

**APEC Human Resources Development Working Group  
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Linkages Between Paid and Unpaid Work in Human Resource Policy  
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**Australia**

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## **1. Context**

The total number of women of employable age (15yrs+) in Australia is 7.4 million. Of this total, about half (3.6 million) are in the paid labour force and a further 334,000 are looking for full-time or part-time work (most recent data, ABS, 27/2/98). This represents 43 percent of all employees.

Two-thirds of people not in the labour force are women. Of these, 15 percent are still in the education system or have returned to education. Of the rest, significant numbers would seek work if it were not for constraining reasons, both personal and family. A further group is classified as "discouraged job seeker." This half of the female population will be discussed in more detail below.

While women constitute slightly more than half the population of Australia, only 54 percent participate in the workforce. However, this participation rate is increasing steadily, particularly in part-time work.

The labour force participation of women has steadily increased from 63 percent in 1987 to 70 percent in 1997, although the rate of this increase has progressively leveled off during the 1990s.

## **2. Paid and Unpaid Work**

### **2.1 Paid Work**

Of the women classified as being in the paid labour force, 42.7 percent are part-time or casual employees. Part-time work, including permanent part-time work, is increasingly the paid work position of women. At the same time, 6 percent of employed women held more than one salaried job in 1994, twice as many as in 1981. Women are more likely than men to hold a second paid job in all age groups (Junor, 1998).

#### **2.1.1 Gendered nature of the workforce**

The Australian workforce remains highly segregated, with women concentrated in clerical, sales, and personal service occupations (56%). The most significant recent change to this picture is the advances women have made in the professions where they are approaching half the total (48.96%). Management and administration remains an occupational sector dominated by men (75.7%), (ABS, 1998).

#### **2.1.2 Casualization of the workforce**

Between 1988 and 1998, the proportion of workers employed on a casual basis has increased from 17.6 percent to 26.9 percent. In 1998, 65.4 percent of part-time employment was on a casual basis, representing a slight drop from 1988. Australia is second only to Spain in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries with its proportion of casualization of the workforce.

However, much of the casual work is long-term. Data from the Australian Workplace Industrial Relations Surveys suggests that the average job tenure for casual employees is just over three years and 16 percent have been working in their current workplace for more than five years.

There were important gender differences in the incidence of casual work. In 1998, 32 percent of women were casual employees, up from 27 percent in 1988. For men, the incidence of casual employment more than doubled over the same period, rising to 22.6 percent in 1998, up from 10.8 percent.

Casual workers are becoming more marginalized. The long periods of time that many workers spend on casual rates is cheap for employers who are not required to pay for annual or sick leave.

### 2.13 Part-time work and women

According to Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) data, the proportion of employees working part-time rose between August 1988 and August 1999 from 19 percent to 28 percent. Three-quarters of part-time workers are women, though this has declined eight percentage points since 1988. For men, there has been a corresponding increase in part-time employment over the same period. The main feature of part-time work for women is their increasing proportion of permanent part-time work. Although this is also a feature of part-time work for men, the rate of growth is not so great.

### 2.1.4 One possible reason for the changes

The phenomenon of the growth in women's permanent employment, whether in full-time or part-time employment, needs to be explained.

Anne Junor (1998) has found that this growth was driven primarily by employer demand. Contrary to the rhetoric, it had little to do with overcoming the disadvantages of casualization or with meeting workers' needs to "harmonize" careers and family commitments. Employers were seeking both skills and flexibility. Mature-aged women recruited into administrative and customer service jobs brought with them a complex but under-recognized configuration of "articulation work skills."

Junor defines articulation skills to include a combination of information work, emotional labour, and time management. These skills combine the integration of technology with service delivery. The technology provides the information and the service delivery requires interaction with the public. This demands a range of interpersonal skills, including responsiveness and patience, and coping with sometimes hostile reactions. Further, it includes organizational skills, such as the anticipation of problems and bridging gaps; the management of interruptions and of the requirement to do several things at once, as well as remembering personal details and case histories, and an ability to follow up loose ends. (Junor, 1998: 6)

More fundamentally, permanent part-time employment also offered a means of generating additional value through enhanced productivity. This productivity is produced by time flexibilities based on some combination of three measures: an increased span of ordinary time hours, variable rostering, and the averaging of part-time hours over an extended period. In fact, Junor found that permanent part-time employment proved to be a more reliable source of flexibility than either casual or full-time work.

Junor points out that it is also possible to take the argument one step further. By allowing workers (mainly women) sufficient time to continue providing some household and community services outside the market system, part-time employment released the wages system from the full cost of reproducing labour power. It is unlikely that this was in the minds of the employers but it would be welcomed by governments who do not meet the potential demand for childcare, after-school care, etc., or cover for the voluntary services women provide and which would be demanded by full-time workers.

### 2.1.5 Adverse changes to paid work

Changes in the nature of waged employment are having a differential impact on groups like women, older workers, and people from non-English speaking backgrounds (NESB). Research has shown that these changes are profound and structural and not cyclical (ACIRRT, 1998: 14-23).

Adverse changes include the following characteristics:

**Distribution.** The distribution of working hours is inequitable and available work is not shared evenly or fairly. While 36 percent of employees are working a "standard" working week of 35-40 hours, some Australians are working excessive hours (32%), some (8%) are not working at all, and others are underemployed.

**Duration.** Since the mid-1980s, full-time workers have been working longer hours. This is true for all occupations. Furthermore, 20 percent of workers would like to work fewer hours, with managers and professionals being the most unhappy about their excessive hours. These workers are also less likely to

be paid for their overtime. Those workers with more traditional or set structures or who are paid overtime are happier with their hours. Overtime is worked on a regular basis by 27 percent of female employees and 43 percent of male employees. Female employees are more likely than their male counterparts not to be paid for their overtime (46 percent compared to 29 percent). Women are less likely than men to have overtime included in their salary package (Australian Women's Year Book, 1997: 92-3).

These figures have implications for occupational health and safety and are particularly manifested in an increase in stress leave. Among the OECD countries, Australia is second to the United Kingdom in the proportion of its workers regularly working more than 45 hours per week and a full 7 percent work over 60 hours per week.

**Precarious employment.** Other workers have less predictable work and security of hours. This is a result of the demand by employers for "flexibility." The downsizing of organizations has led to casualization and contracting out of part of the workforce. There has been a steady growth of contracted work and outsourcing. Research shows that contract employees are both undermining workplace standards and are having their own conditions undermined.

**Intensity of work.** Research conducted in 1995 and 1998 shows clearly that there is an increase in work pace, and tighter management and performance monitoring and control. This, together with workplace under-staffing, is leading to increased stress and decreased ability to balance work and family and social life.

**Compensation.** In the past, excessive hours of work have been compensated in various ways including overtime, night-time and weekend pay, and time in lieu. These compensations are rapidly being eroded especially by non-union enterprise agreements and individual contracts. There has been a decrease in the value of wages through the weakening of the relationship between hours worked and hours paid and an increase in annualizing salaries and wages.

**Unpredictability.** Changes relate to both shortening and lengthening working hours according to the needs of the workplace, unscheduled changes in rosters, and unpredictability in hours of work and therefore, for casual employees, in take-home pay. The unpredictable nature of the hours of work makes childcare arrangements extremely difficult and the precarious nature of the take-home pay calls into question whether childcare can be afforded. These factors are adding to the discouragement of women seeking to re-enter the workforce.

The new flexibility of work more often than not suits the employer more than the employee. The implementation is left largely to the discretion of middle managers and supervisors which often works against women workers.

### **2.1.6 Effects of Changes on Women**

The changes outlined affect women directly because they are the group of workers most likely to be in part-time and precarious employment, with consequent lower incomes and less likelihood of benefits such as holiday pay, recreation and sick leave, and superannuation. They are also affected as men work longer, anti-social hours, thus placing even more of the family and childcare responsibilities onto women. With the reduced likelihood of men taking an increasing share of the caregiving responsibilities because of hours worked, the chances of a shift in the culture toward this end is also diminished.

From a woman's point of view, there may be certain stages in her life when she considers part-time work to be desirable (if the family unit can afford to forego a full-time wage). Theoretically, it enables mothers of small and school-age children to balance their family responsibilities, at the same time allowing women to maintain their skills and their position in the workplace. With the changes outlined above, working mothers are faced with serious childcare problems. Childcare providers want a commitment to specific times and hours. Women employees on the other hand, are often not able to give such commitments because of the "flexibility" which has been introduced into their working patterns, but which is determined by the needs of the workplace.

The childcare period is, however, often a temporary period in the full span of a women's working life. If

she has not secured her return to work after a break for childbearing and childcare, she may find that opportunities for re-entry to both the full-time and the part-time workforce have been curtailed and conditions, especially the hours of work, not family-friendly. This will, of course, depend on her skills and the type of industry she is seeking to enter. As we have seen, mature women are in demand in certain industries.

### **2.1.7 Home-Based Work**

The significant developments in information technology (IT) and its relative accessibility, combined with the growth of information-based work, is changing both the nature of work and the place of work. Not all home-based work is based on or is dependent on IT. Some are outworkers, for example, doing piece work for the garment industry, but it is not possible on the ABS data to identify these people. Some may be working in another person's home; they may be concentrated in particular geographic areas; and some may not be willing to provide accurate answers to survey questions.

In 1995, a relatively small proportion of employed people worked most hours at home – 6 percent of employed females and 2 percent of males. A further 16 percent of women and 22 percent of men usually worked some hours at home. The number of women working from home increased from 186,200 to 230,700 during the period 1989 to 1995. Over the same period, the number of men increased from 80,300 to 112,600. Approximately half were own account or self-employed workers or contributing family members (AWYB, 1997: 97)

The occupations of women and men who worked from home differed. Fifty-five percent of women were in clerical occupations and 15 percent were salespersons or personal service workers. In contrast, 34 percent of men were in professional occupations and 22 percent were tradespersons.

### **2.1.8 Women and SMEs**

So far, most of the discussion has focused on an assumption that women are wage workers in large organizations. However, just over 1 million women are employed in small businesses, of whom 313,400 are either employers or own account workers. In 1997, more than half (58%) of Australian businesses were two-operator businesses and 87 percent of these were male-female combinations. Women constitute approximately one-third of all small business owners and this proportion is growing faster than the rate for men. The ABS predicts that by the year 2000 SMEs will be owned mostly by women than men. Almost two-thirds of female-operated businesses have been established in the last five years, compared with half of the male-operated businesses.

Clearly, there are both push and pull factors at work. The flow of women from salaried employment into SMEs either as sole operators, employers, or employees will continue. In addition, women wishing to enter the workforce for the first time, or to re-enter the workforce but finding the opportunities restricted, may contemplate moving into SMEs.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics estimates that SMEs owned by women contribute 10-15 percent of GDP and probably contribute about 20 percent of private sector net employment creation.

The reasons women give for establishing their own business include the desire to escape the demands of large organizations, and to achieve flexible use of their time and thus better balance work and family responsibilities. Other reasons include the opportunity to control the enterprise and personal satisfaction. Many do not think in terms of entrepreneurship and expansion, perhaps for fear that this will increase the demands on their time and energy, and that is the very reason many women left large organizations. Underlying all this is women's responsibilities in the domestic sphere and as caregivers.

While their pre-existing skills are invaluable, the transition from one form of work to the other, and the upgrading of skills in, for example, information technology, and the acquisition of new, more relevant skills, such as business planning and market research, will be needed.

## 2.2 Unpaid Work

People not in the labour force are separated into categories according to their attachment to the labour force. Some have a close association with the labour force because they want to work and in some cases are looking for available for work. Those people looking or available for work partially satisfy the criteria for being classified as unemployed. They can be considered as having a strong attachment to the labour force.

In September 1997, 53,000 people were actively seeking work, 54 percent were women. In addition, 837,200 wanted to work, were not actively looking for work but were available to start work within four weeks. Seventy-two percent of these were women.

There is a cohort of women who can be described as "discouraged job seekers." Among their reasons for not actively seeking work are that they were considered too young or too old by employers; they lack the necessary education, training, or experience; they have difficulties because of language and ethnic background; and there is either no work in the locality or no jobs at all (Table 1).

**Table 1 Main reasons given for not actively seeking work - "Discouraged job seeker."**

	F (%)	M (%)	Total (%)
Considered too young or too old by employers	30.1	18.6	48.7
Lacked the necessary schooling, training, or experience	15.4	4.5	19.9
Difficulties because of language and ethnic background	12.2	4.1	16.3
No job in locality or line of work	16.2	10.0	26.2
No jobs at all	4.8	2.6	7.4

ABS, Persons not in the Labour Force, September 1997.

Apart from the discouraged job seeker, other reasons given for not actively looking for work could be labeled "personal reasons" and "family reasons." Personal reasons include own physical health/physical disability/pregnancy, had no need to work, wanting to give others a chance, welfare payments or pension may be affected, and had moved house or were on holidays when the survey was done. However, the overwhelming reason was because people were attending an educational institution (Table 2).

**Table 2 Main reasons for not actively seeking work - "Personal Reasons."**

	F (%)	M (%)	Total (%)
Own ill-health/physical disability/pregnancy	54.3	47.0	101.3
Attending an educational institution	84.7	87.8	172.5
Had no need to work	25.2	9.1	34.3
Give others a chance	3.4	0.8	4.2
Welfare payments or pension may be affected	8.9	5.4	14.3
Moved house or holidays	11.5	6.1	17.5

ABS, Persons not in the Labour Force, September 1997.

The family reasons for not actively seeking work included the ill health of others than self and other family considerations, but overwhelmingly the reason was childcare (Table 3).

**Table 3 Main reasons for not actively seeking work - "Family Reasons."**

	F (%)	M (%)	Total (%)
Ill health of others than self	14.5	2.2	16.7
Childcare	200.2	6.2	206.4
Other family considerations	59.2	4.3	63.4

ABS, Persons not in the Labour Force, September 1997.



There is one further consideration. We might call it “degree of commitment.” There are women in unpaid work situations who say they would like to work if all kinds of conditions were met – such as the ones listed above and even if their husbands approved! Their degree of commitment is not clear. These women have been described as having a “marginal attachment to the workforce” but it is very possible that, provided the conditions were met, they would opt for work – possibly part-time work.

### **2.2.1 Value of Unpaid Work**

The ABS measures unpaid household work and volunteer and community work under the “total unpaid work.” These activities constitute the so-called non-market sector which deploys, without pay, a large amount of human labour for the production of goods and services which are directly consumed by households without going through the market. Although these activities are “productive” in the broad sense of the term, they are, with some exceptions, not included within the main production boundary of the System of National Accounts (SNA). They have, however, been recorded in the “satellite” accounts.

A widely accepted principle for determining the scope of total unpaid work is the “third person” or “market replacement” criterion:

“Household production consists of those unpaid activities which are carried on, by and for the members, which activities might be replaced by market goods and paid services, if circumstances such as income, market conditions and personal inclinations permit the service being delegated to someone outside the household group.” (Reid, 1934, 11, quoted in Goldschmidt-Clearmont, L.; *Unpaid Work in the Household*, ILO, 1984).

Using this method, the value of total unpaid work in Australia for 1992 is estimated to have been A\$227.8 billion. This represents an average hourly rate of A\$12.17.

Women were estimated to have contributed about two-thirds of the dollar value of total unpaid work. They also contributed 20 percent of their daily time compared with 10 percent contributed by males.

International comparisons show Australians apparently contributing more to GDP through unpaid work than other nationalities. This may be due to methodological differences in calculations, or it may be due to cultural factors, such as, for example, a high level of home ownership and the predominance of detached housing with gardens.

### **2.2.2 Voluntary Work**

Time spent on voluntary work and care activities includes unpaid voluntary work for community organizations, caring for adults, and doing favours for family and friends outside the household. Time spent per day on voluntary work and care by women was slightly more than for men. For the people who participated in these activities, males spent longer but fewer of them participated.

Both males and females spent a similar amount of time on unpaid voluntary work. Differences between time spent by males and females were evident in caring for adults and helping doing favours. Although fewer males participated in these activities, they spent, on average, more time on both of these activities than females (ABS, 1997: 7).

## **3. Who Uses the Data**

Data produced by the ABS is used by all government departments and by a wide range of academics and businesses. It is considered reliable and the methods by which calculations are made are transparent. The list given below is indicative only.

### **3.1 Australia Bureau of Statistics (ABS)**

The ABS itself uses the data it collects. The Time-Use Survey shows how people allocate their time to activities such as paid and unpaid work and allows for analysis of such issues as gender equality, caregiving, and balancing family and paid work responsibilities.

The ABS says that patterns of time use have assumed increasing importance as a means to measure the productive value of households as economic units. The data collected by the latest survey (1997) will be used by the ABS to derive a monetary value for all forms of unpaid work to update measures that assist analysis of the national accounts for the household sector.

### **3.2 Office of the Status of Women (OSW)**

OSW is responsible for monitoring the development of government policy to ensure that it does not adversely affect women. The Office, in partnership with the ABS, annually publishes the *Australia Women's Year Book (AWYB)*. The latest issue was in May 1997. The year book looks at women's position across a broad range of areas including employment, income and income support, and women's role in voluntary work, as well as living arrangements, health, housing, education, employment, crime and justice, and decision-making. Data is included wherever possible, to allow for monitoring the progress of women over time. Comparative data for women and men are presented following international guidelines. It is recognized that comprehensive, accurate, and up-to-date statistics are essential if government is to develop economic and social policy that meets women's needs.

### **3.3 Affirmative Action Agency**

The Agency was established to administer the Affirmative Action (Equal Employment Opportunity for Women) Act 1986. Its main functions are to provide advice and assist employers on the development and implementation of affirmative action programs; monitor the position of women in the labour force and promote an understanding of affirmative action through community awareness and educational programs.

### **3.4 Department of Employment, Workplace Relations and Small Business (DEWRSB)**

Within this department, there is a Work and Family Unit which provides advice and assistance to individuals and organizations who have an interest in getting work and family initiatives on the work agenda. The unit produces a range of publications including on each of the features which make up family friendly workplaces.

Since 1992, DEWRSB, in conjunction with the daily newspaper, *the Australian Financial Review*, has made awards to public and private sector organizations for family friendly workplaces.

### **3.5 Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC)**

As well as investigating and conciliating complaints of discrimination, HREOC also monitors the effects of legislation and other societal changes on women and other groups. Its Flexible Working Hours and Women Project produced *Stretching Flexibility: Enterprise Bargaining, Women Workers and Changes to Working Hours* in October 1996.

### **3.6 Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs (DETYA)**

There is a decreasing number of women participating in vocational education and training. To address this issue, the National Strategy for Women's Vocational Education and Training was developed to set "a direction for governments, industry and training providers to ensure that the needs of women are consistently addressed as a priority in policy making, planning, resourcing, implementing and monitoring vocational education and training." The Strategy advocates the sensitive and consistent use of Recognition of Prior Learning (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs Vocational Education, Employment and Training Women's Taskforce, 1996: 16).

The Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) has funded a wide range of projects in 1997-98 to support the Strategy. Innovative aspects of the programs include customized learning materials, supported self-directed learning groups, on-farm networking and after hours access to support services.

The Small Business Professional Development (Best Practice) Program is a Commonwealth-funded, State and Territory operated program concerned with the development of a better and more widespread training capacity within small business. It was begun in 1995-96 and has been piloting various approaches, including mentoring.

## **4. Impact on Public Policies**

### **4.1 Linkages between unpaid work and HRD Policy**

When considering preparation of unemployed women for the workforce, the following cohorts must be taken into account:

- Those who have never worked – unfortunately a large number of youth and now even second generation members of families;
- Those who have been made redundant in industry restructuring; and
- Women who wish to re-enter the workforce following temporary withdrawal due to childbearing or other family responsibilities.

Almost one-quarter of women re-entering the labour force have not had a job for 10 years or more. A further third have been out of the workforce for five to nine years. Eighty percent of women seeking to enter the labour force were employed while the remainder were looking for work. The likelihood of being employed decreased as the length of time since their last employment increased.

### **4.2 Issues for Women wishing to enter or re-enter the workforce**

It is clear from the discussion above that issues affecting women's entry into the workforce are much wider than their skills and training needs. The changes to the nature of work and the nature of the workplace which have been set in train in the past two decades, as well as a decline in family incomes and the increase in the cost of childcare are perhaps the most critical factors.

Women who have been out of the workforce for five years or more are likely to be not only out-of-date with work-place practices, but may also need to upgrade their information technology skills. In addition, they may suffer a loss of confidence and uncertainty because of their isolation from these changes.

## 4.3 Overcoming the Barriers

Methods used for overcoming barriers for women's participation in the paid workforce can be generalized as "facilitating" or "enabling" conditions. These conditions also affect women's ability to participate in education and training programs.

### 4.3.1 Facilitating conditions

- Mobility
- Cost of transport and courses
- Appropriate courses
- Suitable times and locations of courses

Women in business or wishing to move into business either as an employee or on their own account recognize the need to upgrade their skills or that they need new skills. Berrerra and Robertson (1996: 52) list the areas of training most often requested by women to include financial management, business planning, marketing and promotion, management experience, self-confidence building, and industrial relations.

Recent research conducted by the author on the Business Training Needs of Rural Women in the state of Victoria arrived at very similar conclusions. Rural women wanted "business development skills", such as marketing, financial planning, business planning, productivity enhancement, and leadership and negotiation skills; and "core business skills" such as computer skills, budgeting, practical farming topics, bookkeeping, accounting, and personnel management, in that order (McKay and Christie, 1999: 20).

Since courses of these kinds are provided by a wide network of Technical and Further Education (TAFE) Colleges, the question must be asked why women have not increased their participation in these courses in recent years despite an increase in resources devoted by governments to them. Still and Timms (1997: 36) have identified several barriers to women's participation:

- courses are perceived to be male dominated
- entry criteria are restrictive and
- timing of courses conflicts with women's caregiving responsibilities.

In addition, Still and Timms found that information about government training and assistance programs is too fragmented and requires greater streamlining and proactive marketing strategies.

These researchers found that women prefer training in short, flexible modules which lead to credentials, is relevant to business survival and growth, and which is associated with appropriate follow-up. The provision of training should include women-only groups, women trainers and consultants, visible female role models, networking and mentoring programs, opportunities to learn in groups, and alternatives to TAFE courses for the less academically inclined.

The recent research referred to above concerning rural women once again generally confirmed these findings though rural women were happier to take classes with men perhaps because rural women in Australia are very often better educated than their spouses. Partly because of costs and time taken with travel, and also because TAFE courses are not run if class sizes fall below 15 participants, rural women would like learning materials, including videos, which they could follow with close neighbours and friends (McKay and Christie, 1999: 18-19, 26).

Relevant to this paper are the study provisions which may be in workplace agreements and training programs provided in the workplace. One large finance company (see below) has a good policy on recognition of prior learning and work-based learning which leads to degree accreditation from the University of Technology, Sydney. It also conducts Executive Development and Leadership, Advanced Management Development, Applied Business and Springboard (for women in non-management positions) programs. Women are given overseas experience to increase their potential for promotion to senior management.

### 4.3.2 Enabling Conditions: Flexibility in the Workplace

In theory, flexible work practices allow organizations to operate effectively and assist employees in effectively managing work and family responsibilities. It also allows employees choice and versatility in ordering their lives. Examples of these work practices are:

- flexible working hours
- part-time work
- job sharing
- career break schemes
- working from home
- part-year employment
- family leave
- parental leave
- childcare and eldercare provisions.

The results of a family-friendly workplace can include:

- a reduction in employee absenteeism, lateness and stress
- greater availability in the workplace for overtime, travel, shift work and training
- increased employee motivation and commitment to the workplace.

These improvements can translate into benefits for the organization or business in the form of:

- increased employee productivity
- reductions in recruitment and training costs as staff retention is increased
- improvements in attendance rates and reduced sick leave costs
- maintenance and enhancement of workplace skill levels
- a motivated workplace with loyal, diligent, and enthusiastic employees
- ability to attract skilled, efficient labour, encompassing a diverse range of workers
- compliance with industrial and anti-discrimination legislation.

## 5. Private Sector Strategies

Although the public sector is ahead of the private sector in granting the conditions which add up to "family-friendly" workplaces, a combination of factors is driving medium and large firms in this direction. Among these factors are the desire to comply with legal requirements and the costs of compensation.

Under affirmative action legislation, organizations with a workforce above a certain number of employees are required to report annually on their policy and movement toward equity goals. Most conform even though the penalties for non-compliance are minimal. Of greater significance is the possibility of court action under the 1984 Sex Discrimination Act and various state and territory anti-discrimination acts. Dismissal due to family responsibilities may constitute an unlawful action. Liability may also arise in respect of unfair dismissal claims under industrial legislation. For example, in 1993, the Industrial Relations Commission of New South Wales found the dismissal of a woman because of her absence from work for a sick child was "harsh, unreasonable and unjust."

Among other factors pushing firms toward changes in their workplace practices are the changing nature of work with the decline of unskilled labour and the increase in knowledge-based workers in whom an employer may have a lot invested or who would be costly to replace. Some companies are also benefiting from the policies of a new generation of managers who are aware of the increase in productivity (and the reduction of costs) which result from these workplace practices.

## **5.1 Enterprise agreements replacing award regulated work**

Changes have been steadily introduced since the 1980s when workers were persuaded to enter into a "social contract." Wage increases were frozen but workers could negotiate for other advantageous conditions in lieu. Enterprise bargaining agreements were formally introduced in October 1991, not as a new direction but as a continuation of an increasing focus on the workplace, rather than the industry, in wage negotiations. The changes represent a recognition by both employers and employees that strike action was too destructive to livelihoods and that industry could not bear greater demands for improved pay and conditions and remain internationally competitive. Improved pay and conditions had to be traded against increased productivity.

The Workplace Relations Act of 1996 gave this shift to workplace negotiations a considerable push. It also reduced the role of unions in the negotiating process. The Act guarantees a "safety net" of 20 "allowable matters" which preserve fair and enforceable minimum pay and conditions. Other matters which include childcare, flex-time, and home-based work are negotiable. The Act provides a "no disadvantage" test, making the awards and conditions of 1996 the minimum benchmark.

One of the intentions of the Act was to encourage the spread of regular part-time work involving reasonably predictable hours of work and pro rata conditions and allowing a clear distinction from casual employment. The Act also places priority on helping workers to balance their work and family responsibilities and highlights the importance of preventing discrimination, including on the grounds of responsibilities. In addition, workplaces are required to report on enterprise bargaining developments and their impact on women, part-time employees, and immigrants. It acknowledges the application of the 1984 Sex Discrimination Act and ILO Convention 156.

Despite all the time spent in developing agreements, less than a quarter of the women surveyed by HREOC reported any significant changes to the hours, days, or times worked. This was because some of the changes made to working time arrangements were implemented partly or not at all. The lack of implementation suggests that some changes sought by employers are speculative or related to anticipated future arrangements. This means that it is very difficult for workers and unions to tally the cumulative impact of proposed changes. This situation should be monitored over an extended period of time. One of the problems with this is that one of the monitoring authorities, HREOC, has been downsized and another authority, the Australian Industrial Relations Commission which records the certification proceedings, has acted in a mechanical rather than investigative way (HREOC, 1996: 10-11).

## **5.2 Efficiency and Productivity**

Government promotion and the rhetoric of those companies which have espoused a family-friendly workplace claim benefits in efficiency and productivity of family friendly work practices. But there has been no research which gives a comprehensive accounting of these benefits.

Robin Kramar of Macquarie University was commissioned in 1996 by the NSW Department of Industrial Relations to write *The Business Case for a Family Friendly Workplace*. Apart from presenting the arguments, she includes steps by which workplaces may act and simple formulae to show how costs of absenteeism, turnover, training, and performance differences may be calculated (Appendix C).

## **5.3 Men and Workplace Conditions**

Finding a satisfactory balance between the demands of family life and the workplace is not confined to women. The case which follows demonstrates that men, in a male dominated workplace like the railways, have for a long time been able to manage some flexibility in their work practices to accommodate family concerns. From being negotiated informally, these practices have gradually been built into management practice.

A research project into Westrail commissioned by the Work and Family Unit of the Department of Workplace Relations and Small Business collected information on work and family issues from 109 male employees from non-traditional families including sole fathers, non-custodial fathers, and from workers

from non-English speaking backgrounds, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander workers, workers with family of origin responsibilities, and those with disabilities.

Westrail provides many family-friendly work conditions including parental leave, flex-time (for administrative positions), adoption leave, bereavement leave, leave for Aboriginal employees to attend meetings convened under the Aboriginal Affairs Act, and an entitlement to attend counseling under the Employee Assistance Program during working time without having pay deducted. Other general work-family entitlements include shift exchange where employees may freely exchange shifts in order to fulfil family responsibilities and an EEO child-care register of facilities to assist employees in placing their children in appropriate care.

Many of the policies, practices, and conventions were developed in response to conflicts that railway workers have always had to contend with in reconciling work and family issues, such as shift work, relocation, and working away from home. Interestingly, the development of some of these policies and practices preceded the development of any formal welfare state (ICAS Pty Ltd: 1995).

#### **5.4 Men and Childcare**

In 1992, research was conducted into 84 companies in Victoria and Tasmania concerning childcare. Of the 40,000 respondents, 47 percent were male. Of these, just over half (53%) came from private sector companies. Twenty-four percent of fathers (and 37% of mothers) reported difficulties managing and caring for children (ABS: 1994).

Data collected for the Work and Childcare Advisory Service also clearly showed that fathers were finding work and family to be a juggling act. The findings show that 54 percent of males had difficulties with care arrangements including problems when a child was ill (27%), cost of care (24%), and availability and hours of care (22%). Sixty-eight percent reported some negative impact on work from caregiving responsibilities (compared with 85% of women), caused by lateness for work, leaving early, or interruption during the day because of problems with care arrangements. One-third of men indicated they had to take time off work when under school-age children were sick and 29 percent indicated they would like childcare facilities near their work (Morgan and Charlesworth: 1997).

Although there has been an increase in the number of men availing themselves of family-friendly conditions, especially parental leave and home based work, these conditions still largely benefit women.

#### **5.5 Family Friendly Workplaces**

Some workplaces have gone beyond the terms of the Act in their provisions and practices to make their workplace family friendly. (The term "work/life balance" is not yet common in Australia.) These organizations provide examples of best practice and have been acknowledged in national awards, such as that conducted by the Department of Employment, Workplace Relations and Small Business and the *Australian Financial Review* newspaper.

## 5.6 Case Studies

The following case studies have been selected from the 1998 winners of the awards to illustrate the range of industries in which best practice can be found.

- **Finance**

AMP is a long established mutual benefit society (financial, superannuation, insurance, investment, and management) which in 1997 demutualized and was launched on the Australian Stock Exchange. AMP was the gold award winner in 1998.

*Size:* 5,633 employees and one-third of the workforce have dependents. Fifty-eight percent of the total workforce is female; its target is 50 percent.

*Sites:* 60 locations around Australia.

*Practices:* All the practices listed above in 4.3.2. In 1995, AMP was the first Australian company to offer six weeks paid parental leave for male and female employees and is still one of the few which offers paid parental leave to men.

*Outcomes:* In 1997, the company had a very high retention of women staff. No senior women left, 11 percent turnover for women was lower than for men, 90 percent of women returned to work from maternity leave. As a result of the 1997 Enterprise Agreement, all employees' remuneration is now packaged. This change resulted in nearly 2,000 "unpackaged" female employees receiving an increase in employer superannuation of 2.5 percent (from 8% to 12.5%). There was a 100 percent increase in flexible jobs.

Home based work is an option which has been in operation for one unit for more than four years. Productivity has increased 20 percent, turnover has dropped, and there have been no resignations in the past year.

The company believes that critical to its success is the commitment of its CEO and senior management to cultural change in general and to increasing diversity in particular. This rhetoric is backed up with action: each business unit has an affirmative action implementation plan and progress is monitored statistically every quarter or half-year.

- **Petroleum Industry**

Mobil Oil Australia Ltd. is a refiner and marketer of a broad range of petroleum products in Australia and the Pacific Islands.

*Size:* 1,912 employees, 367 females, 1,545 males.

*Sites:* 23 locations.

*Practices:* Most of the practices listed above. Known in the company as "Balancing Work and Personal Needs" because not all employees are married or responsible for dependent care.

*Outcomes:* Retention rates of women beginning parental leave have increased from 42 percent in 1996 to 72 percent in 1997. Both men and women use flexible work times for family reasons. Eleven people have used childcare referral services successfully.



## - **Municipal Government**

The City of Melbourne is the capital of the state of Victoria and is a focus for business, international trade, arts, entertainment, and sporting activities.

*Size:* 968 employees: 481 females and 487 males.

*Sites:* 18 locations.

*Practices:* Most of the practices listed above. Provisions include a Baby Room on site, "Keep-in Touch" programs, counseling and health programs.

*Outcomes:* Staff surveys have revealed on-going concerns about work-family issues which were to be addressed in the following year. Measurement of retention rates, etc. was begun.

### • **Professional Services**

Dunhill Madden Butler is a national commercial law firm based in Melbourne.

*Size:* 28 partners supported by 157 staff, 122 females and 58 males.

*Sites:* 4 locations.

*Practices:* Most of the practices listed above. These were introduced in 1996 following the work of a large group of professional employees undertook research and developed the policy. This includes the requirement of the managing partner to monitor and manage the policy.

*Outcomes:* A number of staff, including partners, use flexible working hours, 16 staff have used special family leave, and there are three job-share secretarial positions.

### • **Utilities Provision**

Sydney Water Corporation is the biggest water company in Australia serving more than 3.8 million residential customers and 73,000 businesses.

*Size:* 4,777 employees, 973 females and 3,804 males.

*Sites:* 130 Locations in greater Sydney.

*Practices:* Most of the practices listed above including home-based work on a temporary basis and to address specific needs and tele-working at the discretion of the local business unit and work-based childcare at two locations.

*Outcomes:* Since these practices came into force in the early 1990s, there have been decreasing levels of absenteeism, the number of employees working part-time has almost doubled, and there is an increasing number of women being employed. Most of these are choosing part-time work. This has occurred at a time when the overall workforce numbers have almost halved.

## **6. Conclusions**

The research done by HREOC (1996) and the Australian Centre for Industrial Relations Research and Training (ACIRRT) (1998) and that done by progressive companies demonstrates the congruence between the desires of workers, both men and women, with regard to their hours, flexibility, and other conditions of work, a company's profitability and the "health" of the workplace.

This raises the question as to why such family friendly practices are not the norm.

### **6.1 Management**

One conclusion is that Australian management culture generally is stuck in outdated and unresponsive work practices. This is confirmed by an Australian Government sponsored study undertaken between 1992 and 1995 which is highly critical of Australian management practices (Industry Task Force on Leadership and Management Skills, "The Karpin Report", 1995.) Ultimately this should be to the detriment of the company as it spends more on labour force replacement costs and inefficiencies caused by absenteeism to cover family responsibilities. Companies have found that the up-front recognition of the worker in a holistic way, for example, having a life and responsibilities beyond the workplace and

making provision for this in workplace practices, actually "buys" greater loyalty and productivity from the worker.

- **Role of Department of Employment Workplace Relations and Small Business (DEWRSB)**

The greatest protection of women workers will be in the maintenance and strengthening of minimum standards, the application of a comprehensive no-disadvantage test of the Workplace Relations Act 1996 and the maintenance and strengthening of consultation requirements.

- **Role of the unions**

The study commissioned by HREOC says that unions have been largely reactive in their approach to enterprise bargaining. Few have developed comprehensive policies which identify employee preferences for flexibility and take a strategic employee-oriented approach to changes to working time (HREOC,1996: 9).

- **Role of the Department of Education, Training and Youth Affairs (DETYA)**

Since VET makes a vital contribution to training and re-training for the workplace, it is essential for women's participation that VET provisions be women friendly. The VET Action Plan for Women is a highly commendable development but its place at the institutional level is fragile. It has not yet been fully embedded in the culture of all individual institutions and thus is constantly under threat by financial cuts.

## **7. Recommendations to the APEC HRD Working Group**

Generally, to develop a broader recognition and understanding of work and employment and to harmonize work and family responsibilities for women and men by:

- putting the issue of unpaid work back on the agenda and acknowledging the current dual burden on women and families, with attendant implications for government provisions such as childcare;
- promoting recognition of the contribution of women's unpaid work to the System of National Accounts and argue a case for policy change such as tax concessions;
- identifying the barriers to women moving back into the workforce;
- arresting women's declining participation in Vocational Education and Training and to inform and improve the provision of VET to overcome the barriers to women's participation and to generally make it more attractive to women;
- promoting the wide range of characteristics which make for family friendly workplaces and the economic benefits of introducing such conditions; and,
- recognizing the contribution to society of voluntary work done by both women and men, its contribution to the strength of civil society, and the effects on participation in voluntary work by excessive pressures in the workplace.

## Appendix A: Definitions Relating to Australian Data

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) is a statutory body whose work is independent of political interference. It is responsible for the national census in all its forms and undertakes commissioned work for the private sector. It is experienced in collecting and analyzing time-use data which is also disaggregated by gender.

Three time-use surveys have been conducted in Australia. After a trial survey in NSW in 1988, a nationwide survey was published in 1992. The next survey was done in 1997 and published in December 1998.

Gender disaggregated statistics continue to be reported and analyzed in annual ABS publications such as the *Year Book Australia* and *Australian Social Trends*.

### Definitions

The ABS divides the activities on which people spend their time into four categories or types of time use:

- *Necessary time* - activities which are performed for personal survival, such as sleeping, eating, and personal hygiene;
- *Contracted time* - activities such as paid work and regular education where there are explicit contracts which control the periods of time in which the activities are performed;
- *Committed time* - activities to which a person is committed because of previous social or community interactions such as setting up a household or performing voluntary work and the consequent housework, childcare, shopping, or provision of help to others;
- *Free time* - the amount of time left when the previous three types of time have been taken out of a person's day, which is devoted to social interaction, recreation and leisure.

Other terms of relevance to this study are:

- *Part-time work* - any time less than 35 hours is classified as part-time. Part-time work may be temporary, permanent, or involuntary. In all cases, workers are covered by the terms of the Workplace Relations Act (WRA) 1996. The WRA defines a "regular part-time employee" as someone who works less than full-time ordinary hours, who has reasonably predictable hours of work, and who receives, on a pro rata basis, equivalent pay and conditions to those specified in an award or awards for full-time employees who do the same kind of work. Awards can include a minimum number of consecutive hours the employee may be required to work and provisions for a regular pattern of hours worked, maximum and minimum hours of work for regular part-time employees are not allowable.
- *Casual work* - either part-time or full-time and of a non-tenured nature. None of these workers is entitled to either annual or paid sick leave. Included in the definition for ABS purposes are persons operating their own incorporated business.
- *Contract work* - may be of two kinds:
  - legally binding, fixed term arrangement with an employer with a high degree of certainty about the job duration and conditions. Under the Workplace Relations Act 1996 such an employment contract cannot undermine the appropriate award and the employee must be offered at least the equivalent of the appropriate award;
  - employment through employment agencies where the employee is legally working for the agency who determines the place of work. As employees of the agency, workers are entitled to employee protections under the Workplace Relations Act 1996. This type of work is a growth area in Australia but from a small base.

## **Appendix B: Social/Economic Safety Nets in Australia**

### **Federal Minimum Wage (FMW)**

Australia has a history of almost 100 years of a guaranteed minimum or "basic" wage. In April 1997, the Australian Industrial Relations Commission established a FMW at A\$359.40 per week for full-time adult employees, with proportionate amounts to junior, part-time, and casual employees. The FMW also applied to certain other categories of employees such as apprentices, trainees, and employees under the supported wage system. The FMW is reviewed annually and in April 1998, the FMW was increased to A\$373.40 as a "safety net adjustment."

Data from the 1995 Australian Workplace Industrial Relations Survey shows that safety net adjustments go disproportionately to lower paid workers. However, they are still below the OECD definition of the low paid as less than two-thirds of median earnings. This would be A\$410 per week for full-time employees based on data from the ABS series Weekly Earning of Employees (Distribution).

On the other hand, compared with certain other OECD countries, the ratio of minimum wages to median full-time earnings in Australia (57.8%) is much higher than New Zealand (45.6%), Canada (41.5%) and the United States (38.8%).

### **Direct Government Assistance**

A wide range of social security payments are provided on a means-tested basis by the Commonwealth Government. These cash transfers to the low paid and the unemployed have a large impact on people's standard of living.

Newstart Allowance (unemployment assistance) is paid to people over 21 years of age at the following rates:

Single, no children	A\$325.70
Single, with children	A\$352.30
Partnered, each receive	A\$293.80
Partnered, over 21 years of age with children	A\$293.80

Other forms of assistance include age pensions, Maternity Allowance, Parenting Payment, childcare assistance, educational support payments, and disability payments.

Many of these direct transfer payments are provided to those in paid employment. For example, a typical low-income couple with children will receive the Family Allowance and, if one partner is at home full-time with children, they may receive the Parenting Payment (partnered). The family may be in subsidized government housing but if renting privately, could be eligible for Rent Assistance. The family could also be eligible for a Health Care Card which provides access to various subsidies. A sole parent in low paid employment might receive part rate parenting Payment (single) and if so, will receive the Guardian Allowance, Family Allowance, possible Rent Assistance and a Pensioner Concession Card. Both families will also be eligible for the Family Tax Payment and may receive the Childcare Cash Rebate and Childcare Assistance to reduce the cost of childcare.

Other initiatives to assist individuals and families include the Family Tax Initiative and the Family Tax Payment; a targeted rebate of 18 percent to individuals who make superannuation contributions of up to \$3,000 on behalf of their spouse; a rebate for private health insurance; and the Youth Allowance.

All wage earners and others with taxable incomes must pay a health care levy.

All wage earners must contribute at least 5 percent of their salaries to a superannuation fund and this contribution is matched by their employer. Men over 65 years of age and women over 61 years of age whose income from other sources does not exceed A\$835.60 (US\$557) in the case of single people and A\$1,397.20 (US\$932) in the case of couples, are eligible for an age pension.

The following table shows that wage income units in the lowest quintile receive a significant amount of their income through direct cash benefits. These benefits are means-tested. The table also illustrates the progressive nature of the income tax system. For example, for wage income units in the top quintile, income tax represents 30.9 percent of total cash income compared to only 12.6 percent for wage income units in the bottom quintile.

**Table 1 The estimated composition of weekly cash incomes of persons in income units with at least one adult employed full or part-time as a wage and salary earner - average income components, by quintile, May 1999.**

Dollars	Private income	Cash transfer income	Total cash income	Income tax	Disposable income	Equivalent disposable income
First (Bottom)	476	125	601	76	525	384
Second	759	54	813	156	657	550
Third	1,000	18	1,018	233	785	733
Fourth	1,176	3	1,179	296	883	955
Fifth (Top)	1,924	2	1,926	595	1,331	1,560
All	1,067	41	1,108	271	837	837

Source: Commissioned STINMOD microsimulation as at May 1999 based on the ABS 1994-95 and 1995-96 Continuous Income and Housing Survey, NATSEM, January 1999.

## Appendix C: The Case for Family Friendly Workplaces

### Costs of Absenteeism

Kramar quotes a 1993 survey of the Australian workforce which found that:

- working parents take an average of 9.9 days off work per year to care for children;
- about 3.5 of these days were to care for sick children;
- almost one-third of respondents had taken time off in the previous 12 months to care for parents, parent-in-law, a spouse, partner, or other relative.

The costs of absenteeism include:

- cost of paying the employee both wages/salary and other benefits while not producing;
- costs of supervisor's time in managing absenteeism;
- costs associated with overtime, production losses, inefficient material usage.

A simple way of assessing the costs of sick leave is:

Take salary and add employer costs @ 30%. Thus, if an employee on \$30,000pa - divide by 240 days takes 10 days sick leave a year- multiply by number of days absent

$$\frac{\$30,000 + 49,000}{240} = \$1,625 - \text{total} = \text{cost of days absent}$$

The cost of the employee being absent on sick leave is \$1,625 or 4.9% of salary costs (Kramer, 1996: 10).

### Costs of turnover

Turnover refers to a voluntary or an involuntary departure from the organization. Costs include separation costs - exit interviews, administrative functions, and separation pay and replacement costs - advertising, selection, and training.

An example of recruiting costs for a junior management post is:

Human resource costs 20 hours @ \$20 per hour	\$ 400
Stationary and copying	\$ 300
Management costs	
- 5 hours shortlisting @ \$50 per hour	\$ 250
- 16 hours interviewing @ \$50 per hour	\$ 800
Advertising in national newspaper and specialist journal	<u>\$3,000</u>
Total	<u>\$4,750</u>

A number of Australian organizations have estimated the costs of replacing staff:

- NRMA (automobile association) estimates that it costs \$48,000 to replace managers, \$29,000 to replace senior specialists, \$21,000 to replace specialists and \$12,000 to replace other staff.
- Westpac Banking Corporation calculated it costs \$40,000 to replace a staff member with eight years experience and \$60,000 to replace a senior manager.
- In 1990, the Australian Manufacturing Councils "Automobile Division estimated the cost of replacing a manager was \$77,000 and the cost of replacing two clerks was \$32,000.

- **Training costs**

When an employee is new to a position, the organization will probably provide formal training away from the job and/or training on-the-job with an experienced employee.

Costs associated with training include:

- overheads including informational and instructional literature;
- instruction under a formal training program; and,
- instruction while on assignment.

Example of training costs:

Cost of training a personal assistant (salary \$30,000) on a five-day in-house training program:

Informational and instructional literature, equipment & material	\$ 200
Premises	\$ 200
Trainer's costs (salary, 35 hrs @ \$30 per hour) divided between 10 trainees on the course	\$ 105
Trainee's costs (salary, 35 hrs @ \$20 per hour)	\$ 700
Temporary cover expenses (average)	<u>\$ 300</u>
Total	<u>\$1,505</u>

When an employee leaves an organization, the benefits of the employee's on-the-job and off-the-job training and education are lost. It is not only the skills which are lost, but the corporate knowledge and an understanding of how work is done in the organization. The banking industry has estimated that it cost \$65,000 - \$80,000, excluding recruitment costs, to retrain a person to the same level of experience as a employee who leaves after 7 to 10 years' experience. Esso Australia assessed the training investment in experienced employees as at least \$100,000 per person.

### **Performance differences**

There are also costs associated with the difference in the work performance of an employee who leaves, compared with his or her replacement who is likely to be less efficient for some time. The time, of course, will vary with past experience, the work expected and the new skills required. The lower performance can also adversely affect the performance of those people dependent on the person's output. An example of the costing of performance difference follows:

A replacement employee earning \$30,000pa is initially 60% efficient (A) and 40% inefficient (A to B) and he/she becomes 100% efficient after one year (C).

Cost of limited work performance =  $ABC = 0.5 \times 1 \times 0.4 \times \$30,000 = \$6,000$

(Kramar for NSW Department of Industrial Relations, 1996).

## Appendix D Tables

**Table 1. Value of Voluntary Work**

	1992	1992	1992	1992	1997	1997	1997
Sex/Employment Status	Weekly Hours	Wage Rate	Population	Value of Voluntary Work	Weekly Hours	Wage Rate	Populat
	(hr)	(\$/hr)	('000)	(\$ million)	(hr)	(\$/hr)	('000)
Female	0.7	12.17	6,911.6	3,078.58	0.82	14.03	7,398.5
Male	0.46	12.17	6,699.4	1,960.95	0.7	14.03	7,160.2

Source: DEWRSB.

Methodology: Weekly hours column based on 4153.0 (*How Australians Use Their Time*, page 1). The 1992 wage rate is based on table 5, 5240.0, *Unpaid Work and the Australian Economy - Occasional Paper* (the methodology for calculating the rate was the individual function replacement cost method, which is the ABS preferred method. It involves assigning values to the time spent on unpaid household or voluntary work according to the cost of hiring the market replacement for each individual function). For 1997, 1992 wage rate was multiplied by 15.3% as this was the growth in average weekly earnings over this period. The population data was taken from the ABS PC *Austats Labour Force Database*: annual average population figures were formed from monthly population data. Finally, the value of voluntary work for the years 1997 and 1997, is calculated by hours multiplied by wage rate multiplied by population multiplied by 52.2857 (i.e 366 days/7) for 1992 and 52.14 (365/7) for 1997.

**Table 2. Value of Unpaid Household Work**

	1992	1992	1992	1992	1997	1997	1997
Sex/Employment Status	Weekly Hours 1992	Wage Rate 1992	Population 1992	Value of Unpaid Household Work	Weekly Hours 1992	Wage Rate 1992	Populat 1992
	(hr)	(\$/hr)	('000)	(\$ million)	(hr)	(\$/hr)	('000)
Female	33.53	11.14	6,911.6	134,983.37	32.55	12.92	7,398.5
Male	16.97	11.14	6,699.4	66,219.5	17.27	12.92	7,160.2

Source: DEWRSB

Methodology: Weekly hours column based on 4153.0 (*How Australians Use Their Time*, page 17). 1992 wage based on figure in table 2 from the 5240.0 *Unpaid Work and the Australian Economy - Occasional Paper* (the methodology for calculating the rate was the individual function replacement cost method, which is discussed in the 5240.0). For 1997, the 1992 wage rate is multiplied by 16% as this was the growth in average weekly earnings for the (broadly comparable) personal and other services sector over this period. The population data was taken from the ABS PC *Austats Labour Force Database*; annual average population figures derived from Monthly population data. Finally, to obtain the value of unpaid household work for those years, hours are multiplied by wage rate population, by 52.2857 (i.e 366 days/7) for 1992 and 52.14 (365/7) for 1997.



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