77	15%	9%	10.00
29 Pre-Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers; Private Sector	\$6.55	0.98	12%	8%	9.99
14 Management-Related in Distributive Services; Private Sector	\$8.55	0.60	25%	17%	9.97
45 Entertainers and Athletes	\$9.15	0.74	18%	10%	9.56
50 Sales Reps. in Producer Services; Small, Private Firms	\$10.08	0.72	23%	1%	9.50
36 Teachers Not Elsewhere Classified; Large, Private Schools	\$8.41	0.57	29%	9%	9.04
46 Sales Reps. in Transformative Sector; Small, Private Firms	\$8.49	0.56	25%	8%	7.86
43 Writers and Artists; Small, Private Firms	\$8.87	0.75	11%	6%	7.44
5 Managers in Distributive Services; Large, Private Firms	\$7.20	0.48	26%	12%	6.90
4 Managers in Distributive Services; Small, Private Firms	\$7.27	0.64	18%	8%	6.84
49 Sales Reps. in Distributive Sector; Large, Private Firms	\$7.95	0.44	16%	12%	4.46
12 Managers in Personal Services; Large, Private Firms	\$5.78	0.42	13%	0%	0.45
Unweighted Average	\$12.09	0.74	31%	23%	16.09

Notes:

- Hourly earnings are reported in 1997 constant dollars.
- Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

tions with the most attractive salaries and benefits for part-time employment.

The next 25 career locations were then designated as “average” based on having index scores between 15 and 25. These “average” career locations employ 54 percent of professionals and managers. The least attractive career locations are the bottom 22 career locations; the index score for these locations ranges from 0.45 to 14; one-third of all part-time professionals and managers work in these least attractive career locations. Coincidentally, this cut-off is the bottom third of possible scores. The best, average and worst career locations for part-time jobs are shown in Figure 4–3, and the average values of the four compensation measures included in the index are presented in Table 4–4.

- **Best Compensated Part-Time Career Locations.** Men and women who work part-time in the **best part-time career locations** are not only **the most highly paid (averaging \$19.86/hour)** but also **enjoy equity in pay compared with full-time professionals and managers** (average ratio equals 1.01). In addition, **51 percent receive health benefits and 56 percent participate in employer-provided pension plans.** Registered nurses in the public sector or large, private firms; scientists (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and natural scientists) in large, private firms; and special education teachers are the only career locations that satisfy the criteria for this definition.²⁶
- **Average Part-Time Career Locations.** Men and women who work in average career locations have substantially lower earnings and are less likely to have benefits. Part-time managers and professionals in **average part-time career locations earn \$13.32/hour, which is 76 percent of the hourly earnings of those who work full-time. Only 36 percent receive health benefits from their employer, and only 28 percent participate in an employer-provided pension plan.** Most teachers, some management-related workers, some managers, scientists (including engineers,

mathematicians and computer and natural scientists in small, private firms and in the public sector), registered nurses in small private firms and lawyers and judges are the main career locations included in this category.²⁷

- **Worst Part-Time Career Locations.** Part-time managers and professionals who work in the **worst part-time career locations** are the **worst paid, averaging \$9.28/hour, and also have the least equity in pay compared with full-timers (67 percent). Only one of five (21 percent) receive health insurance, and approximately one out of every eight (12 percent) participate in an employer-provided pension plan.** Managers in service industries, sales representatives in small private firms, writers and artists, entertainers and athletes, pre-kindergarten and kindergarten teachers, health diagnosing occupations (including physicians) and social scientists and social workers in the public sector are the main career locations included in this definition.

Underemployment: Involuntary Part-Time Work and Overeducated Workers

Although the premise of this report is that part-time work could potentially be an excellent strategy for many men and women who want to combine employment and family responsibilities, it is important to consider that there are individuals who want to work full-time but work part-time instead because full-time positions are not available. Another form of underemployment, as measured by Clogg (1979), is characterized by workers who are significantly more highly educated than is typical for employees in the same career location. The national data set used in this analysis does not provide information about whether those highly educated employees are “overeducated” in the sense that they “settled” for a job that they believe to be “beneath them” because

Figure 4-3: Attractive Compensation for Part-Time Work Index in 51 Career Locations



Note: 1. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.
 Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

Table 4-4: Mean Scores of Attractive Compensation Items for the Best/Average/Worst Part-Time Career Locations

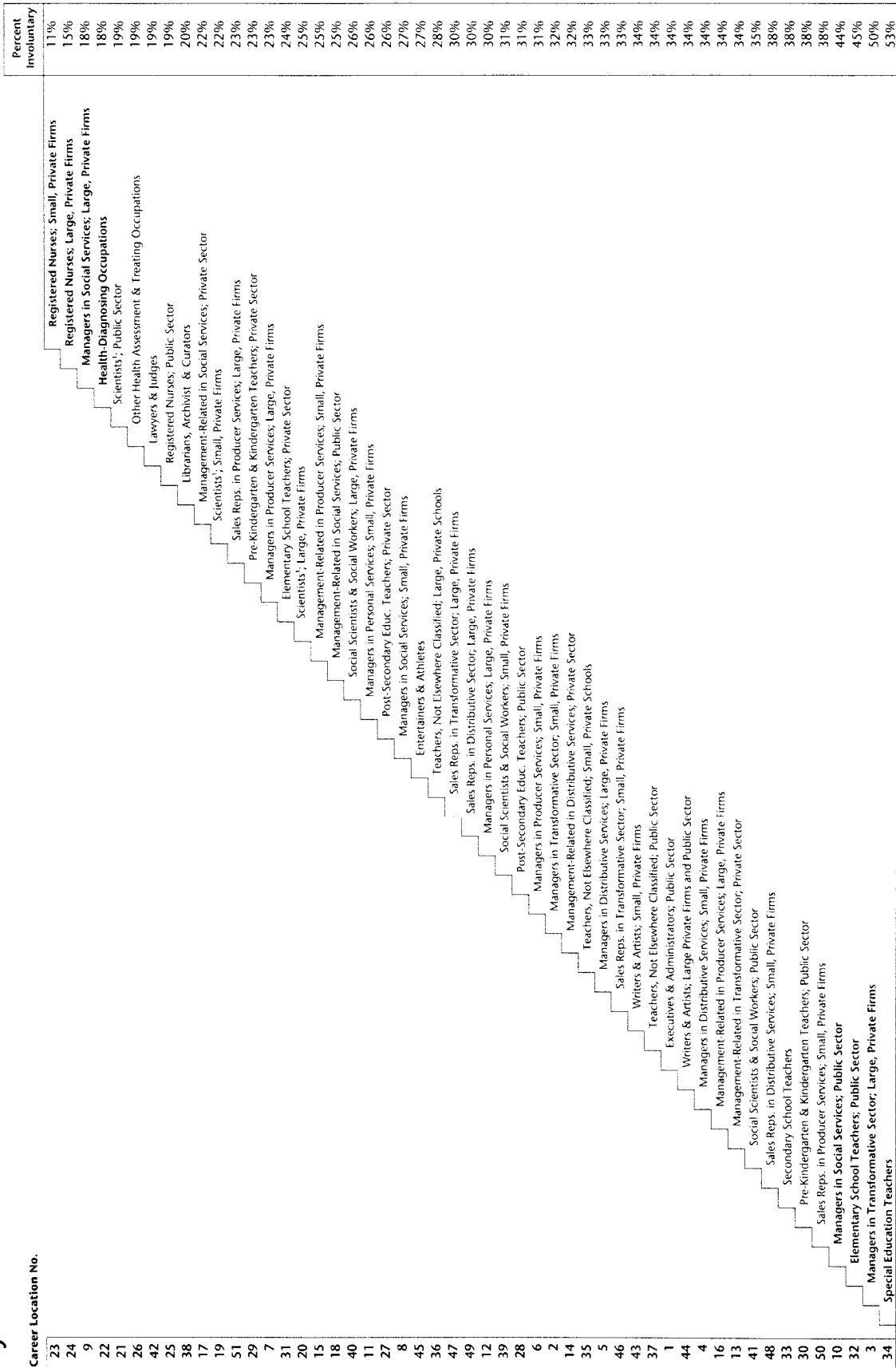
Career Locations	Attractiveness Composite Index Score	Cumulative Frequency	Part-Time Hourly Wage ¹	Ratio of PT/FT Hourly Wage	Percentage of Employer-Based Health Benefits for Part-Time	Percentage of Employer-Provided Pension Coverage for Part-Time
25 Registered Nurses; Public Sector	36.29	Best Career Locations	\$19.86	1.01	51%	56%
24 Registered Nurses; Large, Private Firms	34.06					
20 Scientists ² ; Large, Private Firms	32.97					
34 Special Education Teachers	31.70					
19 Scientists ² ; Small, Private Firms	24.86					
42 Lawyers and Judges	24.40					
21 Scientists ² ; Public Sector	23.86					
13 Management-Related in Transf. Sector; Prv. Sector	23.44					
3 Managers in Transf. Sector; Large, Prv. Firms	22.23					
26 Other Health Assessment and Treating Occupations	22.09					
30 Pre-Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers; Pub. Sector	22.06	Average Career Locations	\$13.32	0.76	36%	28%
9 Managers in Social Srv.; Large, Prv. Sector Firms	21.87					
18 Management-Related in Social Srv.; Pub. Sector	19.98					
2 Managers in Transf. Sector; Small, Prv. Firms	19.02					
17 Management-Related in Social Srv.; Prv. Sector	18.79					
27 Post-Secondary Educ. Teachers; Private Sector	18.76					
15 Management-Related in Producer Srv.; Small, Prv. Firms	18.14					
33 Secondary School Teachers	17.88					
47 Sales Reps. in Transf. Sector; Large, Prv. Firms	17.52					
39 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Small, Prv. Firms	17.00					
23 Registered Nurses; Small, Private Firms	16.93	Worst Career Locations	\$9.28	0.67	21%	12%
1 Executives and Administrators; Public Sector	16.50					
7 Managers in Producer Srv.; Large, Prv. Firms	16.16					
40 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Large, Prv. Firms	15.49					
10 Managers in Social Srv.; Pub. Sector	15.40					
16 Management-Related in Producer Srv.; Large, Prv. Firms	15.38					
32 Elementary School Teachers; Pub. Sector	15.30					
31 Elementary School Teachers; Prv. Sector	14.64					
28 Post-Secondary Educ. Teachers; Pub. Sector	14.52					
51 Sales Reps. in Producer Srv.; Large, Prv. Firms	13.63					
41 Social Scientists and Social Workers; Pub. Sector	13.56					
22 Health Diagnosing Occupations	13.53					
44 Writers and Artists; Large Prv. Firms and Pub. Sector	12.74					
37 Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified; Pub. Sector	12.35					
35 Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified; Small, Prv. Schools	11.85					
8 Managers in Social Srv.; Small, Prv. Firms	11.76					
6 Managers in Producer Srv.; Small, Prv. Firms	11.22					
11 Managers in Personal Srv.; Small, Prv. Firms	10.47					
38 Librarians, Archivists and Curators	10.32					
48 Sales Reps. in Distributive Srv.; Small, Prv. Firms	10.00					
29 Pre-Kindergarten and Kindergarten Teachers; Prv. Sector	9.99					
14 Management-Related in Distributive Srv.; Prv. Sector	9.97					
45 Entertainers and Athletes	9.56					
50 Sales Reps. in Producer Srv.; Small, Prv. Firms	9.50					
36 Teachers Not Elsewhere Classified; Large, Prv. Schools	9.04					
46 Sales Reps. in Transf. Sector; Small, Prv. Firms	7.86					
43 Writers and Artists; Small, Prv. Firms	7.44					
5 Managers in Distributive Srv.; Large, Prv. Firms	6.90					
4 Managers in Distributive Srv.; Small, Prv. Firms	6.84					
49 Sales Reps. in Distributive Sector; Large, Prv. Firms	4.46					
12 Managers in Personal Srv.; Large, Prv. Firms	0.45					
Average (Unweighted)	16.09		\$12.09	0.74	31%	23%

Notes:

1. Hourly earnings are reported in 1997 constant dollars.
2. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

Figure 4-5: Percent of Part-Time Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time Involuntarily by Career Location



Note: 1. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

they lacked other options. Since professionals and managers tend to be highly educated, Clogg's measure of "overeducation" was found not to be an appropriate measure of their underemployment.²⁸ Therefore, in this report, professionals and managers who are "involuntary" part-time employees are defined as "underemployed."

All 51 career locations were compared with determine which are most and least likely to include professionals and managers who are involuntarily working part-time. The career locations that had the **fewest involuntary part-time employees** (ranging from 11–18 percent of all their part-time employees) are:

- **registered nurses in large or small private firms;**
- **managers in social services in large, private sector firms; and**
- **health diagnosing occupations.**

In contrast, the **career locations with the most involuntary part-time managers and professionals** (ranging from 44–53 percent) are:

- **special education teachers;**
- **managers in large, private firms in the transformative sector;**
- **elementary school teachers in the public sector; and**
- **managers in the social services in the public sector.**

A listing of the proportion of involuntary part-time employees in all 51 career locations is presented in Figure 4–5. There is not a close correlation between the composite score of compensation attractiveness and the extent of involuntary part-time work in career locations. Although nursing and scientific career locations tend to rate very highly on both measures, of those career locations with the least involuntary part-time work, only one is among the top four in compensation (RNs in large, private firms), three are average, and one (health diagnosing occupations) is in the bottom third. And of those occupations with the most involuntary part-time work, one (special education

teachers) is in the top four for compensation, while the other three are average; none is in the bottom third for compensation.

Part-Year Professionals and Managers

Another aspect of employment status that is examined for part-time professionals and managers is part-year work; part-year work may be voluntary or involuntary. The Current Population Survey provides information about whether each professional or manager worked all year or part of the year, but it does not provide information about the reasons. Part-year work is determined by the answer to the question "How many weeks did you work last year, even for a few hours?" A respondent who reports working less than 50 is defined as part-year. Weeks spent on paid leave (vacation or sick) are considered weeks worked. Weeks not worked could include weeks unemployed, weeks on leave without pay, and weeks out of the labor force. It is likely that many of those working part-year are entering or leaving the labor force, or changing jobs with unpaid time off between jobs.

An initial analysis indicated that the career locations with the highest percentage of part-year part-time employees are the various teaching professions. Since this finding reflects the typical nine-month teaching schedule, teaching is excluded from the analysis, and the results on the remaining 40 career locations are presented in Figure 4–6.

The findings indicate that **part-year work is very common among part-time professionals and managers**; the percentage of part-year part-time employees ranges from 30–78 percent even when teaching is excluded. **The career locations with the fewest part-year part-time employees (ranging from 30–34 percent) are:**

- **scientists in the public sector (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and natural scientists);**
- **registered nurses in the public sector or in large or small private firms; and**
- **managers in producer services in small private firms.**

Figure 4-6: Percent of Part-Time Professionals¹ and Managers Working Part-Year² by Career Location



Notes: 1. Excluding all teachers (career locations 27-37).
 2. Part-time refers to fewer than 35 hours per week and part-year refers to fewer than 50 weeks per year.
 3. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

Career locations with the **most part-year, part-time managers and professionals** (two-thirds or more of those working part-time) are:

- **managers in personal services in large, private firms;**
- **entertainers and athletes; and**
- **sales representatives in small, private firms in the transformative sector.**

Part-year work tends to be associated more with the composite score of the attractiveness of career locations than is involuntary part-time work. The career locations with the fewest part-year employees are all among the best or moderately attractive locations while the five career locations with the most part-year work are all in the bottom third in terms of attractiveness of compensation. However, a very substantial proportion of part-time lawyers and judges (64 percent) and health-diagnosing professionals including doctors (63 percent), reported that they are employed only part of the year.

These extremely high rates of part-year employment are unexpected and suggest that some of these part-time professionals and managers may be contingent workers who lack job security. Some may be looking for steadier work or entering and exiting the labor market, while others may be changing jobs and experiencing a gap in employment. Some may be voluntarily reducing their hours by taking unpaid leave. It is also possible that the interview responses did not accurately take into account paid vacations or other leave. This analysis certainly raises more questions than it answers, and further research is needed to explore the reasons for part-year work.

Characteristics of Employees in the Most Attractive Career Locations

The previous section identified those career locations which provide the most attractive part-time jobs in terms of salaries and benefits, and which are most likely to provide part-time jobs to employees

who want to work full-time. Also identified were those career locations that have the most part-year part-time employees, although the data set does not provide information about whether those arrangements are considered desirable by the employees. This section provides an analysis of the characteristics of managers and professionals who work in these career locations.

The first analysis describes the characteristics of professionals and managers who worked in career locations with the best compensated part-time jobs. These results are from a multiple regression analysis that uses the independent variables of age, education, gender, race/ethnicity and several family characteristics to predict the composite compensation score for part-time work in each career location. All part-time managers and professionals are analyzed first; then men and women are analyzed separately.

The results indicate that women are more likely than men to work in the career locations with better compensation. There are gender differences associated with other characteristics that predict better part-time jobs, such as education, age and having young children. The details of the results for compensation are presented in Table 4-7 and below.

- Among all part-time professional and managerial employees, the **likelihood of working in a career location with better compensated part-time jobs increases with age up to age 43 and then decreases**. When men and women are analyzed separately, it becomes clear that this is **significant only for women but not for men**.
- **The professionals and managers who work in career locations with better compensated part-time jobs are more likely to be:**
 - **Women**
 - **Married**
 - **Mothers with pre-school aged children**
 - **Better educated**; an associate's degree is an especially strong predictor of women being em-

Table 4-7: Multiple Regression Analyses of Demographic Characteristics of Employees Working in Career Locations with More Attractive Compensation for Part-Time Work

	MEN		WOMEN		ALL	
	Multiple Regression Coefficient	Significance Level	Multiple Regression Coefficient	Significance Level	Multiple Regression Coefficient	Significance Level
Intercept	10.556	0.001	7.274	0.001	7.915	0.001
Educational Attainment						
Some College	0.946		1.201	0.010	1.092	0.010
Associate's Degree	3.691	0.001	9.645	0.001	8.918	0.001
Bachelor's Degree	3.521	0.001	4.792	0.001	4.464	0.001
Advanced Degree	4.060	0.001	3.893	0.001	3.985	0.001
Age						
Age	0.056		0.302	0.001	0.180	0.001
Age Squared	-0.001		-0.004	0.001	-0.002	0.001
Gender						
Women	—	—	—	—	1.590	0.001
Race/Ethnicity						
African American, Non-Hispanic	-0.584		-0.321		-0.385	
Hispanic American	0.044		-0.833		-0.622	
Asian American/Other, Non-Hispanic	1.155		0.170		0.447	
Family Characteristics						
Married	1.070		0.792		1.183	0.050
With Children under Six	0.408		1.765	0.001	1.645	0.001
Log of Spouse's Earnings	-0.109		-0.119		-0.119	0.010
Log of Income from Family Assets	0.101		0.127	0.010	0.133	0.001
Adjusted R-sq	0.094		0.160		0.165	
Sample Size	1,232		3,395		4,628	

Note: Unless otherwise noted, the results are not significant at .05 level.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1992 and 1993 March Current Population Surveys.

ployed in a better career location. This may reflect the fact that a high proportion of nurses (who have the highest quality part-time jobs) have associate's degrees.²⁹

- **Have a spouse with lower earnings.**
- **Women with higher income from family assets.**
- Race and ethnic differences are not statistically significant.

The regression analysis results showing that women are more likely than men to be employed in career locations with better paying part-time work would

have been surprising, except that three of the four most attractive career locations are traditional female careers (nursing and special education). The value of higher education is to be expected whereas the lack of racial differences and the association with spouses with lower earnings are somewhat surprising. The association between attractive part-time work and higher income from family assets may reflect the fact that these individuals have better paying jobs that allow them to accumulate more family assets.

The regression analysis also indicates some significant interactions between demographic background and gender; several demographic characteristics are

significant for women but not men. For example, age is a significant predictor of working in the more attractive career locations for women, but not for men, as is having pre-school age children and higher income from family assets. For both men and women, higher educational attainment predicts working in career locations with more attractive compensation for part-time employment.

Being married and having spouses with lower earnings are each associated with working in career locations with better compensation when men and women are combined, but not for either gender individually. This apparently reflects the larger sample size of the combined sample, which makes statistical significance more likely.

Overall, the results do not reveal any patterns that explain why some types of individuals are more likely to be employed in career locations with more attractive compensation, although the data suggest that their higher salaries may reflect higher education and may also be associated with greater financial need (as reflected in lower husband's earnings). The results regarding young children may indicate that women who can earn better salaries are more likely to work when their children are young than women with lower earnings who are more likely to stay home and not work for pay at all.

Characteristics of Employees Working Part-Time Involuntarily

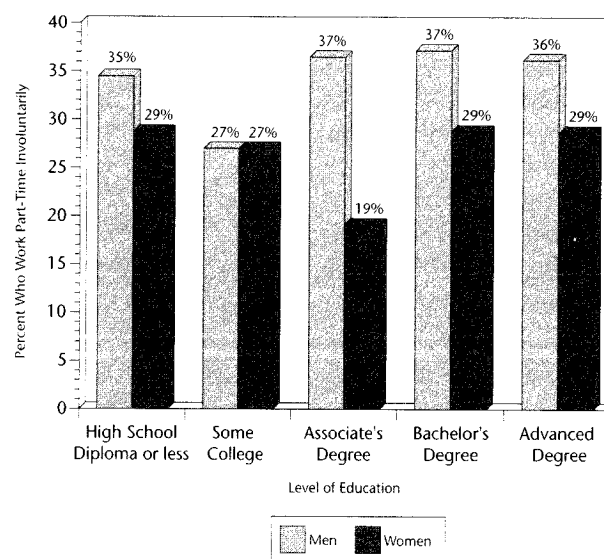
As another way to determine who has the most desirable part-time jobs, the individuals who are "involuntarily" working in part-time positions are compared with those who are working part-time by choice.

Women are less likely to work part-time involuntarily than men regardless of their educational attainment (see Figure 4-8), so separate logistic regression analyses for women and men using the independent variables of age, education, race/ethnicity and several family and income characteristics to predict whether part-time

work was voluntary or involuntary were conducted. To illustrate the impact of each variable, a "baseline" man and woman who was white, 25 years old with a high school diploma or less, not married (and therefore had no income from a spouse), with no children under the age of six, and income from family assets of only approximately \$100/year were created. Thirty percent of these "baseline" men work part-time involuntarily, as did 27 percent of these "baseline" women. The likelihood of working part-time involuntarily increases or decreases dramatically when any of these characteristics are changed. Table 4-9 indicates that **women** involuntarily working part-time are more likely to be:

- Older up to 40 years old and then the likelihood decreases with age;
- Without an associate degree;
- Without pre-school age children;
- African American or Hispanic (and less likely to be Asian);

Figure 4-8: Percent of Part-Time Professionals and Managers Working Involuntarily by Gender and Education



Note: Involuntary part-time is defined as working fewer than 35 hours per week due to slack work, unavailability of full-time work, or other economic reasons.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

Table 4-9: The Effect of Selected Demographic Characteristics on the Probability of Working Part-Time Involuntarily

Men (N = 1,233)		Women (N = 3,396)	
Baseline: Probability of Working Involuntarily	30%	Baseline: Probability of Working Involuntarily	27%
Educational Attainment: High School Diploma or Less		Educational Attainment: High School Diploma or Less	
Age: 25 Years		Age: 25 Years	
Race/Ethnicity: White, Non-Hispanic		Race/Ethnicity: White, Non-Hispanic	
Family Characteristics		Family Characteristics	
Not Married		Not Married	
No Children under 6		No Children under 6	
Income from Family Assets: \$100/year ¹		Income from Family Assets: \$100/year ¹	
Spouse's Earnings: None ¹		Spouse's Earnings: None ¹	
More Likely to Work Part-Time Involuntarily		More Likely to Work Part-Time Involuntarily	
Age		Age	
Age 40	50%	Age 40	34%
Age 50	45%	Age 50	31%
Family Characteristics		Race/Ethnicity	
If Married, Spouse's Earnings: \$18,000/year ¹	49%	Hispanic American	38%
		African American, Non-Hispanic	36%
Less Likely to Work Part-Time Involuntarily		Less Likely to Work Part-Time Involuntarily	
Educational Attainment		Educational Attainment	
Some College	18%	Associate's Degree	19%
Bachelor's Degree	22%	Age	
Advanced Degree	22%	Age 60	23%
Age		Race/Ethnicity	
Age 60	27%	Asian American/Other, Non-Hispanic	14%
Race/Ethnicity		Family Characteristics	
Asian American/Other, Non-Hispanic	19%	Income from Family Assets: \$1,600/year ¹	24%
Family Characteristics		If Married, Spouse's Earnings: \$60,000/year ¹	19%
Married	28%	Family Characteristics	
		With Children under 6	21%
Insignificant Results		Insignificant Results	
Educational Attainment		Educational Attainment	
Associate's Degree		Some College	
Race/Ethnicity		Bachelor's Degree	
African American, Non-Hispanic		Advanced Degree	
Hispanic American		Family Characteristics	
Family Characteristics		Married	
With Children under Six			
Income from Family Assets ¹			

Note:

1. To illustrate the impact of changes in earnings or income from assets in this table, specific dollar amounts were evaluated. However, the logistic regression assesses the impact of higher or lower earnings or income rather than specific amounts. Earnings and income are reported in 1997 dollars.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

- **Married to spouses with lower earnings; and**
 - **Without substantial income from family assets.**
- Men who want to work full-time but are instead working part-time tend to be:
- **Older up to age 46, and then the likelihood decreases with age;**³⁰
 - **Less well educated;**
 - **Not married;**
 - **Not Asian-American; and**
 - **Married to a spouse with higher earnings (e.g., \$18,000/year).**³¹

These findings show a pattern that is relatively clear: **part-time employment is more likely to be a choice for women when they have family responsibilities, especially young children, and have less financial need.** Voluntary part-time work is also a choice for women who tend to be **young enough to have younger children or old enough to be near retirement or to have husbands or parents who need their help.** Even when those characteristics are controlled, those working part-time voluntarily are more likely to be **white or Asian-American.** In contrast, women who are involuntarily working part-time would prefer to work full-time apparently because their spouses have lower earnings, their income from family assets is lower; and they do not have young children who need them at home. Moreover, since many are African Americans and Hispanics, they have less desirable employment options.

The pattern for men is also quite clear: men voluntarily work part-time when they are not married and when they are not yet college-educated. In contrast to women, men who are involuntarily working part-time have less financial need because their spouses have high earnings. Like women, the desire to work part-time seems to be strongest when they are **in the youngest or oldest age groups.**

Summary

In this chapter, three measures of attractiveness of part-time employment are examined—a composite index that measures compensation, the proportion of

part-time employees who wanted to work full-time rather than part-time and the proportion of part-time employees who worked only part of the year and therefore might have low job security or satisfaction.

Findings indicate that only four career locations offer part-time jobs with hourly earnings that are comparable to or better than hourly earnings for full-time jobs and also provide health-care benefits and pensions to approximately half their employees. These career locations are nursing (public sector or large private firms), scientists (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and natural scientists) in large, private firms and special education teachers. These career locations pay their part-time employees on average between \$15–22 per hour; unfortunately, they comprise only four of 51 career locations that are identified and represent only 13 percent of part-time professionals and manager positions.

Although there are a few other career locations that offer relatively generous salaries to part-time employees, such as “lawyers and judges” and “scientists in small, private firms” (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and natural scientists), the majority of those employees do not receive employer-provided pensions or health-insurance. However, the vast majority of part-time professionals and managers do not receive generous salaries *or* pensions *or* health-insurance benefits. In fact, several of the career locations offer part-time salaries that even at 34 hours per week could not support a family of four above the poverty line and almost never provide employer contributions to health insurance or pension benefits for their part-time employees. Examples include managers in personal services in large, private firms and private sector pre-school or kindergarten teachers; for the teachers, even a full-time salary would not support a family of four above the poverty line.³²

The other two measures of attractive career locations, which are the proportion of part-time professionals and managers who would prefer to be employed full-time and the proportion of part-timers who worked only part of the year are not highly associated with each other or with the compensation composite score. Registered nurses and scientists

scored very well on all three measures but generally there are many differences between the three measures of attractiveness. Moreover, there are so many part-year employees in all the career locations that more research is needed to interpret the findings.

Also examined was whether some of the demographic and “human capital” predictors of working in attractive career locations would be the opposite of those predicting involuntary part-time employment. Several characteristics did in fact predict working part-time voluntarily and working in careers with attractive compensation for part-time work; for example, women, especially those with children under the age of six, are more likely to work in attractive career locations and more likely to be voluntarily working part-time. More educated men and women tend to work in more attractive career locations, and more educated men are more likely to work part-time vol-

untarily. Women with associate’s degrees are more likely to be employed part-time voluntarily than women with other degrees. Similarly, greater income from family assets is associated with women working in more attractive career locations and working part-time voluntarily.

In contrast, other characteristics such as age are very similar for individuals who work in attractive career locations and those who work part-time involuntarily. Men and women are increasingly likely to work in career locations with attractive part-time employment and to work part-time involuntarily as they grow older until their 40s, when the likelihood decreases as they age. The characteristics of individuals working in attractive career locations and those working part-time involuntarily are inconsistent for men and women in terms of marital status, spouses’ income and race and ethnicity.

Chapter 5

Part-Time Work And Child Care

It is often difficult for parents, especially those with young children, to comfortably integrate their work schedules with their family responsibilities. Since it is hypothesized that part-time employment could be a useful strategy to combine careers and parenthood, it is especially interesting to examine how the birth of a child or problems with child care influence work patterns. This chapter examines how career locations with better compensated part-time employment influence how parents combine the roles of worker and parent. First examined is the use of part-time employment in two related situations that can cause disruptions for working parents: (1) childbirth or the adoption of a child; and (2) the need to arrange for child care. This analysis is based on data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation and compares work patterns before and after these specific events. A discrete-time hazard model, which is a series of logistic regression models at particular points in time, was used.³³

Childbirth and Adoption

Childbirth and adoption can cause major disruptions for working parents. Women who work in career locations with better compensated part-time work might return to work sooner than women in lower-pay jobs. Or, women in career locations with good part-time opportunities might change from full-time to part-time schedules following childbirth or adoption. How working patterns change surrounding these life events was examined. Since some professionals and managers who do not change from full-time to part-time status might instead reduce their work hours (for example, from 55 hours per week to

40 hours per week), the weekly work hours for three months before and three months after childbirth or adoption was also examined. In addition, whether family resources influence the decision to reduce work hours for married women professionals and managers who had recently given birth or adopted a child was investigated.

The longitudinal design of the SIPP allows for determining if and when a baby enters the family.³⁴ In order to have all the information needed, women professionals and managers who had given birth or adopted a child between the fourth month of the study and the 21st month of the study were selected; this resulted in a sample size of 473.³⁵ The number of work hours for the 328 women professionals and managers who worked at least three months prior to childbirth or adoption and returned to the same career location (not necessarily the same employer) within three to six months after childbirth was examined.³⁶ Some of these women were single mothers and some had husbands who were unemployed. Also analyzed were the 324 dual-earner couples where the wife was employed as a professional or manager in cases where both husbands and wives worked three months before and three months after childbirth, but not necessarily in the same career location.

Women's Return to Work

The first two research questions are, "Are the mothers who are employed part-time or full-time in career locations with better compensated part-time jobs more likely to return to work sooner? Are new parents at the worst part-time career locations more likely to leave the labor force following childbirth?" To answer these questions, the durations of leave and

the quality of various career locations were examined (see Table 5-1).

- **More than three out of four mothers return to work within the three months following childbirth** (see Table 5-1). An additional four percent of mothers return between four to six months after childbirth, and another three percent of mothers return to work seven or more months after childbirth. Seventeen percent of female professionals and managers who recently gave birth had not returned to work during the 18-month time period that we studied.³⁷
- **Women in the career locations with the best compensated part-time work are more likely to return to work and tend to return to work sooner than women in the worst career locations.** Eighty-seven percent of women in the best career locations return three months after childbirth, compared with 74 percent of women in the average career locations and 75 percent of women in the worst career locations (see Table 5-1). **However, most women working in these career locations are working full-time after childbirth rather than part-time** (see Table 5-3), which makes these findings somewhat difficult to interpret. Since the career locations with the best com-

pensation for part-time work also offered relatively good compensation for full-time work, it seems likely that the women return to work sooner because their better pay and benefits provide more incentives to return to work than do jobs offering lower pay and benefits.

- **Differences in maternity leave shrink over time.** By the 24th month of the survey, 89 percent of women in the best career locations had returned to work and 82 percent of women in the average and the worst career locations had returned to work.³⁸

Next, a discrete-time series analysis to determine the characteristics that influence the likelihood of returning to work within three months following childbirth was conducted.³⁹ The variables that were analyzed included attractiveness of compensation for part-time work in those career locations (best/average/worst), previous work schedule (full-time or part-time status), mother's education, job tenure, race, ethnicity, marital status of mother at birth, age of mother at childbirth, number of children prior to pregnancy, log of spouse's earnings before childbirth and log of annual income from assets.

Based on the logistic regression, a baseline "typical" woman was created and then analysis was conducted regarding whether other characteristics made

Table 5-1: Timing of Female Professionals and Managers Returning to Work Following Childbirth by Attractiveness of Career Locations

Percent Who Returned to Work	Total Sample Size	Percent Returning to Work at Career Locations Ranked by Attractiveness of Part-Time Work			
		Best	Average	Worst	All
Within Three Months Following Birth	339	87%	74%	75%	77%
Four to Six Months Following Birth	16	1%	5%	3%	4%
Seven Months or More Following Birth	14	1%	3%	4%	3%
Did Not Return	73	11%	18%	18%	17%
Total	442	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation, including full-time and part-time professionals and managers.

Table 5-2: The Effect of Selected Characteristics on the Probability of Returning to Work Within the Three Months Following Birth Among All Female Professionals and Managers

Women (N = 458)

Baseline: Probability of Returning to Work ¹ 71%
 Career Location: Worst
 Part-Time Employment Status Prior to Birth
 Educational Attainment: Some College (15 Years)
 Job Tenure: 5 Years
 Age of Mother at Childbirth: 30 Years
 White, Non-Hispanic
 Family Characteristics
 Married at Time of Childbirth
 Number of Children: 1
 Spouse's Monthly Work Hours: 200 hours/month
 Income from Family Assets: \$100/year ²

Significantly More Likely to Return to Work
 Career Location
 Best Career Location 85%

Insignificant Results
 Career Location
 Average Career Location
 Full-Time Employment Status Prior to Birth
 Educational Attainment
 Job Tenure
 Age of Mother at Childbirth
 Non-White
 Family Characteristics
 Not Married at Time of Childbirth
 Number of Children
 Spouse's Monthly Work Hours
 Income from Family Assets ²

Notes:

1. The baseline woman was selected to be average in terms of educational attainment, job tenure and age.
2. To illustrate the impact of changes in income from assets in this table, specific dollar amounts were evaluated. However, the logistic regression assesses the impact of higher or lower income from assets, rather than specific amounts. Income is presented in 1997 constant dollars.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation including full-time and part-time professionals and managers.

her more or less likely to return to work within three months. More than two-thirds (71 percent) of the “baseline women” had returned to work within three months. The baseline women are white, married women with one child who worked part-time prior to childbirth in career locations with the worst compensation. These baseline women are the average age of these new mothers (30 years old) with the average number of years of education (15), had been working for the average number of years (five years), report an average income from family assets (\$100/year) and have spouses who work 200 hours/month (the median). Compared with women who have these baseline characteristics, the only characteristic that significantly increases the likelihood of these women returning to work from 71 percent within three months is working in a career location with the best compensation; this one variable increases the likelihood of returning to work from 71 percent to 85 percent (see Table 5–2). Given the public debate regarding work and family conflicts, it will surprise many that the compensation composite score is a stronger predictor of returning to work than marital status, number of children a mother has, educational attainment, or financial assets.

Changing Work Schedules Before and After Childbirth

A potential benefit of working in a career location with attractive part-time jobs would be the option of shifting from full-time to part-time employment after childbirth. The analysis focuses on the 322 mothers who remained in the same career locations before and after childbirth.⁴⁰ Approximately 83 percent of these mothers worked full-time while pregnant and 17 percent worked part-time (see Table 5–3).

- **Only 15 percent of women professionals and managers who work full-time while pregnant switch from full-time to part-time work arrangements following childbirth; 85 percent continue to work full-time.**

Table 5-3: Change in Work Schedule Before and After Birth by Attractiveness of Career Locations Among Female Professionals and Managers Returning to the Same Career Locations¹

Career Locations with Attractive Compensation for Part-Time Work	Full-Time (During Pregnancy)			Part-Time (During Pregnancy)		
	Sample Size	Percent No Change	Percent Changed from Full-Time to Part-Time	Sample Size	Percent No Change	Percent Changed from Part-Time to Full-Time
Best Career Locations	54	91%	9%	17	100%	0%
Average Career Locations	146	86%	14%	23	70%	30%
Worst Career Locations	66	80%	20%	16	75%	25%
All Career Locations	266	85%	15%	56	80%	20%
Sample Size	266	227	39	56	45	11

Note:

1. This table analyzes changes in work schedule before and after birth for women who recently gave birth and returned to the same career locations.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation, including full-time and part-time professionals and managers.

- **Of the women who work full-time while pregnant, women in the career locations with the best compensation for part-time work were *least* likely to change from full-time to part-time status.**
- **Most women (80 percent) who work part-time during their pregnancy continued to work part-time following childbirth.**
- **None of the women in the career locations with the best compensated part-time work changed from part-time during pregnancy to full-time afterwards** whereas approximately one out of four of the women in the career locations that offer less attractive compensation for part-time work switched to full-time after childbirth. **The switch from part-time before pregnancy to full-time afterwards seems to be a surprising choice, and yet it is slightly more common than changing from full-time to part-time.** It may be that some of these women had problem pregnancies that required them to work part-time and that they could not afford to continue working part-time after

childbirth or that working full-time was more cost effective than working part-time (because of commuting, child care and other work-related costs).

The sample of women who work part-time during pregnancy is small, and although the sample should be representative, it may be that these results are not generalizable to all women in these career locations. Nevertheless, the results seem to indicate that women working in career locations with the best compensated part-time jobs are unlikely to change their work schedules after childbirth, either from part-time to full-time or from full-time to part-time. Since this is a sample of women who remain in the same career location, it may be that they are relatively satisfied with their current arrangements, and that the arrival of a child does not lead them to want to change their hours. It may also be the case that a change in hours is not available to them with their current employer or in their current career location.

Reducing Hours After Childbirth

Although most of the mothers in this study do not change their work schedule status from full-time to

Table 5-4: Change in Hours of Work Before and After Birth Among Female Professionals and Managers Returning to Work in the Same Career Location by Attractiveness of Career Locations

Attractiveness of Career Locations	Sample Size	Average Hours Worked Per Month (Before Birth)	Average Hours Worked Per Month (After Birth)	Changes in Average Hours Worked Per Month (Before and After)	Percentage Changes in Hours Worked (Before and After)
Best Career Locations					
Reduced Hours	40	152	126	-26	-17%
Did Not Reduce Hours	17	152	152	0	0%
Increased Hours	17	141	153	12	9%
Average Career Locations					
Reduced Hours	84	160	115	-45	-28%
Did Not Reduce Hours	34	167	167	0	0%
Increased Hours	54	147	167	20	14%
Worst Career Locations					
Reduced Hours	44	148	119	-29	-20%
Did Not Reduce Hours	15	169	169	0	0%
Increased Hours	23	147	169	22	15%
Sample Size	328	154	141	-13	-8%

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation including full-time and part-time professionals and managers.

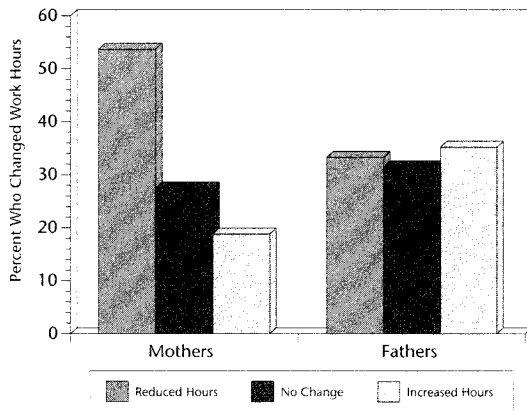
part-time after childbirth, **approximately half of all the mothers reduce their work hours for at least a brief period of time after childbirth.**⁴¹ How this was related to career location is examined; no substantial differences in reduced hours between women in the best and worst compensated career locations are found (see Table 5-4). However, women in the career locations with moderate compensation for part-time work tend to work longer hours before childbirth and to reduce their hours more after childbirth (reducing their hours by 28 percent, compared with 17 percent for those in the best career locations and 20 percent for those in the worst career locations). **More than one-quarter of the mothers increase their work hours after childbirth, generally by more than 10 percent. Overall, for the sample of mothers returning to the same career locations, work hours fall eight percent.**

The analyses of dual-earner families are focused only on the three months before the arrival of a new

child, and the three months after. **After childbirth or adoption, women are more likely to reduce their work hours than men and men are more likely to increase their work hours than women.**

- In dual-earner families where women return to work **within three months following childbirth, approximately 54 percent of mothers reduce their average monthly work hours, 28 percent maintain the same work hours, and 19 percent increase their work hours after childbirth** (see Figure 5-5).
- Among their male counterparts, **33 percent of the fathers reduce their average monthly work hours, 32 percent maintain the same work hours and about 35 percent increase their hours after childbirth** (see Figure 5-5). These findings can be interpreted several different ways, but overall, they suggest that additional family responsibili-

Figure 5-5: Change in Work Hours Among Dual-Earner Couples in Which Women Professionals and Managers Returned to Work Within Three Months after Birth



Note: Percentages in this chart are rounded to the nearest whole number; total percentages may differ slightly from 100 percent.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation.

ties are as likely to result in men's increased work hours as decreased work hours.

How Family Assets Influence Changes in Work Hours

Reducing or increasing the hours of employment does not always result in a change in earnings, especially for professionals and managers with salaries that do not vary when individuals work "overtime."⁴² However, reducing "overtime" hours may reduce the likelihood of raises, promotions or bonuses or activities that indirectly generate income. As a result of the varying financial incentives to work longer hours, not all families can afford to reduce the hours of employment following the birth or adoption of a baby. Whether parents with greater family assets are more likely to reduce their work hours after childbirth compared with families with

Table 5-6: Change in Monthly Average Work Hours for Fathers and Mothers Before and After Birth by Level of Income from Family Assets¹

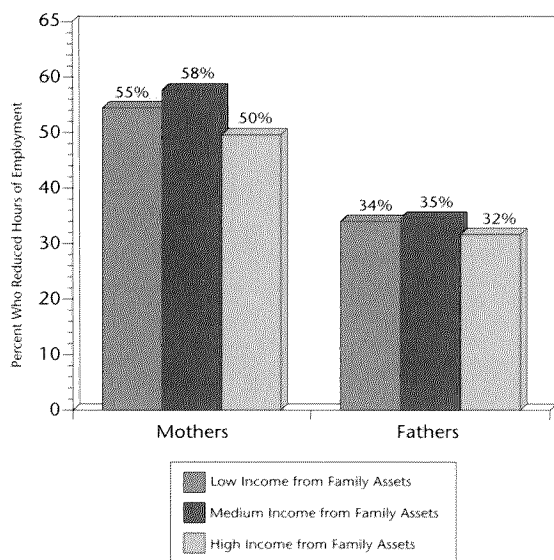
Level of Income from Assets ²	Mothers Who Worked Before and After Birth	Fathers Who Worked Before and After Birth			Total Sample Size	Percent of Dual-Earner Couples Where Either Parent Reduced Monthly Average Hours	Percent of Dual-Earner Couples Where Both Parents Reduced Monthly Average Hours
		Reduced Hours	Did Not Reduce Hours	Increased Hours			
LOW ASSETS	Reduced Hours	21	11	21	53		
	No Change	2	11	2	15	67%	22%
	Increased Hours	10	9	10	29		
	Subtotal	33	31	33	97		
MEDIUM ASSETS	Reduced Hours	24	12	24	60		
	No Change	7	7	7	21	69%	23%
	Increased Hours	5	9	9	23		
	Subtotal	36	28	40	104		
HIGH ASSETS	Reduced Hours	26	17	18	61		
	No Change	1	18	6	25	60%	21%
	Increased Hours	12	8	17	37		
	Subtotal	39	43	41	123		
Total Sample Size		108	102	114	324	65%	22%

Notes:

1. Income from Assets consists of annual income from assets in mutual funds, stocks, mortgages, rental income, royalty, life insurance, estate and savings.
2. Low—annual income from assets \$1-\$66; Medium—\$68-\$301; High—\$303+. Income is presented in 1997 constant dollars.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation.

Figure 5-7: Percent of Women Professionals and Managers, and Their Spouses, Who Reduced Their Work Hours During the First Three Months after Birth by Income and Family Assets



Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and program Participation.

more limited resources was examined next. Another possibility is that parents with fewer assets would reduce the working hours of at least one parent so that they could spend less for child care costs. To explore these issues, analysis of work hours before and after childbirth for married women with newborns in dual-earner families was conducted, varying the level of income from assets (see Table 5-6). **We find few differences related to family assets, except that families with the greatest financial resources are slightly less likely to decrease the work hours of at least one parent.** Although these differences are modest, financial need is clearly *not* the reason women continue their long work hours.

- **Approximately half of the women reduce their work hours after childbirth,** but income from family assets does not appear to be a significant influ-

ence on that decision. The proportion reducing hours ranges from 58 percent of mothers with medium income levels from assets to 50 percent of mothers with the highest income level from assets (see Figure 5-7). These differences are small but certainly do not support the popular belief that women with greater financial need are more likely to work longer hours after childbirth.

- **Income from family assets seems to be unrelated to men's reduction of their work hours following childbirth.**
- **The decision of whether at least one parent will decrease his or her work hours is unrelated to income from family assets.** In dual-earner couples with the highest income level from assets, 60 percent report that at least one parent reduced their work hours, compared with 69 percent of families with medium income levels from assets, and 67 percent of families with the lowest income level from assets (see Table 5-6). These differences are not significant.
- In approximately 22 percent of dual-earner couples, *both* parents reduce their work hours following childbirth (see Table 5-6). Again, there is no strong relationship between income level from assets and the reduction of work hours among both parents in dual-earner couples.

Child Care and Career Locations

All working parents must make decisions about child care arrangements. The types of child care that are available and affordable influence the jobs that managers and professionals will have, and the jobs they have will influence the child care they need and can afford. Nationally-representative research has been conducted on the use of different types of child care (see, for example, Hofferth and Kisker, 1994; Hofferth, Brayfield, Deich, and Holcomb, 1991), but such research rarely focuses on managers and profes-

Table 5-8: Primary Child Care Arrangements Used by Professional and Managerial Mothers for Children under Age Six, by Part-Time/Full-Time Status and Career Locations of Mother

Career Locations by Attractiveness Score or Part-Time Work

	Best			Average			Worst			Total		
	Part-Time	Full-Time	All	Part-Time	Full-Time	All	Part-Time	Full-Time	All	Part-Time	Full-Time	All
Care in Child's Home (Total)	55%	32%	32%	33%	17%	18%	24%	18%	39%	20%	25%	
By Father	49%	23%	23%	20%	8%	6%	16%	6%	29%	10%	15%	
By Sibling	2%	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%	1%	0%	1%	0%	0%	
By Grandparents	1%	6%	6%	3%	2%	2%	1%	2%	2%	3%	3%	
By Other Relative	0%	0%	0%	0%	1%	2%	2%	2%	1%	1%	1%	
By Non-Relative	3%	3%	3%	10%	6%	7%	5%	7%	6%	6%	6%	
Care in Provider's Home (Total)	27%	30%	30%	27%	31%	34%	22%	34%	26%	31%	30%	
By Grandparents	2%	8%	8%	8%	6%	6%	3%	6%	4%	7%	6%	
By Other Relatives	5%	1%	1%	0%	2%	0%	1%	0%	2%	1%	1%	
By Non-Relative	20%	22%	22%	19%	23%	27%	18%	27%	19%	23%	22%	
Organized Child Care Facilities (Total)	13%	28%	28%	25%	40%	38%	28%	38%	22%	38%	33%	
Day/Group Care Center	10%	21%	21%	16%	27%	27%	16%	27%	14%	26%	22%	
Nursery/Preschool	4%	7%	7%	9%	14%	11%	13%	11%	8%	12%	11%	
Mother Cares for Child while Working	0%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	9%	1%	3%	1%	2%	
Kindergarten	5%	8%	8%	14%	11%	10%	16%	10%	11%	10%	11%	
Weighted Sample Size	787,700	838,700	838,700	712,200	3,271,500	1,166,400	641,600	1,166,400	2,141,500	5,276,600	7,418,100	
Unweighted Sample Size	250	370	370	295	1,573	599	287	599	832	2,542	3,374	

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation.

sionals or examines the relationship between child care choice and the availability of attractive part-time work. Using the child care interview modules from the 1988, 1989, 1990 and 1991 SIPP panels, this study compares the types of child care used by full-time and part-time professionals and managers employed in career locations of varying attractiveness.

Parents as Child Care Providers for Children Under the Age of Six

One advantage of part-time work is that it enables employees to spend more time with their children or perhaps to work during hours when their spouses are at home with their children. Primary child care arrangements used by mothers with children under age six were examined with a focus on mothers' work schedule status and career location during the 12th month of the survey (see Table 5–8).

The first analysis focused on mothers who care for their children *while* they are working at home or in the workplace. Many women would assume this is the least desirable solution to work/family conflicts since it makes it difficult to succeed at either, and it is in fact a relatively rare strategy. In 1991, 8.7 percent of *all* employed mothers with children under age six supervised their children while working at home or in the workplace (see U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1994). However, in this study, only two percent of professional and managerial women with preschool-aged children care for their children while working at home or in the workplace.

- Even though pre-school children of part-time or full-time professional and managerial women are rarely supervised by their own mothers during work hours at home or in the workplace, approximately **nine percent of women employed part-time in the career locations with the worst part-time compensation supervise their children while working**. This may reflect the lower wages of these jobs, which could make it impossible for some of these women to afford quality, reliable child care provided by others.

- Consistent with previous research results (Brayfield, 1995a), the data show that **fathers are more likely to be the primary child care providers if their spouses are working part-time rather than full-time. This is most prevalent among professional and managerial women employed in career locations with the best compensated part-time jobs**, where 49 percent have children cared for by their fathers while their mothers work, compared with 20 percent in average career locations and 16 percent in the worst career locations. Since many of these mothers are nurses, they may work night shifts or weekends, when fathers with standard work schedules are able to provide child care.

Non-Parental Child Care Arrangements

Of course, most working mothers also depend on non-parents for child care. These arrangements differ for part-time and full-time managers and professionals (see Table 5–8).

- **Women employed part-time are less likely to use organized facilities** (e.g., day-care centers or nurseries) **than their full-time counterparts**. This may reflect the fact that few child care centers accept part-time fees for part-time slots (Lehrer, 1983).
- **There are no substantial differences in the use of non-relatives as primary child care providers (in the home) for mothers employed part-time (19 percent) compared with full-time (23 percent).**
- **The use of relatives as the primary child care providers** (in the child's residence or the provider's residence) **is similar for mothers working part-time (nine percent) or full-time (12 percent).**
- **The use of grandparents and other relatives is similar among women in different career locations.** Eight percent of women in the career locations with the most and least attractive part-time jobs rely on child care provided by relatives compared with 11 percent of women in average career locations.

Child Care Hours and Costs

The jobs women have will have clear implications for the number of hours of child care they will need and the costs they can afford. Mothers of children under the age of 13 were asked how many hours of child care they needed while they worked (or committed to work) and the number of hours is very similar to their hours of employment. Whereas our previous analyses were limited to mothers of children ages five and under, the child care analyses in this section are for women who have children **under the age of 13**. The results are presented in Tables and Figures 5–9 through 5–13.

Just over half (51 percent) of these mothers do not pay for child care; this includes 60 percent of mothers working part-time and 48 percent of those working full-time. Mothers who do not regularly pay anything for child care are excluded from the analyses of average hours of child care and costs of child care. However, the average hours and costs do include paid and unpaid child care for mothers who pay for at least some child care costs. Some of this free child care is provided by fathers, siblings or other relatives. By including some free child care, the average cost which is calculated is lower than the average for paid child care but considerably higher than the average would have been if mothers who pay nothing for any child care had been included.

Table 5-9: Comparison of Average¹ Part-Time and Full-Time Child Care Hours and Costs for Professional and Managerial Mothers With Children under Age 13

Average Hours and Costs of Child Care for Mothers Who Paid for Child Care ²	Part-Time	Full-Time	All
Hours per Week of Child Care	38	60	55
Hours per Week of Paid Child Care	28	36	34
Hours Worked per Month	101	179	163
Child Care Costs for All Children under 13, Weekly	\$67.33	\$78.30	\$76.08
Cost of Child Care per Mother's Employment Hour ³	\$3.56	\$1.91	\$2.24
Child Care Costs as Percent of Mother's Earnings	34%	15%	18%
Child Care Costs as Percent of Family Income	6%	4%	6%
Mother's Earnings at Month 12	\$1,717	\$2,927	\$2,683
Family Income at Month 12	\$5,751	\$6,027	\$5,972
Sample Size	167	690	857

Notes:

1. Average is defined as the mean.
2. Almost half (49 percent) of mothers with children under 13 paid for child care; this includes 40 percent of those employed part-time and 52 percent of those employed full-time. These are the women described in this table. However, the hours and costs shown here include paid and unpaid child care hours for these mothers.
3. The cost of child care per mother's employment hour is based on the average hourly cost for each woman regardless of the number of child care hours she used. Costs are reported in 1997 constant dollars.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1988-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation.

- Among mothers with children under the age of 13 who pay for child care, those who are **employed part-time depend on an average of 38 hours of non-parental child care per week (paid or unpaid)**; mothers **employed full-time depend on non-parental child care for 60 hours per week** (see Table 5–9).⁴³
- **Only 40 percent of part-time employees use paid child care**, and that decision is apparently not substantially affected by the attractiveness of part-time jobs in the career location (see Table 5–10).
- Even mothers who pay for child care often also receive free child care. **Of 60 hours each week of child**

Table 5-10: Comparison of Average¹ Child Care Hours and Costs by Part-Time/ Full-Time Status and Career Locations of Mother

Average Hours and Costs for Mothers Who Paid for Child Care ³	Career Locations by Attractiveness Score ²						All
	Best		Average		Worst		
	Part-Time	Full-Time	Part-Time	Full-Time	Part-Time	Full-Time	
Hours Worked per Month	114	176	91	178	105	183	163
Child Care Hours, Including Unpaid Hours	46	60	33	60	35	59	55
Child Care Hours, Excluding Unpaid Hours	24	36	22	36	22	35	34
Weekly Child Care Costs for All Children under 13	\$57.98	\$67.19	\$76.77	\$80.43	\$65.95	\$77.91	\$76.08
Cost of Child Care per Mother's Employment Hour	\$2.33	\$1.67	\$4.63	\$1.98	\$2.90	\$1.85	\$2.24
Child Care Costs as Percent of Mother's Earnings	12%	10%	52%	14%	29%	15%	18%
Child Care Costs as Percent of Family Income	5%	5%	7%	6%	7%	7%	6%
Mother's Earnings at Month 12	\$2,213	\$3,264	\$1,503	\$3,027	\$1,473	\$2,645	\$2,685
Family Income at Month 12	\$5,868	\$6,379	\$6,275	\$6,266	\$5,222	\$5,446	\$5,972
Sample Size	48	96	61	400	45	166	857
Percent Who Paid for Child Care	43%	47%	38%	52%	37%	55%	49%

Notes:

1. Average is defined as the mean.
2. Attractiveness of career locations is measured by compensation composite scores for part-time employment.
3. The hours and costs include paid and unpaid child care hours for mothers with children under 13 who paid for at least some portion of child care. Costs are reported in 1997 constant dollars.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1988-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation.

care needed for full-time work, an average of 36 hours are paid. Similarly, 28 of 38 hours of child care are paid by part-time professionals and managers. This unpaid care is often provided by fathers and siblings, as well as other relatives or friends.

- **Hourly child care costs are much higher for part-time employees than for full-time employees.** Mothers who are employed part-time pay \$3.56 per hour of employment, compared with \$1.91 for those employed full-time.⁴⁴ Child care costs total \$67 per week for part-time, compared with \$78 each week for full-time. Similarly, mothers employed part-time spend 34 percent of their earnings on child care, compared with 15 percent for mothers employed full-time. Moreover, part-timers spend six percent

of family income on child care, while full-timers spend four percent (see Table 5-9).

- Among both full-time and part-time employees, **women in the best career locations pay less for child care services than women in the worst career locations** (see Table 5-10). For part-time employees, women in the best career locations pay approximately \$58 per week (for all children under the age of 13); women in average career locations pay \$77 per week; and women in the worst career locations pay \$66 per week. A similar pattern emerges for professional and managerial women who work full-time: women in the best career locations pay \$67 per week, women in average career locations pay \$80 per week and women in the worst career locations

pay \$78 per week. Compared with all the other women, women working part-time in average career locations pay the most per hour of employment on child care (for all children under 13) and the greatest proportion of their earnings on child care (52 percent). The cost differences between career locations are counter-intuitive since it is expected that women with the highest salaries would pay the most for child care. The relatively wide range of costs of child care for all children under the age of 13, averaging between \$1.67 to \$4.63 per hour of employment, is also surprising. Both findings probably reflect the fact that the proportion of unpaid child care varies; for example, fathers are providing child care to half the part-timers in the career locations with the best compensated part-time jobs. It is also possible that women in the best career locations have access to subsidized on-site child care.

Instability of Child Care

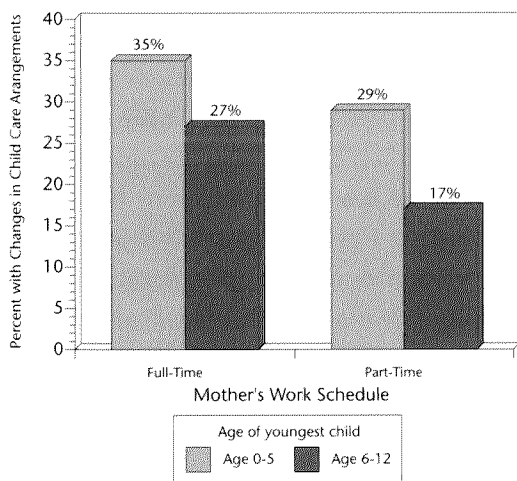
The instability of child care is a central problem for many working mothers. Using national data from

1990, Hofferth and Collins (1997) found that moderate and higher income mothers with stable child care were less likely to experience job turnover. This study examines whether having part-time jobs or working in career locations that offer well-compensated part-time work maximizes child care stability.⁴⁵

In the SIPP, which serves as the basis for this analysis, mothers with children under age five were asked, "During the past 12 months did you make changes in the arrangements used for your child for one week or more during the time you were working (or at school or looking for a job)?"⁴⁶ Women with children age five or older were asked, "During the past 12 months, did you make any changes in the arrangements used for your child during the time you were working (or at school or looking for a job)? Consider only changes that lasted for one week or more, including changes over the summer or between your child's school terms."⁴⁷

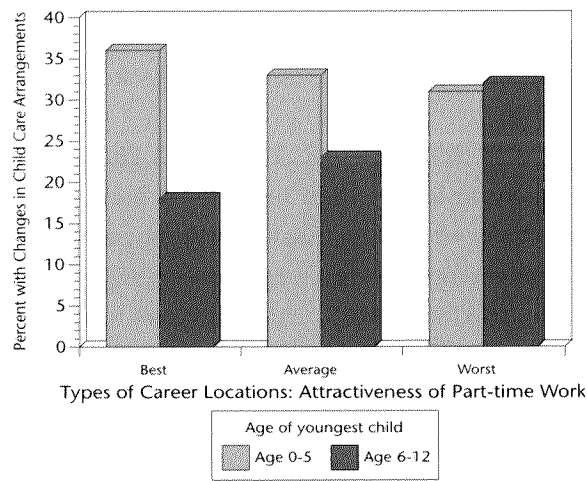
We defined unstable child care arrangements as those in which women experienced any changes as described above. **Approximately 29 percent of part-time professional and managerial women with chil-**

Figure 5-11:
Professional and Managerial Women Who Experienced Changes in Child Care Arrangements During the Previous Twelve Months, by Full-Time/Part-Time Status



Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation.

Figure 5-12:
Professional and Managerial Women Who Experienced Changes in Child Care Arrangements During the Previous Twelve Months, by Types of Career Locations



Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1987-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation.

Table 5-13: The Effect of Selected Characteristics on the Probability of Experiencing Changes in Child Care Arrangements During the Last Twelve Months¹

Baseline: Probability of Experiencing Changes in Child Care²	39%
Career Location: Worst	
Full-Time Employment Status	
Educational Attainment: High School Diploma or Less	
Age of Mother: 35 Years	
Race/Ethnicity: White, Non-Hispanic	
Married	
Children in the Family	
Age of Youngest Child: 5	
Number of Children under Age 6: 1	
Number of Children Ages 6 to 12: 1	
Income from Family Assets: \$100/year ³	
More Likely to Experience Changes in Child Care	
Not Married	46%
Children in the Family	
2 Children under Age 6	49%
2 Children Ages 6-12	45%
Family Characteristics	
Income from Family Assets: \$1,300/year ³	43%
Less Likely to Experience Changes in Child Care	
Part-Time Employment Status	29%
Race/Ethnicity	
Hispanic American	20%
Insignificant Results	
Career Location	
Average Career Location	
Best Career Location	
Educational Attainment	
Some College	
Associate's Degree	
Bachelor's Degree	
Advanced Degree	
Age of Mother	
Race/Ethnicity	
African American, Non-Hispanic	
Asian American/Other, Non-Hispanic	
Children in the Family	
Age of Youngest Child	

Notes:

1. Career location, employment status, educational attainment, mother's age, marital status, age of the youngest child, and the number of children under 12 are measured at Month 1.
2. The baseline woman was selected to be average in terms of age, age of youngest child, and income from family assets.
3. To illustrate the impact of changes in income from assets in this table, specific dollar amounts were evaluated. However, the logistic regression assesses the impact of higher income from assets, rather than specific amounts. Income is reported in 1997 constant dollars.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the 1990-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation, during the last 12 months of the survey.

dren under the age of 13 had experienced changes in child care arrangements within the previous 12 months.

■ Figure 5-11 shows that **part-time employment is associated with greater child care stability than full-time employment among professional and managerial women with children.** The full-time/part-time differences were larger for older children than younger children. Part-time employees whose youngest children are between the ages of six and 12 are significantly less likely to experience child care instability than full-time employees (17 percent compared with 27 percent, respectively).

■ Figure 5-12 shows that **working in a career location with the best compensated part-time jobs does not substantially improve child care stability for the mothers of very young children, but it does for the mothers whose youngest children are between the ages of six and 12.** Approximately one-third of women with children under six experienced some child care instability regardless of the attractiveness of their career locations.⁴⁸ In contrast, women whose youngest children are between the ages of six and 12 and who work in a career location with the best compensated jobs have the most stable child care: 18 percent instability compared with 23 percent for moderately compensated jobs and 32 percent for the worst compensated jobs.

Logistic Regressions

In the next analysis, the demographic and work variables that might influence child care instability for women with children under the age of 13 are simultaneously examined. The "baseline" woman in this analysis is a white, married woman with one five-year-old and one child between the ages of six and 12, working full-time in a career location with very low compensation for part-time employ-

ment.⁴⁹ The baseline woman has a high school education or less, her age is average for this group (35 years old) and her income from family assets is also average (\$100 per year).⁵⁰ More than one-third (39 percent) of the women in this baseline group had experienced changes in child care during the last twelve months; the chances increase or decrease significantly depending on their family characteristics, race/ethnicity, and employment status. Table 5–13 shows the characteristics that significantly predict child care instability:

- **Part-time employees are less likely to report changes in child care.**
- **Hispanic women are less likely to report changes in child care.**
- **Women who are not married are more likely to report changes in child care.**
- **Women with *more* children under the age of 6 or more children between the ages of six and 12 are more likely to report changes in child care but the age of the youngest child is unrelated to child care changes.**
- **Women with greater income from family assets are more likely to report changes in child care.**
- **In the logistic regressions, the attractiveness of part-time compensation at the career locations does not significantly affect the stability of child care arrangements.**
- **Mother’s age, educational attainment and race/ethnicity are also unrelated to changes in child care.**

Summary

The findings confirm that women who work as professionals and managers are integrating their careers with their family lives, and most are not choosing one over the other. Most of these women return to their jobs within three months after the arrival of a new baby, and most who were employed full-time prior to childbirth return to full-time positions afterwards. Similarly, most who were employed part-time prior to childbirth or adoption return to part-time positions afterwards, although, surprisingly, women are slightly more likely to switch from part-time before

childbirth to full-time afterwards rather than from full-time to part-time.

Even though only 15 percent of the women switch from full-time to part-time work after childbirth the majority of women *reduce* their hours of employment after childbirth as do one-third of the men. In contrast, 19 percent of the women increase their work hours after childbirth, as do 35 percent of the men.

Public debate regarding employed mothers often assumes that mothers return to the workforce after childbirth because they need to contribute to the family’s economic security. Although that is undoubtedly true, our findings indicate that many of the women who work part-time as professionals and managers earn very little and spend a large proportion of their earnings on child care. It may be that they need money so badly that they are willing to work for a very small economic benefit, but it seems more likely that many women who work as professionals and managers are motivated primarily by factors other than financial need. Nevertheless, women with better paying jobs tend to return to their jobs sooner, which suggests that jobs that offer more attractive compensation may provide a greater incentive to return to work regardless of financial need.

The findings also indicate that professionals and managers who are employed part-time or full-time do not differ greatly in the proportion using relatives or non-relatives for child care. However, mothers who are employed part-time are more likely to depend on their husbands to provide most of the child care that they use. This is especially true for women in the best compensated career locations, which tend to include nursing and other shift work that enables mothers to work during the hours that their husbands are at home.

Changes in child care during the course of the year are more likely among full-time employees, unmarried women, women with more children, and women with greater financial assets. They are less likely among Hispanic women, who may rely more on family members for child care. These findings suggest that changes in child care partly reflect greater needs (a result of more children and no spouse to assist in child care), but also greater resources to make changes when needed.

Chapter 6

Part-Time Work And Retirement

As life expectancy increases dramatically past the traditional retirement age of 65, part-time employment becomes more desirable for many older women and men. Increased life expectancy is important for several reasons: employees may not welcome the thought of 15 or more years of retirement, they may need to work in order to achieve economic security for such an extended period of time, or employees in their 50s or 60s may need to help care for aging parents who are in their 70s, 80s or 90s. As the baby boomers enter their 50s and have aging parents to care for, the option of part-time or full-time employment for older professionals and managers becomes of even greater importance for many women and men.

The Current Population Survey was used to compare full-time and part-time professionals and managers who were 62 years of age or older with special emphasis on those who were working full-time or part-time while receiving social security, pension or retirement benefits (i.e. “partially retired”). This older sample of workers ranges in age between 62 and 90. Exactly half of these professionals and managers are between 62 and 65; however, surprisingly, one in four (26 percent) are 70 years old or older, with three percent between 80 and 90 years old.

Analysis was also conducted regarding elderly men and women who worked in career locations that offered better compensated part-time jobs to determine whether that would influence the likelihood of their choosing part-time employment.

Which Older Professionals and Managers Work Part-Time?

Our major finding is the relatively large number of men and women who are age 65 and older who are

working as professionals and managers, many of them full-time. Given the pressures to retire at 65 in some work places, and the economic advantages of receiving pensions and social security benefits for not working, it was expected that there would be very few full-time professionals and managers between the ages of 65 and 70 and virtually none above their early 70s. Although the number of full-time employees decreases sharply after age 70, they still comprise a substantial minority of managers and professionals over the age of 62. Findings indicate that most professionals and managers who work are employed full-time until their 70s, and that older professionals and managers who work part-time differ from those working full-time in several ways. Part-timers are more likely to be women, disabled and more financially secure and tend to work in small firms. There are gender differences related to age and industrial sector.

Table 6–1 describes the retirement status of workers who are 62 years old or older and shows that **the majority are working full-time** and do not consider themselves fully retired.

- Among the older workers, approximately one third are working part-time. **Approximately 40 percent of female older professionals and managers and 29 percent of their male counterparts work part-time.**
- Among these older employed professionals and managers, **59 percent are partially retired.** The results are virtually identical for men and women.
- Although the **partially retired are more likely to work part-time** than those who do not consider

themselves retired at all, **40 percent of the women and 54 percent of the men who consider themselves partially retired are working full-time.**

- Among both women and men, the majority of employed professionals and managers work full-time in the two youngest age groups, 62–64 and 65–70, whereas the majority of those who work among those aged 70–79 and 80–90 work part-time.

Using logistic regressions, older men and women are analyzed separately to determine how health status, retirement benefits, disability status and other characteristics influence the probability of working part-time (see Table 6–2).⁵¹ The results indicate several demographic differences between part-time and full-time older employees as well as several differences in where they work.

Based on the logistic regressions, separate statistical baseline “typical” pre-retirement men and women in this age group were created; then these baselines were

compared with men and women with varying characteristics to determine which were associated with being more or less likely to work part-time. Among men who are managers in the transformative sector, in large firms in the private sector, who are white, married and not disabled, between the ages of 62 and 64, with no income from Social Security or retirement, and whose spouses have no current earnings and who report average income from family assets (\$3,200 per year), only one percent work part-time. In contrast, five percent of the women with identical baseline characteristics work part-time (see Table 6–2). The likelihood of working part-time increases dramatically in particular occupations, for those who work in small firms, for men who work in social services and, not surprisingly, among men and women who have health problems or a disability which limits the kind or amount of employment. Several other demographic characteristics, such as men’s age and retirement income, and men’s and women’s Social Security income, are also associated with increased likelihood of working part-time.

Table 6-1: Part-Time and Full-Time Work by Age and Retirement Status Among Employed Professionals and Managers Who Are 62 Years of Age or Older

	Men			Women		
	Percent Full-Time	Percent Part-Time	Weighted Sample Size	Percent Full-Time	Percent Part-Time	Weighted Sample Size
Not Retired at All	97%	3%	379,000 (41%)	88%	12%	234,000 (41%)
Partially Retired	54%	46%	545,000 (59%)	40%	60%	331,000 (59%)
Age Group						
62-64	90%	10%	399,000	73%	27%	237,000
65-69	67%	33%	297,000	55%	45%	192,000
70-79	46%	54%	203,000	44%	56%	117,000
80-90	33%	67%	26,000	39%	61%	18,000
Employed Sample Size: Ages 62+	71%	29%	925,000	60%	40%	564,000

Note: Numbers in parenthesis are the column percentage of each group by retirement status.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

Table 6-2: The Effect of Selected Characteristics on the Probability of Men and Women Age 62 and Older Working Part-Time

Men (N = 1036)	Women (N = 646)
<p>Baseline: Probability of Working Part-Time¹ 1%</p> <p>Occupation: Managers Industry: Transformative Sector (Const., Manuf., Utilit.) In Private Sector In Large Firms Age: 62-64 Years Educational Attainment: Bachelor's Degree Not Disabled White, Non-Hispanic Family Characteristics Married Income from Family Assets: \$3,200/year³ Spouse's Earnings: None³ Retirement Benefits Retirement Income: None³ Social Security Income: None³</p>	<p>Baseline: Probability of Working Part-Time² 5%</p> <p>Occupation: Managers Industry: Transformative Sector (Const., Manuf., Utilit.) In Private Sector In Large Firms Age: 62-64 Years Educational Attainment: Bachelor's Degree Not Disabled White, Non-Hispanic Family Characteristics Married Income from Family Assets: \$3,200/year³ Spouse's Earnings: None³ Retirement Benefits Retirement Income: None³ Social Security Income: None³</p>
<p>More Likely to Work Part-Time</p> <p>Occupation In Other Health-Assessing Occupations 11% Elementary School Teachers 7% Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified 4% Executives and Administrators 4% Secondary School Teachers 2% In Management-Related Occupations 2% Sales Representatives 2%</p> <p>Industry In Social Services (Medical, Educ., Welfare) 2% In Small Firms 2%</p> <p>Age Ages 65-69 3% Ages 70-79 2% Ages 80 and Up 7%</p> <p>Disabled 2%</p> <p>Retirement Benefits Social Security Income: \$13,000/year³ 7% Retirement Income: \$22,000/year³ 3%</p>	<p>More Likely to Work Part-Time</p> <p>Occupation Post-Secondary Teachers 42% Teachers, Not Elsewhere Classified 25% Librarians, Archivists and Curators 16% Registered Nurses 14% In Small Firms 13% Disabled 15%</p> <p>Retirement Benefits Social Security Income: \$9,000/year³ 43%</p>
<p>Less Likely to Work Part-Time None</p>	<p>Less Likely to Work Part-Time None</p>
<p>Insignificant Results</p> <p>Occupation In Health-Diagnosing Occupations Post-Secondary Teachers Scientists⁴ Social Scientists and Social Workers Writers and Artists</p> <p>Industry In Distributive Services (Transp., Comm., Trades) In Personal Services (Domestic, Hotel and Restaurant) In Producer Services (F.I.R.E., Eng., Acct., Legal)</p> <p>In Public Sector</p> <p>Educational Attainment High School Diploma or Less Some College Associate's Degree Bachelor's Degree Advanced Degree</p> <p>Non-White</p> <p>Family Characteristics Not Married³ Income from Family Assets³ Spouse's Earnings³</p>	<p>Insignificant Results</p> <p>Occupation Elementary School Teachers Executives and Administrators In Management-Related Occupations Kindergarten Teachers Sales Representatives Secondary School Teachers Social Scientists and Social Workers Writers and Artists</p> <p>Industry In Distributive Services (Transp., Comm., Trades) In Personal Services (Domestic, Hotel and Restaurant) In Producer Services (F.I.R.E., Eng., Acct., Legal) In Social Services (Medical, Educ., Welfare) In Public Sector</p> <p>Age</p> <p>Educational Attainment High School Diploma or Less Some College Associate's Degree Bachelor's Degree Advanced Degree</p> <p>Non-White</p> <p>Family Characteristics Not Married Income from Family Assets³ Spouse's Earnings³</p> <p>Retirement Benefits Retirement Income³</p>

Notes:
 1. Variables excluded for men: lawyers and judges; librarians, archivists and curators; entertainers and athletes; kindergarten teachers; and registered nurses.
 2. Variables excluded for women: lawyers and judges; women in health-diagnosing occupations; engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists; entertainers and athletes; and women in other health-assessing occupations.
 3. To illustrate the impact of changes in earnings, income from assets or retirement benefits in this table, specific dollar amounts were evaluated. However, the logistic regression assesses the impact of higher or lower earnings, income from assets, or retirement benefits, rather than specific amounts. Income is reported in 1997 constant dollars.
 4. Scientists include engineers, mathematicians, computer and natural scientists.

Source: IWPR calculations based on analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys.

Occupation

- Older men who are managers are *less* likely to work part-time than those who are executives and administrators, in management-related occupations, in other health-assessing occupations, teachers (except post-secondary), and sales representatives.
- Older women who are managers are much *less* likely to work part-time than those who are post-secondary teachers or teachers not elsewhere classified, and considerably less likely than librarians, archivists, and curators, registered nurses or sales representatives.

Industry

- Among these older male professionals and managers, men in social services are more likely to work part-time than men in the transformative sector such as manufacturing.
- Industrial sector is unrelated to part-time status for older female professionals and managers.

Firm Size

- For older men and women, professionals and managers in smaller firms are more likely to work part-time than their counterparts in larger firms.

Age

- Among the male professionals and managers ages 62 and older, the more elderly employees, especially those 80 years old or older, are more likely to work part-time than their younger counterparts. In contrast, age was unrelated to part-time status for women ages 62 and older.

Disability Status

- Among both older men and women, disabled professionals and managers (defined as those having health problems or a disability which prevents him/her from working or which limits

the kind or amount of work) are **more likely to work part-time than their counterparts who are not disabled.**

Overall, there are fewer demographic and occupational differences between part-time and full-time managers and professionals among the older workers than there are for younger employees. There are a few similarities, however; smaller firms hire more part-time employees in both age groups and some of the same occupations have more part-time employees in both age groups. There are several likely reasons for the smaller number of significant differences; one major reason is that the much smaller sample size in the older sample would require much larger differences to be statistically significant. Also, variables such as age of children obviously are no longer applicable, whereas characteristics such as age and disability status are much more important for older workers than they were for younger employees.

Retirement Benefits (Social Security/Pension/Other Retirement Income)

The same logistic regression analysis is used to determine the impact of financial characteristics on part-time employment for this older group of professionals and managers. Several financial characteristics were significant:

- For older men and women, individuals who received more generous social security benefits are more likely to work part-time (rather than full-time) than individuals who received fewer social security benefits.
- Older men who received more generous pensions or retirement income are more likely to work part-time than men who received less.
- Among older women, however, the amount of retirement income is not related to the probability of working part-time. This may partly be due to the fairly small pension benefits for women.

Among professionals and managers who are partially retired, men on the average received pension or retirement incomes of \$11,721 per year, while women received an average of only \$4,077, which is about 35 percent of men's pension or retirement income (based on CPS, data not shown).

These differences regarding income indicate that many older employees who work full-time rather than part-time may do so because of financial need. However, these results are not necessarily as straightforward as they appear: employees under 70 receive

lower social security benefits if their earnings exceed the limit allowed, so part-time employment may be chosen as a way to avoid reductions in social security income.⁵² Moreover, income from assets is unrelated to part-time employment. It is therefore unclear whether greater financial need results in a greater likelihood of full-time work.

Career Locations For Elderly Who Work Part-Time

Using a multiple regression technique, analysis is conducted on which part-time older professionals

Table 6-3: The Effect of Selected Characteristics on Career Location Attractiveness Scores Among Elderly Professionals and Managers Working Part-Time

	Men		Women	
	Multiple Regression Coefficient	Significance Level	Multiple Regression Coefficient	Significance Level
Intercept	15.110	0.01	25.497	0.001
Educational Attainment (Ref: High School Diploma or Less)				
Some College	-0.099		-0.260	
Associate's Degree	-0.022		3.908	0.01
Bachelor's Degree	2.993	0.01	2.220	0.05
Advanced Degree	2.830	0.01	1.260	
Age				
Age	-0.074		-0.164	0.05
Disabled Status (Ref: Not Disabled)				
Disabled	-1.017		-1.006	
Race/Ethnicity (Ref: White)				
Non-White	0.388		1.726	
Family Characteristics				
Married (Ref: Not Married)	0.879		-0.532	
Log of Spouse's Earnings	-0.125		0.125	
Log of Income From Family Assets	0.216		0.043	
Social Security/Retirement Benefits				
Log of Social Security Income	0.197		-0.101	
Log of Other Retirement Income	0.052		0.194	
Adjusted R-sq	0.0689		0.0684	
Sample Size	317		274	

Note: Unless otherwise noted, the results are not significant at the .05 level.

Source: IWPR analysis of data from the March 1992 and 1993 Current Population Surveys for professionals and managers age 62 or older working part-time.

and managers work in occupations offering the better compensated part-time jobs. These analyses are conducted separately for men and women, once again using the composite compensation scores described in Chapter 4 as the dependent variable. The independent variables are: age, educational attainment, disability status, race/ethnicity (white versus non-white), social security benefits, retirement benefits, marital status, spouse's earnings and income from family assets.⁵³ Results are presented in Table 6-3 and summarized below.

Age

- **Among women aged 62–90, older women are less likely to work in the career locations that provide the best compensated part-time jobs than are the younger women.** Age is unrelated to career location for men in this age group.

Education

- **Education is among the strongest predictors of working in an occupation with better compensated part-time jobs for men in this age group. Men with a college degree or advanced degree are significantly more likely to work in career locations with better part-time jobs than men who have a high school diploma or less.** This is consistent with the high education requirements of these jobs.
- **For women in this age group, those with an associate's degree or bachelor's degree are significantly more likely to work in career locations with better part-time jobs than those who have a high school diploma or less.** Since many of the older women are not college educated, it is not surprising that those who are work in the fields with the best compensation for part-time jobs (which also are among the better compensated full-time jobs for these older women).⁵⁴

Pension or Retirement Income

- For professional and managerial women and men in this age group, **generous pensions or retire-**

ment income are not significantly related to working in career locations with better compensated part-time jobs.

The multiple regression shows few significant predictors of working in career locations with the best compensated part-time jobs. It is unfortunate that the oldest workers have less access to the best compensated part-time jobs, since many are probably working because of financial need. On the other hand, it is not surprising that those who are working in the best career locations for part-time work tend to be better educated. As is the case in the earlier analyses, the lack of many significant differences probably is partly due to the smaller sample size of older workers, since a smaller sample requires more robust differences to be statistically significant.

Summary

Overall, the findings indicate that part-time employment is a choice for many older professionals and managers, including many over 70 years of age, although a rather surprising proportion of employed older professionals and managers continue to work full-time even into their 70s and 80s. Part-time employment is somewhat more likely among these older women than their male colleagues, but older men are much more likely to work part-time than their younger male colleagues, and the oldest of these older men are the most likely to work part-time.

There are occupational differences associated with working part-time, with managers less likely to work part-time than men and women in many professional fields, and professionals and managers in smaller firms more likely to work part-time than their counterparts in larger firms. Men in social services are more likely to work part-time than men in the transformative sector, such as manufacturing.

There are few significant demographic differences between the older employees working part-time and those working full-time, although disabled men and women (which includes those with health problems

that limit employment opportunities) are more likely to work part-time. The data also suggest that older workers who are employed full-time rather than part-time as professionals and managers do so partly because of greater financial need, as measured by their social security benefits and men's pension benefits.

There are few demographic differences between the older professionals and managers working in career locations with the best part-time compensation and those in the less well compensated career locations, although the former tend to be younger and better educated.

Chapter 7

Conclusions and Policy Implications

Working part-time as a manager or professional has the potential to help parents juggle their work and family responsibilities while earning a good income. However, this study of a nationally representative sample of professionals and managers shows that, compared with other employees in the United States, relatively few professionals and managers are employed part-time, and very few careers offer financial incentives to work part-time.

The statistics are clear: only 12 percent of managers and professionals are employed part-time and a substantial proportion of these (29 percent) would prefer to work full-time. Despite evidence from other studies that many full-time employees would like to work fewer hours, these data indicate that almost nine out of ten professionals and managers prefer full-time work or are either unable to find part-time work or unwilling to work at the part-time jobs that are available. In fact, almost twice as many professionals and managers work more than 40 hours per week as work fewer than 35 hours per week.

Who Works Part-Time?

As expected, part-time professionals and managers differ from their full-time colleagues in terms of several demographic and human capital characteristics. The majority of part-time professionals and managers are women, and many of these women have young children. They are less likely to have bachelor's or graduate degrees, and it is likely that many are still in school. Whether they are men or women, they are likely to work in small, private firms; in the service sector industries; and in particular occupations. If they are women, they are more likely to be white, and if they are men, they are

more often unmarried or Asian American. Despite these gender differences, however, women and men have remarkably similar patterns of part-time employment across age groups. Both men and women are much more likely to work part-time in the youngest and oldest age groups when about one-third of all professionals and managers do so. However, women are more likely to work part-time in the prime working years, which are also the child rearing years, than men; about four times as many women aged 25–44 work part-time as men (about 17 percent versus 4 percent).

Contrary to expectations regarding financial need, most men's part-time work is unrelated to higher income from other sources; in fact, men with wives with higher income are *less* likely to work part-time and if they do, it is often involuntarily. It is only for the oldest men that greater financial security, as measured by larger Social Security benefits or retirement income, is associated with working part-time rather than full-time. In contrast, financial security does apparently influence women's decision to work part-time; women are more likely to work part-time rather than full-time (and do so by choice) when their husbands have higher salaries and their income from family assets is higher. Similarly, older women are more likely to work part-time rather than full-time when they have higher Social Security benefits. However, even for women, financial security does not apparently influence a new mother's decision to return to work within three months following childbirth. If a mother or father reduces her or his work hours after childbirth, it is likely to be associated with less rather than more financial security. The decision may therefore be related to differing attitudes regarding infant care or the need to save on child care costs.

How Good Are the Best Part-Time Jobs and Where Are They?

When the salaries and benefits offered in various career locations are evaluated, findings indicate that only four career locations offer part-time jobs with relatively high hourly earnings that are comparable to or better than hourly earnings for full-time jobs and also provide health-care benefits and pensions to approximately half their part-time employees. These career locations are nursing (public sector or large private firms), scientists (including engineers, mathematicians and computer and natural scientists) in large, private firms and special education teachers. These career locations pay their part-time employees, on the average, between \$15 and \$22 per hour, which is 95 to 105 percent of what full-time positions in the same career locations are paid; unfortunately, they comprise only four of 51 career locations identified and represent only 13 percent of part-time professional and manager positions.

Although there are a few other career locations that offer relatively generous salaries to part-time employees, such as “lawyers and judges” and “scientists in small, private firms (including engineers, mathematicians and computer and natural scientists),” the majority of those employees do not receive pensions or health insurance benefits. In contrast, the vast majority of professional and managerial career locations do not provide generous salaries *or* pensions *or* health insurance benefits to those working part-time. In fact, despite the common assumption that positions classified as professionals or managers are likely to be the best-paying positions available for full-time and part-time employees, several of the career locations that are classified as professionals and managers offer part-time salaries that, even at 34 hours per week, are insufficient to support a family of four above the poverty line and almost never provide employer contributions to health insurance or pension benefits for their part-time employees. Examples include managers in personal services in large private firms, managers in retail and other distributive services in small or large private firms, and private sector pre-school and

kindergarten teachers; for the latter, even a full-time salary would not support a family of four above the poverty line.⁵⁵

In addition to the poverty level part-time earnings of several professional and managerial career locations, many more of these positions pay less than \$10 per hour and offer benefits to fewer than one-third of their part-time professionals or managers. The average salary for part-time employees is \$12.09 per hour and, on average, those salaries represent 74 percent of full-time salaries for the same career locations. Overall, only 31 percent of the part-time professionals and managers rely on health benefits provided through their employers and only 23 percent participate in pension plans offered by employers.

When the best compensated careers for part-time professionals and managers are evaluated, it is surprising to learn that three of the four are in the very traditional female career locations of nursing and special education. As a result, women are more likely than men to be employed in career locations with better compensation. Although the better compensation for these part-time positions is good news for women, it does not make up for the overall poor pay and benefits for part-time work for professionals and managers, most of whom are women.

The four careers that offer the best salaries and are most likely to provide health benefits or pensions are obviously adaptable to part-time work. For example, nurses work shifts that are relatively unique among professionals and managers, and special education teachers and computer scientists often work in situations that do not typically require a traditional eight-hour workday. In addition, there are often shortages of nurses and computer scientists that are likely to account for their relatively generous part-time compensation. Nurses and teachers are often unionized, which may also account for their better pay and benefits. The somewhat unusual characteristics of these professional career locations make it unlikely that many other sectors of the labor market will readily follow their lead in terms of providing better pay and benefits to part-time professionals and managers.

Of course, there are many ways to measure the quality of part-time work in addition to salaries and benefits. Many of the potential measures, such as access to job training, opportunity for advancement and sense of satisfaction are not included in the national data sets that are analyzed and so comparisons are not possible. However, data are available to evaluate whether working part-time is the employee's choice or the employer's choice, which is certainly a very important aspect of the quality of one's job. When all the career locations are evaluated in terms of the proportion of part-time jobs that are voluntary or involuntary, the nursing careers in the public sector and with large private sector employers again scored best: fewer than 15 percent of individuals working part-time in those career locations report that they would prefer to work full-time. In contrast, a rather large number of teachers who work part-time state that they would prefer to work full-time. These findings are difficult to interpret; it is unclear how many of these teachers are considered part-time while working standard teaching schedules (i.e., 8:30am to 3:30pm) or whether they are paid less than most teachers because they are involuntarily working less than a typical teaching schedule. It may well be the latter; the career location with the largest proportion (53 percent) of part-timers who would prefer to work full-time is special education, which is the best compensated part-time teaching career location and certainly the one that inherently seems most easily adaptable to part-time work since it may involve working with individual students for short periods of time.

When the men and women who work in jobs with the best compensation for part-time employment and those who work part-time voluntarily rather than involuntarily are considered, they are seen to share several of the same demographic characteristics. For example, they tend to be more highly educated. For the women, they also tend to have pre-school age children and more income from family assets. However, they have different characteristics in terms of age, marital status and race/ethnicity.

Being overqualified for one's job is another potentially important measure of underemployment, but it

is even more difficult to measure. Clogg's measure of underemployment, which is at least one standard deviation above the norm for educational attainment in the career location, seems reasonable, but it fails to distinguish between the best educated individuals in a particular field (such as pre-school teachers with master's degrees) and individuals who have advanced degrees that are not relevant to their work and who therefore feel that their skills are not being adequately used (such as a food store manager with a doctorate in art history). Thus, since this variable primarily measures educational attainment, it is not meaningful for this group of high-level jobs.

The effort to measure part-time/part-year employment produces confusing results, because of the extremely high proportion of part-year professionals and managers in virtually all career locations. The proportions range from 30–78 percent, not including teachers, which suggests that more research is needed to determine whether individuals with three to four week vacations were inappropriately categorized in this nationally representative data set as "not working" when they were actually on vacation. In addition, it would be important to understand the extent to which these part-year positions are voluntary or involuntary.

Part-Time Work Over the Life Cycle

Child Birth and Child Care

Perhaps the most surprising finding is that part-time employment does not appear to be a common strategy in response to specific events involving child birth or child care. Instead, the vast majority of women return to work within three months of the arrival of a new child, and most retain their full-time employment. Moreover, most women apparently make a long-term decision that they either want to work part-time, or full-time, or leave the labor force for a period of time, and generally stay with that decision regardless of the birth of another child or a breakdown in child care arrangements. Although there is a tendency to reduce the average hours of work after a child enters the family, this does not usually mean a reduction from full-time to part-time

work. In fact, our findings show that there are more women who change from part-time work during pregnancy to full-time work after childbirth than vice versa. It is especially surprising that the decision of whether to work part-time or full-time after childbirth seems to have little or no association with financial need or the quality of part-time compensation in the career locations where these women and men are employed.

Of course, the lack of movement from full-time to part-time work after childbirth does not necessarily mean that women are easily adjusting to dual roles as mothers and employees. Most of the new mothers and one-third of the new fathers cut down their number of hours of work after childbirth, and approximately one in five new mothers left the work force entirely for at least seven months. As a result, a substantial minority of women with very young children are either not employed or employed part-time. However, it may be that the pressure to return to one's career is so strong, and the options for quality part-time work are so limited, that return to full-time work is seen as the only reasonable choice for many women. This may be especially true for those who have attained advanced degrees or extensive training for their current jobs, or who enjoy their full-time jobs and do not want to sacrifice the satisfaction, salary or long-term security that would be necessary if they were to work part-time. Findings also indicate that the costs of child care do not decrease much for mothers working part-time rather than full-time, and so the lower salaries of part-time work are not counterbalanced by lower expenses.

This study is designed to evaluate the use of part-time manager and professional positions for men as well as women, but the data clearly indicate that very few of these men choose to work part-time between the ages of 25 and 55. Perhaps most discouraging in these days of soaring rhetoric about fathers' greater involvement in the family, is the finding that having pre-school age children is associated with fathers being *less* likely to work part-time at the very same time that mothers are *more* likely to work part-time.

Aging

In contrast to the relatively modest movement from full-time to part-time work among parents with children, many professionals and managers switch from full-time to part-time work as they age. Whether it is because of their need to care for others who are ill, their need to cut back hours because of their own fatigue or failing health or the desire to continue to work while receiving Social Security benefits, our findings clearly indicate that part-time work is a relatively popular choice before and after retirement, especially for men. The men and women who work part-time in their later years do not differ from those working full-time on most demographic characteristics, other than age, disability and Social Security or pension benefits. However, it is surprising to learn that most employed professionals and managers in their late 60s and 45 percent of those in their 70s are still employed full-time—it is not until their 80s that the vast majority who work work part-time. This could be viewed as a further indictment of the availability of quality part-time work; even men and women in their 70s are almost as likely to choose full-time employment if they work at all.

Nevertheless, part-time employment is more popular for women and men over the age of 62 compared with any other age group, with approximately one-third of professionals and managers in that age group working part-time. Although part-time work is perceived to be family friendly, it appears that the families that benefit most, at least among professionals and managers, are more likely to involve elder care than child care.

Policy Implications

The findings do little to support the idea that part-time employment is a viable alternative for most managers and professionals who are juggling career and family responsibilities except possibly those juggling the family responsibilities of elder care experienced by men and women in their sixties and older. Although family resources and spouse's income have limited impact on the decision to work part-time, the findings clearly

indicate that most managers and professionals could not afford to support a family in middle class comfort on a part-time salary and they would be dependent on spouses for health insurance. Most troubling of all, many of the female professionals and managers who are able to afford to work part-time because of their husband's salary and family health care benefits may find themselves with little or no pension benefits in their own name when they retire. This has serious implications for their future well-being; previous research by IWPR has found that women who are widowed, divorced or separated are more likely than married women to become impoverished when they retire and that a lack of pensions is a major cause of that poverty.

The study findings indicate that in most career occupations, part-time work involves an enormous financial sacrifice of pay and benefits: a manager or professional earning \$800 for a 40-hour week, would typically instead earn only \$300 and possibly as little as \$200 for a 20-hour week.

Given the existing wage gap between women and men for full-time employment, part-time employment becomes unaffordable for most women. Other research has indicated that employers believe that part-time employees are less committed to their jobs and less productive; it may well be that these very low part-time salaries, almost nonexistent benefits and, in some cases, the involuntary or temporary nature of part-time work may contribute to low morale among part-time employees. All these shortcomings would be expected to adversely affect employee motivation and dedication to getting their job done well.

The poor compensation and other problems associated with part-time work among professionals and managers may create a vicious cycle—employers are unwilling to hire part-time workers at reasonable salaries because they believe them to be less productive or hardworking, and so the individuals who are willing to work part-time may become less productive or hardworking. In order to break that cycle, public and private employers need to experiment with more equitable part-time arrangements, so that the potential for part-time work can be adequately examined.

Based on the research findings presented here, there are several ways that new public policies could increase the viability of part-time employment and improve the flexibility of full-time employment in ways that would benefit employed parents and others who want to work reduced hours.

Federal Policies

The federal government, the largest employer in the United States, has written policies that increase the likelihood of equitable pay and ensure the availability of health insurance and pension benefits for permanent part-time employees. Despite those policies, the number of part-time employees, especially among professionals and managers in the federal government, remains low. More information is needed about why these numbers remain low and how the availability of part-time government jobs could be increased. Several government agencies might take a leadership role in encouraging the creation of attractive part-time careers for workers who want them, and then study the results.

In the meantime, if the goal is to make part-time work a viable option for more employees, the federal government could stimulate more equitable policies for part-time employees in the private sector and among state-level government employees by requiring equitable policies for part-time work for entities that do business with the federal government.

Another potential strategy would be for the federal government to establish a new labor standard to require that any business that offers benefits to full-time employees must pay a proportional share of the same benefits for their part-time employees. New federal legislation could also require equal hourly pay for part-time and full-time employees with identical job responsibilities. The federal government could also encourage employers to provide equitable training opportunities to part-time employees so part-time jobs can lead to career advancement and not be dead-ends. The provision of training could also help workers who need to move in and out of the labor force to meet family needs.

Public Education

Women's advocacy organizations, national magazines, other media and the U.S. Department of Labor have been acknowledging and publicly praising a variety of family friendly policies in the corporate world in recent years. In the same way that providing child care and other amenities has been publicly praised and received positive media attention, equitable policies regarding salaries and benefits for part-time work also deserve more attention. The dangers of long-term work in positions that do not provide pensions is an issue that deserves a great deal of public education. Public acknowledgments and public education via the media and other mechanisms can increase the likelihood of better policies in the private sector.

Private Sector

A major question is whether laws are required to improve part-time jobs in the private sector, or whether the private sector will voluntarily make these changes. As the job market continues to tighten, employers may be more responsive to the demands of employees who want part-time employment with pay and benefits comparable to full-time work. In the same way that older women and men have apparently managed to find part-time employment as professionals and managers despite existing prejudices against older workers, it appears that younger women and men who want to decrease their career and family conflicts will be able to demand better compensation for part-time work when they work in career locations where employers are motivated to be accommodating.

In some professional fields, such as teaching and nursing, unions have successfully negotiated for more

equitable part-time employment compensation. Unions have also become more involved in negotiating for other types of family friendly policies. In the years to come, other professionals may pursue unionization as a strategy to achieve more equitable part-time employment compensation or other benefits.

The kinds of changes in employer attitudes that would be necessary to substantially improve part-time employment opportunities are much more likely if there is persuasive research evidence supporting the cost-effectiveness of hiring part-time employees, public education that persuades employees and employers that these changes are long overdue, and incentives or pressure provided by the federal government, state governments or unions to make those changes.

Additional Family Friendly Policies

Since part-time employment is not currently a viable choice for many working parents, improving the availability of other family friendly policies would also be an important strategy to help employees with career and family responsibilities. For example, flextime or flexplace policies that enable full-time employees to have more choices regarding the specific hours that they work or enable them to sometimes work at home would enable parents to earn full-time salaries with more opportunities to take care of family needs, such as parent-teacher conferences or caring for children who are temporarily ill. The federal government already offers flextime to the majority of its employees, and flexplace policies are also gaining acceptance. Acceptance of flextime and flexplace policies varies greatly in the private sector, and research evidence could once again provide the persuasion necessary to encourage these overdue changes.

Endnotes

1. The data include information on whether the individual receives these benefits from their own employer, but not whether the benefits were offered. In general, employees may not participate in pension plans or take up health insurance if the cost to them is high or they have other adequate coverage.
2. All wage and salary earnings are reported in 1997 constant dollars.
3. These statements are based on an assumption of a 34-hour week, part-time position at the part-time salary, or for kindergarten teachers, a 40-hour week, full-time job at the full-time salary. If they were working 34-hours per week, the manager positions would provide salaries that are barely above the poverty line for a family of three. In 1997, the poverty level for a family of four was \$16,277 and for a family of three was \$12,931.
4. Bianchi and Spain (1996) report that the proportion of managers who were women increased from 19 percent in 1970 to 43 percent in 1995. The proportion of women in professional specialty occupations also increased from 44 percent in 1970 to 53 percent in 1995. By the end of 1995, there were 18.5 million men and 17.4 million women in managerial and professional specialty occupations, which is about 28.7 percent of the entire employed labor force (see *Employment and Earnings*, January 1996, table A-17).
5. The terms “part-time work,” “reduced-hours” and “reduced-time work arrangements” are used interchangeably throughout this report.
6. The Current Population Survey categorizes individuals as working part-time for “economic reasons” if it is because of slack work, material shortages, repairs to the plant or equipment, start or termination of a job during the week or inability to find full-time work.
7. Census Bureau data project that more than one-fifth of the population will be 65 and over by 2030 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996).
8. For those ages 65 to 69, Social Security benefits are reduced by \$1 for every \$3 of earnings above the exempt amount; below age 65, the reduction rate is \$1 for every \$2 earned. New legislation in 1996 mandated a gradual increase in the exempt amount to \$30,000 by 2002 for those ages 65 to 69. Below age 65, the exempt amount is increased annually depending on increases in the average wage index.
9. Older workers have a reputation for good attendance, high productivity and excellent customer service and mentoring skills (Doeringer and Terkla, 1990; Hirshorn and Hoyer, 1994).
10. This applies more to women than to men. Because of cultural norms that adult males should be bread-winners, irregular work histories may endanger the employment prospects of men more than women among blue collar and lower level white collar workers.
11. For the purposes of this report, professional and managerial occupations include administrators, managers, management-related occupations (such as accountant or auditor), engineers, architects and surveyors, mathematical and computer scientists, natural scientists, health-diagnosing occupations (such as physicians or dentists), health-assessment and treating occupations (such as registered nurses or pharmacists), teachers (post-secondary and all others), librarians, archivists and curators, social scientists and urban planners, social recreation and religious workers, lawyers and judges, writers, artists, entertainers and athletes, and sales representatives in finance, business services and commodities (except retail) such as stock brokers, insurance salespersons and real estate agents.
12. The March 1992 and 1993 CPS are used, because 1994 data are not directly comparable with the previous years.
13. Two categories of firm size are used. Those firms with fewer than 100 employees were classified as small firms while those with 100 employees or more were considered large firms. Using the March 1992 and 1993 CPS, we found that about one-third of our sample worked in small firms.
14. The categories are executives and administrators; managers; management-related occupations; scientists (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and natural scientists); health diagnosing occupations (e.g. physicians); registered nurses and other health assessing occupations (e.g. therapists or pharmacists); post-secondary education teachers; kindergarten teachers; elementary school teachers; secondary school teachers; special education teachers; teachers, not elsewhere classified; librarians, archivists, and curators; social scientists and social workers; lawyers and judges; writers and artists; entertainers and athletes; and sales representatives.
15. Browning and Singelmann (1978) constructed a typology of industry based on functional relationships between industries. Their six industrial sectors reduce the number used by the Census Bureau.
16. The clustering of individuals reporting a 40-hour week is not surprising, since labor law establishes 40 hours as a standard workweek for lower level employees. Many respondents may report 40 hours as a convenience even if they routinely work more or fewer.
17. Our sample of managers and professionals is slightly different from the BLS definition, because we excluded self-employed workers, and included high level sales representatives in fields such as insurance and real estate.
18. Given the large sample sizes, these differences are highly significant.
19. We could not use the CPS data because school enrollment information was available only for the 16-24 age group; instead, we used month one from the 1991 SIPP, which covers the end of 1990 and the beginning of 1991.
20. Similarly, using 1991 data, we found that a higher proportion of men and women with some college education were working part-time and enrolled in school, compared with high school or college graduates. For example, among male professionals and managers with some

college education, six percent were working part-time and enrolled in school, whereas only one percent of male college graduates were working part-time and were enrolled in school. The results are similar for women: six percent with some college education worked part-time and were enrolled in school, while three percent of college graduates worked part-time and were enrolled in school.

21. This analysis, not shown in the table, is based on our calculations of the inflection point which is calculated by dividing the age coefficient by two times the age square coefficient. This value is then multiplied by -1.
22. We used both levels and ratios of earnings because “attractive” part-time jobs should not only pay well relative to part-time workers in other career locations but also offer pay equity compared with full-time workers within the same career locations.
23. We tested both the “levels” and the “ratios” of benefit items—employer-provided health benefits (direct coverage) and pension coverage. We found that the correlation between levels and ratios of employer benefit items (health care and pensions) was extremely high ($r=.91$ or $r=.86$); therefore, we did not use the ratios of benefit items as a measure of quality of part-time work.

We also tried to cost out the value of fringe benefits, instead of using the ratios of the percent offering those benefits. We tested the dollar amount of employers’ contributions to provide health-care benefits and examined how it related to other measures. The cost of health care provided by the employers was taken from the Current Population Survey. We found that the average amount of an employer’s contribution to provide health insurance for part-time workers in each career location was highly correlated with the percent of coverage for part-time workers in each career location ($r=.92$). Therefore, we dropped the cash value of health-care coverage from the index. We also contacted various offices within the U.S. Department of Labor and other non-profit research organizations to gather data on the cash value of pension benefits; however, we could not obtain adequately disaggregated data for our analysis. Therefore, we were not able to test how the cash value of pension coverage was related to other measures.

24. To standardize the diverse indicators that make up the composite index, each indicator received a score between 0 and 10 that reflects how it compares to the best and worst career locations in terms of earnings and benefits. Using the CPI index, earnings were translated into 1997 constant dollars. For example, average hourly earnings for the managers in personal services in large, private firms were lowest with a rate of \$5.78 per hour, scored at 0, and highest for the lawyers and judges with a rate of \$24.38 per hour, scored at 10. The other three indicators were also scored from 0 to 10, based on their relative performances. Each career location’s final index score was then calculated as the sum of scores on each of the four indicators, possibly ranging from 0 to 40.
25. When calculated as an hourly wage, part-time salaries for these four career locations were on average the same as the full-time salaries.
26. All earnings are presented in 1997 constant dollars. Part-time scientists (including engineers, mathematicians, and computer and

natural scientists) in small, private firms earn slightly more but are much less likely to be offered health benefits or pensions.

27. As can be seen in Table 4–2, part-time lawyers and judges are the most highly paid employees, averaging \$24.38 per hour, but earn only 84 percent of the wages of full-time lawyers and judges and only 36 percent receive health benefits and 17 percent receive pensions.
28. We analyzed the percentage of part-time managers and professionals who were overeducated in each career location, using Clogg’s (1979) definition of at least one standard deviation above the mean for that career location. Our findings suggest that certain career locations, such as the health professions, have such highly educated employees that there are unlikely to be any that are “overeducated.”
29. Among female nurses who are working part-time, approximately 41 percent have earned associate’s degrees while only 13 percent of all part-time professional and managerial women have associate’s degrees (data drawn from the CPS).
30. This analysis, not shown on the table, is based on our calculations of the inflection point which is calculated by dividing the age coefficient by two times the age squared coefficient. This value is then multiplied by -1.
31. To illustrate changes on the baseline individual’s probability, it was necessary to evaluate the impact of a specific earnings level.
32. These statements are based on the assumption of a 34-hour week, part-time position at the part-time salary or, for kindergarten teachers, a 40-hour week, full-time salary. In 1997, the poverty level for a family of four was \$16,277 and for a family of three was \$12,931.
33. Allison (1984) defines the discrete-time hazard as “the probability that an event will occur at a particular time to a particular individual, given that the individual is at risk at that time” (p. 16).
34. The SIPP data do not specify whether a woman gave birth or adopted a child. For convenience, we refer to this event as childbirth, although the child may be adopted.
35. Due to the small sample size, we included all women with new babies during the survey instead of only new mothers as originally intended. Women who had given birth before the fourth reference month were excluded in order to observe job characteristics (e.g., location of career locations, full-time/part-time status), human capital (e.g., years of schooling, job tenure) and demographic characteristics (e.g., race/ethnicity, marital status, number of children, spouse’s hourly earnings, log of income from assets) during the last three months before the child was born. Women who had given birth after the 21st month were excluded in order to observe a mother’s post-natal employment for at least three months following childbirth. Although there were 473 women in the sample, only 442 could be included in the analysis reported in Table 5–1, and 458 were included in the analysis in Table 5–2.
36. Ideally, we would have analyzed women for their entire pregnancy and at least six months after childbirth but this would have reduced the sample because some births were in the earliest and latest month of the 24-month longitudinal study. We also would have liked to analyze adoption separately from childbirth, but that information is not available on the SIPP.

37. This does not necessarily mean that they did not return for the full 18 months after childbirth, since some of these women gave birth toward the end of that 18-month period, and we had no information about them after the 18-month period.
38. The chi-square test shows that career location does not significantly affect the pace at which a woman returns to work over a longer period of time (chi-square = 2.7, $p = .26$).
39. We decided on three months as a time frame for the dependent variable, since more than 91 percent of women who remained in the workforce returned to work within three months after childbirth or adoption.
40. These 322 mothers who were working in the same career locations before and after childbirth represented 68 percent of the 473 new mothers in the sample. The remaining 151 new mothers were excluded for the following reasons: a) those who left the labor force *before* they became pregnant and did not come back to work during the six months after delivery; b) those who did not work during pregnancy but worked after birth; c) those who worked during pregnancy but stopped working after birth; and d) those who changed career locations.
41. This measure includes reducing hours *within* part-time or full-time, as well as from full-time to part-time.
42. Insurance salespersons, real estate agents, other sales personnel and professionals with billable hours are some examples of those whose incomes are closely tied to hours worked.
43. Mothers who pay nothing for child care use an average of 31 hours of child care if they work part-time and 51 hours if they work full-time.
44. All costs are presented in 1997 constant dollars. Although these statistics are only for mothers who pay for at least some child care, they *include* paid and unpaid hours of child care. The average is calculated by averaging the average hourly cost for each woman, regardless of the number of hours of child care she used.
45. We selected a sample of respondents from the third topical modules from the 1990 and 1991 SIPP panels because the sample universe and time spans referring to changes in child care arrangements were modified between 1988 and 1990. In the 1988 survey, data were analyzed from women with one child and the survey questions referred to changes in child care arrangements during the four months prior to the survey. In 1990–1991, questions regarding changes in child care were asked individually for the three youngest children and referred to a period of 12 months before the survey. Therefore, to make the data more comparable, we excluded the 1988 SIPP panel from the analysis. This resulted in a sample size of 752 professional and managerial women who had children under age six at month 12.
46. This question was asked for at least the three youngest children who were less than five years old.
47. This question was asked for at least the three youngest children who were between age five and age 15.
48. The small differences related to career location for women with pre-school aged children are not significant but they are in the opposite direction from what we expected.
49. The age of the youngest child (five) and the number of children between the ages of six and 12 represent the averages for women in this analysis.
50. All the independent variables were measured at month one because we did not know when the change occurred. Income was measured as a log of income from assets.
51. For the logistic regressions, we included professional and managerial men and women who were 62 years or older. We excluded those who were in extractive industries because very few were working part-time in those industries. Partly due to sex segregation of occupations such as nursing, engineering or natural science, some occupations have very few elderly part-time men or women; therefore, occupations with too few part-time employees were excluded. Among male and female elderly professionals, we excluded those who worked in occupations such as registered nurses, kindergarten teachers, special education teachers, librarians, archivists and curators, lawyers and judges and entertainers and athletes. Because of these exclusions, sample sizes for men and women did not add up to the total sample size.
52. Although lost benefits are approximately restored by benefit increases later on, most older workers appear to be unaware of these actuarial adjustments in future benefits.
53. All measures of income were analyzed using logarithmic transformations to minimize skewed data.
54. These older women tend to be employed in more traditional women's fields, so that nursing and special education are relatively well paid careers for them. Since a college education was relatively rare for women of this generation, few of these women have bachelor's degrees or graduate degrees and women with some college are among the best educated.
55. These statements are based on an assumption of a 34-hour week, part-time position at the part-time salary, or for kindergarten teachers, a 40-hour week, full-time job at the full-time salary. If they were working 34-hours per week, the manager positions would provide salaries that are barely above the poverty line for a family of three. In 1997, the poverty level for a family of four was \$16,277 and for a family of three was \$12,931.

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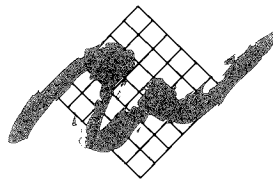
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