

MELBOURNE INSTITUTE
Applied Economic & Social Research

Working Paper Series

Temporary employment and work-life balance in Australia

Inga Laß
Mark Wooden

Working Paper No. 11/19
October 2019

Temporary employment and work-life balance in Australia*

Inga Laß and Mark Wooden

**Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research
The University of Melbourne**

**Melbourne Institute Working Paper No. 11/19
October 2019**

* This paper uses unit record data from the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey conducted by the Australian Government Department of Social Services (DSS) – General Release 17 ([doi:10.26193/PTKLYP](https://doi.org/10.26193/PTKLYP)). The findings and views reported in the paper, however, are those of the authors and should not be attributed to either the Australian Government, DSS or any of DSS’ contractors or partners. It was supported with funding from the Australian Research Council’s Discovery Projects scheme (project # DP160103171). It is also under consideration for the Special Issue “Parental Work and Family/Child Well-Being”, which will be published in the *Journal of Family Research* in 2020.

**Melbourne Institute:
Applied Economic & Social Research
The University of Melbourne
Victoria 3010 Australia
T +61 3 8344 2100
F +61 3 8344 2111
E melb-inst@unimelb.edu.au
W melbourneinstitute.unimelb.edu.au**

Melbourne Institute: Applied Economic & Social Research working papers are produced for discussion and comment purposes and have not been peer-reviewed. This paper represents the opinions of the author(s) and is not intended to represent the views of Melbourne Institute. Whilst reasonable efforts have been made to ensure accuracy, the author is responsible for any remaining errors and omissions.

Abstract

While it is often believed that temporary forms of employment, such as fixed-term contracts, casual work and temporary agency work, provide workers with more flexibility to balance work and private commitments, convincing empirical evidence on this issue is still scarce. This paper investigates the link between temporary employment and work-life balance in Australia, using longitudinal data from the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia Survey for the period 2001 to 2017. In contrast to previous studies, we compare results from pooled cross-sectional and fixed-effects regressions to investigate the role of time-constant unobserved worker characteristics in linking temporary employment and work-life outcomes. The results show that, after accounting for job characteristics and person-specific fixed-effects, among women only casual employment is unequivocally associated with better work-life outcomes than permanent employment. For men, we mostly find negative associations between all forms of temporary employment and work-life outcomes, but the magnitudes of these associations are much smaller and mostly insignificant in fixed-effects models. This result suggests that male temporary employees have stable unobserved traits that are connected to poorer work-life balance.

JEL classification: J41, J82, J28, J16

Keywords: Temporary employment, casual work, HILDA Survey, work-life balance, work-family conflict, Australia, longitudinal methods

1. Introduction

Profound changes in both the labour market and the home sphere – such as increased female labour force participation, the trend towards more involved fatherhood, and the increase in electronic work communication (which has facilitated a greater blurring of the boundaries between work and leisure) – have resulted in researchers paying increased attention to how workers balance the demands of the work sphere and other areas, especially the family sphere. But despite the appearance of hundreds of studies on work-family, or more generally, work-life balance, in recent decades (summarised, for example, in Byron 2005; Casper et al. 2007; Chang et al. 2010), some questions remain unanswered. In particular, the role that the type of employment contract, and especially contracts that provide for temporary or ongoing / permanent employment, plays in the relationship between work and family life has received little attention. This is surprising given the intense debate about both the significance of temporary forms of employment and their potential impacts on workers (e.g., Booth et al. 2002; Gash/McGinnity 2007; Giesecke/Groß 2003; Kalleberg et al. 2000; Keller/Seifert 2013; McVicar et al. 2019; Scherer 2009; van Lancker 2012; Watson 2005). In terms of work-life balance, temporary employment appears to be a mixed blessing: On the one hand, certain strains related to temporary work, especially high job insecurity, may negatively impact on the ability to balance this type of work with other areas of life. On the other hand, temporary work may provide workers with more schedule flexibility, suggesting an increased ability to wrap work around other commitments.

Existing empirical studies on the relationship between employment contract type and work-life balance, however, suffer from a number of methodological shortcomings. First, many studies are either based on small-scale qualitative samples (Bohle et al. 2004; Pocock et al. 2004) or surveys of one select company or industry (Bohle et al. 2011; Heponiemi et al. 2010; Mauno et al. 2015; McNamara et al. 2011), limiting the generalisability of results to the broader workforce. Second, the few studies that have investigated the impact of temporary employment using nationally representative survey data (Hosking/Western 2008; Pocock/Charlesworth 2015; Russell et al. 2009; Scherer 2009; Scherer/Steiber 2007; Skinner et al. 2012) have either relied on the presentation of simple descriptive statistics or used cross-sectional regression methods. Previous research has thus been unable to account for the impact of unobserved worker characteristics. This is potentially important given that

unobserved characteristics, such as motivation, productivity, organisational skills or resilience, may be expected to influence both workers' choice of contract type and their work-life balance.

In this study, data from the Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA) Survey spanning the period 2001 to 2017 are used, which overcomes the mentioned problems: Not only is the survey based on a nationally representative sample (of the Australian workforce), but it also provides annual panel data on both workers' employment situations and their work-life balance. Importantly, the panel nature of the data makes it possible to control for the effects of unobserved individual characteristics that are time invariant.

We examine two different outcomes: (i) satisfaction with the flexibility to combine work and non-work commitments among all workers; and (ii) a measure of work-family conflict among parents. We thus extend the usual focus of the literature on the link between work and family (Pichler 2009) to a broader perspective on the link between work and other areas of life. Through the use of longitudinal data, we are also the first to investigate the role of unobserved heterogeneity in the link between contract type and work-life balance. Finally, we go beyond previous studies by comparing three different types of temporary work – casual employment, fixed-term contract employment, and temporary agency work.

The Australian case is of interest given the relatively large share of temporary workers in total employment in Australia. Data from the HILDA Survey for 2017, for example, show that roughly one in three employees are employed either on a casual or fixed-term contract or through a temporary employment agency. Further, given the relatively low levels of support for the combination of work and family in Australia – reflected, for example, in the absence of state-funded parental leave until 2011 and relatively high levels of out-of-pocket expenses for child care – the role of the employer in providing good conditions for the combination of work and family life may be of large importance in this country.

2. Temporary employment and the combination of work and family in Australia

2.1 Contractual work relationships in Australia

Australian employees usually hold one of three different types of employment contracts – permanent, casual or fixed-term contracts. Another distinction is whether workers are hired

directly by the company where they provide the labour service or by an intermediary (or temporary employment agency) that temporarily assigns workers to different host companies. In this paper, we refer to casual contracts, fixed-term contracts and temporary agency work as temporary forms of employment.

Among these three forms of temporary employment, casual work is by far the most prevalent: 19.4% of employees aged 18 to 64 were employed on a casual basis (not counting agency workers on casual contracts) in 2017. While casual work in Australia lacks a clear and agreed upon definition, its most prominent characteristic is the lack of any advance commitment by the employer regarding both the duration of employment and the number of days or hours to be worked (Stewart et al. 2016). In other words, casual employees can be dismissed or have their hours varied at any time. Additionally, casual workers usually lack any entitlement to paid leave (e.g., sick leave or annual leave). In compensation for these disadvantages, they are usually entitled to a pay loading, which in the late 1990s and early 2000s was typically around 20% of the wage of a comparable non-casual worker (Watson 2005). New legislation introduced in 2010, however, has raised this norm to 25%. Casual employment also provides workers with the theoretical possibility to reject or cancel shifts that do not suit them. That said, the limited empirical evidence (e.g., Markey/McIvor 2018; McGann et al. 2016; Pocock et al. 2004) suggests that the schedule flexibility connected to casual employment is often one-sidedly used by employers to adjust their workforce to demand, rather than by workers to fit employment to other activities.

Fixed-term contracts – that is, employment contracts that end on a specified date or with the completion of a specified task – accounted for 10.4% of employees aged 18 to 64 years in 2017 (again, not counting agency workers). Fixed-term contracts generally come with the same entitlements (such as paid annual and sick leave) and obligations (i.e., contractual commitment to specific working days or a specific number of hours) as permanent contracts.

Temporary agency work accounts for a relatively small share of employees; 2.6% of employees aged 18 to 64 years in 2017. While temporary agency workers can in theory have any of the three contract types already described, only a minority of these workers (17%) had permanent contracts with the agency in 2017; most were employed on either a casual (61%) or fixed-term contract (22%). Given the specific employment situation of agency workers – characterised by frequent changes of workplace and thus working conditions – we treat agency work as a separate form of temporary employment in this paper.

2.2 *Linking employment types to work-life balance*

As Greenhaus/Beutell (1985) have outlined, work can interfere with other spheres of life through several channels, among them time-based and strain-based conflicts between the two spheres. Time-based conflicts relate to situations where time devoted to one role makes it difficult to fulfil the requirements of another role, whereas strain-based conflict appears if strain produced by one role makes it difficult to fulfil requirements of another role. More recently, it has also been pointed out that work can also have an enriching or facilitating impact on other spheres of life (Voydanoff 2004). Similar concepts have been put forward as “negative” and “positive spillover” from work to family (Edwards/Rothbard 2000; Lambert 1990).

With respect to strain-based conflicts, the lack of employer commitment to an ongoing employment relationship ensures that temporary forms of employment are associated with higher levels of perceived job insecurity (Aletraris 2010; Green/Leeves 2013) and a greater risk of unemployment (Wilkins/Wooden 2013) than permanent contracts. Job insecurity, in turn, is a source of psychological strain (Sverke et al. 2002) that threatens the economic basis needed for a stable and high-quality family life (Voydanoff 2004) and has repeatedly been shown to negatively influence work-life balance (Batt/Valcour 2003; Kinnunen/Mauno 1998; Pichler 2009; Richter et al. 2010). Indeed, both casual and agency work (but not fixed-term contracts) have been found to be associated with lower annual household income than permanent employment (Laß/Wooden 2018). Further strains that can be connected to temporary forms of employment and may spill over to workers’ private lives are a lack of social integration and appreciation at the workplace as a result of being treated as outsiders or newcomers (Pocock et al. 2004), and frequently changing workplaces and employers.

Whether we should also expect a link between temporary employment and time-based conflict is more difficult to judge. On the one hand, there is a range of arguments for why temporary contracts (*ceteris paribus*) should reduce time for non-work activities compared to permanent contracts: To the extent that temporary workers hope to have their contract converted to permanent, they might invest heavily in their jobs and accept overtime or unsuitable shifts. Casual and agency workers are also more likely than others to work schedules other than a regular day schedule (Lass/Wooden 2017), which have been shown to negatively influence work-life/family balance (Costa et al. 2006; Davis et al. 2008; Gallie/Russell 2009; Grosswald 2003; Jansen et al. 2003; Pichler 2009; Tausig/Fenwick 2001).

For example, varying work volumes and schedules can make it more difficult for temporary, and especially casual workers, to use child care services given these usually require parents to settle for fixed days per week. More generally, permanent workers are in a better bargaining position than temporary workers as their dismissal is costlier for the employer, suggesting that they are more likely to obtain desirable working conditions (such as the desired number of working hours and time schedules, or the option to work from home) that, in turn, will likely ease the time conflict between work and non-work commitments. The time temporary workers have for other activities may also be reduced through potentially longer work commutes, given their relatively short job tenures mean having to change employers (and hence workplaces) more frequently. Further, HILDA Survey data show that casual workers and, to a lesser extent, fixed-term contract workers are more likely than permanent workers to be multiple job holders, which can constitute another source of strain as it requires coordination of one's work schedule not only with other spheres of life but also with a second work schedule (Sliter/Boyd 2014). Additionally, lower household incomes may prevent temporary workers from purchasing services that alleviate time pressures, such as child care or household help.

On the other hand, there is a close link between some types of temporary employment and part-time working hours in Australia, with HILDA Survey data for 2017 showing that three quarters of casual employees and 38% of agency workers aged 18 to 64 years work less than 35 weekly hours in their main job, compared to only 21% of workers on permanent and 22% on fixed-term contracts. Even when adding working hours in second jobs, mean weekly working hours differ considerably between these employment types, averaging 39.5 for permanent workers, 38.9 for fixed-term contract workers, 33.8 for agency workers, and just 24.8 for casual workers. Many studies have reported negative associations between working hours and work-life balance (Abendroth et al. 2011; Batt/Valcour 2003; Gallie/Russell 2009; Pausch et al. 2016; Pichler 2009), thus suggesting that casual employment in particular will be associated with less time-based conflict. Additionally, casual employment may also decrease time-based conflicts and thus enhance work-life balance through the flexibility to reject or cancel unsuitable shifts.

2.3 The role of the Australian institutional context

In Australia, the dominant arrangement for couples with children is the modified male breadwinner model, in which men focus on employment and women are secondary earners and at the same time primarily responsible for housework and care (Craig/Mullan 2009). Most women assume the role of full-time carer while their children are young but later re-enter the labour market (Baxter 2013). Whereas almost all fathers work full-time (regardless of their children's ages), most mothers revert to part-time work as the major method for reconciling the demands of work and family (Baxter et al. 2007). Overall, maternal employment in Australia is relatively low compared to other OECD countries (63% in 2014 compared to an OECD average of 66%) (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development 2018, Table LMF1.2), which may in part be a consequence of high childcare costs. According to data available from the OECD.Stat website, for example, couple parents who both earn the average wage spent 28% of their income on net childcare costs in Australia in 2015, which compares with an OECD average of just 14%.¹

Still, some conditions for the combination of work and family have improved considerably during the period under study. One major example is Paid Parental Leave (PPL) regulations: Until 2011, Australia and the USA were the only two OECD countries without a state-funded PPL scheme. PPL was at the discretion of employers and distributed highly unevenly, with low-skilled and casual employees the most likely to miss out (Brennan 2007). In contrast, the state-funded PPL scheme, which was introduced in 2011 and explicitly targets mothers, involves a flat-rate payment at the national minimum wage level for up to 18 weeks, meaning that low-paid and part-time workers benefit the most relative to their previous earnings.

Another change in legislation to support working parents was the introduction of a right to request part-time hours for working parents in 2009. Before 2009, it was argued that many Australians seeking part-time hours had to accept casual employment due to a lack of permanent part-time positions (Pocock 2003). Since then, and as shown by HILDA Survey data, the share of mothers with permanent part-time positions has increased, while that of mothers with casual part-time positions has decreased. For example, among working mothers with children aged five or younger, 35.4% held permanent part-time positions in 2017

¹ Sourced from data on net childcare costs for parents using childcare, found in the Social Protection and Well-Being section, Benefits, Taxes and Wages sub-section, of OECD.Stat (<https://stats.oecd.org>).

compared with 30.0% in 2009. By contrast, 15.3% of these working mothers were in casual part-time employment in 2017, while the share was 20.7% in 2008.

Despite increasing policy support for working parents, incentives persist for secondary earners to limit their working hours or stay out of the labour force beyond the period of parental leave. For example, many family benefits are subject to family income tests and, as mentioned, childcare costs are very high.

Additionally, several policies supporting working parents cater more to the situation of permanent workers than other workers. For example, while Australian legislation provides for generous periods of unpaid parental leave, the job guarantee that comes with parental leave does not hold if the worker has a fixed-term contract that runs out during the leave period and typically does not extend to casual employees.² Moreover, to be eligible for unpaid parental leave employees must have worked for their employer for 12 months, and meeting this requirement is less likely for workers on casual and fixed-term contracts given they often have shorter tenure. Eligibility to PPL is also tied to a relatively strict work test, but it is slightly more generous than that of unpaid leave. It requires the parent to have worked for 10 of the 13 months before the birth or adoption of the child, and to have worked at least a total of 330 hours (about one day per week), with the specific employer being irrelevant. Workers with intermittent employment careers are thus at risk of getting into the odd situation of qualifying for the PPL payment while not being entitled to take time off work after all (because they do not qualify for unpaid leave). Further, working parents' right to request part-time work only applies if they have been with the same employer for at least 12 months.

In sum, while Australian legislation and family benefits are increasingly supporting working parents (in particular through PPL and the right to request part-time hours), the role of the employer in providing good conditions for the combination of work and family life remains crucial. To the extent that granting these conditions is the result of bargaining outcomes between employer and worker, permanent workers can be expected to have better access to family-friendly working conditions than temporary workers. Further, the highly gendered nature of the division of paid and unpaid work in Australia suggests that temporary employment may impact differently on men's and women's work-life balance. Whereas the

² Casual workers must have had a reasonable expectation of continuing employment had it not been for the child in order to be eligible for unpaid parental leave.

career insecurity connected to temporary contracts may threaten men's ability to fulfil the role as primary breadwinner, the flexibility that may be provided by temporary employment might support women in taking over the lion's share of housework and care.

3. Methods

3.1 Data, sample and method

As previously mentioned, we use data from seventeen waves of the HILDA Survey, a longitudinal study that follows members of a nationally representative sample of Australian households drawn in 2001 (see Watson/Wooden 2012). A total of 11,693 households were identified as in-scope at wave 1 (i.e., in 2001), with interviews completed with members of 7682 of these households (providing an initial responding sample of 13,969 persons). Interviews are conducted with all adult (persons aged 15 years or older) members of the original sample, as well as any other adults who, in later waves, are residing with an original sample member. Annual re-interview rates are high, rising from 87% in wave 2 to 96% by wave 9 (and remaining at or above that level ever since).

Among other topics, the HILDA Survey provides comprehensive annual information on individuals' employment situations as well as subjective indicators of work-life balance. The sample used here is restricted to employees aged between 18 and 64 years. Observations where the respondent did not report whether they were employed on a permanent, fixed-term or casual contract (just 449 observations) were excluded. Our two outcome variables target different groups of respondents, so the analyses are based on two different samples: Information on satisfaction with the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments is collected from all workers who are interviewed, and only a small share of our sample of workers (161 observations) did not respond to this question and thus had to be excluded. This leaves us with a sample of 22,364 persons contributing 149,559 observations. In contrast, the items making up the work-family conflict scale are collected in a separate Self-Completion Questionnaire, which is only completed and returned by around 89% of our sample. Further, these questions are only asked of persons with parenting responsibilities for children aged 17 or less. We additionally restrict this sample to those parents who are living with their children (who may be biological or social parents). We also exclude those working parents who are missing information on two or more of the four items making up the work-family conflict scale

(406 observations). The final working sample for the analysis of work-family conflict comprises 8,820 persons, contributing 48,415 observations.

We investigate the link between contract type and work-life balance by means of multivariate regression analysis. To account for differences in unobserved worker characteristics, our preferred model is a fixed-effects regression. Fixed-effects estimation relies entirely on within-person changes; that is, for the same individual, it compares the work-life outcomes for periods when the individual is on one type of contract (e.g., a permanent contract) and for periods when the individual is on another type of contract (e.g., a casual contract). While this has the advantage that the effects of all time-constant characteristics, whether observed or unobserved, are held constant, the downside is that workers who are only employed once or who never change employment type are not used in the estimation of the coefficients for employment types. We also compare our results to those from pooled OLS models to investigate the extent to which results from these models may be biased by unobserved heterogeneity.³ We run all models separately by gender to account for potential differences in the relationship between temporary employment and work-life balance for men and women.

3.2 Measures

Dependent variables

We investigate two different outcome variables: “Satisfaction with work-life balance” and “work-family conflict”. We follow Pichler (2009) and regard satisfaction with work-life balance as a broader concept, which is in part determined by work-family conflict.

The satisfaction measure is collected through the following question: (...) *please pick a number between 0 and 10 to indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied you are with the following aspects of your job. The more satisfied you are, the higher the number you should pick. The less satisfied you are, the lower the number. ... The flexibility available to balance work and non-work commitments?* It is interviewer administered.

Work-family conflict is derived from four items taken from Marshall/Barnett (1993), measuring work-family strains and work-parenting strains on a scale from 1 (strongly

³ Additionally, we estimated random-effects models, but in all cases the Hausman test rejected the suitability of these models and hence we do not report results from these models.

disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). As previously mentioned, these items are included in a separate self-administered paper questionnaire. The relevant question begins: *The following statements are about combining work with family responsibilities. Please indicate, by crossing one box on each line, how strongly you agree or disagree with each.* There are 16 items with the 4 items used in the construction of our work-family conflict measure being:

- i) *Because of the requirements of my job, I miss out on home or family activities that I would prefer to participate in.*
- ii) *Because of the requirements of my job, my family time is less enjoyable and more pressured.*
- iii) *Working leaves me with too little time or energy to be the kind of parent I want to be.*
- iv) *Working causes me to miss out on some of the rewarding aspects of being a parent.*

The items were summed to form an index and then scaled back to their original 1 to 7 scale. For the sake of comparability with our first measure of work-life balance, we have reflected the work-family conflict scale so that larger numbers indicate more beneficial outcomes, thus ranging from 1 (highest conflict/worst balance) to 7 (lowest conflict/best balance). Following Hosking/Western (2008), we assign respondents with missing values on one item the mean value of the remaining three items but exclude cases with more than one missing item. The Cronbach's alpha for this composite measure is 0.84. Correlation between the work-life conflict scale and the satisfaction with work-life balance question is moderate (-0.37).

Employment type

We distinguish between permanent employment, fixed-term contracts, casual employment and temporary agency work. The first three categories are mutually exclusive. Temporary agency workers, however, could be employed on either a permanent, fixed-term or casual basis. We thus create a fourth category, with all employees who report being employed through a labour-hire firm or temporary employment agency, regardless of their contract type, classified as temporary agency workers. Additionally, we create a category for other employed persons; that is, the self-employed and unpaid family workers.

Control variables

In the base specification, we include a range of socio-demographic and family characteristics as control variables. Specifically, we include age (in quadratic form), and dummy variables identifying highest educational level, whether a full-time student, and the presence of a long-

term health condition that impacts on work. The family context is considered by an indicator for persons living with their partner and several indicators for parental status (accounting for whether there are own resident children below the age of 18 years and, if yes, the age of the youngest child and the number of children). Additionally, we include an indicator for whether one's parent(s) or parent(s)-in-law live in the household and an indicator for whether persons other than one's partner, parents and children live in the household. We also control for time effects through the inclusion of year dummies.

In the extended specification, we additionally include controls for employment characteristics other than employment type. These are: working hours, length of tenure with the current employer (specified as a quadratic), whether employed in the public sector, whether has supervisory responsibilities, whether works a schedule other than a regular day schedule, occupation (according to the major groups within the Australian and New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations) and firm size (including a dummy for missing information on firm size). All mentioned job characteristics relate to the main jobs. Additionally, we include a dummy indicating multiple job holders.

Summary statistics for all variables, differentiated by gender and sample, are provided in Table 1. With respect to contract type, the table shows that among both men and women, and both in the broader sample used to assess the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments (Sample WLB) and in the smaller sample of parents used to assess work-family conflict (Sample WFC), the majority of workers have a permanent contract (between 58% of women in Sample WLB and 66% of men in Sample WFC). Among men, the second largest group is the self-employed, followed by casual workers, whereas the order is reversed for women. Only a relatively small share in all samples has fixed term contracts (between 6 and 9%) or works for a temporary employment agency (2-3%).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive results

Table 2 presents the mean scores for satisfaction with work-life balance, the work-family conflict index, and the four individual items making up the work-family conflict index. The most striking result is that casual workers appear to have the best work-life outcomes. They

Table 1: Summary statistics for analysis samples

	Men				Women			
	WLB sample		WFC sample		WLB sample		WFC sample	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Employment type								
Permanent contract	0.59	0.49	0.65	0.48	0.58	0.49	0.58	0.49
Fixed-term contract	0.07	0.26	0.07	0.25	0.09	0.28	0.08	0.28
Casual contract	0.12	0.32	0.05	0.23	0.20	0.40	0.19	0.39
Temporary agency work	0.03	0.16	0.02	0.14	0.02	0.14	0.02	0.13
Self-employed	0.19	0.39	0.21	0.41	0.11	0.32	0.13	0.33
Age (years)	39.33	12.51	40.95	8.11	39.15	12.52	40.02	7.32
Educational level								
High (bachelor or higher)	0.25	0.43	0.30	0.46	0.33	0.47	0.37	0.48
Medium (year 12, cert III, IV, diploma, advanced diploma)	0.56	0.50	0.54	0.50	0.47	0.50	0.44	0.50
Low (year 11 and below)	0.19	0.39	0.16	0.37	0.20	0.40	0.20	0.40
Full-time student	0.05	0.22	0.01	0.09	0.07	0.26	0.02	0.13
Age of youngest resident child								
No child below 18 years	0.61	0.49	0.00	0.00	0.61	0.49	0.00	0.00
0 to 3 years	0.15	0.36	0.39	0.49	0.11	0.31	0.27	0.44
4 to 7 years	0.08	0.27	0.20	0.40	0.08	0.28	0.22	0.41
8 to 12 years	0.09	0.28	0.23	0.42	0.10	0.30	0.27	0.45
13 to 17 years	0.07	0.26	0.18	0.39	0.09	0.29	0.24	0.43
Number of own resident children								
One child	0.14	0.34	0.34	0.47	0.15	0.36	0.39	0.49
Two children	0.17	0.37	0.44	0.50	0.16	0.37	0.43	0.50
Three or more children	0.08	0.28	0.22	0.41	0.07	0.26	0.18	0.38
Work-limiting health condition	0.08	0.27	0.07	0.25	0.09	0.29	0.07	0.25
Partner in the household	0.70	0.46	0.98	0.16	0.66	0.47	0.83	0.38
Parents in the household	0.12	0.33	0.02	0.13	0.12	0.32	0.02	0.15
Other people in the household	0.15	0.35	0.03	0.17	0.14	0.35	0.03	0.18
Calendar year								
2001	0.06	0.23	0.06	0.24	0.05	0.22	0.06	0.23
2002	0.05	0.22	0.06	0.23	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.23
2003	0.05	0.22	0.06	0.23	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22
2004	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.21	0.05	0.22
2005	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22
2006	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.06	0.23
2007	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22
2008	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22
2009	0.05	0.23	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.22
2010	0.05	0.23	0.05	0.22	0.05	0.23	0.05	0.22
2011	0.07	0.26	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.26	0.07	0.25
2012	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25

2013	0.07	0.25	0.06	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.06	0.24
2014	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25
2015	0.07	0.25	0.06	0.24	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25
2016	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25
2017	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.26	0.07	0.25
Working hours (main job)	41.99	13.59	44.86	11.52	31.25	13.91	28.31	13.26
Multiple job holder	0.07	0.26	0.07	0.25	0.10	0.30	0.10	0.30
Tenure (years)	7.38	8.58	8.10	7.84	6.21	7.29	6.25	6.27
Public sector	0.17	0.38	0.20	0.40	0.27	0.45	0.31	0.46
No regular day schedule	0.24	0.43	0.21	0.41	0.25	0.43	0.22	0.41
Supervisory responsibilities	0.52	0.50	0.60	0.49	0.42	0.49	0.43	0.50
Occupation								
Manager	0.17	0.37	0.22	0.41	0.10	0.30	0.10	0.30
Professional	0.20	0.40	0.23	0.42	0.28	0.45	0.31	0.46
Technician and Trades	0.23	0.42	0.21	0.41	0.04	0.20	0.04	0.20
Community and personal sales	0.06	0.24	0.06	0.23	0.16	0.36	0.16	0.37
Clerical and administrative	0.07	0.25	0.07	0.25	0.23	0.42	0.24	0.43
Sales	0.05	0.23	0.04	0.18	0.11	0.31	0.08	0.27
Machinery Operators and Drivers	0.11	0.31	0.10	0.30	0.01	0.11	0.01	0.10
Labourers	0.11	0.31	0.08	0.27	0.07	0.25	0.06	0.24
Firm size								
Less than 20 employees	0.35	0.48	0.33	0.47	0.28	0.45	0.28	0.45
20-99 employees	0.14	0.34	0.13	0.34	0.13	0.34	0.13	0.34
100-499 employees	0.11	0.31	0.11	0.31	0.10	0.30	0.09	0.29
500 and more employees	0.36	0.48	0.40	0.49	0.42	0.49	0.43	0.50
Missing firm size	0.04	0.20	0.03	0.17	0.07	0.25	0.06	0.24
N (observations)	77773		25110		71786		23305	

Notes: WLB sample used to assess satisfaction with the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments. WFC sample used to assess work-family conflict among parents. SD denotes standard deviation.

are more satisfied with their work-life balance and have the lowest work-family conflict, both according to the overall index and the individual items it consists of. Work-life outcomes are particularly good for women employed on casual contracts, while differences between men employed on a casual and a permanent basis are not as striking. Fixed-term contract workers have similar work-life outcomes as permanent workers, and agency workers fare only slightly better than these two groups. However, given average working hours differ considerably between the groups, and hours are a strong predictor of work-life balance, it is important to move past these descriptive results to multivariate regression.

Table 2: Mean values of work-life outcomes

	Permanent	Fixed-term	Casual	Agency	Self-employed	N (observations)
Satisfaction with flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments						
Women	7.35	7.23	7.86	7.55	8.08	77,773
Men	7.30	7.25	7.48	7.09	7.58	71,786
Total	7.32	7.24	7.70	7.28	7.75	149,559
Work-family conflict						
Miss out on home/family activities						
Women	3.94	3.91	3.31	3.64	3.27	23,281
Men	4.30	4.39	4.09	4.16	4.05	25,092
Total	4.14	4.14	3.50	3.92	3.80	48,373
Family time less enjoyable/more pressured						
Women	3.24	3.40	2.77	3.11	2.98	23,274
Men	3.31	3.42	3.23	3.22	3.27	25,085
Total	3.28	3.41	2.89	3.17	3.16	48,359
Too little time or energy to be aspirational parent						
Women	3.78	3.87	3.24	3.61	3.27	23,288
Men	3.80	3.81	3.90	3.87	3.68	25,089
Total	3.79	3.84	3.40	3.75	3.54	48,377
Miss out on rewarding aspects of being parent						
Women	4.20	4.19	3.43	3.91	3.31	23,299
Men	4.46	4.49	4.39	4.48	4.17	25,099
Total	4.34	4.33	3.67	4.22	3.89	48,398
Work-family conflict index (reflected)						
Women	4.21	4.15	4.81	4.43	4.79	23,305
Men	4.03	3.97	4.10	4.07	4.21	25,110
Total	4.11	4.07	4.63	4.23	4.40	48,415

Note: Data weighted using cross-sectional responding person population weights.

4.2 Multivariate results

Table 3 presents regression results with respect to the satisfaction with the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments (or what we refer to as work-life balance). For reasons of space, the table focuses on the coefficients of the main variables of interest; that is, the indicators of employment type. For both men (top panel) and women (bottom panel), results from four models are presented: two models based on pooled OLS regression and two models based on fixed effects regression.

Starting out with the results from the pooled OLS base model for men, we see that both fixed-term contract workers and temporary agency workers are significantly less satisfied with the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments, whereas the opposite is true for casual and self-employed workers. Extending the list of control variables to job-related factors does not impact notably on the coefficients for fixed-term contracts and agency work,

which remain negative and are of a similar magnitude. However, the significant positive relationship with casual work turns into a significant negative relationship. Further, the positive association between self-employment and work-life balance becomes weaker after controlling for working hours and other factors.

Comparing the results from the pooled OLS to those of the fixed-effects (FE) regression, an interesting pattern emerges: Negative associations become less negative and positive associations become more positive with the inclusion of fixed effects. For example, the negative coefficient for fixed-term contracts is notably attenuated and becomes statistically insignificant in the FE model. Further, the positive coefficient for casual employment in the FE base model is larger than in the pooled OLS base model, and the negative coefficient in the extended model is much smaller than in the pooled OLS. These results suggest that male temporary workers have stable unobserved traits that are linked to lower satisfaction with work-life balance, regardless of the type of contract they work in at present.⁴

Moving to the results for women in the bottom panel of Table 3, the pooled OLS model suggests that there is no significant difference in the work-life balance of fixed-term contract and permanent workers, whereas temporary agency work, and even more so casual employment, are associated with a significantly better work-life balance. However, once other job characteristics are accounted for, these significant associations with casual employment and temporary agency work entirely disappear. Again, the prime driving factor is the fewer working hours of these groups of workers. The self-employed are also significantly more satisfied with their work-life balance, and this association persists in the extended model, although the magnitude of the coefficient is smaller.

The results from the FE models for women do not differ as strongly from those from the pooled OLS as it was the case for men, suggesting that the link between unobserved characteristics, temporary employment and work-life balance is weaker for women. A notable exception, however, is casual work in the extended model: Unlike in the pooled OLS, there remains a small positive coefficient for casual employment in the extended FE model.

⁴ Given the sample differences (with fixed-effects estimations relying only on persons who change status), we also re-estimated the extended pooled OLS model with the smaller sample of changers. The size of the negative coefficients for men's contract types already attenuate by reducing the sample in the pooled OLS; yet most of the change in coefficients appears when moving from the pooled OLS model (with the smaller sample) to the fixed-effects model.

Table 3: Employment type and the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments: Comparison of estimates from pooled OLS and fixed-effects regression

	Pooled OLS		Fixed effects	
	Base model	Extended model	Base model	Extended model
Men				
Fixed-term contract	-0.154***	-0.126***	-0.030	-0.049
Casual contract	0.115***	-0.269***	0.237***	-0.079*
Temporary agency work	-0.352***	-0.316***	-0.142**	-0.226***
Self-employed	0.354***	0.139***	0.411***	0.256***
N	77722	77386	77722	77386
Women				
Fixed-term contract	-0.069	-0.042	0.014	0.000
Casual contract	0.435***	-0.018	0.434***	0.080**
Temporary agency work	0.133*	0.028	0.204***	0.086
Self-employed	0.691***	0.404***	0.671***	0.466***
N	71741	71312	71741	71312

Notes: Reference group is direct-hire permanent employment. Base model excludes job-related control variables. ***, ** and * denote statistical significance at the .01, .05 and .10 levels, respectively.

Table 4 presents the results from a similar set of models analysing work-family conflict for parents of children aged 17 or younger. Across almost all models, workers on fixed-term contracts do not differ significantly in terms of their work-family conflict from workers on permanent contracts. For men, there appears to be a small negative association with low work-family conflict, but which only becomes statistically significant in the extended FE model. Casual contracts, in contrast, are positively related to low work-family conflict in the pooled OLS base model, though the association is only significant for women. For men the relationship reverses into a significant negative association once accounting for job-related characteristics in the extended pooled OLS model. For women, the association remains positive but becomes weaker in the extended model. Temporary agency work is not linked significantly to men's work-family conflict. For women, there is a significant positive association with low conflict, but which disappears upon controlling for job-related characteristics. Across the board, self-employment is positively associated with low work-family conflict.

Table 4: Employment type and work-family conflict (reflected scale) of parents with children aged 17 and younger: Comparison of estimates from pooled OLS and fixed-effects regression

	Pooled OLS		Fixed effects	
	Base model	Extended model	Base model	Extended model
Men				
Fixed-term contract	-0.065	-0.053	-0.048	-0.064*
Casual contract	0.093	-0.192***	0.197***	0.014
Temporary agency work	0.047	-0.011	0.200***	0.122**
Self-employed	0.213***	0.195***	0.270***	0.211***
N	25098	25010	25098	25010
Women				
Fixed-term contract	-0.001	-0.026	-0.009	-0.021
Casual contract	0.606***	0.147***	0.368***	0.101***
Temporary agency work	0.227**	0.028	0.115	0.009
Self-employed	0.567***	0.353***	0.454***	0.295***
N	23298	23192	23298	23192

Notes: Reference is direct-hire permanent employment. Base model excludes job-related control variables. ***, ** and * denote statistical significance at the .01, .05 and .10 levels, respectively.

Accounting for unobserved heterogeneity yields a similar pattern as found with respect to the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments among men: Positive associations become more positive and negative associations less negative. For example, the negative relationship between casual contracts and low work-family conflict in the extended pooled OLS model disappears in the FE model, and the null result for temporary agency work turns into a positive relationship. The pattern is different again for women: The positive association of both casual work and temporary agency work with work-family conflict becomes weaker and, in the case of agency work in the base model, loses statistical significance once accounting for fixed effects.

5. Discussion and conclusion

In this paper longitudinal data from a large-scale Australian household survey was used to investigate the relationship between temporary forms of employment and workers' balance between the demands of the work sphere and other areas of life. The results, which vary by the specific outcome, gender and the method used, suggest three main findings.

First, temporary employment contracts appear, if at all, to only be beneficial for women's work-life balance, while for men the results point to no effects or even negative effects of temporary employment. For example, with respect to the first measure – the flexibility to balance work and non-work commitments – the extended pooled OLS model showed that fixed-term contracts, casual contracts and temporary agency work are all linked to a significantly reduced work-life balance for men. When accounting for fixed effects, the negative association of fixed-term contracts with work-life balance becomes statistically insignificant; however, it persists among casual and agency workers. For women, the extended pooled OLS model showed no significant relationships, but in the extended fixed-effects model a positive association emerges for casual employees. These findings are thus broadly in line with our expectation that the career insecurity connected to temporary contracts threatens men's breadwinning capacity, whereas the flexibility provided by casual work helps women combine paid employment with housework and care.

With respect to the second measure, work-family conflict among parents, casual employment is again linked to better outcomes than permanent work for women – a result that remained robust across models with varying controls and with or without fixed effects. For fathers, once job characteristics are considered, casual employment is found to be no longer linked to lower work-family conflict (in the FE model) or even increased conflict (in the pooled OLS), and in no model are fixed-term contracts found to be beneficial. There is, however, a positive association between temporary agency work and reduced work-family conflict in the extended FE model for men. This result may suggest that fathers are able to negotiate particularly suitable work schedules with the temporary employment agency. However, given agency workers are the least prevalent group of temporary workers, the number of workers benefiting from these arrangements is very small.

Second, the comparison of the different models (base, extended, pooled OLS, and fixed-effects) demonstrates the importance of choice of models and control variables for the overall assessment of the effects of temporary employment on work-life balance. In most cases, temporary employment is linked to better work-life outcomes in the base models that only accounted for socio-demographic and household characteristics of the worker. Most of these significant associations disappeared, however, upon control of job-related characteristics; most importantly, working hours. In other words, the reason temporary jobs help with work-life balance is because such jobs are often accompanied by part-time working hours. The

flexibility connected to the temporary nature of the contract per se, in contrast, appears in most cases not to work in the favour of the worker.

Third, the paper has provided new insights into the role of unobserved heterogeneity in linking contract type to work-life balance, given all previous papers had relied on cross-sectional data. One of the key results is not only the important role of unobserved heterogeneity in general, but also how unobserved factors work differently for men and women. While male temporary workers appear to have unobserved traits that are associated with lower work-life balance than permanent workers, this did not always prove to be the case for women. This result may suggest that most men, as primary earners, aspire to a permanent position, and that only a very select group of men in terms of specific, unobserved traits, takes up temporary employment. For women, who are more likely to have intermittent employment careers and to combine work with a sizeable amount of housework and care, the experience of temporary work is more widespread and thus these forms of employment appear to be taken over by a less select group. Overall, not accounting for unobserved heterogeneity, as has been the norm in previous studies, will lead to an overstatement of the negative work-life balance effects of some types of employment, and to an understatement of the positive effects of others.

Our study also has limitations. Most importantly, we cannot make any claims to causality given workers may select into employment, and into a particular employment type, based on their existing work-family demands.

All things considered, it appears that the positive impetus of temporary employment on work-life balance is limited, and almost entirely traceable to the reduced working hours attached to such jobs. Much more seems to be gained for workers by becoming self-employed, as this employment type consistently proved beneficial for work-life outcomes across gender and models. Policy approaches attempting to enhance workers' work-life balance could therefore comprise supporting transitions from temporary to permanent contracts, and especially to permanent part-time work, extending temporary workers' access to family policy measures, and, where appropriate, possibly supporting workers in establishing their own businesses.

References

- Abendroth, A.-K. & Den Dulk, L. (2011). Support for the work-life balance in Europe: The impact of state, workplace and family support on work-life balance satisfaction. *Work, Employment & Society*, 25, 2, pp. 234-256. doi: 10.1177/0950017011398892.
- Aletraris, L. (2010). How satisfied are they and why? A study of job satisfaction, job rewards, gender and temporary agency workers in Australia. *Human Relations*, 63, 8, pp. 1129-1155. doi: 10.1177/0018726709354131.
- Batt, R. & Valcour, P. M. (2003). Human resources practices as predictors of work-family outcomes and employee turnover. *Industrial Relations*, 42, 2, pp. 189-220. doi: 10.1111/1468-232X.00287.
- Baxter, J. (2013). *Parents working out work*. Melbourne: Australian Institute of Family Studies (Australian Family Trends 1).
- Baxter, J., Gray, M., Alexander, M., Strazdins, L. & Bittman, M. (2007). *Mothers and fathers with young children: Paid employment, caring and wellbeing*. Canberra: Department of Family and Community Services and Indigenous Affairs (Social Policy Research Paper 30).
- Bohle, P., Quinlan, M., Kennedy, D. & Williamson, A. (2004). Working hours, work-life conflict and health in precarious and “permanent” employment. *Revista de Saúde Pública*, 38, suppl, pp. 19-25. doi: 10.1590/S0034-89102004000700004.
- Bohle, P., Willaby, H., Quinlan, M. & McNamara, M. (2011). Flexible work in call centres: Working hours, work-life conflict & health. *Applied Ergonomics*, 42, 2, pp. 219-224. doi: 10.1016/j.apergo.2010.06.007.
- Booth, A. L., Francesconi, M. & Frank, J. (2002). Temporary jobs: Stepping stones or dead ends? *The Economic Journal*, 112, 480, pp. F189-F213. doi: 10.1111/1468-0297.00043.
- Brennan, D. (2007). Babies, budgets, and birthrates: Work/family policy in Australia 1996-2006. *Social Politics: International Studies in Gender, State & Society*, 14, 1, pp. 31-57. doi: 10.1093/sp/jxm003.
- Byron, K. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work–family conflict and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 2, pp. 169-198. doi: 10.1016/j.jvb.2004.08.009.

- Casper, W. J., Eby, L. T., Bordeaux, C., Lockwood, A. & Lambert, D. (2007). A review of research methods in IO/OB work-family research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92, 1*, pp. 28-43. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.28.
- Chang, A., McDonald, P. & Burton, P. (2010). Methodological choices in work-life balance research 1987 to 2006: A critical review. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21, 13*, pp. 2381-2413. doi: 10.1080/09585192.2010.516592.
- Costa, G., Sartori, S. & Akerstedt, T. (2006). Influence of flexibility and variability of working hours on health and well-being. *Chronobiology International, 23, 6*, pp. 1125-1137. doi: 10.1080/07420520601087491.
- Craig, L. & Mullan, K. (2009). "The policeman and the part-time sales assistant": Household labour supply, family time and subjective time pressure in Australia 1997-2006. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 40, 4*, pp. 547-561.
- Davis, K. D., Goodman, W. B., Pirretti, A. E. & Almeida, D. M. (2008). Nonstandard work schedules, perceived family well-being, and daily stressors. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 70, 4*, pp. 991-1003. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3737.2008.00541.x.
- DiPrete, T. A. & Eirich, G. M. (2006). Cumulative advantage as a mechanism for inequality: A review of theoretical and empirical developments. *Annual Review of Sociology, 32*, pp. 271-297. doi: 10.1146/annurev.soc.32.061604.123127.
- Edwards, J. R. & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *The Academy of Management Review, 25, 1*, pp. 178-199.
- Gallie, D. & Russell, H. (2009). Work-family conflict and working conditions in Western Europe. *Social Indicators Research, 93, 3*, pp. 445-467. doi: 10.1007/s11205-008-9435-0.
- Gash, V. & McGinnity, F. (2007). Fixed-term contracts – the new European inequality? Comparing men and women in West Germany and France. *Socio-Economic Review, 5, 3*, pp. 467-496. doi: 10.1093/ser/mwl020.
- Giesecke, J. & Groß, M. (2003). Temporary employment: Chance or risk? *European Sociological Review, 19, 2*, pp. 161-177. doi: 10.1093/esr/19.2.161.
- Green, C. P. & Leeves, G. D. (2013). Job security, financial security and worker well-being: New evidence on the effects of flexible employment. *Scottish Journal of Political Economy, 60, 2*, pp. 121-138. doi: 10.1111/sjpe.12005.

- Greenhaus, J. H. & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *The Academy of Management Review*, 10, 1, pp. 76-88.
- Grosswald, B. (2003). Shift work and negative work-to-family spillover. *Journal of Sociology and Social Welfare*, 30, 4, 31-56.
- Heponiemi, T., Kouvonen, A., Sinervo, T. & Elovainio, M. (2010). Do psychosocial factors moderate the association of fixed-term employment with work interference with family and sleeping problems in registered nurses: A cross-sectional questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 47, 9, pp. 1096-1104. doi: 10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2010.01.008.
- Hosking, A. & Western, M. (2008). The effects of non-standard employment on work–family conflict. *Journal of Sociology*, 44, 1, pp. 5-27. doi: 10.1177/1440783307085803.
- Jansen, N. W.H., Kant, I., Kristensen, T. S. & Nijhuis, F. J.N. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of work–family conflict: A prospective cohort study. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 45, 5, pp. 479-491. doi: 10.1097/01.jom.0000063626.37065.e8.
- Kalleberg, A. L., Reskin, B. & Hudson, K. (2000). Bad jobs in America: Standard and nonstandard employment relations and job quality in the United States. *American Sociological Review*, 65, 2, pp. 256-278.
- Keller, B. & Seifert, H. (2013). Atypical employment in Germany: Forms, development, patterns. *Transfer*, 19, 4, pp. 457-474. doi: 10.1177/1024258913501757.
- Kinnunen, U. & Mauno, S. (1998). Antecedents and outcomes of work-family conflict among employed women and men in Finland. *Human Relations*, 51, 2, pp. 157-177. doi: 10.1177/001872679805100203.
- Lambert, S. J. (1990). Processes linking work and family: A critical review and research agenda. *Human Relations*, 43, 3, pp. 239-257. doi: 10.1177/001872679004300303.
- Lass, I. & Wooden, M. (2017). Measurement, prevalence and the socio-demographic structure of non-standard employment: The Australian case. Paper presented at the IZA Labor Statistics Workshop: The Changing Structure of Work, June 29-30, Bonn, http://conference.iza.org/conference_files/Statistic_2017/lass_i25071.pdf [retrieved 2019-03-12].

- Laß, I. & Wooden, M. (2018). *Temporary employment contracts and household income*. Melbourne: Melbourne Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research (Working Paper Series 14/18).
- Markey, R. & Mclvor, J. (2018). Regulating casual employment in Australia. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, 60, 5, pp. 593-618. doi: 10.1177/0022185618778084.
- Marshall, N. L. & Barnett, R. C. (1993). Work-family strains and gains among two-earner couples. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 21, 1, pp. 64-78. doi: 10.1002/1520-6629(199301)21:1<64::AID-JCOP2290210108>3.0.CO;2-P.
- Mauno, S., Cuyper, N. de, Kinnunen, U., Ruokolainen, M., Rantanen, J. & Mäkikangas, A. (2015). The prospective effects of work–family conflict and enrichment on job exhaustion and turnover intentions: Comparing long-term temporary vs. permanent workers across three waves. *Work & Stress*, 29, 1, pp. 75-94. doi: 10.1080/02678373.2014.1003997.
- McGann, M., White, K. & Moss, J. (2016). Labour casualization and the psychosocial health of workers in Australia. *Work, Employment & Society*, 30, 5, pp. 766-782. doi: 10.1177/0950017016633022.
- McNamara, M., Bohle, P. & Quinlan, M. (2011). Precarious employment, working hours, work-life conflict and health in hotel work. *Applied Ergonomics*, 42, 2, pp. 225-232. doi: 10.1016/j.apergo.2010.06.013.
- McVicar, D., Wooden, M., Laß, I. & Fok, Y.-K. (2019). Contingent employment and labour market pathways: Bridge or trap? *European Sociological Review*, 35, 1, pp. 98-115. doi: 10.1093/esr/jcy045.
- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2018). *Family database*. <http://www.oecd.org/social/family/database.htm> [retrieved 2018-05-05].
- Pausch, S., Reimann, M., Abendroth, A.-K. & Diewald, M. (2016). Work-life integration of dual-earner couples: Spillover, crossover, and accumulation of workplace demands and resources within partnerships. *Psychosociological Issues in Human Resource Management*, 41, 1, pp. 70-95.
- Pichler, F. (2009). Determinants of work-life balance: Shortcomings in the contemporary measurement of WLB in large-scale surveys. *Social Indicators Research*, 92, 3, pp. 449-469. doi: 10.1007/s11205-008-9297-5.

- Pocock, B. (2003). *The work/life collision: What work is doing to Australians and what to do about it*. Sydney: Federation Press.
- Pocock, B. & Charlesworth, S. (2015). Job quality and work-life: Unsocial working hours, casual work and work-life outcomes in Australia. In: Knox, A. J. & Warhurst, C. (Eds.), *Job quality in Australia: Perspectives, problems and proposals*. Annandale, N.S.W.: Federation Press, pp. 103-126.
- Pocock, B., Prosser, R. & Bridge, K. (2004). *'Only a casual...': How casual work affects employees, households and communities in Australia*. Adelaide: Labour Studies, School of Social Sciences.
- Richter, A., Näswall, K. & Sverke, M. (2010). Job insecurity and its relation to work–family conflict: Mediation with a longitudinal data set. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 31, 2, pp. 265-280. doi: 10.1177/0143831X09358370.
- Russell, H., O'Connell, P. J. & McGinnity, F. (2009). The impact of flexible working arrangements on work-life conflict and work pressure in Ireland. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 16, 1, pp. 73-97. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-0432.2008.00431.x.
- Scherer, S. (2009). The social consequences of insecure jobs. *Social Indicators Research*, 93, 3, pp. 527-547. doi: 10.1007/s11205-008-9431-4.
- Scherer, S. & Steiber, N. (2007). Work and family in conflict? The impact of work demands on family life. In: Gallie, D. (Eds.), *Employment regimes and the quality of work*. Oxford University Press, pp. 137-178.
- Skinner, N., Hutchinson, C. & Pocock, B. (2012). *The big squeeze: Work, home and care in 2012 – The Australian Work and Life Index*. Adelaide: Centre for Work and Life, University of South Australia.
- Sliter, M. T. & Boyd, E. M. (2014). Two (or three) is not equal to one: Multiple jobholding as a neglected topic in organizational research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35, 7, pp. 1042-1046. doi: 10.1002/job.1944.
- Stewart, A., Forsyth, A. J., Irving, M., Johnstone, R. & McCrystal, S. (2016). *Creighton & Stewart's labour law*. Annandale, N.S.W.: The Federation Press (Sixth edition).
- Sverke, M., Hellgren, J. & Näswall, K. (2002). No security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7, 3, pp. 242-264. doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.7.3.242.

- Tausig, M. & Fenwick, R. (2001). Unbinding time: Alternate work schedules and work-life balance. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 22, 2, pp. 101-119.
- van Lancker, W. (2012). The European world of temporary employment. *European Societies*, 14, 1, pp. 83-111. doi: 10.1080/14616696.2011.638082.
- Voydanoff, P. (2004). The effects of work demands and resources on work-to-family conflict and facilitation. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 66, 2, pp. 398-412. doi: 10.1111/j.1741-3737.2004.00028.x.
- Watson, I. (2005). Contented workers in inferior jobs? Re-assessing casual employment in Australia. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, 47, 4, pp. 371-392. doi: 10.1111/j.1472-9296.2005.00181.x.
- Watson, N. & Wooden, M. (2012). The HILDA Survey: A case study in the design and development of a successful household panel study. *Longitudinal and Life Course Studies*, 3, 3, pp. 369-381. doi: 10.14301/llcs.v3i3.208.
- Wilkins, R. & Wooden, M. (2013). Gender differences in involuntary job loss: Why are men more likely to lose their jobs? *Industrial Relations*, 52, 2, pp. 582-608. doi: 10.1111/irel.12024.

