Economic Recession and Casualisation of the Japanese Labour Force

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解説

本稿は，2007 年 7 月 4 日，キャンベラのオーストラリア国立大学（the Australian National University）で開催された，the Japanese Studies Association of Australia（JSAA）第 15 回大会への参加記録である。

⑴　オーストラリアの日本学会（JSAA）について

オーストラリアの日本学会（the Japanese Studies Association of Australia，以下 JSAA と略す）は，歴史・文化，経済，政治，言語・コミュニケーションなどさまざまな専攻分野に基づいて日本を研究する研究者から成り立っている。メンバーには日本語を教えている教育者やオーストラリアと日本との国際交流に携わる人々も含まれている。この学会の創立は 1978 年だが，オーストラリアにおける日本研究の歴史はこれよりずっと古く，1917 年のシドニー大学におけるマードック教授の講義に遡る（http://www.jsaa.info/）。

JSAA の大会は二年に一度開催されている。大会では，日本の歴史・文化，日本経済，政治，法律，日本語ならびにコミュニケーションなど，専攻分野ごとに報告プログラムが組まれる。日本の現状または過去の文物・出来事に関する社会科学ないし人文科学の研究成果であれば何でも報告できるので，どの分野も報告者が多く，盛況である。報告内容は多岐にわたり，たとえば日本の政党の動きやメディアの問題，英語および日本語の教え方など，国際学会だからこそ自由に議論ができるようなテーマも

とりあげられている。筆者が参加したのは 2005 年の第 14 回大会と 2007 年の第 15 回大会であるが，いずれも 4 日間にわたって開催され，オーストラリアを研究している日本人研究者，現地の大学で教鞭をとっている日本人研究者や留学中の日本人学生，日本に留学した経験のあるオーストラリア人の研究者，日本に留学中の学生――その中にはオーストラリア国籍の学生もいれば，それ以外の国の出身者もいる――など，出席者の顔ぶれは多彩であった。

なお，日本にも「オーストラリア学会」があり，毎年全国大会が開催されているが，その規模は遺憾ながら JSAA に遠く及ばない。

⑵　キャンベラでの第 15 回大会

⑵-1）JSAA の大会

JSAA の第 15 回大会は，2007 年 7 月 1 日から 4 日にかけてキャンベラのオーストラリア国立大学（ANU）で開催された。この大会においては，ANU のほか，国際交流基金，豪日交流基金などがスポンサーとなった。

学会の全国大会といっても，日本のそれとはいくつかの点で異なっている。

まず，大会への参加者は前もってインターネットで参加登録し，参加費用を払わなければならないが，その金額は会員 / 非会員 / 学生の別に設定され，また部分的参加か全日程参加かによって異なっている。さらに，一定の期日までにインターネットで登録すると Early Bird という早割が適用されることになっている。非会員が全日程参加するときの参加費用は日本人から見るとやや高く，第 15 回の場合，Early Bird でも 400 ドル（約 4 万円）であった。ただし，その中には昼食代，茶菓代，レセプションへの参加費用なども含まれている。

次に，報告者の募集および学会への参加登録は開催の半年前から受け付けられているが，実際の報告者は直前にならないと決まらない。プログラムも柔軟で，開催の 1 ヶ月前になって新たに加わったり，削除されたりするセッションもある。

筆者は，独立行政法人の労働政策研究・研修機構が 2006 年度から 2007 年度にかけて行った「日本とオーストラリアの労働市場研究」プロジェクトの一員として 7 月 4 日この学会に参加し，5 日と 6 日には ANU の豪日研究センター（Australia-Japan Research Centre）の Jenny Corbett 教授が学会とは独立に主催した労働市場研究会に出席した。

⑵-2）JSAA に参加して

7 月はじめは日本では梅雨の蒸し暑い時期だが，オーストラリアでは冬である。しかし，キャンベラの冬は名古屋の冬ほど寒くはない。朝の気温が 0 度近くても日中の

気温が 15 度近くまで上昇することも多い。７月４日には朝から冷たい雨が降っていたが，2006 年から 2007 年にかけて水不足による給水制限が続いていたので，現地の人々は有難い雨だと言っていたそうである。

筆者は「日本とオーストラリアの労働市場研究」プロジェクトの他のメンバーと一緒に，近くのホテルから大学構内の会場へ向かった。なお，ホテルは Lake Burley Griffin[1] という人工湖の東にあり，大学はさらにその東である。

広い構内には自動車道路がいく筋も走っていて，道路にはそれぞれ名前がついており，会場となった Sir Roland Building は Liversidge Street という道路に面している。道路にも建物にも固有の人名がついているので，まずそれを目印とするのがここの構内の歩き方である。しかし，ANU のキャンパスは何と言っても広く，初めて訪問した人は迷ってしまう。筆者は 2005 年の５月に訪問研究員として ANU に滞在し，道路や建物の名前をある程度知っていて本当によかったと思った。

Sir Roland Building は，二階および三階部分が三角錐を途中で切って逆さにしたような格好にせり出した，不思議な形の建物である。我々はセッションの始まる 15 分前に到着した。ところが会場となった部屋の入り口には，昨日の報告論題と報告者に関する貼紙がそのまま貼ってある。受付の人に聞いてみたが，学会にはほとんど関心がないと見えて返答は要領を得なかった。「建物を間違えたのではないか？」と心配したが，開始の２―３分前に Jenny Corbett 先生および司会者が到着したのでほっとした。学会はそれからばたばたと始まった。

朝９時のセッションで，しかもテーマが労働市場分析に特化しているので，来場者は少ないのではないかと思われたが，意外にも 10 名を越える出席者がいた。その多くは ANU かまたは近くのキャンベラ大学の教員か大学院生であった。熱心な質問やコメントが相次ぎ，セッションが終わっても個別の議論は尽きない。会場の体裁や準備のしかたからは想像もできないような，中身の濃い学会であった。このとき報告した拙論は最終章のようである。

⑶　ANU での労働市場分析研究会

JSAA の翌日から２日間，学内で豪日労働市場研究会が開催された。

Jenny 先生が学会の直後に労働市場研究会を開催したことには目的があった。それは，20 年前の労働市場研究会の再現である。

今から 20 年前の 1986 年に ANU でオーストラリアと日本の労働市場の比較研究会

1）Burley Griffin は，キャンベラを設計したアメリカ人技師の名前であり，この人工湖の名前は彼の名にちなんでつけられている。

が開催された。そのときには両国あわせて 60 名近い研究者が集まって学会形式での研究報告を行い，活発な議論をたたかわせたそうである。参加者のリストを見ると著名な先生方のお名前も見える。1986 年当時のオーストラリアにおいては労働組合運動が盛んであり，労働組合が経済全体に与える効果を数量的に解明することや，将来の労使関係のあり方を考えることが重要な研究課題であった。また，当時は日本の失業率が低く，雇用が安定していたため，日本の雇用調整の柔軟性に学ぶということが，オーストラリアから見たもう一つの重要なテーマであった。このときの研究成果は，*Japanese and Australian labour markets: A comparative study* という本にまとめられている。

Jenny 先生は 20 年目にあたる 2007 年に同じような研究会を開催し，両国の労働市場とその変化を分析し，その成果を記録にとどめたいと考え，大阪大学国際公共政策研究科の松繁寿和教授に話を持ちかけたのである。松繁先生の尽力で 2006 年 4 月に労働政策研究・研修機構の研究プロジェクトが 10 名ほどのメンバーで発足した。8 名は国内で研究会を重ね，2007 年の 7 月にキャンベラで報告する運びとなったのである。キャンベラでは，私を含む 3 人が JSAA の一セッションの中で研究報告を行い，他の日本側メンバーが Jenny の開催した豪日労働市場研究会（Australia and Japanese labour markets compared: different roads to reform）で報告した。

日本側から参加し，JSAA かまたはそれに続く研究会で報告した人は，独立行政法人の労働政策研究・研修機構のメンバー 3 名と「日本とオーストラリアの労働市場研究」プロジェクトに参加している大学教員 5 名でオーストラリア側の報告者は 10 名。20 年前と比べると小規模である。労働経済学の目的や位置づけは，当時と今とでは大きく異なっている。両国で労働組合運動が衰退し，また日本では失業率が上昇してフリーター問題に見られるような労働力の非正規化が進み，それによって労働経済学の前提条件が揺らいでいる。また，日本の労働経済学研究の中心は少子化と女性の働き方に移り，労働市場の動態分析，とくに国際比較分析が注目されることはあまりない。国際比較研究を行う一流の研究者はいるにはいるが，必ずしもオーストラリアを視野に入れているわけではない。このような状況で，よくこれだけ労働市場研究者が集まったものだと評価できる。

研究会は経済のグローバライゼーションと労働市場，高齢化，格差，労働市場の柔軟性，豪日の労働市場改革の 5 つのテーマで構成され，それぞれのテーマについてオーストラリアの研究者と日本の研究者が報告した。そして，研究会は，報告者の報告に続いて討論者がコメントするという学会形式をとっていた。初日は午後から始まったが，二日目の 7 月 6 日の研究会は 9 時から始まり，12―13 時の昼食を除くと，18 時まで合計 8 時間も研究報告・討論が続いた。この研究会に参加して，本当に良い勉強になったと思う。

研究会のあと，暗くなった構内を歩いていたとき，我々は Possum という有袋類に属する小動物を見た。猫ほどの大きさで，毛はねずみ色，木登りに適した長い爪とふさふさした尻尾をもっている。顔はとがっていた。

ANU の構内にはこのほかにも多様な生き物たちが生息している。黒と白のマグパイ（Magpie）[2] もいれば，極彩色なインコもいる。自然環境に恵まれた大学を羨ましく思った。しかし，翌７日に我々はキャンベラをあとにした。まだ春学期は終わっていなかったので，急いで帰らなければならなかった。

報告論文

以下は，４日に JSAA の経済のセッションで報告した論文を若干加筆修正したものである。筆者はこの論文を加筆修正し，オーストラリア学会の学会誌に投稿する考えだが，以下の論文はまだどこにも掲載されたことがない。

１．Introduction

During the long-term economic stagnation that began in the 1990s, Japan' economic environment changed substantially, with development of tertiary industries, the intensification of the international competition, and advances in information technology. With these fundamental shifts in the socioeconomic background, work and working life in Japan has undergone significant changes, especially in terms of the growth of non-standard forms of employment and rising income inequalities.

There are several reasons for the increases in the number of non-regular employees. One of the demand-side factors is that the economic recession exerted downward pressures onto Japanese firms to reduce costs. Another factor is that firms had begun seeking greater flexibility in employment because they become aware of the fluctuations in the product market and the severe competitions in both domestic and international market.

The supply-side explanations for the casualisation in the Japanese labour market stress that increased female labour market participation rates led to increases in female non-regular employment. It has been pointed out that in Japan; married

2）しばしば「かささぎ」と訳されている。烏ほどの大きさの黒と白の肉食鳥で，賢く，気性が激しい。

women with young children tend to seek non-regular jobs as it is difficult for them to work as full-time regular employees.

It is possible that the composite effects of both the demand and supply side factors have caused the growth of non-standard forms of employment (or casualisation) in the Japanese labour market. While the reasons for casualisation are diverse, the results of this phenomenon seem to be simple; growth in low wage jobs decreases in household incomes, and income inequalities among working people. However, an investigation employing panel data reveals that the expansion of the non-regular workforce had more diverse aspects than what is has usually been believed. First, in the recession period, not only was there an increase in the proportion of non-regular employees to total employment, but also a fall in the degree of labour mobility from non-regular to regular jobs. Second, the wage incomes of non-regular employees did not uniformly deteriorate in the recession period; the earnings of non-regular employees in the older respondent group had not been so seriously affected by the recession as compared to those of younger respondents. The wage incomes for the latter underwent a substantial decline in the five-year period after the banking and financial crisis.

The following sections will be devoted to the panel data analysis with a focus on the changes in employment statuses and wage incomes of non-regular employees in period of the economic downturn period. Section 2 describes the characteristics of the data used in our research and section 3 provides the definitions for part-time employees in Japan which differ from that in Australia. Section 4 is devoted to the statistical analysis of the wage incomes of part-time workers in the recession period, and section 5 investigates into the mobility of employment status between regular and non-regular employees. Section 6 concludes the study.

2. The Data

The data used in this analysis is 'Japanese Panel Survey of Consumers[3)]' collected by the Institute for Research on Household Economics, a public corporation approved by the Prime Minister and established on 18 July 1986 with the Economic Planning Agency as its governing authority.

3）The author is grateful to the Institute for Research on Household Economics for releasing the data with a confidential agreement for this study.

The Japanese Panel Survey of Consumers (JPSC) shares the following features with the Household Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia (HILDA).

1) Like HILDA, it collects information about economic and subjective well-being, labour market dynamics and family dynamics.

2) The panel members are followed over time.

On the other hand, the JPSC has the following dissimilarities with HILDA.

1) The respondents are limited to women (Wave 1 respondents were women aged between 25 to 34 in 1993, where wave refers to the number of years over which a survey is conducted), although there are some questionnaires focused on their families' employment status, incomes, and well-beings.

2) Unlike HILDA, no interviews are conducted. Respondents send answer sheets to the Research Institute by postal services.

3) Importance is given to surveys on household expenditures.

The evolution of the JPSC survey samples are summarized in the following table[4].

Wave	Year	Cohort A	Cohort B	Events in Japan
1	1993	1500 entrants (Ages between 24 and 34 years)		
2	1994	1422 respondents		
3	1995	1342 respondents		
4	1996	1298 respondents		
5	1997	1255 respondents	500 new entrants (Ages between 24 and 27 years)	Financial crisis due to bad loan problem
6	1998	1196 respondents	442 respondents	Unemployment rate reached 4.3%
7	1999	1137 respondents	412 respondents	Unemployment rate reached 5.0%
8	2000	1102 respondents	386 respondents	
9	2001	1059 respondents	344 respondents	Structural reforms by PM Koizumi
10	2002	1032 respondents	323 respondents	

4) Wave 11 includes 836 new entrants (Cohort C). However, they are not considered in this paper.

The employment status for the JPSC respondents from Wave 1 through Wave 10 is as follows.

Regular employees	26.6%
Part-time employees	18.9%
Self-employed	7.4%
Temporary workers or other non-standard workers	2.2%
Unemployed	1.5%
Not Working	43.4%

The proportion of part-time employees to the total employment grew from 26.3% to 46.6% from Wave 1 to Wave 10. Reasons for this are mixed; part-time jobs are increasing all over Japan. Moreover, a large proportion of respondents moved from regular to part-time jobs after child births.

3. Part-time employees in the Japanese Panel Study of Consumers

3.1 Definitions

In Japan, there are mainly three definitions of part-time employees.

1）First, in the Labour Force Survey conducted by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications defines part-time workers are defined as those working less than 35 hours a week.

2）Secondly, part-time employees are defined as all employees considered part-time employees in Employment Status Survey by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications.

3）Third, the Survey of Employment Diversification by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare[5] defines part-time employees as those working fewer hours per day or fewer days a week than regular employees.

The definition of part-time employees in the JPSC is the same as that in the Employment Status Survey. In other words, part-time employees are those employees for whom in a particular workplace, the wage tables applied are quite different from those for regular employees.

In the JPSC, apart from regular employees and part-time employees, dispatched employees (temps) and others are identified. However, temps and other types of employees are excluded from the following analysis.

5）Definitions of the Japanese part-time workers are best described in Rebick (2005).

3.2 Part-time employees in Japan

In Japanese enterprises, the ports-of-entry for part-time employees are different from those for regular employees. Usually, regular employees are selected from among new graduates who are implicitly assumed to be in the office for years. Newly hired regular employees undergo a series of on-the-job training (OJT) in their workplaces to gain a wide range of skills (Koike and Inoki (2003)).

Unlike regular employees, part-time employees receive only limited formal training, as they are not expected to climb job ladders within the internal labour markets. Their careers reach a dead-end.

Doeringer and Piore (1971) presented a hypothetical model in which the labour market was divided into two parts, a primary market characterized by high wages, good working conditions, employment stability, and possibility of advancement and secondary market which tend to have low wages, poor working conditions, high turnover rates, and little chances of advancement. In Japan, this model seems to be useful in understanding the coexistence of regular and part-time employees' labour markets.

3.3 Part-time employees in Japan and casual employees in Australia

Classifying the JPSC-defined part-time employees according to entitlements for paid leave and hours of work per week reveals that the characteristics of the part-time employees are closer to those of Australian casual employees than to the Australian part-time employees. Among the 2934 female samples in the merged data from Wave1 through Wave 10 who identified themselves as part-timer employees,

13.5% worked more than 35 hours a week with paid leave,
17.9% worked more than 35 hours a week without paid leave,
19.3% worked less than 35 hours a week with paid leave, and
49.4% worked less than 35 hours a week without paid leave.

Thus, according to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) definition, about half of the part-time employees in Japan are part-time casual employees.

4. Previous analyses based on the JPSC

In the long-term period of stagnation following the collapse of the bubble economy, the proportion of non-standard employees to total employment exhibited an upward trend and at the same time, wage differentials among households became

significant. Since then, a number of research papers have been devoted to examine the effects of stagnation on labour market outcomes and wage distributions.

However, among the research papers based on the JPSC data, there have been relatively few analyses on the changes in individual employment status in the recession period as compared with the investigation of the relationship between female labour force participation and child births[6]. This is because the rapid decline of birth rates in the stagnant period attracted the attention of researchers more than the labour market outcomes. Among the few JPSC analyses that focused on the relationships between business cycles and female employment status are Higuchi (2003) and Abe (2006). Higuchi analysed the labour force status of the JPSC respondents and concluded that of the unmarried regular employees at the age of 25, the proportion of those who would remain in the labour market as regular employees at the age of 43 were only 20%. This was explained by the fact that household duties including child-bearing made it difficult for married women to continue regular employment and that job-leavers had difficulty re-entering the labour market as regular employees in the period of stagnation. Abe found that among the married respondents in the JPSC, Cohort C accounted for a higher proportion of part-time employees than Cohort B, which in turn accounted for a higher proportion of part-time employees than Cohort A. Abe compared the annual income distributions of the respondents and their spouses in the Cohort A, B, and C; the comparison revealed that the couples in Cohort C in the age bracket of 30 to 35 years had a significantly lower minimum, median, and maximum wage incomes as compared with Cohort A or Cohort B couples in the same age bracket. Such income differentials between different cohorts were brought about by the changes in the labour market in which the job openings for part-time employees increased and those for regular employees decreased.

The labour supply behaviour of married women has also been analysed by a number of researchers including Matuura and Shigeno (2003) (in Japanese). They found that in Japan, the limited supply of childcare services such as nurseries caused

6）Some have pointed out that it was difficult for married women to work as regular employees and that female regular employees tend to have fewer children than part-time employees and others led to the conclusion that for married women in Japan, the insufficient supply of childcare services hindered married women from simultaneously working as regular employees and from bringing up children.

a number of married women to involuntary become part-time employees.

５．Annual wage income distributions for part-time employees

Figure 1 shows the kernel density for the 2,798 merged samples from Wave 1 through Wave 10, the hourly wage rates for the part-time employees in Japan peaked at around 9 AUD as shown in Figure 1. The annual income distribution for part-time employees is entirely different from that for regular employees as shown in Figure 2.

６．Wage functions for part-time employees

In this section, part-time employees' wage incomes and the effects of the economic recession will be statistically analysed.

The previous analyses pointed out that the recession led to decreases in household incomes, particularly for the younger generation.

The younger generation of workers was faced with the economic recession soon after re-entering the business world. Thus, on the surface, it appears that the

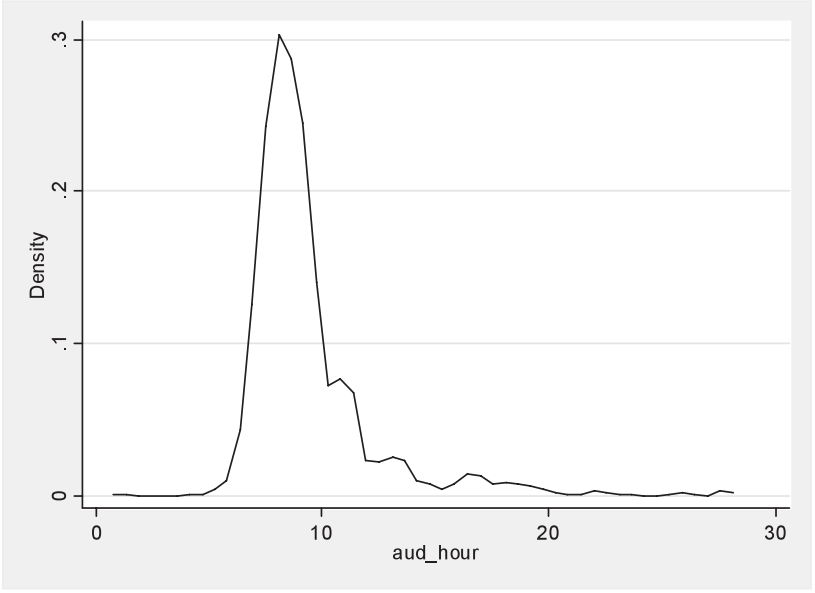

Figure 1　Kernel density function for hourly wages received by part-time employees

Source: Japanese Panel Survey of Consumers, From Wavel through Wave 10

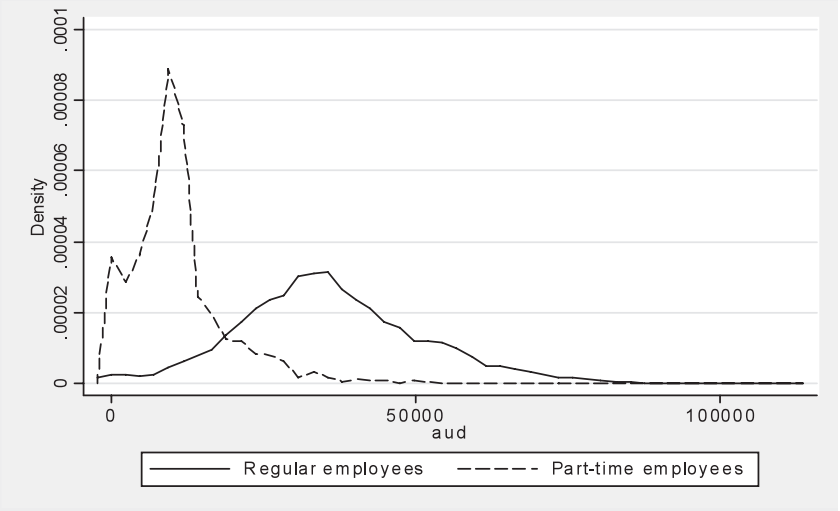

Figure 2　Annual wage incomes received by female regular and part-time employees

Source: Japanese Panel Survey of Consumers, From Wave 1 through Wave 10
Note: Outliers exceeding mean + 3* (standard deviation) are excluded.

younger generation was more affected by the recession than the older generation. However, it is unclear whether generation itself had significant negative influences on wage incomes. This section attempts, to separate the generation effects from the recession effects on the basis of a simple regression model.

The wage function to be estimated is presented in the following random effect generalized least squares model[7]. Alphabets 'i' and 't' denote individual IDs and waves, respectively.

(1)　$W_{it} = a + bX_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}$

(2)　$\varepsilon_{it} = a_{it} + v_{it}$

where $E(\varepsilon_{it}) = 0, \quad E(v^2_{it}) = V(v_{it}) = \sigma_v^2$

$E(v_{it}v_{js}) = Cov(v_{it}, v_{js}) = 0 \quad for\ i \neq j, \quad t \neq s$

The explanatory variables that constitute vector Xit are as follows (The descriptive statistics for these variables are provided in the Appendix).

Tenure[8] (in years)

Dummy variables for education (reference group: those with senior high school diplomas or lower)

7）Statistical tests support the validity of the random-effect generalized least squares method.

8）Tenure in this case means years of service within the same establishment.

Vocational school dummy (1 if the respondent's final education was acquired from a vocational school 0 otherwise)

Junior college dummy (1 if the respondent has a junior college diploma 0 otherwise)

Technical college dummy (1 if the respondent's final education was acquired from a technical college 0 otherwise)

Bachelor of Arts dummy (1 if the respondent has a BA or MA)

Dummy variables for years (reference year: the period from 1993 through 1997).

Year 1998 dummy, Year 1999 dummy, Year 2000 dummy, Year 2001 dummy, and Year 2002 dummy

The estimated wage incomes functions are provided in Table 2-1.

Table 2-1　Annual wage incomes for part-time employees in Cohort A and Cohort B
Dependent variable: annual wage income (in AUD[9])

	Cohort A			Cohort B		
	Estimated	z-value	P>!z!	Estimated	z-value	P>!z!
Tenure (in years)	341.630	4.56	0.0000	806.790	3.43	0.001
Education (reference: Senior high school or less)						
Vocational school	−1336.076	−0.86	0.3870	2627.424	0.94	0.347
Junior college	−126.235	−0.07	0.9440	2123.600	0.63	0.528
Technical college	2062.654	1.18	0.2360	5463.064	1.85	0.065
BA or more	8149.683	3.56	0.0000	6958.957	2.20	0.028
Year (reference: 1993-1997)						
Year 1998	700.506	1.47	0.1420	−1689.584	−1.85	0.065
Year 1999	931.892	1.92	0.0550	−1815.628	−1.80	0.071
Year 2000	1087.650	2.21	0.0270	−964.291	−0.87	0.387
Year 2001	1155.281	2.19	0.0290	−2693.236	−2.37	0.018
Year 2002	1253.876	2.38	0.0170	−1198.541	−0.97	0.334
Constant	9733.004	6.79	0.0000	9658.467	3.69	0.000
Wald χ^2	80.860			24.610		
Sample	1081			287		

Note: The Random-effects generalized least squares method is applied.
Samples with missing values are excluded.

Table 2 indicates that for part-time employees in Cohort A (aged between 25 and 34 years in 1993), tenure, BA, and the year 2000 dummy, year 2001 and year 2002 dummy had significant positive effects on annual wage incomes. On the other hand,

9）In this paper, 1 AUD is converted into 100 yen based on the Tokyo Market Exchange Rate of June 2007.

vocational school dummy, junior high dummy, technical college dummy, Year 1998 dummy exhibited no effects on wage incomes for them. The result that annual wage incomes for part-time employees in Cohort A had a slight increase during the downturn period could be worth mentioning.

Table 2, on the other hand, reports that for part-time employees in Cohort B (aged from 24 to 27 in 1997), tenure, technical college dummy and BA had significant positive effects on wage incomes. On the other hand, the year 1998, year 2001 and year 1999 dummy variables had significant negative effects on their wage incomes. It is possible that the equilibrium wages for young employees in Cohort B decreased in the deteriorating labour market conditions after the banking and financial crisis.

However, it is not appropriate to rush to the conclusion that generation (or year of birth) itself had any influences on the wage distributions. If we add 'year of birth'

Table 2-2 Annual wage incomes for 'part-time' employees (Cohort A and B combined) Dependent variable: annual wage income (in AUD[10])

	Estimated	z-value	P>!z!
Tenure (in years)	435.910	6.06	0.000
Year of birth	352.856	4.25	0.000
Education (reference: Senior high school or less)			
Vocational school	-106.915	-0.08	0.936
Junior college	478.638	0.31	0.760
Technical college	2907.136	1.98	0.048
BA or higher	6445.336	3.67	0.000
Year (reference: 1993-1997)			
Year 1998	101.893	0.24	0.809
Year 1999	340.936	0.78	0.436
Year 2000	676.601	1.49	0.135
Year 2001	323.780	0.68	0.499
Year 2002	741.251	1.52	0.129
Constant	3954.536	2.18	0.003
Wald χ^2	110.80		
σ_u	7452.416		
Sample	1368		

Note: The random-effects generalised least squares method is applied. Samples with missing values are excluded.

10) In this paper, 1 AUD is converted into 100 yen on the basis of the Tokyo Market Exchange Rate in June 2007.

into the explanatory variables in equation (1), then the regression outcomes are as shown in Table 2-2.

Table 2-2 demonstrates that year of birth itself had positive instead of negative effects on wage incomes. In other words, part-time employees in the younger generation tend to have higher wages than their older counterparts, other factors being equal. To sum up Tables 2-1 and 2-2, the younger generation experienced the declining tendency of wage incomes that was not true for the older generation, although the average wages in absolute values were higher for the former than for the latter.

Technical college diplomas and BAs had significant positive effects on wage incomes for part-time employees, while miscellaneous vocational schools and junior colleges did not.

7. Transitions from part-time to regular employment

Whether or not the casualisation in the Japanese labour market is a problem to be solved depends on the mobility between regular and non-regular employment status. This section is devoted to check if there was a possibility of upward mobility for part-time employees in the recession period.

Table 3 compares the transitions in employment status among the respondents for the two periods—from 1993-1998 and 1997-2002.

From Table 3, we observe the following.

1) The probability of part-time employees becoming regular employees was lower in the period from 1997 to 2002 than in the period 1993-1998.

2) The probability of part-time employees being out of the labour force in five years was, on the other hand, higher in the period from 1997-2002 than in the period 1993-1998.

3) For those out of the labour force, it had gradually become difficult to find regular jobs from 1993 through 2002.

4) The transition from part-time employment to regular employment was observed in 2% of the total number of respondents in each of the two five-year periods—from 1993 to 1998 and from 1997 to 2002. In other words, the incidence of upward mobility from part-time to regular employees is rare as compared with complete mobility in terms of employment status.

Table 3　Five-year mobility in employment status

		wave 1/wave 6		wave 5/wave 10	
previou	current	sample	proportion to 1356 respondents	sample	proportion to 1068 respondents
regular	regular	279	0.2058	225	0.2107
	'part-time'	40	0.0295	29	0.0272
	other types	9	0.0066	3	0.0028
	self-employed	11	0.0081	11	0.0103
	not working	85	0.0627	71	0.0665
	NA	0	0.0000	1	0.0009
'part-time'	regular	33	0.0243	20	0.0187
	'part-time'	164	0.1209	104	0.0974
	other types	8	0.0059	4	0.0037
	self-employed	13	0.0096	8	0.0075
	not working	53	0.0391	50	0.0468
	NA	3	0.0022	1	0.0009
other types	regular	11	0.0081	4	0.0037
	'part-time'	9	0.0066	5	0.0047
	other types	8	0.0059	7	0.0066
	self-employed	0	0.0000	2	0.0019
	not working	8	0.0059	5	0.0047
	NA	1	0.0007	1	0.0009
self-employed	regular	6	0.0044	3	0.0028
	'part-time'	6	0.0044	6	0.0056
	other types	2	0.0015	0	0.0000
	self-employed	58	0.0428	44	0.0412
	not working	5	0.0037	13	0.0122
	NA	9	0.0066	0	0.0000
Not working	regular	23	0.0170	15	0.0140
	'part-time'	131	0.0966	123	0.1152
	other types	15	0.0111	9	0.0084
	self-employed	17	0.0125	13	0.0122
	not working	330	0.2434	279	0.2612
	NA	19	0.0140	12	0.0112
	Total	1356	1.0000	1068	1.0000

Note: Samples with missing values with respect to employment status and non-responding samples are excluded

Source: Japanese Panel Study on Consumers, Combined Wave 1 and Wave 6 and Combined Wave 5 and Wave 10

８．Employment policies and their effects on the five-year mobility in employment status

This paper analysed changes in employment status and wage incomes for part-time employees in the recessionary period in Japan. The regression analysis revealed that part-time employees in younger cohorts had higher wages but had been more severely affected by the recession than were older cohorts. The reason why younger 'part-time' employees were vulnerable to market wage reductions is a topic for further research.

The fact that respondents with technical college diplomas have higher wages than senior high school graduates suggests that it is worthwhile to support part-time employees who are studying at technical colleges while working

The probabilities of part-time employees finding regular jobs were found to be limited. However, the possibility was not nil even in the recession period. Another topic for further research is to find the factors that promote the transition from part-

Appendix　Descriptive statistics for the variables used in the regression

	Cohort A	Cohort B
Annual income (in AUD)	11172.9	13282.93
Tenure (in years)	2.9	2.1
Education		
Senior high school or less	0.086	0.085
Vocational school	0.586	0.456
Junior high	0.123	0.115
Technical college	0.162	0.222
BA or higher	0.043	0.122
Year		
Year 1993-1997	0.472	0.253
Year 1998	0.098	0.192
Year 1999	0.103	0.161
Year 2000	0.110	0.129
Year 2001	0.100	0.136
Year 2002	0.117	0.129
Sample	1081	287

Samples with missing values are excluded.

time to regular employment.

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