

Chapter 11: Employment

Summary

Between 1995-97 and 2006-08, a steady growth in the number of jobs raised the percentage of women and of Black people of working-age in employment by twice the average, and the percentage of Bangladeshi and Pakistani people of working-age in employment by three times the average.¹ However, some groups with low employment rates have done badly over the long-term, especially those pushed to the margins of the labour market. For example the employment rate for disabled men without qualifications halved between the mid-1970s and early 2000s. Calls to the Equality and Human Rights Commission's helpline also indicate that employment issues are significant for disabled people with over half of the calls in 2008-09 related to employment issues coming from this group.²

Despite some growth in their employment rates, only 1 in 4 Muslim women work, and many face practical barriers preventing them from doing so. Moreover, Black people and disabled people in their early 20s are twice as likely to be not in employment, education or training (NEET) as White people and non-disabled people. Young Muslims are also more likely than Christians to spend periods out of the labour market. Overall, a more demanding job market is less forgiving of those without qualifications.

Many barriers within employment are breaking down, with for example, a growing proportion of managerial and professional positions taken by women. However, the British labour market continues to be characterised by a high level of occupational segregation. Around 25% of Pakistani men are primarily taxi drivers; women make up 83% of people employed in personal services; and over 40% of female jobs compared to 15% of male jobs are in the public sector, making women particularly vulnerable to public sector cuts.

Occupational segregation continues to feed pay differences, especially in the private and voluntary sectors where at age 40 men are earning on average 27% more than women. The large proportion of women in part-time jobs also contributes to this. Occupational segregation also explains differences in illness and injury rates in the workplace, with people in manual and routine occupations being most at risk.

¹ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. *An Anatomy of Economic Inequality in the UK*. Report of the National Equality Panel. London: Government Equalities Office. Tables 10.3 and 10.4. See discussion on page 272 for limitations in robustness of comparison between the two periods.

² Calls received by the Equality and Human Rights Commission's helpline 2008-09.

There are few large-scale data on the labour market experiences of lesbian, gay and bisexual (LGB) people. However, we do know that LGB adults are around twice as likely to report experiencing unfair treatment, discrimination, bullying or harassment at work than other employees. This is also mirrored in the nature of the queries received by received by the Equality and Human Rights Commission's helpline, many of which relate to harassment in the workplace for this group.³ There are even less data available for transgender people, though smaller-scale studies point towards evidence of harassment and other forms of discrimination in the workplace.

Introduction

Most workers need a job because it enables them to support themselves and their families. For many, it is also more than that. Work may be a source of pride, help them make new social contacts, or give them a sense of purpose and meaning.

Over the past decade, government initiatives have sought to enable people from traditionally under-represented groups to play a part in the workplace. Measures such as the right to request flexible working were designed, in part, to help carers (predominantly women) combine paid work with other responsibilities; Government sought to work with business, through such initiatives as the Ethnic Minority Employment Taskforce, to make the business case for inclusive employment practices, including in relation to recruitment and promotion; and new laws outlawed unfair discrimination against workers on the basis of their age, religion or belief, and sexual orientation.

The available evidence from such sources as the British Social Attitudes survey suggest that the majority of us are relaxed about dealing with people from different backgrounds at work, and a growing number of firms recognise that a concern for diversity in their workforce is in their best interests.⁴

Despite this government action, changes in attitudes, and some progress in the employment prospects of some groups, there remained at the start of 2008 significant disparities and inequalities in different groups' experience of work. Then, during 2008, the country entered the sharpest recession for several decades. The recession has already affected different groups of people in different ways. Men have been more adversely affected than women and young people more than older people. Further consequences of the recession and the Government's reaction to it (including a likely reduction in public sector employment) will make themselves felt in the coming years. It is likely that these, too, will affect different groups' experience of work in different ways.

³ Calls received by the Equality and Human Rights Commission's helpline 2008-09.

⁴ For more information see Part III of this report.

This chapter looks at five indicators that relate to people's experiences of work, their chances of getting a job and getting on in a job:

Indicators

1. **Employment**
2. **Pay gaps**
3. **Occupational segregation**
4. **Illness and injury at work**
5. **Discrimination in employment**

Under **employment** we use two specific measures: the percentage of the working-age population who are employed, or self-employed, and the percentage of 16-24-year-olds who are NEET.

For **pay gaps**, we look at the median hourly pay of employees (excluding unpaid overtime).

Occupational segregation means the fact that different groups of people tend to do different kinds of jobs. We use two specific measures to look at this. The first is 'vertical' segregation, which shows the proportion of people in different levels of seniority and types of occupation. The second measure is 'horizontal' segregation, which shows the proportions of the workforce who are drawn from a particular group in different sectors (for example, the numbers of men and women who work in engineering).

Under **illness and injury at work**, we give the weighted average prevalence of work-related illness and injury per 100,000 employed based on occupation.

For **discrimination in employment** we look at the percentage of workers who report experiencing unfair treatment, discrimination, bullying or harassment at work.

As in the rest of Part II, this chapter explores what we know about these indicators and what the evidence tells us about the experiences of different groups.

11.1 What we know about employment

Measures:

Working-age population in paid employment – percentage of working age population employed or self-employed

NEET rate – percentage of 16-24-year-olds not in employment, education or training (NEET)

How these measures work:

Working-age population in paid employment

The 2006-08 Labour Force Survey covers the employment rate in England, Scotland and Wales.

The employment rate is a widely used indicator of basic access to the labour market. The employment rate is used here rather than economic activity or inactivity rates as economic inactivity encompasses a diverse range of situations including some positive (being in full-time education for example) and some negative (being unemployed). However, occasionally data on economic activity and inactivity are used to highlight particularly large differences between groups.⁵ The working-age population is defined as age 16-64 for men, and 16-59 for women.

Data are available for gender, age, socio-economic group, disability, ethnicity and religion or belief. Due to small sample sizes, there are limited data for ethnic minority and religious groups in Scotland and Wales. Sexual orientation data are limited to 'same-sex couple' data collected by the Labour Force Survey. This is a very small sample (0.6% of the working-age population report living in a same-sex couple) and does not reflect the experiences of gay men and lesbian women overall. We are drawing on general literature for transgender people; results are indicative only of possible issues facing this group as sample sizes are small.

NEET rate

We are able to report on England, Scotland and Wales for this measure. NEET data are available for England from the 2006-08 Labour Force Survey and the 2008 *Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England*. NEET data are available for Scotland from the Annual Population Survey 2009 and for Wales from the Annual Population Survey 2009. These sources have been used as they provide the best comparable data between the three nations.

⁵ For further discussion of the definition of employment rate and the choice of indicator please see Alkire, S. *et al.* 2009. *Developing the Equality Measurement Framework: Selecting the Indicators*. Research Report 31. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Pages 284-285.

The NEET figures taken from the 2009 Labour Force Survey for different groups in England include those in each age group who are either unemployed or inactive. Publically available Labour Force Surveys no longer contain information that allows identification of academic age. Consequently, the figures presented by age are not suitable for determining education participation rates that relate to schooling years and are not therefore comparable with NEET status at age 16-18 years. The same data limitations apply to all groups however, therefore cross group comparisons can be made and are indicative of differences among distinct sub-groups.

In England, data can be disaggregated by gender, age, disability, ethnicity and religion. However, the sample sizes in this analysis are small for some groups. Where this is the case results are described as indicative rather than conclusive. In Scotland and Wales, data can only be disaggregated by gender and age.

There are no data available for sexual orientation or transgender groups. As there is very limited related literature for this measure for these groups, they are not covered in this section.

Overview

Job chances for some groups improved during the long period of economic growth. The period 1995 to 2008 saw the proportion of the adult population who were employed full-time, part-time or self-employed rise from 71% in 1995-97 to 74% in 2006-08.⁶ The rise was faster for some groups. For example, the proportion of women of working-age who were employed rose by 3 percentage points (from 67% to 70%): the increase was 4 percentage points for Black Caribbean people (63% to 67%).⁷

But some groups remain at the margins of the labour market. The rates for Pakistani and Bangladeshi people each rose considerably (37% to 46% for Pakistani people and 32% to 42% for Bangladeshi people). However, much of the rise for these two groups was due to an increase in the numbers taking part-time work. Also, even after the sharp increase in their employment rates these groups remain considerably less likely to be employed than the White British population.⁸

⁶ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Table 10.3, page 272. Data are for the adult working-age population.

⁷ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. See discussion on page 272 for limitations in robustness of comparison between the two periods.

⁸ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. See discussion on page 272 for limitations in robustness of comparison between the two periods.

The recession hit some groups harder than others. Since 2008, the employment rate has dipped sharply, but more so for men than for women. The overall result is that the gender gap in the employment rate has almost halved since the mid 1990s, from 10 percentage points to 6.⁹ This trend will not necessarily be reversed by the recession. However, as seen by the current high levels of youth unemployment, groups at the margins of the labour market are likely to remain highly vulnerable, especially those without qualifications.

Certain inequalities remain persistent. Disabled people continue to face barriers to employment, illustrated by their low employment rate. Similarly, mothers of children under the age of 16 are four times more likely than fathers to be economically inactive: being a parent exacerbates the gender gap.

People over 50 who have lost their jobs remain out of work for longer than average: however, older people's employment rates rose faster than any other rates in the past decade, and so far have fallen by less in the recession. Older people have increasingly been using flexible patterns of work, and this could be helping to protect the overall proportion of them employed in the present downturn.

Some groups are more susceptible to being NEET than others.

Circumstances such as geography, age, disability and ethnicity can mean that there is a greater likelihood of being out of work and in training for some groups than others. Research suggests that people's initial experience of the employment market has a strong effect on future career prospects.¹⁰

⁹ These figures use January to March for each year, in order to capture what happened up to early 2010.

¹⁰ Schroeder, A., Miles, A., Savage, M., Halford, S. and Tampubolon, T. 2008. *Mobility, careers and inequalities. A study of work-life mobility and the returns from education*. Research Report 8. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission.

What we know about the overall situation and trends

Working-age population in paid employment

The overall employment rate in the UK (full-time, self-employed and part-time) grew by 3% from 71% to 74% between 1995 and 2008. However, as the recession hit in 2008, it began to decline.¹¹ The overall working-age employment rate is currently at 71%.¹²

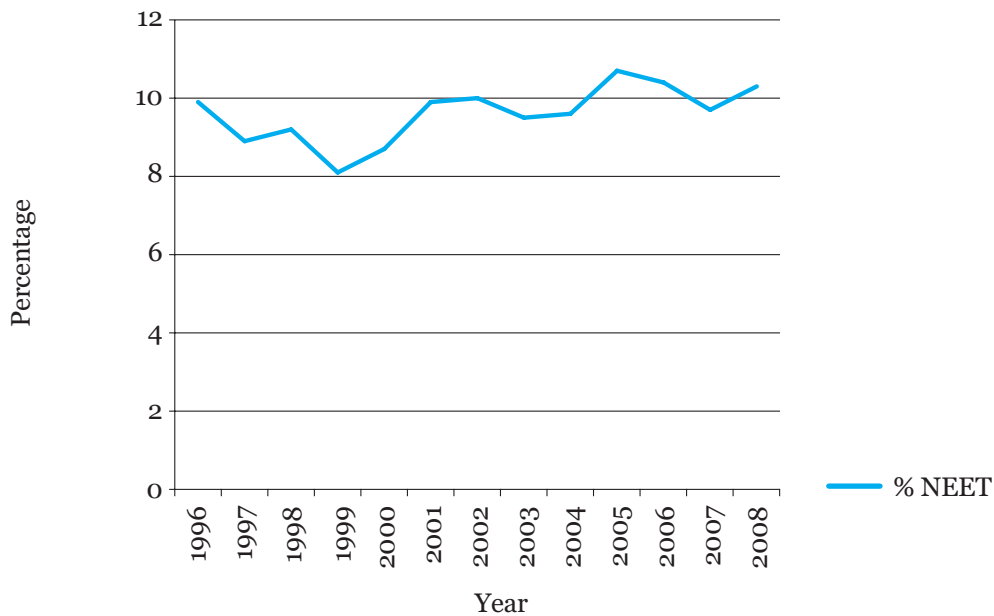
In 2006-08, a higher proportion of men of working-age were employed full-time in Scotland (52%) than in England (49%) or Wales (47%). The proportion of men who were self-employed was slightly higher in England than in Scotland or Wales.¹³

In terms of overall employment rate, the UK compares favourably to other European Union (EU) countries. The employment rate among the EU's population aged 15 to 64 was 65% in 2009.¹⁴ Employment rates above 70% were achieved in six Member States (Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, Austria, Finland, and Germany). Cyprus and the UK are just below with 69.9%. In contrast, employment rates below 60% were recorded in Romania, Italy, Hungary, Poland and Malta.¹⁵

NEET rate

Over a period of 12 years, between 1996 and 2008, the proportion of NEETs aged 16-18 varied by just 2.5 percentage points in England, ending much as it had begun at around 10% as illustrated in Figure 11.1.1 below.

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- ¹¹ Equality and Human Rights Commission and Government Equality Office 2009. *Monitoring update on the impact of the recession on various demographic groups*. December 2009.
- ¹² Office for National Statistics. Labour Market Statistics. Employment rate. It corresponds to the employment rate for the three months to July 2010. Available at: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/cci/nugget.asp?id=12>
- ¹³ National Equality Panel analysis of the Labour Force Survey (2006-08). Available at: http://www.equalities.gov.uk/national_equality_panel/publications/charts_and_statistical_annex/statistical_annex/employment.aspx
- ¹⁴ The employment rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons aged 15 to 64 in employment by the total population of the same age group. The indicator is based on the EU Labour Force Survey. The survey covers the entire population living in private households and excludes those in collective households such as boarding houses, halls of residence and hospitals. The employed population consists of those persons who during the reference week did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour, or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent.
- ¹⁵ Eurostat Employment rate by gender 2010. Available at: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsiem010> Accessed 23/07/2010.

Figure 11.1.1 Percentage of 16-18-year-olds NEET in England, 1996-2008¹⁶

Source: Labour Force Survey and Client Caseload Information System SFR series data.

A similar proportion of people were NEET across the three countries in 2008: 10% of 16-18-year-olds England,¹⁷ 12% of 16-18-year-olds in Wales¹⁸ and 13% of 16-19-year-olds in Scotland.¹⁹

¹⁶ Department for Children, Schools and Families (DCSF) 2009. *NEET Statistics – Quarterly Brief*. Available at: <http://www.dcsf.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/STR/d000870/NEETQuarterlyBriefQ22009.pdf> Accessed 06/08/2010.

¹⁷ Department for Education 2010. *NEET Statistics - Quarterly Brief. May 2010*. Available at: <http://www.dcsf.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/STR/d000924/NEETQ12010final.pdf> Accessed 19/08/2010.

¹⁸ Welsh Assembly Government 2010. *Young people not in education, employment or training (NEET) (Year to 31 December 2009)*. Statistical Bulletin 59/2010. Available at: <http://wales.gov.uk/docs/statistics/2010/100728sb592010en.pdf> Accessed 19/08/2010.

¹⁹ Scottish Government 2010a. *Local Area Labour Markets in Scotland: Statistics from the Annual Population Survey 2009*. Available at: <http://www.scotland.gov.uk/Publications/2010/07/29103916/19> Accessed 19/08/2010.

Within England, a regional picture on NEET young people is available from the Connexions Client Caseload Information System.²⁰ The data show some regional variation. Young people living in the North East are most likely to be NEET (10%) with those living in the East Midlands, South West and South East almost half as likely (5%, 6% and 6% respectively).²¹ In England, the most significant risk factor in being NEET at 17 is low GCSE outcomes. In 2008, over a third (37%) of young people with no qualifications were NEET at 17, compared to 2% of those with 8 GCSEs at grades A*-C.²²

An international analysis in 2007 looking at the 23 richest countries found that the UK has one of the highest percentages of NEET young people. The only countries with higher rates of NEETs were France, Italy, Austria and Finland.²³

What we know about the situation for different groups

Gender

Working-age population in paid employment

Gendered patterns in employment rates are broadly the same across all three nations: women of all ages are significantly more likely to be in part-time employment than men and less likely to be self-employed (see Table 11.1.1 below).

²⁰ The regional picture on NEET is taken from Connexions' Client Caseload Information System (CCIS), so is not directly comparable with other series presented here. Connexions data shows a lower percentage NEET than either the SFR or LFS, as there are a number of differences in the definitions used. For example, it is based on calendar age and young people taking a formal gap year or in custody are not counted as NEET in this regional data. See Department for Education 2010.

²¹ Smeaton, D., Hudson, M., Radu, D. and Vowden, K. 2010. *The EHRC Triennial Review: Developing the Employment Evidence Base*. Policy Studies Institute. This paper is available on the Equality and Human Rights Commission's Triennial Review web pages. See Table 1.1, page 10, for full regional breakdown.

²² DCSF 2009. *Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England: The Activities and Experiences of 17 year olds: England 2008*. Statistical Bulletin B01/2009. Available at: http://www.dcsf.gov.uk/rsgateway/DB/SBU/b000850/Bull01_2009textvfinal.pdf Accessed 19/08/2010. Page 31.

²³ UNICEF 2007. *Child poverty in perspective: an overview of child well-being in rich countries*. Available at: http://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/rc7_eng.pdf Accessed 19/08/2010. Page 20.

This follows a similar trend in the EU where, overall, just under a third (32%) of women employed worked part-time in 2009, a much higher proportion than men at only 8%. Women in the UK are more likely than the average to work part-time with a rate of 43%, a similar proportion to Sweden, Norway and Austria, significantly lower than the 76% of all women employed in the Netherlands who worked on a part-time basis in 2009.²⁴

Table 11.1.1 Employment status by gender and nation, 2006/08²⁵

	Men overall (GB)	Men England	Men Scotland	Men Wales	Women overall	Women England	Women Scotland	Women Wales
Full-time employment rate	59	59	62	56	39	39	42	38
Part-time employment rate	6	6	6	5	26	26	26	26
Self-employment rate	14	14	11	13	5	5	5	4

Source: Labour Force Survey 2006-08.

Note: Data refer to working-age population (men 16-64, women 16-59).

Between 1995-97 and 2006-08, the rise in full-time paid work (excluding self-employment) was greater for women, where it tended to replace inactivity, than it was for men, where it tended to replace unemployment.²⁶ The fastest rise in full-time paid work was for women aged 50-54 (31% to 42%) and for men aged 55-59 (47% to 53%).²⁷

²⁴ Eurostat. 'Persons employed part-time'. 2010 Available at: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tps00159> Accessed 23/07/2010.

²⁵ National Equality Panel analysis of the Labour Force Survey (LFS) (2006-08).

²⁶ National Equality Panel analysis comparing LFS data on employment status 1995-97 and 2006-08.

²⁷ National Equality Panel analysis comparing LFS data on employment status 1995-97 and 2006-08.

Table 11.1.2 Employment status by age and gender in Britain, 2006/08²⁸

	Men overall (GB)												
	16-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70+	
Full-time employment rate	59	20	56	73	73	71	70	67	64	53	33	5	1
Part-time employment rate	6	20	11	4	3	3	2	3	3	5	8	8	2
Self-employment rate	14	1	5	9	13	16	17	18	18	17	16	8	2
	Women overall (GB)												
	16-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70+	
Full-time employment rate	39	14	45	53	42	36	39	44	42	31	10	2	0
Part-time employment rate	26	30	18	17	25	30	31	29	27	26	19	8	1
Self-employment rate	5	0	2	3	5	6	7	7	7	6	4	2	1

Source: Labour Force Survey 2006-08.

Note: Table refers to working-age population (men 16-64, women 16-59).

As Table 11.1.2 above shows, employment rates differ with age as does the gap between employment rates for men and women. More than 80% of men of working-age are in employment from their late 20s to their early 50s. The proportion who are in employment declines sharply after the age of 60. Women are much less likely than men to be employed full-time or self-employed in their early 30s (due to caring responsibilities), and if they return to work are more likely to take and remain in part-time employment.

²⁸ National Equality Panel Analysis of the Labour Force Survey 2006-08.

Table 11.1.3 Employment status by gender and children aged 0-16 in Britain, 2009²⁹

	Employed	Self-employed	Inactive	Number
All	65	10	16	82,859
Men	65	13	11	41,929
Women	66	6	20	40,930
All with children 0-16	64	10	17	33,311
Men	69	16	6	14,570
Women	59	6	26	18,741
All without children 0-16	66	9	15	49,548
Men	63	12	14	27,359
Women	71	5	15	22,189

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Employment rates are lower, particularly for women, for those with children. As Table 11.1.3 above shows, women with children under the age of 16 are over 4 times as likely as men with children up to the age of 16 to be inactive (26% compared with 6%). The figures for men and women without children under the age of 16 show no significant difference in the rate of inactivity.³⁰ Women aged 25-34 are also much more likely to be inactive due to looking after the family or home (70% of women gave this reason compared to 10% of men in the same age group), and men are more likely to be inactive due to disability or long-term sickness.³¹

This trend seems to hold true across Europe. The European Commission analysis of the European Labour Force Survey, in 2008, found that the employment rate for women aged 25-49 with children under 12 was 67%, compared to 79% for those without children under 12. On the other hand, it found that men with children under 12 had a significantly higher employment rate than those without – 92% compared to 85%.³² However in some countries the impact of parenthood on female employment was more significant than in others – in the UK, Estonia and Malta, parenthood had one of the highest impacts in 2008 at a rate of more than 15%. In contrast, the impact of parenthood on the female employment rate was limited (less than 5%) in Belgium, Portugal and Slovenia and even slightly

²⁹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.2a. Page 33.

³⁰ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.2a. Page 33.

³¹ Leaker, D. 2009. 'Economic inactivity', *Economic and Labour Market Review*, 3, 2: 42-46. Table 1. Available at: http://www.statistics.gov.uk/elmr/02_09/downloads/ELMR_Feb09_Leaker2.pdf. Accessed 24/09/2010.

³² European Commission 2010a. *Report on equality between women and men 2010*. Available at: <http://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=4613&langId=en> Accessed 24/08/2010. Page 16.

positive in Denmark (women with children having a higher employment rate than women without).³³

NEET rate

The patterns of NEET by gender are similar in England and Wales with younger men (16-18) slightly more likely than younger women to be NEET, and this gender pattern reversing after the age of 22.³⁴ This pattern may be due to caring responsibilities (see Box 11.1.1 below). In Scotland, there is generally a higher proportion of 16-19 year-old NEET men than women.³⁵

Box 11.1.1 Related issue: Barriers to education, employment and training

In the *Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England 2009* young people who were NEET at age 17 were asked to state the reasons why they found it difficult to get a job or a place on a course or in training; their responses show significant differences by gender.³⁶

Female respondents who were NEET at age 17 cited the following reasons as the top three barriers to employment, education or training:

- 'have my own children/pregnant' (30%)
- 'lack of qualifications/academic ability' (23%)
- 'lack of experience' (17%)

Whilst the top three reasons that male respondents who were NEET at age 17 cited as barriers to education, employment or training were:

- 'lack of qualifications/academic ability' (25%)
- 'lack of experience' (16%)
- 'immigrants taking jobs' (11%)

The Connexions' Client Caseload Information System data can also be used to build up a picture of what the NEET group looks like. It can be divided into three categories:

³³ European Commission 2010a. Page 16.

³⁴ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. For more details see Table 1.3, page 14.

³⁵ Scottish Government 2010a.

³⁶ DCSF 2009. Page 31.

Box 11.1.1 Continued

Category 1 (Out of Scope): Young people who are doing some activity which is not formally counted as education, employment or training. This includes gap year students and those undertaking voluntary work. It also includes those in custody.

Category 2 (Identifiable Barrier): Young people who have an identifiable barrier to participation, as they have a child or are experiencing serious illness or disability. Some of these individuals may be perfectly able to participate now, but others may require specific help to do so.

Category 3 (No Identifiable Barrier): Young people who are NEET but are not in either of the specific categories outlined above.

An analysis of these categories shows that 55% of the 16-18 NEET group in England are in the 'No Identifiable Barrier' category. However, 68% of 16-18-year-old men who are NEET have no identified barrier to participation, while only 38% of women who are NEET fall into this category. Young men who are NEET are much less likely to have an identified barrier to participation (9%) than young women (42%).³⁷

Age***Working-age population in paid employment***

Although the over 50s have the lowest employment rate for any age group, once unemployed, they remain unemployed for the longest period of time.³⁸ This may be to do with age, or factors that are particular to this generation. However, overall this group has seen a rise in employment rates in recent years – the labour market participation rates of older workers have been improving since 2000. Nevertheless, by 2007 a third of men aged 55-64 and around a third of women 55-59 were unemployed, inactive or retired.³⁹

A survey of 1,494 people aged 50-75 found indicative evidence that amongst those who were unemployed or inactive under the State Pension Age, those stating that they definitely wanted a job declined with age. Base numbers were small, but for both men and women, the proportion stating that they definitely wanted a job was higher for those aged 50-54 than for those aged 55-59 (and higher for men, for those aged 55-59 than 60-64).⁴⁰

³⁷ Department for Education 2010.

³⁸ Smeaton, D. and Vegeris, S. 2009a. *Older people inside and outside the labour market: A review*. Research Report 22. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Page 15.

³⁹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 100.

⁴⁰ Smeaton, D, Vegeris, S. and Sahin-Dikmen, M. 2009b. *Older workers: employment preferences, barriers and solutions*. Research Report 43. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Page 52.

The use of flexible working among older people is fairly widespread and an important factor in enabling people to remain in paid employment. Unemployment among the over 50s is primarily due to poor health, but also, predominantly for women, because of caring responsibilities. Among the unemployed who want to work, 37% of men and 50% of women state that they need flexitime or other flexible arrangements to enable their transition back into work.⁴¹

NEET rate

See discussion under gender for details about age. By the time people are 22-24 years old, the incidence of NEET reduces for men (compared to those in younger age groups) and rises for women.⁴²

Socio-economic groups NEET rate

According to the Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England (2008), young people whose parents were in lower supervisory occupations, followed by those whose parents were in intermediate and routine occupations, were most likely to have already started work or enrolled in Government Supported Training. Those whose parents were in professional occupations were most likely to have stayed in full-time education and were least likely to have become NEET: only 3% were NEET compared with 18% whose parents' occupations were 'Other or not classified.'

Table 11.1.4 Main activity of 17-year-olds by parental occupation in England, 2008⁴³

Parental Occupation	Full-time education %	Job with training %	Job without training %	Government supported training %	NEET %	Weighted base
Higher professional	78	6	7	5	3	1,138
Lower professional	73	8	9	6	3	6,236
Intermediate	61	10	14	9	6	3,118
Lower supervisory	50	13	17	12	9	1,357
Routine	50	10	17	9	14	2,811
Other/not classified	57	7	11	7	18	1,957

Source: *Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England: The Activities and Experiences of 17-year-olds: England 2008.*

⁴¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2009a. Page 110.

⁴² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 1.3, page 14.

⁴³ DCSF 2009. Table 5.1.1, page 30.

Young people whose parents have a degree were most likely to have stayed in full-time education and were least likely to have become NEET. Only 3% were NEET compared with 15% whose parents' education was below A-level/not sure as illustrated in Table 11.1.5 below.

Table 11.1.5 Main activity of 17-year-olds by parental education in England, 2008⁴⁴

Parental Occupation	Full-time education %	Job with training %	Job without training %	Government supported training %	NEET %	Weighted base
Degree	83	5	5	4	3	3,595
At least 1 A-level	66	10	11	8	5	3,545
Below A-level/ Not sure	65	10	15	8	11	9,476

Source: *Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England: The Activities and Experiences of 17-year-olds: England 2008*.

Eligibility for free schools meals seems to have an association with NEET status. 17% of NEETs in 2008 were entitled to free school meals compared to 7% who were not NEET.

Table 11.1.6 Main activity of 17-year-olds that were entitled to Free School Meals in year 11 in England, 2008⁴⁵

Free School Meal (Year 11)	Full-time education %	Job with training %	Job without training %	Government supported training %	NEET %	Weighted base
No	63	10	13	8	7	13,432
Yes	57	7	11	7	17	1,922

Source: *Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England: The Activities and Experiences of 17-year-olds: England 2008*.

⁴⁴ DCSF 2009. Table 5.1.1, page 30.

⁴⁵ DCSF 2009. Table 5.1.1, page 30.

Finally, those who persistently truant from school are more likely to be NEET: 28% of those who are NEET at 17 were categorised as persistent truants in Year 11 compared to 5% who had never truanted.⁴⁶

Table 11.1.7 Main activity of 17-year-olds by levels of truancy in year 11 in England, 2008⁴⁷

Levels of truancy in year 11	Full-time education %	Job with training %	Job without training %	Government supported training %	NEET %	Weighted base
Persistent truancy	29	14	19	11	28	625
Occasional truancy	52	12	17	9	10	4,247
No truancy	71	8	10	6	5	10,997

Source: *Youth Cohort Study and Longitudinal Study of Young People in England: The Activities and Experiences of 17 year olds: England 2008*.

Disability

Working-age population in paid employment

Across Britain, the employment rates of disabled adults are very low with only around 50% employed compared to 79% of non-disabled adults (a difference of nearly 30% in employment rates). The employment rate for those with no qualifications is particularly low: between 1974-76 and 2001-03 the employment rate for men with limiting longstanding illness (used as a proxy for disability) with no qualifications halved.⁴⁸ Overall, disability affects work status more than gender or lone parenthood.⁴⁹

As Table 11.1.8 below shows, disabled people continue to experience low employment rates within each nation, but are significantly less likely to be in employment in Wales than in England or Scotland. Employment rates for disabled people are highest in the South East of England. There appears to be an inverse relationship between the proportion of the population categorised as disabled and the proportion of disabled people in employment, so that regions with a high proportion of disabled people tend to have low disability employment rates.⁵⁰

⁴⁶ DCSF 2009. Table 5.1.1, page 30.

⁴⁷ DCSF 2009. Table 5.1.1, page 30.

⁴⁸ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 272.

⁴⁹ The Poverty Site 2010. Available at www.poverty.org.uk/45/c.pdf. Accessed 23/09/2010.

⁵⁰ Riddell, S. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.1, page 8.

Table 11.1.8 Employment rates of working-age disabled and non-disabled people in Britain, 2008/09⁵¹

Country/Region	Employment rate for non-disabled people	Percentage of the population that is not disabled	Employment rate for disabled people	Percentage of the population that is disabled
Britain	79	82	50	18
England	78	82	51	18
East	81	82	57	17
East Midlands	80	81	56	19
London	73	85	45	15
North East	77	78	45	22
North West	77	80	44	20
South East	82	84	60	16
South West	82	81	55	18
West Midlands	76	81	47	19
Yorkshire and Humber	77	81	50	20
Scotland	82	81	47	19
Wales	77	78	40	22

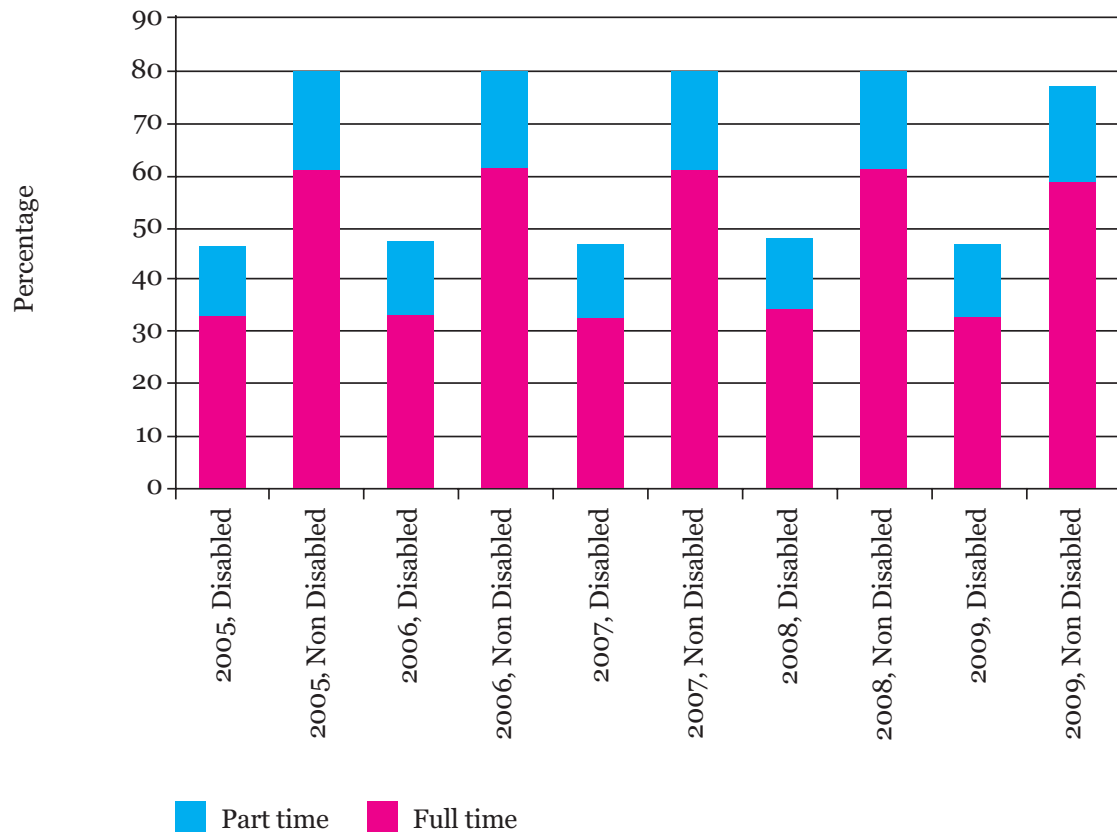
Source: Annual Population Survey July 2008–June 2009.

When disabled people are employed, they are significantly more likely than non-disabled people to work part-time (see Figure 11.1.2, below). In 2009, 33% of disabled people were in full-time employment, compared to 60% of non-disabled people.⁵² The reasons for this (personal choice or discrimination) are not clear.

⁵¹ Riddell, S. Edward, S. Weedon, E. and Ahlgren, L. 2010. *Disability, Skills and Employment: A review of recent statistics and literature on policy and initiatives*. Research Report 59. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Table 2.1, page 8.

⁵² Office for Public Management (forthcoming). *Working better for Disabled people: a review of the aspirations, experiences, barriers and solutions for improving labour market opportunities for Disabled people*. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Page 13.

Figure 11.1.2 Economic activity of disabled and non-disabled people in Britain, 2002/09⁵³



Source: Labour Labour Force Survey, Q2.

Note: The data cover all working-age adults (men aged 16-64, women aged 16-59) who report they are in employment (including self-employment). Respondents who report a current disability consistent with the Disability Discrimination Act are defined as disabled. The non-disabled population refers to all those not classified as DDA disabled.

Employment rates are particularly low for those that are both DDA and work-limiting disabled. This group includes those that are severely disabled; they experience the greatest labour market disadvantage with an employment rate of 33% in Britain as a whole, and 29% in Scotland and 25% in Wales.⁵⁴ This highlights the importance of not seeing disabled people as a homogeneous group: as shown by Table 11.1.9 below, those with some forms of impairment such as diabetes and skin conditions are almost as likely to be employed as the average. At the other extreme, people with depression or 'bad nerves' have employment rates of around 23%.⁵⁵

⁵³ Equality and Human Rights Commission's analysis for Labour Force Survey data supplied by the Office for Disability Issues.

⁵⁴ Riddell, S. *et al.* citing LFS May 2009. Page 13, table 2.8.

⁵⁵ Office for Disability Issues. *Disability equality indicators*. Employment rate by type of impairment. Available at: <http://www.officefordisability.gov.uk/roadmap2025/indicators.php> Accessed 25/08/2010.

Table 11.1.9 Employment rate (percentages) of working-age adults by type of impairment in Britain, 2008⁵⁶

Impairment type	Employment rate
Arms, hands	42
Legs or feet	39
Back or neck	41
Skin conditions, allergies	62
Chest, breathing problems	60
Heart, blood, pressure, circulation	57
Stomach, liver, kidney, digestion	54
Diabetes	68
Depression, bad nerves	23
Epilepsy	35
Progressive illness	38
Other problems, disabilities	52

Source: Labour Force Survey Q2.

Note:

1. The data covers all working-age adults (men aged 16-64, women aged 16-59) who report they are in employment (including self-employment). Respondents who report a current disability consistent with the Disability Discrimination Act are defined as disabled. Respondents who report a current disability consistent with the Disability Discrimination Act are defined as disabled. The non-disabled population refers to all those not classified as DDA disabled.
2. Some impairment types have been excluded from the table due to consistently small sample sizes over the time period. They are: difficulties in seeing, difficulties in hearing, mental illness, phobias and panics, learning difficulties and speech impediments. Significance testing on these figures has not been carried out.
3. Figures shown are 95% statistically significant. For a more detailed breakdown see source document.

More severe overall impairments are associated with poorer job prospects⁵⁷ and some disabled people face multiple barriers to labour market entry. For example, fewer than 1 in 4 disabled people from a Pakistani background are in employment, and just over 1 in 5 disabled people with no qualifications are employed.⁵⁸

⁵⁶ Office for Disability Issues. *Disability equality indicators*. Employment rate by type of impairment.

⁵⁷ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 115.

⁵⁸ Office for Disability Issues. Employment Factsheet. Available at: http://www.officefordisability.gov.uk/docs/res/factsheets/Factsheet_Employment.pdf Accessed 06/08/2010.

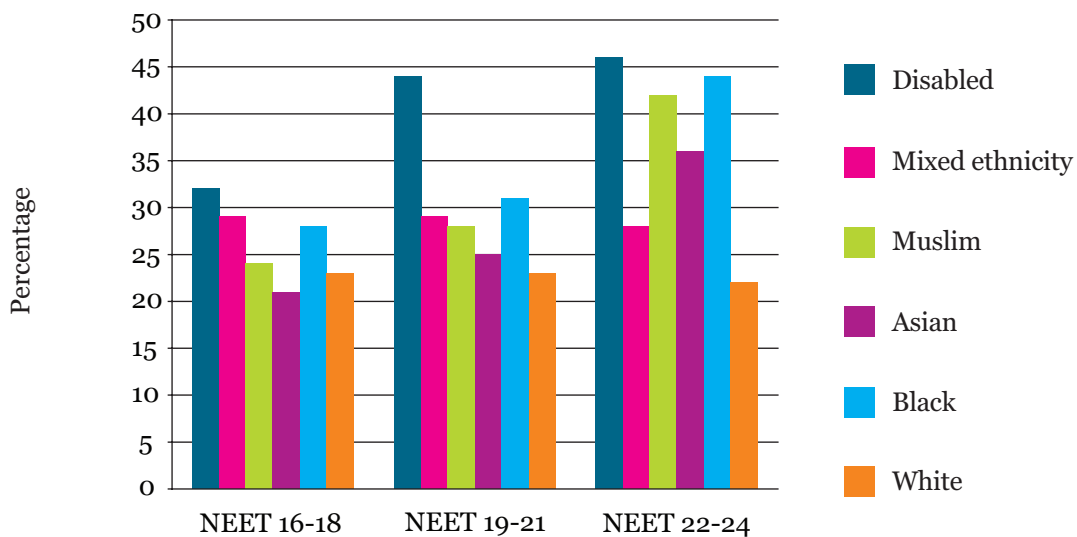
Other research suggests that the employment rate for people with a learning difficulty is as low as 1 in 10.⁵⁹

A large body of research exists on employment barriers for disabled people. Persistent barriers to working for various disabled groups include a lack of access to appropriate transport; a lack of access to information included on websites; and negative attitudes by employers about productivity and the risk of employing disabled people. In addition, in some cases there is a lack of confidence and lack of awareness among disabled people themselves about their rights and opportunities.⁶⁰

NEET rate

Analysis of the 2009 Labour Force Survey indicates that disabled young people in England are more likely to be NEET than any other group at all ages between 16 and 24. Although sample sizes are small, the data indicate that as disabled young people leave the education system their situation deteriorates as they do not get jobs, and by age 19-21 years, nearly half are NEET (44%); this is nearly double the rate for non-disabled people (23%). In 2009 46% of 22-24-year-old disabled people were NEET.⁶¹

Figure 11.1.3 Employment/education status of young people by certain characteristics in England, 2009⁶²



Source: Labour Force Survey 2009q3 and 2009q1 Waves 4 and 5 combined.

⁵⁹ Department of Health 2001. *Valuing people a new strategy for learning disability for the 21st century. A White Paper* London: DH.

⁶⁰ See Office for Public Management (forthcoming). Chapter 6, pages 52-72 for a detailed analysis on barriers to employment.

⁶¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, analysis of LFS.

⁶² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, analysis of LFS. Tables 1.3a, 1.3b, 1.3c, 1.3d and 1.3e, pages 15-16.

Ethnicity

Working-age population in paid employment

Overall, it seems that employment gaps for ethnic groups are narrowing over time, although differences remain considerable for the Bangladeshi and Pakistani populations as shown in Table 11.1.9.⁶³

Table 11.1.9 Data showing employment rate for the working-age population by gender and ethnicity in the UK, 2006/08⁶⁴

		Employed full-time	Employed part-time	Self-employed
Men	White British	60	5	14
	Other White	63	5	15
	White and Black Caribbean	41	10	6
	White and Black African	48	12	5
	White and Asian	46	6	11
	Other Mixed	49	8	12
	Indian	58	7	13
	Pakistani	35	10	21
	Bangladeshi	34	17	11
	Other Asian	49	11	13
	Black Caribbean	48	7	12
	Black African	53	11	6
	Other Black	49	9	9
	Chinese	43	8	13
	Other	49	9	11

Continued...

Bangladeshi and Pakistani men and women have a much reduced chance of working with only 1 in 4 Bangladeshi and Pakistani women working compared to nearly 3 in 4 White British women. For men, Pakistanis and Bangladeshis are also least likely to be employed at a rate of 66% and 62% respectively, compared to a rate of around 80% for Indian, Other White and White British men.⁶⁵

⁶³ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010, analysis comparing LFS data on employment status 1995-97 and 2006-08. Page 273.

⁶⁴ National Equality Panel analysis of the Labour Force Survey (2006-08). Employment Table EM08 2.4.

⁶⁵ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Figure 4.2(a) Page 113.

Table 11.1.9 Continued

		Employed full-time	Employed part-time	Self- employed
Women	White British	39	28	5
	Other White	44	19	7
	White and Black Caribbean	35	22	2
	White and Black African	36	23	6
	White and Asian	38	21	5
	Other Mixed	41	19	6
	Indian	39	18	4
	Pakistani	13	10	3
	Bangladeshi	13	9	1
	Other Asian	33	18	4
	Black Caribbean	46	18	3
	Black African	37	17	2
	Other Black	41	16	4
	Chinese	34	18	8
	Other	32	14	4

Source: Labour Force Survey 2006/08.

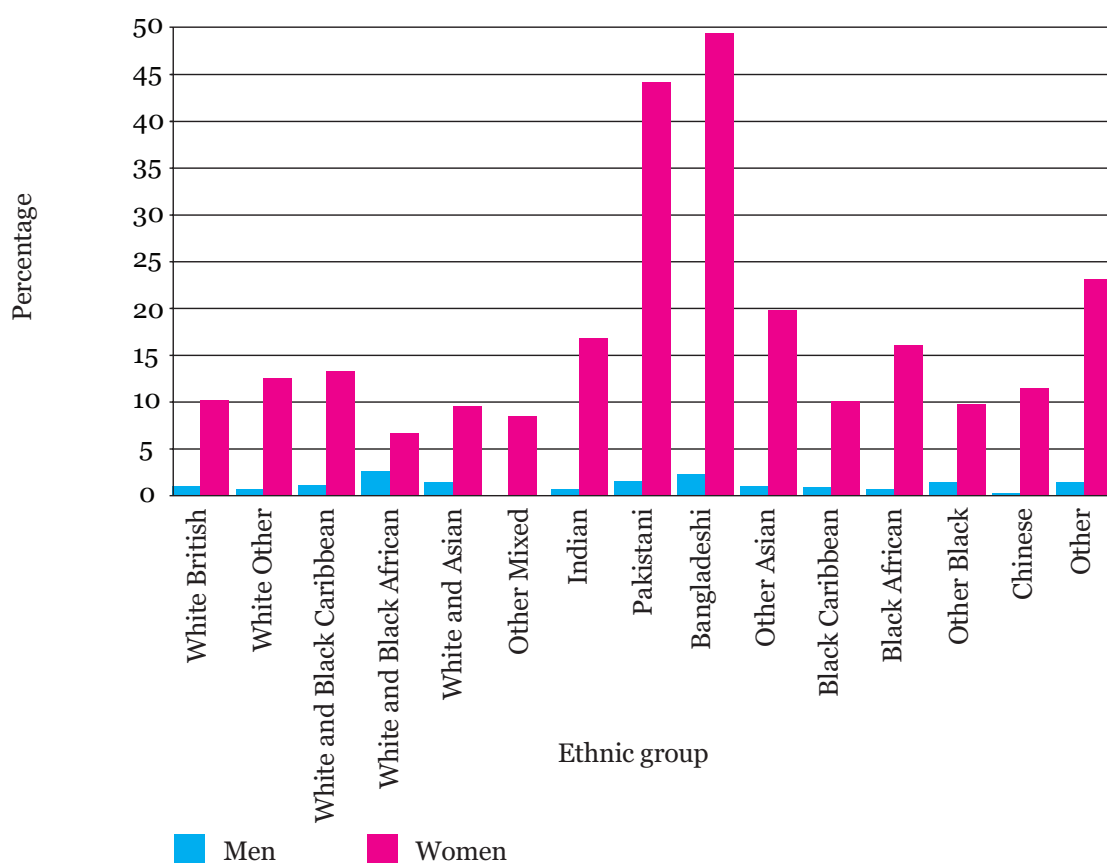
Note: Tables referring to working-age population (men 16-64, women 16-59).

The low labour market participation among Bangladeshi and Pakistani women, which corresponds to a similar picture for Muslim women, persists to include British-born members of this group despite changing attitudes and improved education levels. Almost half of Bangladeshi (49%) and Pakistani (44%) women are economically inactive, looking after the family or home, compared to 20% or fewer of other groups as illustrated in Figure 11.1.4.⁶⁶ It is hard to measure the extent to which this reflects personal choice, cultural pressures, discrimination or lack of opportunities. Even comparing those with degrees, Pakistani and Bangladeshi women are 11 percentage points less likely to be employed than White British women.⁶⁷

⁶⁶ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Figure 4.2(b), page 113. Data are for working-age population.

⁶⁷ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 224.

Figure 11.1.4 Percentage of men and women economically inactive and looking after the family/home by gender and ethnicity in the UK, 2006/08⁶⁸



Source: Labour Force Survey 2006/08 (adjusted for yearly variation).

Note: Working-age population (men 16-64, women 16-59).

Black Caribbean women are more likely than any other group of women to work full-time, although less likely than average to work part-time. There are gender differences in the Black Caribbean population. Out of all ethnic minority women, Black Caribbean women are the most likely to be employed; Black Caribbean men fall around mid-way on the employment scale.⁶⁹ Consequently, the overall employment rates for Black Caribbean women and men are very similar.

Local research shows that on many Gypsy and Traveller sites, only a small minority of households are engaged in paid work. The evidence points towards a strong preference for male self-employment: women tend not to work outside the home, but are sometimes engaged in traditional 'craft' work.⁷⁰ However, some

⁶⁸ National Equality Panel analysis of the Labour Force Survey (2006-08).

⁶⁹ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010.

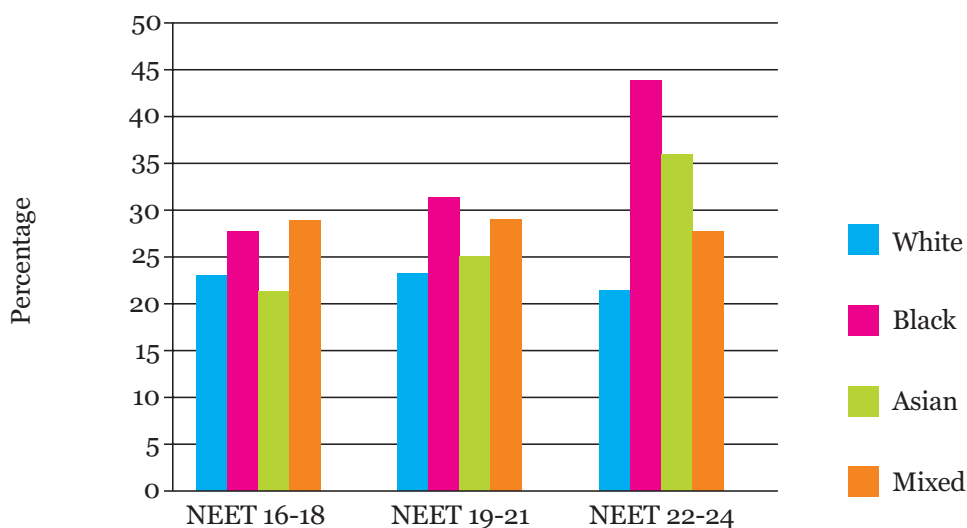
⁷⁰ Cemlyn, S. Greenfields, M. Burnett, S. Mathew, Z. and Whitwell, C. 2009. *Inequalities experienced by Gypsy and Traveller communities*. Research Report 12. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Pages 49-53.

recent qualitative evidence suggests that married women whose children are in school are beginning to enter employment.⁷¹

NEET rate

Some ethnic minority groups are also much more likely to experience periods outside employment, education and training as young adults. Around 30% of Black and Mixed Race young people between the ages of 19 and 21 are NEET in England, and 25% of Asian young people.⁷² The number of White and Mixed Race NEET young people declines with age, but rises for Asian and Black people. By the age of 22-24, 44% of Black young people are NEET. When comparing the White British population with ethnic minority groups overall, these differences are not explained by an education gap, as a higher proportion of White people than ethnic minorities leave school at 16,⁷³ and a higher proportion of ethnic minorities than White people go to university.⁷⁴

Figure 11.1.5 Proportion of NEETs by age and ethnicity in England, 2009⁷⁵



Source: Labour Force Survey 2009q3 and 2009q1 Waves 4 and 5 combined.

⁷¹ Cemlyn, S. *et al.* 2009. Page 114.

⁷² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. LFS 2009q3 and 2009q1 Waves 4 and 5 combined. Table 1.3, page 14.

⁷³ The Poverty Site 2010. *Not in education, employment or training*. Analysis of the LFS. Available at: <http://www.poverty.org.uk/32/index.shtml?2> Accessed 19/08/2010.

⁷⁴ Higher Education Statistics Authority (HESA) 2010. *Students in Higher Education Institutions 2008/09*. Cheltenham: HESA.

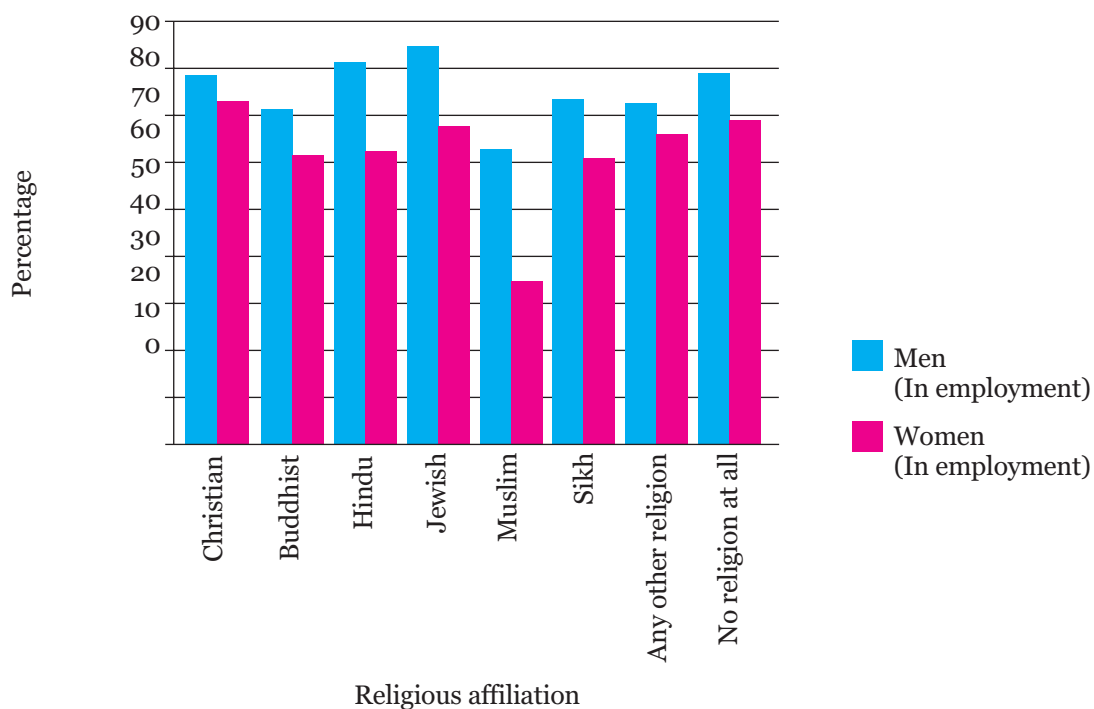
⁷⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 1.3, page 14.

Religion or belief

While there is some variation in employment rates among different religious groups, the most significant gap is for Muslim people who have the lowest rates of employment in the UK as shown in Figure 11.1.6.⁷⁶ In the UK only 47% of Muslim men and 24% of Muslim women are employed; male Muslim unemployment is 9% compared to the national average of 5%.⁷⁷

Research suggests that despite their high levels of education and desire to work, British Muslim women continue to do less well in the labour market. An analysis of 2005 Annual Population Survey statistics shows that 51% of second generation British Muslim women (those born in Britain) are inactive in the labour market, compared to only 17% of second generation Hindu women. Of second generation British Muslim women, 13% are unemployed, compared to 4% of second generation Hindu and Sikh women, and 3% of Christian women.⁷⁸ (See Box 11.1.2 below for further discussion.)

Figure 11.1.6 Percentage of people in employment by gender and religious affiliation in the UK, 2006/08⁷⁹



Source: Labour Force Survey 2006/08 (adjusted for yearly variation).

Note: Working-age population (men 16-64, women 16-59).

⁷⁶ National Equality Panel Analysis of the LFS (2006-08).

⁷⁷ Hills, J. et al. 2010. Page 114.

⁷⁸ Young Foundation and London Development Agency 2008 *Valuing Family Valuing Work: British Muslim Women and the Labour Market*. (London: Young Foundation/LDA). Page 5.

⁷⁹ National Equality Panel analysis of the LFS (2006-08).

Box 11.1.2 Related issue: Reasons for non-employment – Muslim women

Across the UK, according to the 2006-08 Labour Force Survey, 14% of Muslim women were employed full-time, 10% were employed part-time and 2% were self-employed. Moreover, 42% were categorised as ‘inactive, looking after the family, home’. This compares to 10% of Christian women and 16% of Hindu women.⁸⁰

However, small-scale survey research of 634 Muslim women with children found that the majority (57%) wanted to work. Of those who said they wanted to work, a quarter (24%) said that they would need more support from their families to do so, 22% said they needed better access to childcare, and 20% said they would need more practical support in terms of English language lessons.⁸¹

While many first generation Muslim women face language barriers, have low qualifications, non-transferable educations and skills, and a limited understanding of the UK labour market, this is far less true of those born in the UK or those who arrived as children. Yet research suggests that despite high levels of education, positive attitudes and family support to work among this second generation of Muslim women, just under half remain economically inactive, almost three times the rate of second generation Hindu women.⁸²

NEET rate

As young adults, Muslims are also more likely to experience periods outside education, employment or training, than Christians or those of no religion. Young Muslims are more likely to be NEET by age 19-21 than Christian young people, or those of no religion (28% compared to an average of 23%). This worsens with age: by age 22-24 Muslims are among those most likely to be NEET (42%). Those of no-religion are also disproportionately likely to be NEET between 16-21 years, but thereafter are close to the average. Christians remain close to the average at all ages.⁸³

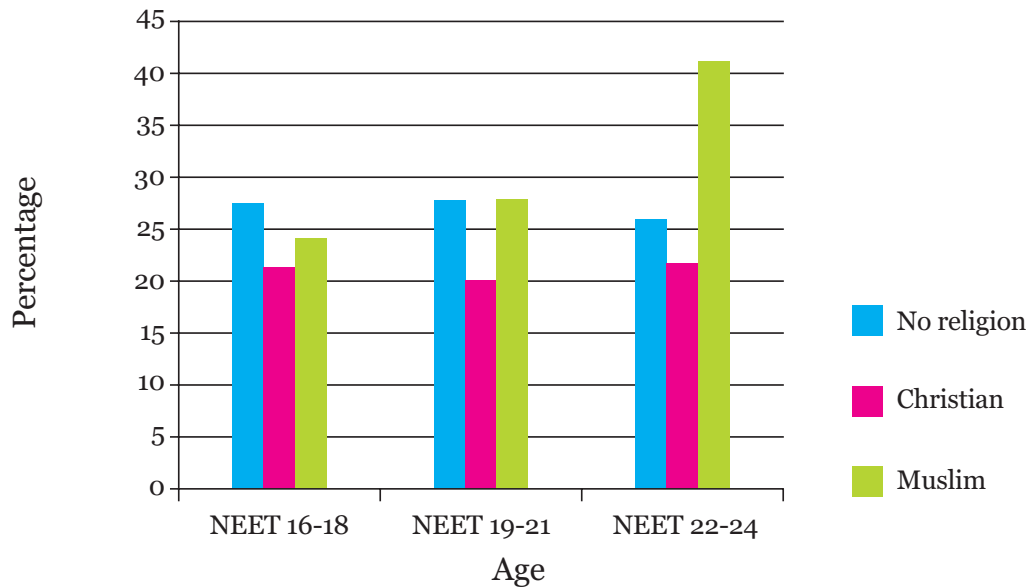
⁸⁰ National Equality Panel analysis of the LFS (2006-08).

⁸¹ Quilliam Foundation 2009. *Religion; Immigrant, Muslim, Female: Triple Paralysis?* Available at: http://www.quilliamfoundation.org/images/stories/pdfs/quilliam_immigrantmuslimfemale_triple_paralysis_july_2009.pdf Accessed 19/08/2010.

⁸² Young Foundation and London Development Agency 2008. Page 5.

⁸³ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, analysis of LFS. Table 1.3, page 14.

Figure 11.1.7 Proportion of NEETs that are Christian, Muslims or have no religion in England, 2009⁸⁴



Source: Labour Force Survey 2009q3 and 2009q1. Waves 4 and 5 combined.

Sexual orientation

There are no available data on employment or NEET status by sexual orientation. For employment rates, the Labour Force Survey collects figures on people living together in same-sex couples, but these have a low level of reliability due to the small sample size and do not reflect the experiences of the wider LGB population. The data suggest that about two-thirds of women living in same-sex couples work full-time – a much higher proportion than women overall, but a similar rate to all women without children. Men in same-sex couples have similar employment rates to men in mixed-sex couples.

Transgender

Given the size of the transgender population, national survey evidence is unable to shed light on their economic position. However, a small 2008 survey of 71 respondents by the Scottish Transgender Alliance found that among respondents there was a high unemployment rate with 37% (N=26) receiving out of work benefits. There was also a high reported self-employment rate at 20% (N=14) perhaps because some members of the transgender community avoid situations where they do not have control over their work environment and the people with whom they have day-to-day contact.⁸⁵

⁸⁴ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, analysis of LFS. 2009q3 and 2009q1. Waves 4 and 5 combined. Table 1.3, page 14.

⁸⁵ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 221.

In a survey on experiences of the workplace (to which 106 trans people responded overall), 78 out of 91 people were employed at the time of participation, mostly on permanent contracts, while 14% were unemployed, which is a considerably higher percentage than the national average of 5%.⁸⁶ Although the participant numbers are small in this research, and data should therefore be treated with caution, this finding is in line with other research which highlights not only the greater than national-average levels of trans-unemployment, but also the enduring nature of this trend.⁸⁷

⁸⁶ Rundall, E. (forthcoming) *Transmen's and Transwomen's Experiences in UK Workplaces*, unpublished PhD research findings. Oxford Brookes University.

⁸⁷ Whittle, S. (2002) *Respect and Equality: Transsexual and Transgender Rights*. London: Cavendish Publishing Limited; Whittle, S. Turner, L. and Al-Alami, M. (2007). *Engendered Penalties: Transgender and Transsexual People's Experiences of Inequality and Discrimination*. London: The Equalities Review.

11.2 What we know about pay gaps

Measure:

Pay gap - Median hourly pay of employees (excluding unpaid overtime)

How this measure works:

We are able to report on this measure for Britain using the Annual Survey for Hours and Earnings 2009, and the Labour Force Survey 2006-08.

The gender pay gap is usually calculated from data published in the Annual Survey for Hours and Earnings. The Annual Survey for Hours and Earnings is a survey of employers, rather than of individuals, and as such is more likely to report actual earnings accurately. It is a particularly rich source of data on earnings by occupation, industry and region. This source can also be used to examine pay gaps by age. However, unlike the Labour Force Survey, the Annual Survey for Hours and Earnings contains no information on other equality characteristics. An analysis of the 2006-08 Labour Force Survey for the National Equality Panel therefore provides data for this measure where these are not available in the Annual Survey for Hours and Earnings.

Average pay is measured using either the median or the mean. The median is not affected by extreme values at the top and bottom of the distribution, such as the changes to earnings of small numbers of very high earners. However, unlike the median, the mean captures the full pay gap and does not exclude those on very high earnings (who tend to be the most privileged group – White, non-disabled males). The median has been used here for consistency with the Equality Measurement Framework. Although median hourly pay provides a useful comparison between the earnings of different groups, it does not necessarily indicate differences in rates of pay for comparable jobs. Pay medians are affected by the different work patterns of men and women, such as the proportions in different occupations, their length of time in jobs and whether they work full-time or part-time.

Analysis of the Labour Force Survey allows disaggregation by most equality characteristics, apart from transgender. Sexual orientation data are limited to those living in same-sex couples. In these data, single lesbians and gay men cannot be identified. For these groups we draw on general literature which indicates some possible issues they may face. Overall, the gender pay gap is substantial and the reasons for this have been well researched. There is less evidence on pay gaps by ethnicity, disability, religion or belief and sexual orientation.

Other evidence has been used to draw out relevant related points. For example, the indicator does not include the part-time gender pay gap which hides an enormous area of disadvantage in remuneration. This is calculated by comparing the hourly earnings of men working full-time and women working part-time. A similar calculation can be made for other groups.

Overview

The pay gap is stubbornly persistent. Women, disabled people, Pakistani, Bangladeshi and Muslim men and women have lower pay than White Christian men (the reference group) in England, Scotland and Wales. Between men and women the pay gap is smallest for those in their 20s at 5%, but still in favour of men. This is even though women in this age group have slightly higher qualifications than men.⁸⁸

The gender pay gap has been declining continuously for the last 30 years.⁸⁹ The full-time gender pay gap (as measured by the median hourly pay excluding overtime) narrowed between 2008 and 2009 from 12.6%, to 12.2%. However, longer-term progress seems to have stalled, which was noted with concern by the Committee on the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in 2008.⁹⁰

These positive changes are accompanied by some developments which are less positive: **the decline has been confined to the full-time gender pay gap, and the part-time gender pay gap (women working part-time versus men working full-time) has remained fairly constant.** (A corollary of this is that the pay gap between women working full-time and women working part-time has widened over the past 30 years).⁹¹ Also, for full-time employment, the gap at the lower end of the pay distribution has declined more rapidly than at other parts of the distribution.

The part-time pay gap particularly affects women, disabled people and Bangladeshi men who are disproportionately found in part-time work (see Indicator 1).

⁸⁸ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 128, drawing on LFS data for 2006-08.

⁸⁹ Metcalf, H. 2009. *Pay gaps across the equality strands: a review*. Research Report 14. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Page 15.

⁹⁰ United Nations *Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*. 42nd session Geneva, 4-22 May 2009. UN document number: E/C.12/GBR/CO/5. Page 5.

⁹¹ Metcalf, H. 2009, drawing on Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE) data. Page 15.

The pay gap is greater in some sectors and job types. An important consideration over the next few years, if earlier public sector growth is reversed, is that the pay gap in the public sector is relatively low at 21% for all employees in the UK in 2009, compared to the 29% gap for all employees in the private sector.⁹²

What we know about the overall situation and trends

The gender pay gap (as measured by median hourly pay excluding overtime) narrowed between 2008 and 2009. The gender pay gap for all employees decreased to 22% in 2009 from 22.5% in 2008;⁹³ the full-time gender pay gap fell from 12.6% in 2008 to 12.2% in 2009.⁹⁴ The part-time gender pay gap is the difference between the pay rate of men working full-time and women working part-time. This gap fell from 39.9% in 2008 to 39.4% in 2009.⁹⁵ However, at the same time we know that women working part-time earned 3.6% more than men working part-time in 2008, although this small premium declined to 1.9% in 2009.⁹⁶ These overall figures are the result of a set of interrelated factors including differences in returns to work, qualifications, average hours worked, penalties at different ages, occupational segregation and trends among different ethnic groups.

What we know about the situation for different groups

Gender and age

Across Britain, the gender pay gap varies with age. The average earnings of most groups rise in the early part of the lifecycle and decline in the latter. However, the peak is different for women largely because of the impact of having children (women's pay peaks at 35-39 years compared to men whose pay peaks at 40-44 years).⁹⁷ The full-time gender pay gap is lowest for the under 30s, but is still 5% in favour of men, then steadily grows as workers get older reaching 27% by the time workers are aged 40.⁹⁸

⁹² Office for National Statistics (ONS), Gender pay gap, drawing on ASHE data. Available at <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/cci/nugget.asp?id=167>. Accessed 24/09/2010.

⁹³ ONS, Gender pay gap, drawing on ASHE data.

⁹⁴ Metcalf, H. 2009. Page 5.

⁹⁵ Based on data shown in Office for National Statistics (ONS) 2009. *Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings*. ONS Statistical Bulletin. Available at: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/pdftdir/ashe1109.pdf>

⁹⁶ ONS 2009. Page 3.

⁹⁷ Longhi, S. and Platt, L. 2008. *Pay Gaps across Equalities Areas*. Research Report 9 Manchester: Equalities and Human Rights Commission. This is based on an analysis of the 2004-07 LFS.

⁹⁸ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 128.

Figure 11.2.1 highlights age pay gaps in relation to men aged 40-49, using UK data from 2004-07. Differences in levels of pay are small among men and women in their 20s but, for both groups, their average earnings are significantly lower than those of middle aged men with a pay gap of around 50% among 20-24-year-olds and 30% among 25-29-year-olds.⁹⁹ For women in their 30s, 40s and 50s, earnings are far lower than those of men aged 40-49, with pay gaps of between 15% and 28%.¹⁰⁰ Men also experience an age pay gap. Full-time workers in their 50s in 2005 earned, on average, 13% less an hour than full-time workers in their 40s.¹⁰¹ For men aged 60-64 the pay gap reached 25% but was 10% or less for men in their 30s and early 50s.¹⁰²

Box 11.2.1 Related issue: Measuring the gender pay gap

As outlined in the 'How this measure works' box, the pay gap can be measured using either the median or the mean. Measuring the gender pay gap using the mean, and using Annual Survey for Hours and Earnings 2009 data produces the following results for the UK:

Between 2008 and 2009 the **full-time gender pay gap** decreased from 17.3% to 16.4% in the UK, a decline of 0.9 percentage points. The equivalent figures for the median are 12.6% in 2008 and 12.2% in 2009. In 2009, the full-time gender pay gap was 12.2% in Scotland (median-based: 8.6%) and 8.9% in Wales (median-based: 12.7%).

The part-time gender pay gap can also be measured in a number of ways.¹⁰³ Here we use women's average hourly part-time pay compared to men's full-time pay.

The **part-time gender pay gap**, decreased from 36.9% to 35.3%, a decline of 1.6 percentage points between 2008 and 2009. (Equivalent median-based figures are 39.9% in 2008 and 39.4% in 2009.) The gap between average hourly part-time and full-time pay for male employees did not show a similar decrease, it was 25.7% in 2008 and 25.5% in 2009. (Median-based figures are 42% in 2008 and 40.6% in 2009).

⁹⁹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 78.

¹⁰⁰ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, drawing on LFS data. Page 78.

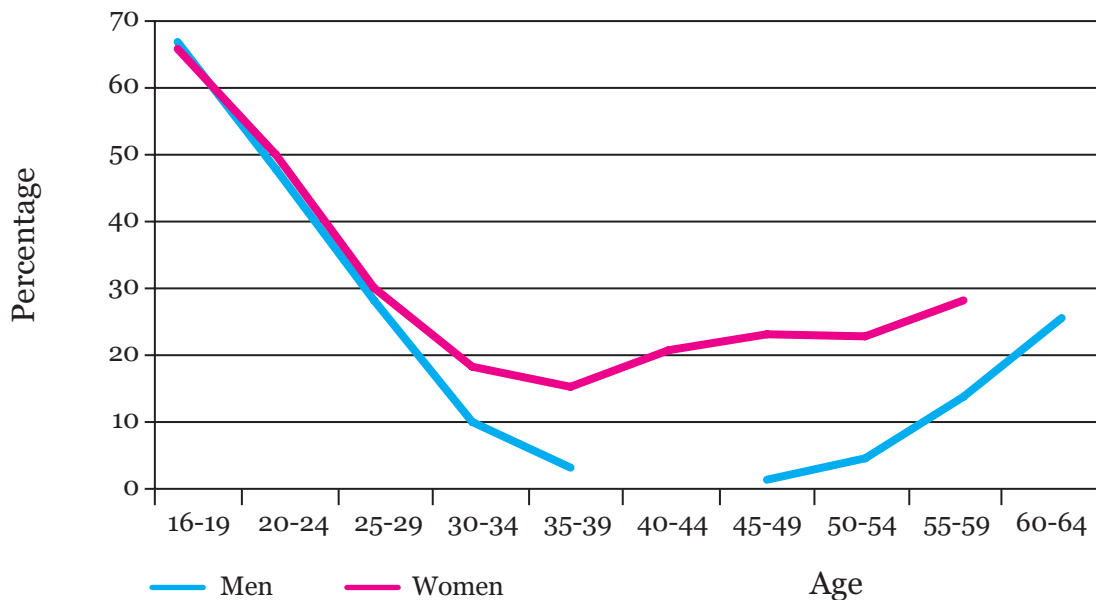
¹⁰¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 78.

¹⁰² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, drawing on LFS data. Page 78.

¹⁰³ Hicks, S. and Thomas, J. 2009. *Presentation of the Gender Pay Gap*, ONS Position Paper. Available at: <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/articles/nojournal/PresentationoftheGenderPayGap.pdf> Accessed 23/09/2010.

Box 11.2.1 Continued

In 2009 the part-time gender pay gap was 32.3% in Scotland (median-based: 35.1%) and 30.8% in Wales (median-based: 37.1%).

Figure 11.2.1 Pay gaps by age in the UK, 2004/07¹⁰⁴

Source: Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings.

Note: Reference group men aged 40-49.

In 2009, the largest pay gaps for full-time, part-time and all employees were in the 40-49 age group at 18%, 24% and 30% respectively.¹⁰⁵ It is important, however, to be aware that older people have had very different life experiences, as well as different qualifications, occupations, and employment histories than younger people can expect to experience in the future. Thus, we should be wary of seeing these effects as necessarily age-related.¹⁰⁶

Recent analysis found that men and women with similar qualifications face substantial pay differences (see Box 11.2.1 below).¹⁰⁷ However, it is hard to separate out the effect of career breaks. Importantly, the influence of motherhood on the gender pay gap is apparent well before women become mothers. A study of graduates three years post graduation found that gender differences in career

¹⁰⁴ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Figure 2.1, page 79.

¹⁰⁵ Metcalf, H. 2009, drawing on ASHE data.

¹⁰⁶ Longhi, S. and Platt, L. 2008. Page 33.

¹⁰⁷ Machin, S. Murphy, R. and Soobedar, Z. 2009. *Differences in labour market gains from higher education participation*. Research commissioned by the National Equality Panel. Available at: <http://www.equalities.gov.uk/pdf/Variation%20in%20gains%20from%20university%20education.pdf> Accessed 23/09/2010.

expectations explained 12% of the gender pay gap, with women much more likely to expect to take a break for family reasons than men (and men expecting their partners to do this).¹⁰⁸ This highlights how childcare issues may impinge on pay even prior to motherhood, given the expected household division of caring responsibilities.

The level of earnings penalty that women face as a result of having children varies greatly between better and worse educated women. Those with degrees are estimated to face only a 4% loss in lifetime earnings as a result of motherhood, while mothers with mid-level qualifications face a 25% loss and those with no qualifications a 58% loss.¹⁰⁹ This relates to better educated mothers' greater ability to retain a strong position in the labour market, and points to the need to spread such opportunities to other working mothers.

A wide range of research has consistently identified a range of contributors to the gender pay gap. Occupational concentration is consistently found to be one of the most powerful factors in explaining the gender pay gap. Men's concentration in higher paying industries and women's in the public sector contributes strongly to the gender pay gap for graduates from early in their careers.¹¹⁰ Lower labour market returns to education also contribute. See Box 11.2.2 (for further discussion of this issue).

Disability

Pay gaps are a persistent feature of the experiences of disabled men and women. This has not significantly changed over time as Figure 11.2.2 illustrates.¹¹¹

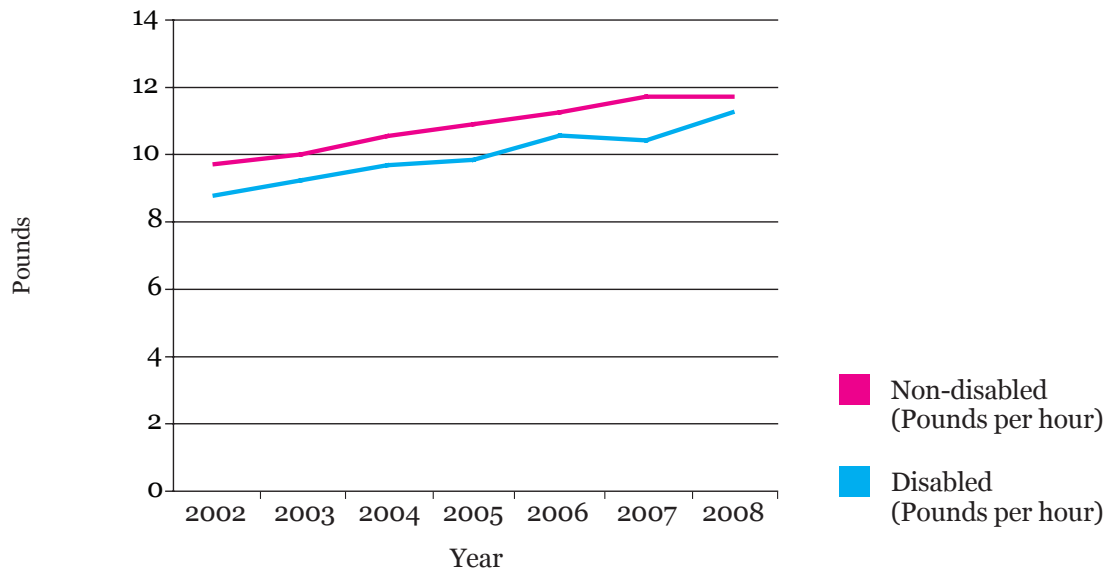
¹⁰⁸ Chevalier, A. 2007. 'Education, Occupation and Career Expectations: Determinants of the Gender Pay Gap for UK Graduates', *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 69, 6: 819-842.

¹⁰⁹ Metcalf, H. 2009, page 15.

¹¹⁰ See Metcalf, H. 2009. Pages 20-21.

¹¹¹ Office for Disability Issues. *Disability equality indicators*. (Between 2005 and 2008, average hourly wage rates have increased from £9.78 to £11.19 amongst disabled people and increased from £10.84 to £11.96 amongst non-disabled people).

Figure 11.2.2 Changes in hourly pay over time by disability in Britain, 2002-08¹¹²



Source: Labour Force Survey, Q2.

In 2009, disabled men experienced a pay gap of 11% compared with non-disabled men, while the gap between disabled women and non-disabled men was double this figure at 22%. Taking into account their other characteristics, including qualification levels, the pay penalty experienced by disabled men falls a little, compared with their pay gap, to 8% while that of women increases to 31%.¹¹³ Small-scale research on people with learning disabilities in England collected information on gross weekly pay of people with learning disabilities in paid employment.¹¹⁴ It showed that those with severe learning disabilities are very likely to be in a low paid job with 87% of those surveyed earning less than £200 per week.¹¹⁵

¹¹² Office for Disability Issues *Disability equality indicators*.

¹¹³ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 78.

¹¹⁴ Emerson, E. and Hatton, C. 2008. *People with Learning Disabilities in England*. Lancaster: Centre for Disability Research, Lancaster University.

¹¹⁵ Emmerson, E. and Hatton, C. 2008.

Table 11.2.1 Hourly pay by gender and disability compared to non-disabled men in Britain, 2004/07¹¹⁶

	Average pay (£)		Pay penalty (%)
Men			
Non-disabled	12	Ref	Ref
Disabled	12	11	8
Women			
Non-disabled	11	16	26
Disabled	10	22	31

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Note: Ref = Reference group.

Ethnicity

A combination of gender, ethnic group and religion (using White British Christian men as the reference group) illustrates that some groups experience particular disadvantage in relation to pay. In 2004-07 White British women experienced a pay gap of 16%. This rose to 21% for Black African women and 26% for Pakistani women as shown in Table 11.2.2.¹¹⁷ All women, regardless of ethno-religious group, experienced large pay penalties with Chinese and Pakistani Muslim women experiencing the largest penalties.¹¹⁸

In the same time period, Muslim men whether Bangladeshi or Pakistani earned less than might be expected given their qualifications, age and occupation, by 13% and 21% respectively. Black African Christian and Chinese men also experienced pay penalties of 13% and 11%.

Recent research found that Black and Asian groups earn less than White British people with the same qualification level and in particular Black male graduates earn 24% less than White British male graduates.¹¹⁹ This could partly be attributable to differences in the type of university attended (see Chapter 10: Education), but is part of an overall picture of unequal outcomes.

¹¹⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.16, page 78.

¹¹⁷ Longhi, S. and Platt, L. 2008 drawing on LFS data. Page 18.

¹¹⁸ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, drawing on LFS data. Page 76.

¹¹⁹ Metcalf, H. 2009. Page 37.

Table 11.2.2 Hourly pay by gender, ethnicity and religion compared to White British Christian men in Britain, 2004/07¹²⁰

	Average pay (£)	Pay penalty (%)
Men		
White British, Christian	10	Ref
White British, Jewish	13	-24
Indian, Hindu	10	4
Indian, Sikh	10	NS
Pakistani, Muslim	8	13
Bangladeshi, Muslim	8	21
Black Caribbean, Christian	10	NS
Black African, Christian	9	13
Chinese, no religion	9	11
Women		
White British, Christian	8	26
White British, Jewish	9	14
Indian, Hindu	8	25
Indian, Sikh	8	26
Pakistani, Muslim	7	31
Bangladeshi, Muslim	8	22
Black Caribbean, Christian	8	22
Black African, Christian	7	26
Chinese, no religion	7	35

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Notes:

1. NS = the penalty is not statistically significant.
2. Other characteristics set to: born in the UK; non-disabled; married or cohabiting, without dependent children; aged 40-44; level 2 qualifications; in a skilled trade.

Box 11.2.2 Related issue: Labour market gains from qualifications

The National Equality Panel commissioned research into differences in the labour market gains from qualifications.¹²¹ Using data from the Labour Force Surveys post-2001, the report first compares the raw differences in highest qualifications, main activity and earnings for different genders, ethnic groups and disability groups, and then uses statistical analyses to examine if there are significant differences in the benefits of qualifications to different groups.

¹²⁰ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.15, page 77 (based on LFS data).

¹²¹ Machin, S. *et al.* 2009.

Box 11.2.2 Continued

The research finds that an individual's highest qualification is highly correlated with employment and earnings. However, the labour market outcomes in terms of employment rates and earnings of some groups are significantly worse than others, even when comparing individuals with the same highest qualification level. Key findings of the research included:

- Significant pay and employment gaps between men and women (although it is not clear if these gaps are caused by the loss of experience and career breaks commonly associated with child bearing or if they are generated from systematic disadvantage (including discrimination) based on the characteristics of females, or a combination of both).
- Black, Pakistani/Bangladeshi and Other Asian groups generally have significantly worse outcomes in terms of employment and earnings, compared to White British people. This difference is particularly stark at the degree level, where earnings of Black male graduates are 24% lower than those of White British male graduates, even when holding occupation and industry constant.

However, it is important to note that these large differences may be explained by factors that we cannot account for with these data, such as the type of university attended.

Religion or belief

Looking at pay gaps by religion across Britain, recent evidence indicates there are no significant differences between men of different religious groups, with the exception of Muslims. Muslim men experienced a pay gap of 17% compared to White British men in 2004-07, while Jewish men were the highest average earners experiencing a pay premium of 37%. Overall, all women consistently earn less than men (apart from Jewish women) with Muslim and Sikh women faring least well, with pay gaps of 22% in 2004-07.¹²²

¹²² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 75.

Table 11.2.3 Hourly pay by gender and religious affiliation compared to Christian men in Britain, 2004/07¹²³

	Average pay (£)	Pay (%)	
Men			
Christian	13	Ref	
Buddhist	12	7	ns
Hindu	13	2.5	ns
Jewish	18	-37	
Muslim	11	17	
Sikh	12	6	ns
No religion	13	1.2	ns
Women			
Christian	11	16	
Buddhist	12	9	ns
Hindu	11	12	
Jewish	14	-8	ns
Muslim	10	22	
Sikh	10	22	
No religion	11	14	

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Note: Ref: reference group, ns: not significant.

Sexual orientation

There appears to be no significant pay differences for men or women living in same-sex couples compared to men or women who are married or cohabiting, with or without children¹²⁴ (single lesbian women and gay men cannot be identified from the Labour Force Survey). According to these data, LGB groups do not appear to experience a pay gap. However, it should be noted that men and women in same-sex couples are often better qualified than cohabiting/married mixed-sex couples which should give them an earnings advantage – 46% of the former had a degree or higher qualification compared to just 25% of the latter in 2009.¹²⁵

¹²³ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Table 2.14, page 76.

¹²⁴ Hills, J. et al. 2010. Box 9.8, page 241 (based on LFS data).

¹²⁵ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 79 (based on LFS data).

Transgender

There is very limited information about the economic position of the transgender population in the labour market, although research suggests that it is not favourable. A small-scale Scottish study (with 71 respondents) found that 55% of transgendered people had an HND/degree or postgraduate degree, but only 30% had a gross annual income of over £20,000, and almost half had a gross annual income of under £10,000.¹²⁶

¹²⁶ Mitchell, M. and Howarth, C. 2009. *Trans research review*. Research Report. 27. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Page 48.

11.3 What we know about occupational segregation

Measures:

Vertical segregation – proportion of each group employed in each of the nine main occupational groups

Horizontal segregation – proportions of group x and group y (for example men and women) in each occupation, summed across all occupations

How these measures work:

We are able to report on these measures for Britain using the Labour Force Survey 2006/08.

Data are available for age and gender, disability, ethnicity and religion or belief. Due to very small sample sizes for some groups, findings for religious groups are indicative rather than conclusive. Sexual orientation data are limited to same-sex couple data. Very limited related literature was available for these measures for transgender people, therefore this group is not covered in this section.

Vertical segregation

The Labour Force Survey identifies nine occupational categories which indicate the level at which people are working from managerial and professional posts through to elementary occupations. Vertical segregation is the extent to which different groups are employed at different levels in organisations, so highlights the extent to which promotional opportunities are unequally distributed.

Vertical segregation is highly resistant to change and contributes to the pay gaps discussed in Indicator 2. The findings for this measure are limited due to the occupational categories used in the analysis which do not take into account business size or value. For example, there are distinct differences between being a manager in a large blue chip company and a manager/owner of a local Chinese takeaway.¹²⁷ Cohort differences may also be apparent in the data, reflecting for example the contraction of manufacturing jobs and growth in service sector occupations.¹²⁸

Horizontal segregation

Horizontal segregation is the extent to which different groups cluster in a restricted range of occupational groups, being concentrated in some and excluded from others. To explore occupational clustering in greater detail 80

¹²⁷ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 36.

¹²⁸ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 45.

minor occupational groups were identified from the Labour Force Survey clustered and then analysed to see the distribution of men and women, according to ethnicity, disability and sexual orientation.¹²⁹ Further research is required to explain fully the significance of findings however due to the occupational categories used.¹³⁰ To avoid transition periods into and out of the labour markets at the beginning and end of peoples' working lives the analysis has focused on the 25-55 age group only.

Overview

Women and people from some ethnic minority groups are less likely than White men to reach higher level jobs. In 2009, only a third of managerial jobs were taken by women, although the proportions of managers, professionals and associate professionals who are women all increased by about 3 percentage points between 2002 and 2009. Indian and Chinese women made the greatest gains with increases of 11% and 13% respectively, while Other White women and Other Asian women saw declines of 9% and 7% in managerial and professional occupations.

Only 1 in 10 Black African men and Black Caribbean men are employed in managerial jobs; this is half the rate for all men. Men from Chinese and Indian background, on the other hand, are nearly twice as likely as White British men to be in professional jobs, and this advantage rose by 6% between 2003 and 2008. Other groups experienced a decline in this respect with Other White men and Other Asian men seeing a decline of 6% in both professional and associate professional jobs.

For disabled people who do work, there appears to be no systematic occupational bias. This is also true of those living in same-sex couples.

Some groups are particularly likely to be doing certain types of job. Traditional gender patterns persist, with for example 83% of people working in personal services but just 6% of engineers being female; 40% of working women are employed in the public sector, compared to just 15% of men. In some cases there are extreme concentrations within a particular occupation; for example, 1 in 4 Pakistani men are transport drivers (mainly taxi drivers) as their main job.

¹²⁹ To boost sample sizes, LFS datasets are merged to include 2007q1, 2008q2 and 2009q3.

¹³⁰ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 36.

11.3 What we know about occupational segregation

Recent survey-based research found that **gender appears to be a more important differential than social class in accounting for differences in career aspirations**. Boys are more likely than girls to expect to work in engineering, ICT, skilled trades, construction, architecture or as mechanics. Girls are more likely to expect to work in teaching, hairdressing, beauty therapy, childcare, nursing and midwifery. These career choices have major implications for employment trajectories and income levels.¹³¹

What we know about the situation for different groups

Gender and age

Vertical segregation

Vertical segregation by age is associated with labour market processes that reflect youth transitions into the labour market and the accumulation of experience over time. So for young workers setting out on their careers, lower proportions can be expected to be in managerial positions which tend to be associated with experience and so dominated by older workers.

This was the case for young men (aged 16-25) in 2007-09 who were over-represented in elementary unskilled occupations and sales jobs (as shown in Table 11.3.1 below). For many young people, low paid, low quality jobs may be combined with education, performed on a part-time basis and temporary in nature. By age 45-55 in 2007-09, the proportion of men in unskilled elementary jobs had fallen to around 1 in 10 (9%), while the proportion of men in sales jobs had fallen to just 2% in line with the average.¹³² Similarly, the proportion in managerial, professional and associate professional positions rose to 24%, 15% and 13% respectively, levels that remain broadly unchanged until state pension age.¹³³

Around one quarter of 45-55 year old men (24%) were in management positions, a figure which fell to 19% of men aged 56-64.¹³⁴ This may reflect downshifting trends in the lead up to retirement.

¹³¹ Li, Y. Devine, F. and Heath A. 2008. *Equality group inequalities in education, employment and earnings: A research review and analysis of trends over time*. Research Report 10. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission.

¹³² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 45.

¹³³ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 45.

¹³⁴ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 45.

Table 11.3.1 Major occupational group of men (%) by age in Britain, 2007/09¹³⁵

	16-25	26-44	45-55	56-64	Total
Managerial	5	21	24	19	19
Professional	7	16	15	15	14
Associate professional	12	15	13	11	14
Admin/secretarial	7	4	4	5	5
Skilled trades	21	18	18	19	19
Personal services	3	2	2	3	2
Sales	15	3	2	2	5
Process plant and machinery	8	11	13	15	12
Elementary	22	9	9	11	11
Base	8,477	33,000	19,000	11,000	71,000

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Young women (aged 16-25) followed a similar pattern to young men. They were under-represented in managerial and professional jobs and over-represented in sales and unskilled occupations.

However, in contrast to men, women continue to be under-represented in better paying, higher status managerial and professional occupations. As shown in Table 11.3.2, vertical segregation continues to be apparent in relation to gender for the 25-55 year old age group. The proportion of women in associate professional jobs peaks between 26 and 44 years (at 19%), tailing off subsequently to reach 12% of those aged 56-59 years. In 2009, women held just over a third (34%) of managerial positions, just over two-fifths of professional jobs, (43%) and half of associate professional jobs (50%).

A slight increase in the proportions of women in unskilled jobs aged 56-59 is evident, rising from 10% of 45-55-year-olds to 13% of older women.

¹³⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.6a, page 46.

Table 11.3.2 Major occupational group of women (%) by age group in Britain, 2007/09 ¹³⁶

	16-25	26-44	45-55	56-64	Total
Managerial	5	14	13	11	12
Professional	6	14	14	14	13
Associate professional	13	19	15	12	16
Admin/secretarial	18	18	21	24	19
Skilled trades	1	2	2	3	2
Personal services	17	15	15	13	15
Sales	22	8	8	9	10
Process plant & machinery	1	2	2	2	2
Elementary	16	8	10	13	10
Base	8,600	31,000	18,000	5,000	63,000

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Horizontal segregation

Horizontal segregation appears to be highly entrenched. Far more women than men work in the public sector with just under 40% of women's jobs nationally in the public sector compared to around 15% of positions held by men.¹³⁷ Overall women account for:

- 77% of administrative and secretarial posts
- 83% of personal services posts
- 65% of sales posts.¹³⁸

While there are signs of improvement in women's presence in the professions, this varies widely across professional groups; the proportion of women in engineering, ICT and working as architects, planners and surveyors remaining stubbornly low with women making up:

- 6% of engineering posts
- 13% of ICT posts
- 14% of architects, planners and surveyors.¹³⁹

¹³⁶ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Table 2.6b, page 47.

¹³⁷ Trade Union Congress 2010. Women and recession: one year on. Available at: <http://www.tuc.org.uk/extras/womenandrecessiononeyearon.pdf> using Annual Business Inquiry (2008) data. Accessed 19/08/2010.

¹³⁸ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Table 2.2b, page 34.

¹³⁹ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Table 2.3, page 35.

Disability

Vertical segregation

Disabled and non-disabled men and disabled and non-disabled women appear to have similar occupational profiles, despite the significantly lower probability of disabled people being in paid employment. The occupational profiles of disabled men and women show little change over time, although a comparison of disabled with non-disabled men between 2003 and 2008, suggests small gains among the former. While 1% more non-disabled men were employed in managerial or professional jobs during this time period, the equivalent figure for disabled men was 2%.¹⁴⁰

Table 11.3.3 Major occupational groups (%) by disability and gender in Britain, 2007/09¹⁴¹

	Non-disabled men	Disabled men	Non-disabled women	Disabled women
Managerial	19	18	12	11
Professional	14	12	13	11
Associate professional	14	12	17	15
Admin/secretarial	5	5	19	21
Skilled trades	19	19	2	2
Personal services	2	3	15	17
Sales	5	4	10	11
Process plant & machinery	11	15	2	2
Elementary	11	13	10	12
Base	63,579	8,211	56,299	7,967

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Note: Age 18–State Pension Age.

Horizontal segregation

Occupational cluster analysis shows little evidence of occupational segregation or sector-based segregation – in 2005, long-term disabled men and women made up around 13% of both public and private sector workforces.¹⁴² There is therefore a far more pressing need to improve employment participation rates among disabled people than improving their access to professional and managerial positions.¹⁴³

¹⁴⁰ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.4c, page 40.

¹⁴¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.4c, page 40.

¹⁴² Heap, D. 2005. 'Characteristics of people employed in the public sector', Labour Market Trends, December: 489-500. Available at: http://www.statistics.gov.uk/articles/labour_market_trends/characteristics_Dec05.pdf Accessed 19/08/2010

¹⁴³ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 54.

Ethnicity

Vertical segregation

Vertical segregation is apparent for men and women by ethnicity – people from some ethnic groups are more likely to be in higher skilled, professional occupations than others. For example, Chinese and Indian men are nearly twice as likely as White British men to be in professional jobs (27%, 25% and 14% respectively). Chinese, Indian and White British men are most likely to be employed in managerial jobs, at around 20%. This compares to 15% of Pakistani men, 14% of Bangladeshi men and only 11% of African and 10% of Caribbean men. However, these results should be treated with caution due to the limitations of the occupational categories used as set out at the beginning of the chapter.

At the other occupational extreme, significant differences prevail in the incidence of each group in elementary jobs. African and Bangladeshi men are most likely to be employed in unskilled jobs, with this being the case for almost a quarter of working African men (23%) and a quarter of Bangladeshi men (21%). This compares to 10% of White British men, 15% of Pakistani men, 15% of Other Asian men and 16% of Other White men.¹⁴⁴

These gender patterns broadly hold true for women in every ethnic group, although women are significantly less likely to be employed in managerial or professional jobs compared to their male counterparts. There are two exceptions – Bangladeshi and Pakistani women are more likely to be employed as professionals than Bangladeshi and Pakistani men.¹⁴⁵

Of all women, 13% are in professional occupations, rising to 16% of Bangladeshi women, 18% of Indian and 21% of Chinese women. At the other occupational extreme, 1 in 10 of all women are employed in unskilled elementary jobs, which includes 17% of 'Other' White women, 16% of 'Other' Asian women, 13% of Chinese women and 9% of Indian women.¹⁴⁶

¹⁴⁴ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.4a, page 37.

¹⁴⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.4b, page 38.

¹⁴⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.4b, page 38.

Horizontal segregation

Distinct occupational clustering is evident for men (aged 25-55) in some ethnic groups compared to the White British majority. Some cluster in well paid high status jobs while others cluster in low paid positions of lower status. The most extreme examples of clustering include the:

- 24% of Pakistani men who are transport drivers (mainly taxi drivers) in their main jobs
- 17% of Chinese men who are chefs
- 9% of Indian men who work in ICT professions
- 8% of Africans who work in elementary security occupations (often security guards).¹⁴⁷

A disproportionate number of Pakistani men are also self-employed (21%).¹⁴⁸

Overall, ethnic minority women, even more than White British women, are clustered in a narrow range of jobs. As with men, for some women it can be described as an advantage in that the occupations are associated with higher levels of pay and higher status, but for others, the occupations can be associated with less well paid positions. For example, for Black African and Caribbean women, their most notable occupational clustering is associated with healthcare and related personal services occupations. These include nursing auxiliaries and care assistant positions that tend to be less well paid than other healthcare-related jobs.¹⁴⁹

Pakistani women have a more mixed experience as they are over-represented as health professionals but are also clustered in lower status, lower paying sales assistant jobs. Larger sample sizes are required to describe with any confidence the situation facing Bangladeshi women in the labour market but they do appear to be clustered in lower status positions such as sales assistants and educational assistants.

Evidence indicates that overall, when data are broken down into generations, the 'second generation' of ethnic minority men and women (those born in Britain) have made substantial progress compared to the first generation. Second generation ethnic minority men and women in employment have similar chances (after allowing for age and qualification) of working in professional and managerial jobs as White British workers.¹⁵⁰

¹⁴⁷ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 58.

¹⁴⁸ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 112.

¹⁴⁹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 59.

¹⁵⁰ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 225.

Religion or belief

Vertical segregation

Overall, occupational segregation appears to have a religious dimension; however caution is required in drawing conclusions due to the small sample sizes (particularly of Buddhists, Jews and Sikhs).

Jewish men appear to be the most advantaged in the labour market (with a full 80% in managerial, professional and associate professional jobs), followed by Hindu men, 62% of whom are in these better paying, higher status positions. Only 35% of Muslim men are found at this level, less than half that of Jewish men. Muslim men are found to a greater extent instead in plant and machinery factory work and in unskilled elementary jobs (36% combined) compared with around one quarter of Christians (23%) and Sikhs (25%), and 6% of Jewish men, who are the least likely to be in these lower paid, lower status positions.

Between 2003 and 2008 the clearest gains were made by Sikhs - their proportion of in managerial or professional jobs increased by 8 percentage points (with a 9 percentage point fall in factory or unskilled jobs). Muslim men stand out as being the most disadvantaged on this measure, and show the largest declines over time. They experienced a drop in the percentage employed in managerial or professional jobs of 7 percentage points.¹⁵¹

Table 11.3.4 Major occupational group of men (%) by religion in Britain, 2007/09¹⁵²

	Christian	Buddhist	Hindu	Jewish	Muslim	Sikh	Other	No religion
Managerial	20	22	20	30	16	18	18	18
Professional	13	18	32	30	10	13	15	16
Associate professional	13	18	10	20	9	11	14	15
Admin/secretarial	5	6	6	4	4	4	3	5
Skilled trades	19	11	6	4	11	16	20	19
Personal services	2	4	2	1	3	2	4	2
Sales	4	7	7	4	11	10	6	4
Process plant and machinery	12	5	7	4	19	15	8	10
Elementary	11	10	10	2	17	10	12	11
Base	5,100	224	949	298	2,133	423	591	16,000

Source: Labour Force Survey.

¹⁵¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 41.

¹⁵² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.5a, page 43.

As with men, there are differences in the occupational outcomes of different religious groups for women, but they are not large (see Table 11.3.5). Overall, Jewish women fare well in the labour market, with the highest proportions (57%) in better paid professional, associate professional and managerial jobs compared to 40% of the Christian majority. Muslim women are least advantaged on this measure but it should be noted that the proportions of Muslim women in managerial or professional jobs is only 3% lower than Christian women. At the other occupational extreme, Buddhist women are most likely to be in unskilled jobs, with nearly a fifth (18%) in elementary positions, compared to just 3% of Jewish women, 11% of Sikhs, 10% of Hindus, 10% of Christians and 10% of women of no religion. Once again, however, sample sizes are low. Further research is necessary to explore these indicative findings.¹⁵³

Table 11.3.5 Major occupational group of women (%) by religion in Britain, 2007/09.¹⁵⁴

	Christian	Buddhist	Hindu	Jewish	Muslim	Sikh	Other	No religion
Managerial	12	7	9	11	7	12	14	12
Professional	12	16	20	23	14	14	13	14
Associate professional	16	21	16	23	14	13	20	18
Admin/secretarial	20	13	20	24	19	16	18	18
Skilled trades	2	4	1	1	0	1	2	2
Personal services	16	12	8	8	15	11	14	14
Sales	10	6	12	5	17	17	10	11
Process plant and machinery	2	2	4	0	3	5	1	2
Elementary	10	18	10	3	10	11	8	10
Base	49000	262	688	222	895	384	613	12000

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Sexual orientation

Vertical segregation

Men living in same-sex couples are more likely than men living in mixed-sex couples to be employed in managerial and professional jobs in Britain. Among those married or cohabiting but without any dependent children, nearly a third (30%) of men living in same-sex couples are in a managerial job compared with around a fifth (22%) of men living in mixed-sex couples. 17% of men living in same-sex couples are in professional jobs and 18% in associate professional jobs,

¹⁵³ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.5b, page 44.

¹⁵⁴ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.5b, page 44.

compared with 15% and 14% respectively of those living in mixed-sex couples. Heterosexual men in couples are far more likely instead to be in the male dominated skilled trades, in factory work and in unskilled elementary jobs, compared to those living in same-sex couples.

A similar pattern is evident among women. Women living in same-sex couples are far more likely to be in better paid managerial, professional and associate professional jobs (18%, 22% and 27% respectively) than women living in mixed-sex couples (13%, 14% and 17% respectively).¹⁵⁵

The shift into professional occupations for men living in same-sex couples appears to be a positive trend. Between 2002-03 and 2008-09 the proportion of men in same-sex couples who were employed in managerial or professional jobs increased by 10 percentage points, compared to a 3 percentage point increase for mixed-sex couples.¹⁵⁶

However, the occupational advantage of same-sex couples disappears once education is controlled for. (The same-sex couple sample is nearly twice as likely to be educated to degree level and this is likely to explain their over-representation in better paying managerial and professional jobs). Further research is required to explore whether the circumstances of gay people who are not married or cohabiting are as favourable as those in known relationships. Currently no such data exist.¹⁵⁷

Horizontal segregation

The data show little indication of occupational clustering for men and women living in same sex couples. However, various small scale studies and literature reviews indicate there may be problems for gay men and women in terms of perceptions and experiences of homophobia in the police service and armed forces, teaching and manual trades.¹⁵⁸

¹⁵⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Table 2.4c, page 40.

¹⁵⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010, merging LFS data 2001q1 and 2003q2, 2008q2 and 2009q3 to boost sample sizes. Table 2.9a, page 55.

¹⁵⁷ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 39.

¹⁵⁸ Ellison, G. and Gunstone, B. 2009. *Sexual orientation explored: A study of identity, attraction, behaviour and attitudes in 2009*. Research Report 35. Manchester: Equality and Human Rights Commission. Page 10.

11.4 What we know about illness and injury at work

Measure:

Weighted average prevalence of work-related illness and injury per 100,000 employed based on occupation

How this measure works:

We are able to report on this measure for Britain using Health and Safety Executive estimates of rates of ill health and injuries derived from a specific module in the Labour Force Survey 2006/08.

Estimates of both workplace injury and work-related illness from the Labour Force Survey are referred to as ‘self-reported’ estimates. This is particularly important for work-related illness, where the estimates represent an individual’s perception of the contribution that work made to the illness, rather than a medically verified estimate. Self-reports of work-related illness whilst not an exact measurement of the ‘true’ extent of work-related illness, do provide a reasonable indicator.¹⁵⁹ These data are valuable in their own right, but it should be recognised that it is from the perspective of an individual’s perceptions.

We are able to report on this measure for gender, age, disability, socio-economic group, and to a limited extent, ethnicity. There is no evidence for groups defined by sexual orientation, transgender or religion or belief. Some small-scale survey evidence and other literature explore the experiences of migrant workers, however, results are indicative only of possible issues facing this group as sample sizes are generally low.

Overview

Occupational segregation explains differences in illness and injury rate. Most of the differences in the chance of being injured at work or having a work-related illness can be explained by the different occupations that different groups are engaged in. People in manual and routine occupations are most at risk.

Some groups are more likely to experience illness or injury than others. Men are more likely to be in jobs with higher risks of accidents, and suffer more

¹⁵⁹ For more information see Health and Safety Executive (HSE) *Self-reported work-related illness and workplace injuries in 2008/09: results from the Labour Force Survey*. Available at: <http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/lfs/o809.pdf> Accessed 24/09/2010.

work-related injuries. Women suffer more work-related ill health including stress, and also infectious diseases related to their predominance in healthcare jobs. South Asians have lower rates of workplace injury, because they are less likely to be employed in hazardous occupations than other ethnic minority groups.

What we know about the overall situation and trends

In 2008/09, 180 workers were killed at work; 131,895 other injuries to employees were reported under the Reporting of Injuries, Diseases and Dangerous Occurrences Regulations (RIDDOR), and according to the Labour Force Survey, 246,000 reportable injuries occurred.¹⁶⁰

In 2007 the UK had the fifth lowest rate of serious accidents at work in Europe with 75 serious accidents per 100,000 inhabitants.¹⁶¹ The lowest rates were registered in Belgium (60), Germany (66) and Italy (69). The highest were in: Ireland (107), Finland (88) and Spain (85).

1.2 million people who worked in 2008/09 were suffering from an illness in the past year that they believed was caused or made worse by their current or past work. 551,000 of these were new cases. Overall, 29.3 million days were lost: 24.6 million due to work-related ill health and 4.7 million due to workplace injury.¹⁶²

Occupational injury rates are similar across England, Scotland and Wales.¹⁶³ Within England, the highest rate was in the North East and the lowest in London. However, there seems to be no evidence of a 'regional effect', rather the differing rates are explained by differences in the personal and job-related characteristics between regions, as regions with a larger manufacturing or industrial base tend to have higher injury rates.¹⁶⁴ For instance, the form of pneumoconiosis (which is associated with coal mining) is particularly prevalent in Wales.¹⁶⁵ Overall, the differences in illness and injury between groups broadly reflect their different occupational structure.

¹⁶⁰ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 114.

¹⁶¹ Eurostat. *Serious accidents at work by gender*. Available at: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsiem090> Accessed 24/08/2010.

¹⁶² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 114.

¹⁶³ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 119.

¹⁶⁴ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 119.

¹⁶⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 119.

What we know about the situation for different groups

Gender

Men are more likely than women to be injured at work, but women are more likely to report work-related stress. The average rate of reportable injury for men over the three-year period 2005/06-2007/08 was 1,300 per 100,000 workers, compared to 750 for women.¹⁶⁶

In the workplace men and women are exposed to different health risks. These patterns can be partially explained by the different types of work done by men and women. For instance, men suffer more from asbestos-related cancers because of their predominance in occupations which in the past involved exposure to asbestos.¹⁶⁷ Women suffer more from infectious diseases because of their predominance in healthcare, social care, and employment in school and nurseries.

Table 11.4.1 Estimated incidence and rates of reportable non-fatal injury to workers by gender in Britain, 2005/06-2007/08¹⁶⁸

Gender	Average estimated incidence (thousands)	Average rate per 100,000 workers
Males	193	1,300
Females	97	750

Source: Labour Force Survey.

Note: Comparison of average 3-year estimates over time involving estimates based on overlapping time periods will not provide a robust indication of change over time. Averaged 2005/06-2007/08.

¹⁶⁶ HSE 2008. 'Estimated incidence and rates of reportable non-fatal injury to workers, by age and gender, averaged 2005/06-2007/08'. Available at: http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/lfs/0708/injage1_3yr.htm Accessed 19/08/2010.

¹⁶⁷ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 121.

¹⁶⁸ HSE 2008.

RIDDOR statistics show that over 95% of employees killed at work are men. Men accounted for 170 of the 178 fatalities in 2007-08, and 125 of the 129 fatalities in 2008-09.¹⁶⁹ This compares with 8 fatal injuries for women in 2007-08 and 4 in 2008-09.¹⁷⁰

Table 11.4.2 Injuries to men and women employees by gender in Britain, 2007/08-2008/09¹⁷¹

Fatal injury	Numbers		Incidence Rate (per 100,000)	
	2007/08	2008/09	2007/08	2008/09
Males	170	125	1.4	1.0
Females	8	4	0.1	Less than 0.1

Source: Health and Safety Executive, injuries as reported to all enforcing authorities.

Note: Averaged 2007/08-2008/09.

Age

In 2006/07–2008/09 men aged 35-44 and women aged 45-54 were most likely to report a non-fatal injury in the workplace. Research shows that one important trigger for increased risk of an accident at work is being new to a job.¹⁷²

¹⁶⁹ HSE. 'Injuries to men and women employees by age of injured person and severity of injury, 2007/08-2008/09. As reported to all enforcing authorities'. Available at: <http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/tables/agegen1.htm> and <http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/tables/agegen2.htm> Accessed 09/08/2010. Data for 2008/09 are provisional.

¹⁷⁰ HSE 'Fatal injuries for men and women, 2007/08-2008/09 as reported to all enforcing authorities'. Available at: <http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/tables/agegen2.htm> and <http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/tables/agegen1.htm> Data for 2008/09 are provisional. Accessed 09/08/2010.

¹⁷¹ HSE. Injuries to men and women employees by age of injured person and severity of injury, 2007/08-2008/09. Data for 2008/09 are provisional only.

¹⁷² Davies, R. and Jones, P. 2005. *Trends and context to rates of workplace injury*. HSE Report 386. Available at: <http://www.hse.gov.uk/research/rrpdf/rr386.pdf> Page 53.

Table 11.4.3 Estimated incidence rates of reportable non-fatal injury to workers by age and gender in Britain, 2006/07-2008/09¹⁷³

Gender	Age group	Average estimated incidence (thousands)	Averaged rate per 100,000 workers
Males	16-24	30	1,520
	25-34	38	1,170
	35-44	48	1,260
	45-54	39	1,170
	55+	26	950
	Total	180	1,200
Females	16-24	12	660
	25-34	14	530
	35-44	21	630
	45-54	27	880
	55+	18	890
	Total	93	710

Source: Labour Force Survey 2006/07-2008/09.

Note: Averaged 2006/07-2008/09.

For both men and women, the rate of major injury increases in the older age groups (within working-age). There is a sharper increase for women. Rates of slip, trip and fall injury tend to increase with age, and older workers are more likely to experience more severe injuries if they fall.¹⁷⁴

Men are far more likely to experience fatal injury at work, and the risk increases with age as shown in Figure 11.4.1. Men over the age of 65 are disproportionately at risk.¹⁷⁵ This is a particular problem in the construction and agriculture sectors.¹⁷⁶

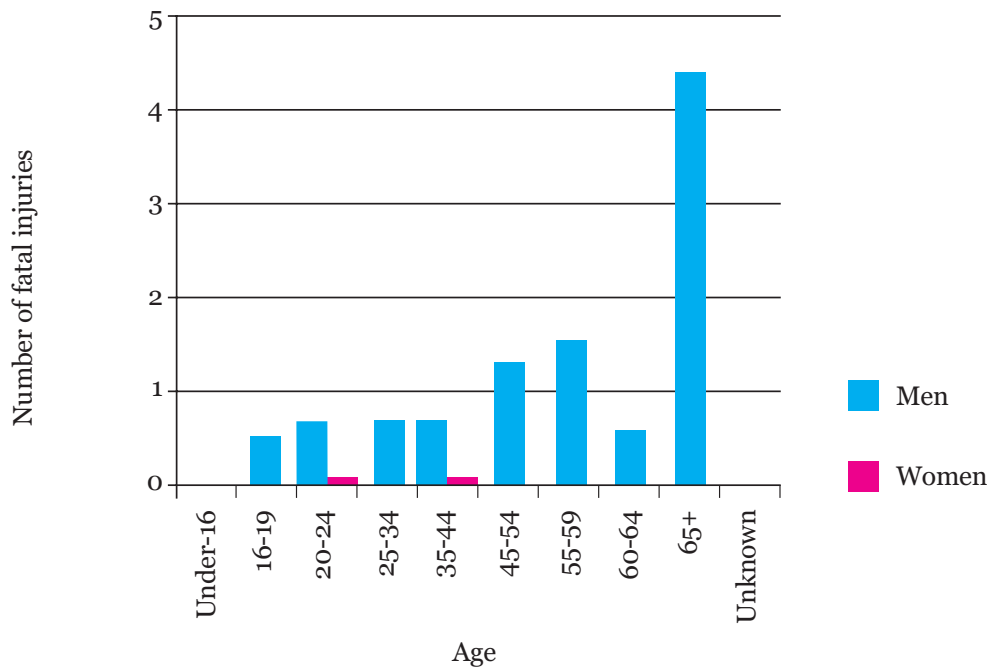
¹⁷³ HSE 2008.

¹⁷⁴ Data provided by the HSE database of RIDDOR reports for 2008/09 (provisional).

¹⁷⁵ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 128.

¹⁷⁶ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 128.

Figure 11.4.1 Number of fatal injuries to men and women employees by age (incidence rate per 100,000 workers) in Britain, 2008/09¹⁷⁷



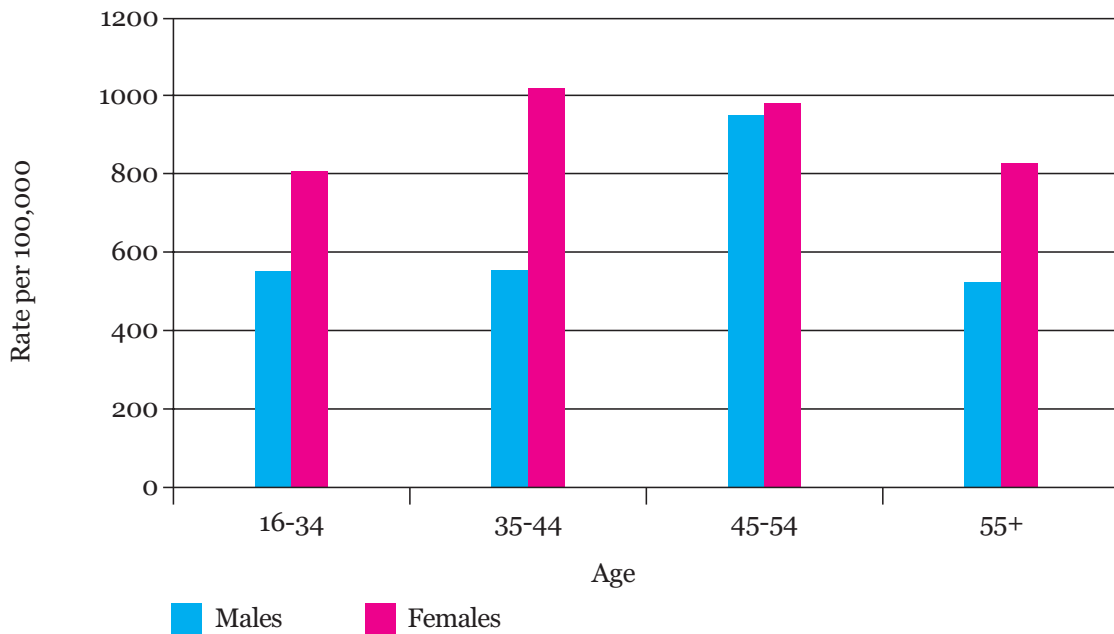
Source: Health and Safety Executive, injuries as reported to all enforcing authorities.

The prevalence of work-related ill health is also highest among older workers. For both stress and musculo-skeletal disorders (MSDs), prevalence rates increase to age 54 and then decrease in the oldest groups. According to research, older workers are more susceptible to work-related MSDs than younger workers because of decreased functional capacity. The propensity for injury is related more to the difference between the demands of work and the worker's physical work capacity (or work ability) than age.¹⁷⁸

¹⁷⁷ HSE. Injuries to men and women employees by age of injured person and severity of injury, 2007/08-2008/09. 2008/09 data are provisional.

¹⁷⁸ Okunribido, O. and Wynn, T. 2010. *Ageing and work-related musculoskeletal disorders: A review of the recent literature*. HSE Research Report 799. Available at: <http://www.hse.gov.uk/research/rrpdf/rr799.pdf> Accessed 24/08/2010.

Figure 11.4.2 Estimated rates of self-reported stress, depression or anxiety caused or made worse by work, by age and gender (per 100,000 employed in the last 12 months) in Britain, 2008/09¹⁷⁹



Source: Labour Force Survey 2008/09.

Note: ¥Rate per 100,000 employed in last 12 months.

Socio-economic groups

Those in manual and routine occupations are most likely to report experiencing workplace illness and injury. Manual occupations have higher rates of both injury and illness than office-based occupations. According to initial analysis conducted as part of the development for the Equality Measurement Framework, in 2007-08 there were 350 reported injuries per 100,000 among higher managerial and professional employees, compared with 2,037 among those working in routine, unskilled jobs.¹⁸⁰ Manual workers in the construction industry in particular run a high risk of being injured and report suffering of common complaints such as MSDs. Rarer conditions such as asbestos-related cancers are found in workers in other industries, such as ship-building, railway- engineering and insulation-manufacturing.¹⁸¹

¹⁷⁹ HSE. Estimated incidence and rates of self-reported stress, depression or anxiety caused or made worse by work, by age and gender, for people working in the last 12 months. 2008/09. Available at: <http://www.hse.gov.uk/statistics/lfs/0809/strage2w12.htm> Accessed 09/08/2010.

¹⁸⁰ Alkire, S. et al. 2009. The remit of the current project at the technical phase was to check sample sizes rather than to generate final data analysis tables. However, wherever possible, the authors have presented preliminary results for group means and the significance of the variations in group means, as well as a report on sample size. Significance tests are reported at the 95 per cent level. These results are preliminary and a series of cross-checks are required at the next stage of the development of the EMF before final data tables can be produced.

¹⁸¹ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 119.

Social-economic status and occupation also play a key role in terms of stress-related illness. Research has shown that the psychosocial work environment can have a powerful effect on workers' physical and mental health.¹⁸² Workers who have high job demands but little control over their work; those who have poor support from colleagues and supervisors; those whose efforts are not appropriately rewarded, or who have poor job security are at a greater risk of ill health. Initial analysis of the data for the development of the Equality Measurement Framework shows that these adverse work conditions are disproportionately experienced by people from lower socio-economic groups, as shown in Table 11.4.4.

Table 11.4.4 Average incidence of work-related illness and non-fatal work related injury (per 100,000 employed, based on occupation) in Britain, 2007/08¹⁸³

All	(i) Illness	(ii) Injury
Socio-economic group		
higher managerial and professional	3,276	350
lower managerial and professional	3,909	567
intermediate	3,137	762
small employers and own a/c	3,917	1,582
lower supervisory and technical	3,675	1,784
semi-routine	3,110	1,400
routine	3,277	2,037

Source: Labour Force Survey 2007-08.

Disability

There is no evidence that disabled people are more at risk of illness or injury in the work place than non-disabled people. However, although the evidence is inconclusive, the Health and Safety Executive expresses concern that employers sometimes use health and safety as an excuse for the non-recruitment or dismissal of disabled people.¹⁸⁴ The survey component of a study looking at the main health and safety concerns of employers, occupational health practitioners, health and safety practitioners, and trade union health and safety representatives found that:

- For manual work, health and safety concerns were most often expressed about people with MSDs, impaired mobility and dexterity, sight impairment and neurological conditions
- For all types of work, but especially for those in managerial, professional and administrative positions, health and safety concerns were most often expressed about people with mental illness or a learning disability¹⁸⁵

¹⁸² Smeaton, D. et al. 2010, notes that this research includes the well-known Whitehall II study. Page 132.

¹⁸³ Alkire, S. et al. 2009. See footnote 180.

¹⁸⁴ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 131.

¹⁸⁵ Office for Public Management (forthcoming).

Ethnicity

No ethnic minority group appears to be especially vulnerable to work-related injury or ill health. The differences that do exist are related to occupational segregation. For example, in 2004 South Asian people were under-represented in the most hazardous occupations compared to Black Caribbean people, Black African people or the White British population and thus reported the lowest workplace injury rates. Even after controlling for personal, job and workplace characteristics, Indian and Pakistani people remain less likely than White British, Black African or Black Caribbean people to report an injury. It is not clear whether this is a result of under-reporting among these groups.¹⁸⁶

Box 11.4.1 Related issues: Migrant workers and workplace risk

Since the Morecambe Bay disaster of 2004, health and safety concerns about ethnic minority workers have centered on recent migrants. Because of unreliable statistics, it is not known whether migrant workers in Britain are at greater risk than workers doing the same job, however, there is evidence that migrant workers are more likely to work in sectors or occupations where there are already health and safety problems.¹⁸⁷ Undocumented migrant workers, and migrant domestic workers (with or without documents) are especially vulnerable to exploitation and abuse by employers, including exposure to appalling working conditions.¹⁸⁸

Inquiry into recruitment and employment in the meat and poultry processing sector, England and Wales

In October 2008, the Equality and Human Rights Commission launched an Inquiry into recruitment and employment in the meat and poultry processing sector in England and Wales. The inquiry examined how people working in this industry are recruited, and how they are treated once they are at work. The report reveals evidence of the widespread mistreatment and exploitation of migrant and agency workers in the sector. Around 70% of workers supplied by work agencies to meat and poultry processing firms are migrant workers.¹⁸⁹ On many issues, good practice was identified both in processing firms and recruitment agencies: for example, processing firms taking practical proactive steps to promote positive interaction and cohesion in the workplace or agencies taking steps to ensure workers understood all relevant documentation including employment rights. Despite the good practice identified, one of the strongest themes that emerged from the evidence was the high level of vulnerability of many migrant workers in this sector. Issues of concern included:

¹⁸⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 125.

¹⁸⁷ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 123.

¹⁸⁸ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 124.

¹⁸⁹ We have used the definition of 'migrant worker' adopted in the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families as 'a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national'.

Health and safety: In a typical year, the meat industry reports about 200 major injuries and 3,000 other reportable injuries to employees. These figures take no account of the under-reporting known to exist or of the many other injuries where time off work is less than three days.¹⁹⁰ In the Inquiry, 1 in 6 interviewees highlighted health and safety as an area where agency workers received worse treatment. The main issues raised by those with experience of working in the industry were:

- Not being given any appropriate personal protective equipment (PPE)
- Poor quality, ill-fitting and shared PPE
- Lack of training on health and safety issues, or not being able to understand it
- Having to work excessive hours

Treatment of pregnant women: The Inquiry revealed cases of pregnant workers being forced, under threat of losing their jobs, to continue in work that posed a risk to their health and safety. Heavy lifting and extended periods of standing were reported, as were instances where pregnant women were prevented from leaving the production line to go to the toilet. The Inquiry also heard about a lack of health and safety risk assessments and reports of miscarriages attributed to lack of adjustments at work.

Physical and verbal abuse: Evidence from this Inquiry revealed a large disparity between the treatment of agency workers and that of directly employed workers across the sector. The former group are refused permission for toilet breaks, and are subjected to physical abuse in the workplace as well as verbal abuse, shouting and swearing. A number of interviewees described the emotional impact of working in an environment where they were being shouted at and verbally abused on a regular basis. People told the Inquiry about increased levels of anxiety, feelings of humiliation and inability to sleep due to the stress it caused.

Sexual orientation and transgender

There appears to be no research on the relationship between workplace injury or illness and sexual orientation or transgender. It cannot be assumed that a relationship exists, but it is possible that homophobic and transphobic bullying in the workplace might contribute to stress-related problems.¹⁹¹

¹⁹⁰ British Meat Processors Association, *Health and Safety Guidance Notes for the Meat Industry*. Available at: http://www.bmpa.uk.com/_Attachments/Resources/971_S4.pdf Accessed 23/09/2010.

¹⁹¹ Smeaton, D. et al. 2010. Page 131.

11.5 What we know about discrimination in employment

Measure:

The percentage of workers who report experiencing unfair treatment, discrimination, bullying or harassment at work

How this measure works:

We are able to report on this measure for England, Scotland and Wales using the Fair Treatment at Work Survey 2008.

As this survey collects reports of personal experience it measures perceptions of unfair treatment, bullying, harassment and discrimination rather than actionable mistreatment.

The survey is not large enough to allow disaggregation by subgroups within Scotland and Wales (thus all equality group analysis below is for England only). Data are available for gender, age, ethnicity, religion or belief, disability and sexual orientation, although limited disaggregation is possible in relation to ethnicity and religion or belief. Although this survey does not cover the transgender population, a wide variety of literature and studies are drawn on to examine the possible issues faced by this group. However results are indicative only as sample sizes are generally low.

This indicator also draws on the 2010 Citizenship Survey question that focuses on whether people feel they have been discriminated against in applying for a job, or in receiving promotion. The Citizenship Survey is not carried out in Scotland, so the analysis from this source only relates to England and Wales. The Citizenship Survey collects information by gender, age, disability, ethnicity, religion or belief and sexual orientation.

Overview

Britain is not yet a place where every group can expect to be treated equally as some groups stand out as being more at risk of experiencing unfair treatment, bullying, harassment or discrimination in the workplace.

Disabled employees and gay, lesbian or bisexual employees are over twice as likely as other employees to report experiencing discrimination, bullying or harassment in the workplace, while disabled women are four times more likely to report being bullied than other employees.

Women and ethnic minority groups are more likely to report experiencing discrimination in relation to promotion than White men.

Qualitative research and small-scale studies indicate that **the workplace remains a stressful and difficult place for some groups**, specifically transgender people and irregular migrant workers.

What we know about the overall situation and trends

The Fair Treatment at Work Survey 2008 found that 13% of British employees had personally experienced unfair treatment in the workplace in the last 2 years, and 7% reported experiencing bullying, harassment or discrimination. Overall, respondents to the survey were far more likely to cite an individualistic reason for unfair treatment such as ‘the attitude or personality of others’ (41%), ‘people’s relationships at work’ (35%) ‘it’s just the way it is’ (23%) or ‘your position in the organisation’ (21%) than a reason directly associated with a protected equality characteristic.¹⁹²

By nation, English employees reported slightly more unfair treatment (14%) than those in Scotland (12%) or Wales (10%). In terms of discrimination, English employees were also more likely to report it (8%) than Scottish (3%) and Welsh (4%).¹⁹³ Across the three nations, England and Wales had a slightly higher rate of employees reporting bullying or harassment (7%) than in Scotland (5%).¹⁹⁴

According to the Citizenship Survey, in 2009/10 7% of people in England and Wales felt they had experienced discrimination in the labour market in the last 5 years by being turned down for a job.¹⁹⁵ Similarly, 6% of people who had worked as an employee in the last 5 years reported that they felt they had been discriminated against with regard to promotion or progression. This represents a slight decrease from 9% in 2007-08 and from 7% in 2008/09.¹⁹⁶

Gender

According to the Fair Treatment at Work Survey 2008, 5% of people who reported experiencing unfair treatment at work cited their gender as the reason.¹⁹⁷ More women than men reported experiencing unfair treatment (16% compared to 11%), bullying or harassment (9% compared to 6%) or discrimination (9% compared to 6%) at work.¹⁹⁸

¹⁹² Fevre, R. Nichols, T. Prior, G. and Rutherford, I. 2009. *Fair Treatment at Work Report 2009: Findings from the 2008 Survey*. Employment Relations Research Series 103. London: Department for Business, Innovation and Skills.

¹⁹³ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Table B8.1, pages 210-211.

¹⁹⁴ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Table B8.1, pages 210-211.

¹⁹⁵ Communities and Local Government (CLG) 2010. Citizenship Survey: 2009-10 (April 2009–March 2010), England. Cohesion Research Statistical Release 12. Available at: <http://www.communities.gov.uk/documents/statistics/pdf/164191.pdf> Accessed 21/09/2010.

¹⁹⁶ CLG 2009. Citizenship Survey: 2008-09 (April 2008–March 2009), England. Cohesion Research Statistical Release 8. Available at: <http://www.communities.gov.uk/documents/statistics/pdf/1284311.pdf> Accessed 21/09/2010.

¹⁹⁷ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Page 66.

¹⁹⁸ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Table B8.1, pages 210-211.

The 2009/10 Citizenship Survey shows no gender differences in terms of discrimination around recruitment. 1% of men and women felt that they had been discriminated against in this way. Similarly, 1% of people felt that they had experienced discrimination because of their gender when being turned down for a promotion. Slightly more women (2%) than men (1%) felt they had experienced discrimination due to their gender when seeking promotion.¹⁹⁹

Other evidence indicates that women are vulnerable to discrimination at particular points in their life, specifically when they are pregnant. An Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) formal investigation into the employment experiences of pregnant women carried out in 2005 found that almost half of the 440,000 pregnant women in Britain experienced some form of disadvantage at work, simply for being pregnant or taking maternity leave. Around 30,000 women were sacked, made redundant or treated so badly that they felt they had to leave their jobs.²⁰⁰ A survey of 122 recruitment agencies by the Recruitment Employment Confederation in 2005 found that more than 70% of agencies had been asked by clients to avoid hiring pregnant women or those of childbearing age.²⁰¹

While all pregnant women are at risk of discrimination in the workplace, women from ethnic minority backgrounds face particular barriers. The EOC's formal investigation into ethnic minority groups, found that just under a sixth of White women in the sample had often/sometimes been asked about their plans for marriage/children at interview compared to between a fifth and a quarter of ethnic minority women.²⁰²

Age

Overall, 9% of people who reported experiencing unfair treatment at work believed it was because of their age.²⁰³ Younger workers were more likely to report unfair treatment and discrimination at work than their older colleagues, whilst older people were slightly more likely to report bullying or harassment. In 2008, 17% of employees aged 16-24 compared to 11% of those over 50 reported experiencing unfair treatment and 10% compared to 6% reported experiencing discrimination. With regards to bullying 8% of those aged 50+ reported experiencing it compared to 5% of employees between 16 and 24 years of age.²⁰⁴

¹⁹⁹ CLG 2010.

²⁰⁰ Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) 2005. *Greater expectations. Summary final report EOC's investigation into pregnancy discrimination.* Available at: http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/uploaded_files/eoc_pregnancygfi_summary_report.pdf Accessed 09/08/2010.

²⁰¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 84.

²⁰² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 84.

²⁰³ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Page 66.

²⁰⁴ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Table B8.1, pages 210-211.

The 2009/10 Citizenship Survey also suggests that younger individuals are more likely to feel they have been discriminated against on the grounds of their age when turned down for a job than older individuals. 5% of those aged 16 to 24 and 4% of those aged 50 and over felt that they had experienced this form of discrimination, compared to 1% of those aged 25 to 34 and 2% of those aged 35 to 49. In contrast, people aged 50 years were more likely to feel they had experienced discrimination due to their age when seeking promotion than those aged 35 to 49 years (2% compared with 1%).²⁰⁵

Research has found discrimination against older Black, White and Asian women who reported facing fewer promotion opportunities, limited access to training and were allocated less rewarding and challenging work.²⁰⁶

Disability

There is ongoing evidence of disability discrimination in the workplace. According to the Fair Treatment at Work Survey 2008, 3% of people who reported experiencing unfair treatment at work cited a disability as the reason.²⁰⁷ Overall, people with a disability or long-term illness were more likely than those without to report experiencing unfair treatment (19% compared to 13%). The same survey found that people with a disability or long-term illness were almost twice as likely to report experiencing discrimination as those without a disability or long-term illness (12% compared to 7%) and were over twice as likely to report experiencing bullying or harassment in the workplace (14% compared to 6%).²⁰⁸ In the 2005/06 Fair Treatment at Work Survey disabled women were found to be four times more likely to be bullied than other employees.²⁰⁹ This is reflected in the fact that claims on the grounds of disability discrimination have risen every year for the last 3 years.²¹⁰

²⁰⁵ CLG 2010.

²⁰⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2009.

²⁰⁷ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Page 66.

²⁰⁸ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Table B8.1, pages 210-211.

²⁰⁹ Grainger, H. and Fitzner, G. 2008. *The First Fair Treatment at Work Survey: Executive summary – updated*. Employment Relations Research Series 63. London: Department for Trade and Industry. Due to changes in questions, this information was not available in the 2008/09 survey.

²¹⁰ Equality and Human Rights Commission. *Submission to the United Nations. ICESCR Shadow Report*. Available at <http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/human-rights/international-framework/international-covenant-on-economic-social-and-cultural-rights/> Accessed 24/09/2010.

Those with a long-term illness or disability are significantly more likely to report feeling that they have been discriminated against in relation to recruitment or promotion than the average. In the 2009/10 Citizenship Survey, 5% of people with a long-term limiting illness or disability felt they had experienced discrimination because of their disability in relation to recruitment, and 3% in terms of being turned down for a promotion.²¹¹

Other research indicates apparent discrimination against disabled applicants from all types of organisation, irrespective of size. A CV test experiment assessed the extent of discrimination for disabled people in the private sector in Scotland.²¹² The research found that those who disclosed a disability were more than half as likely to be called for interview than those with otherwise identical CVs (69% compared to 31%). There was also a noticeable difference by type of impairment. An applicant with cerebral palsy was called for interview in 80% of cases, whereas an applicant registered blind was called for interview in only 20% of cases.²¹³

Ethnicity

The Fair Treatment at Work Survey only distinguishes between White British and an 'other' ethnic minority group. The most significant difference in the data is in relation to discrimination with 7% of White British people reporting it compared to 12% of people from ethnic minorities. There are small differences between the two groups in terms of unfair treatment, with 13% of White workers reporting it, compared to 15% of those belonging to an ethnic minority group, and a similar picture for bullying and harassment with 7% of White British workers reporting it compared with 8% of people from ethnic minorities.²¹⁴

Data from the Citizenship Survey 2009/10 also suggest that individuals from ethnic minority groups are more likely to feel that they have experienced discrimination on the grounds of their race than White people. Compared to 1% of White people, 7% of ethnic minority people in 2009/10 felt they had experienced labour market discrimination by being turned down for a job because of their race. Black Caribbean people are most likely to report experiencing this form of discrimination (10%) compared to 4% of Indians and 4% of Chinese/Others.²¹⁵

²¹¹ CLG 2010.

²¹² MacRae, G. and Laverty, L. 2006. *Discrimination doesn't work: disabled people's experiences of applying for work in Scotland*. Edinburgh: Leonard Cheshire Disability Scotland.

²¹³ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 235.

²¹⁴ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Table B8.1, pages 210-211.

²¹⁵ CLG 2010.

In terms of promotion, 1% of White people felt they had experienced discrimination due to their race when seeking promotion. A higher percentage of people from ethnic minority backgrounds overall felt that they had experienced this form of discrimination (5%). In particular Black African (9%), Black Caribbean (8%), Indian (5%), Chinese/Other (4%) and Pakistani (3%) people were more likely to feel they had experienced discrimination on the grounds of their race than White people (1%).²¹⁶

A wide range of smaller-scale research provides evidence of discrimination in employment on the basis of ethnicity, particularly in terms of recruitment. One recent field experiment found evidence of discrimination at the first stage of recruitment for formal vacancies finding net discrimination in favour of White names over equivalent applications from ethnic minority candidates of 29%.²¹⁷ The level of discrimination was found to be high across all ethnic minority groups.

There is some evidence that indicates that first generation ethnic minority candidates fare less well in interviews than second generation candidates. One study of 61 video-recorded interviews concluded that the interview process creates a 'linguistic penalty' for this group due to the demands on the candidate to communicate in a particular way.²¹⁸ The study focused on interviews for low-paid, mainly manual work where the complex communication demands of the job interview often exceeded the stated requirements of the job. It found that second generation ethnic minority candidates fared as well as White British candidates.²¹⁹

Evidence suggests that ethnic minority groups are more likely to encounter racial discrimination in the private sector (35%) than the public sector (4%).²²⁰ In order to protect themselves from discrimination, one research project reported that 1 in 6 ethnic minority individuals apply online for a job because they believe that this will decrease their chances of being discriminated against.²²¹

In terms of discrimination in progression, research suggests that Bangladeshi, Pakistani and Black Caribbean women face particular discriminatory barriers in the workplace. They struggle to get jobs (and progress within them), despite rising achievement in school and having a clear ambition to succeed.²²²

²¹⁶ CLG 2010.

²¹⁷ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 85.

²¹⁸ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 235.

²¹⁹ Hills, J. *et al.* 2010. Page 235.

²²⁰ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 85.

²²¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 86.

²²² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 85.

Religion or belief

As with ethnicity The Fair Treatment at Work Survey only distinguishes between two groups: Christians and Other or non-religious. The data from 2008 suggest that there is a small difference between the two groups, with Other/non-religious people more likely to report both unfair treatment (12% of Christians and 16% of Other/non-religious people) and discrimination (7% of Christians compared to 8% of Other/non-religious people). In relation to harassment or bullying at work 7% of both groups reported experiencing it.²²³

The 2009/10 Citizenship Survey shows that less than 0.5% of people overall felt they had experienced labour market discrimination by being turned down for a job because of their religion or beliefs; this is unchanged since 2008-09 (less than 0.5%). More detailed breakdown of these figures is not possible on this dataset because of small sample sizes.²²⁴ There is little related literature looking at discrimination specifically in relation to this measure,²²⁵ however a study carried out in 2001 found that a third of Muslim people and a quarter of Jewish and Hindu people felt that they had experienced unjust treatment in the workplace.²²⁶

Box 11.5.1 Related issue: Labour exploitation

Some groups are more at risk of experiencing poor working conditions than others. Groups at particular risk include irregular migrant workers, trafficked workers, domestic workers in private households and former asylum seekers. Vulnerability is increased by the interaction of a number of factors including: being an agency worker, having limited English skills, pregnancy, lack of employment status and unfair tax status (see Box 11.4.1).²²⁷

Irregular migrant workers and labour exploitation

While not all unauthorised work is exploitative or abusive, irregular migrant workers are considered to be among the groups most vulnerable to exploitation.²²⁸ Irregular migrants are much more likely to be workless, with around 50% of adults not working in a given week compared to about 25% of the whole migrant population. When in work, migrants from 'irregular origins' earn

²²³ Fevre, R. *et al.* 2009. Table B8.1, pages 210-211.

²²⁴ CLG 2010.

²²⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 88.

²²⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 88.

²²⁷ Equality and Human Rights Commission 2010. *Inquiry into recruitment and employment in the meat and poultry processing sector*. London: Equality and Human Rights Commission.

²²⁸ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 124.

Box 11.5.1 Continued

on average about 30% less than those from legal origins; when controlling for residential status, the employment gap reduces, but the estimated gap in earnings remains the same.²²⁹

There are few sources of factual and robust information concerning the size of the irregular migrant population. In many cases the evidence comes to light only when a crisis occurs and is therefore not representative. Estimates of the total number of irregular migrants fall in the range of 373,000 and 719,000 with a central estimate of 533,000; when children are included, this figure rises to 618,000.²³⁰

Trafficked workers and labour exploitation

There are currently no available robust estimates of the numbers of victims of trafficking in the UK for the purpose of labour exploitation.²³¹ This is not helped by the fact that the distinctions between trafficking, smuggling and forced labour in particular are overlapping and blurred. The latest data from the UK Human Trafficking Centre (UKHTC) provide information on referrals by nationality, area of origin, gender, age and type of exploitation. We know that victims of sexual exploitation and domestic servitude are predominantly female, while those of forced labour are more likely to be male. In 2010, children were identified as victims in all forms of exploitation, but predominantly in sexual exploitation and forced labour.²³¹

Child workers and labour exploitation

The Child Exploitation and Online Protection Centre estimated in 2009 that 360 potential child victims are trafficked per year.²³² However, this estimate relies on very limited quantitative data and should be treated as a low estimate. Foreign national children trafficked to the UK most often work in cannabis farms. Research conducted by UNICEF in 2009 suggests that children also work in restaurant kitchens, nail bars and food processing factories.²³⁴ The vast majority work without a permit (although studies show large regional variation), sometimes for extremely long hours or in dangerous conditions.²³⁵

²²⁹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 143.

²³⁰ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 141.

²³¹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 144.

²³² Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 147.

²³³ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 149.

²³⁴ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 150.

²³⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 150.

Domestic workers and labour exploitation

Domestic workers are considered to be among the most vulnerable groups to face exploitation. In the UK, migrant domestic workers have the legal status of workers (i.e. they are entitled to a minimum wage and time off etc). However many are not aware of their rights and as they tend to work alone in residential properties, their problems rarely come to attention. A small-scale study of 340 registered domestic workers sheds light on their experience. Of the registered workers, 80% were women; the majority were working for Middle Eastern employers. Half worked more than 16 hours per day and almost two-thirds had no day off. A huge percentage (72%) reported suffering from psychological abuse.²³⁶

Agency workers and labour exploitation

Foreign workers are more likely to be engaged in agency work in the UK rather than as direct employees. Agency workers are considered to be particularly vulnerable due to their lack of equal rights within current employment law.²³⁷ The vulnerability of agency workers is indicated by the fact that over 40% of the licenses issued by the Gangmasters Licensing Authority (GLA) were conditional due to poor employment practices, specifically failure to adhere to wage, health and safety legislation, and failure to protect workers from bullying, harassment and physical violence.²³⁸ Almost 1 in 5 (19%) of agency workers in the UK are from ethnic minority groups compared to 13% of temporary workers as a whole, and just 8% of all employees.²³⁹

Specific sectors have been identified as particularly problematic, including construction, hospitality and care. Some sectors have a higher proportion of agency workers than others. For example, it is estimated that foreign nationals represent 66% of the total number of workers supplied by agencies in agriculture and horticulture and migrant workers make up 70% of agency staff in meat and poultry processing firms.²⁴⁰ A recent inquiry into recruitment and employment in the meat and poultry processing sector found that more than 8 out of 10 of the 260 workers who submitted evidence said that agency workers were treated worse than directly employed workers. This included receiving poorer pay, being allocated the least desirable jobs, and being treated like 'second-class' citizens in the workplace. No one thought that agency workers were treated better than permanent staff.²⁴¹

²³⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 151.

²³⁷ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 151.

²³⁸ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 152.

²³⁹ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 151.

²⁴⁰ Equality and Human Rights Commission 2010.

²⁴¹ Equality and Human Rights Commission 2010.

Sexual orientation

The Fair Treatment at Work Survey 2008 found that LGB adults were more than twice as likely to report bullying or harassment at work as other employees (18% compared to 7%); twice as likely to report discrimination (14% compared to 7%), and almost twice as likely to report experiencing unfair treatment (22% compared to 13%).²⁴² In the 2009/10 Citizenship Survey, 0.5% of people overall felt that they had experienced labour market discrimination when being turned down for a job or a promotion, because of their sexual orientation.²⁴³ Looking specifically at LGB people in the 2008/09 Citizenship Survey, the data show that they were far more likely than heterosexual people to report experiencing discrimination on the grounds of their sexual orientation in terms of recruitment (8% compared to less than 0.5% of all people).²⁴⁴

There are a number of other indications that LGB people experience discrimination, including that:

- LGB people are identified as one of the most stressed groups of individuals in society vulnerable to high levels of stress-related ill health
- There are reported fears about disclosing sexual orientation in the workplace for fear of discrimination²⁴⁵
- The 2008 Gay British Crime survey conducted by Stonewall found that 1 in 10 respondents was a victim of a hate crime incident committed by a work colleague.²⁴⁶

²⁴² Grainger, H. and Fitzner, G. 2008.

²⁴³ CLG 2010.

²⁴⁴ CLG 2009.

²⁴⁵ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 89.

²⁴⁶ Smeaton, D. *et al.* 2010. Page 89.

Transgender

Although little empirical work has been done in the area of employment for transgender people, it is reported in qualitative research and small-scale survey work that the employment sphere is the space in which transgender people face the most significant and pervasive levels of discrimination. Available studies provide evidence of harassment and other forms of discrimination in the workplace:

- 42% of people not living permanently in their preferred gender cited the workplace, and a fear that their employment status might be threatened, as a reason for not transitioning²⁴⁷
- 1 in 4 transgender people report making use of an inappropriate toilet in the workplace, or none at all, in the early stages of transition
- As a consequence of harassment and bullying 1 in 4 transgender people will feel obliged to change their jobs.²⁴⁸

In terms of trigger points for discrimination, transgender people highlight transitioning at work as the most difficult time.²⁴⁹

²⁴⁷ Whittle, S. *et al.* 2007. Page 15.

²⁴⁸ Whittle, S. *et al.* 2007. Page 39.

²⁴⁹ Whittle, S. *et al.* 2007. Figure 4.3, top 9 trigger points, page 26.

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