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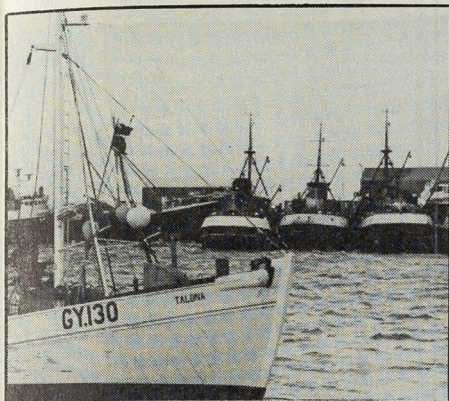
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OF POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC SCIENCE

Long-term unemployment: new evidence
The extent of the closed shop
Career attitudes of undergraduates



Inside story:
Fishing for new jobs

Contents



Cover picture:

International interest has been aroused by the success of an MSC-sponsored Grimsby scheme to retrain jobless deep-sea fishermen in the skills of multi-purpose fishing. A local seiner, the MFV *Talona*, was hired for the scheme. Full story: page 5.

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BACKFILE VOLUMES

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Price £1.65 net

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Finniston Committee

School curriculum and parental attitudes keep women out of engineering

Less than half a per cent of the current stock of engineers are women. Girls make up only just over three per cent of all engineering students, although 42 per cent of graduate scientists from universities are women and most of the increase in numbers of sixth form students in the last ten years has been in the number of girls.

Sex differentiation

The Finniston committee says that the reasons why more women have not entered engineering include sex differentiation in the curriculum reinforced by parental and school attitudes tending to steer girls away from engineering; lack of precedents which mean that girls are less likely to know of other women in engineering; problems of working patterns acting as a deterrent to women who envisage raising a family in mid-career, with employers unwilling to provide expensive training, and the expense of child minders unrelieved by tax concessions for those who decide to stay at work.

Few engineers at top (continued from page 3)

report, have more often trained in finance and general administration, thus setting the tenor of "the British management culture".

This point was picked up by the Industry Secretary, Sir Keith Joseph, speaking on the publication of the report. He said that many commentators and politicians identified the problems of industry with overlapping snobberies which were "anti-enterprise, anti-excellence, anti-business and anti-engineering".

New educational qualifications (continued from page 3)

Under the new Engineering Authority, the committee proposes there should be an integrated package of academic education, structured training and industrial experience, leading to an engineer becoming qualified.

Qualification would be at three levels—Registered Engineer Diplomate (R Eng (Dip)); Registered Engineer (R Eng); and Registered Associate Engineer (R Eng (Assoc)). The new qualifications would be based on two new academic degrees called Master of Engineering and Bachelor of Engineering, as well as on development of the current Higher National and equivalent awards.

The committee recommends that students accepted on to accredited engineering degree courses should get higher grants amounting to at least £250 a

Women who break their careers should be given opportunities for part-time work to keep up their expertise and confidence and to ensure a greater possibility of their eventual return to full-time employment. Through the MSC and the Industry Training Boards there should be a scheme for women returning to engineering after a career break to be attached to a company for, say, six months for on-the-job retraining with a nominated tutor.

Programmes of talks

Proposals which the committee has endorsed include making teachers and careers advisers more aware of the opportunities open to women and more programmes of talks in schools by young engineers. Engineering departments in universities and polytechnics should encourage women on maths and science courses to take an interest in engineering and enable them to transfer to engineering courses after their first year.

Sir Monty Finniston added that no lawyer or accountant had ever designed a motor car.

Product champion

In many countries round the world, the report points out, innovation in manufacturing companies is more often than not brought about by an engineer acting as a "product champion" to introduce new ideas.

year more than the local authority award. Engineers registered by the committee's proposed authority, should have a statutory right to periodical sabbatical leave in order to update their skills in the light of technological change.

Regional Development

Contributions of £98.2m from the European Regional Development Fund towards projects in the UK have been announced. This brings total Fund contribution to UK projects since its inception of the Fund in 1975 to over £410m.

New technology

Microprocessors need not spell unemployment

Micro-electronic technology should not cause large scale unemployment, says a new Department of Employment Study Group report*, *Manpower Implications of Micro-electronic Technology*.

In fact, failure to exploit the new technology would have extremely serious consequences for employment and the economy generally, emphasises the report. Because of widely-publicised predictions that this technology would cause large scale unemployment, the Group tested the assumptions behind these forecasts; it also examined some factors which might slow down successful adaptation to the new technology.

The report concludes that technological change need not lead to increased unemployment in the long run; by raising productivity and reducing unit costs it will create opportunities for economic growth and hence employment.

A special feature on the report will appear in the next issue of *Employment Gazette*.

● A recent research study of senior managers in industry conducted by Market and Opinion Research International (MORI) for the Department of Industry, showed that one in five of the companies surveyed had incorporated a microprocessor in a product and just over half of the firms reported some microprocessor application in the areas of design, process, product and/or quality control.

Slow reaction

However, 29 per cent had apparently made no use at all, as yet, of the new technology.

The researchers found that four per cent of managers felt they had lost some of their company's market because of slow reaction to the chip; a further eight per cent expected to, and 38 per cent admitted they had reacted too slowly.

Four important features emerged: the possible "benefits" were more heavily endorsed than the drawbacks; less than half the managers expected the size of their workforce to fall; the vision of vastly increased leisure had little support; and managers expected the effects on industry at large to be more pronounced than in their own companies.

A summary of MORI's findings can be found on page 39.

* HMSO, £3.50.

Technical trades for Skillcentre girls improve opportunities



Building competition cars is 24-year-old Shelagh Harbour's (centre) career goal for the 1980s—and she is on the right road to reach her ambition. Shelagh is one of four women of TOPS courses at the Manpower Services Commission's Hindley Skillcentre.

Shelagh who is on the precision grinding course, and her husband David, have a Ford RS1600 and a 1275 Cooper S.

Joanne Gordon (right) is learning welding. "I've been doing CO₂ welding in the engineering industry for some years," she explained. "But I couldn't get a good rate for the job so I'm improving my skills and hope to get a better job when I leave, perhaps working on pressure vessels."

Electrical installation and maintenance work is the goal of Lynne Vinicombe (left) who has been working in the building industry in the Leeds area as an electrician's mate and, like Joanne, wants to upgrade her skill.

Maxine Brown is also on the electrical course and hopes to get a job in the trade when she leaves the Skillcentre in February.

All the girls passed through the applicants' pre-entry tests to assess their suitability for training, and the three-week assessment to ensure that they could cope with the course.

Experiment to retrain fishermen attracts international interest

An experimental scheme to re-train jobless deep-sea fishermen in the skills of multi-purpose fishing has proved so successful that it is to be extended and other countries have asked for details.

The scheme is based in Grimsby and funded by the Manpower Services Commission's Training Services Division. It has been master-minded by John Simpson, the training officer of the Grimsby Fishing Vessel Owners' Association, and Murdo McInness, chairman of the Fishermen's Training Scheme Committee.

A local seiner, the *MFV Talona*, was hired for the scheme and one of the port's most experienced and respected skippers, Tom Christenson, was put in charge of the actual training.

A series of eight courses started in January 1979 and by the end of the year seven had been completed, retraining 37 formerly jobless fishermen in anchor seining, fly seining and pelagic fishing. Most have found employment on the small, multi-purpose boats.

The scheme was the first of its kind in Europe and copies of the syllabus have been sent to France, Italy and the EEC Fisheries Division. Denmark has purpose-

Freight forwarding training for certificate planned

The International Freight Forwarding Training Council plans to launch a national training scheme with recognised certificates of competence for all aspects of forwarding (surface and air), following a recent survey.

These certificates will establish professional standards of training and will have the backing of the Institute of Freight Forwarders.

Survey undertaken

A survey of some 300 freight forwarding companies was undertaken by the Manpower Services Commission's Directorate of Training on behalf of the International Freight Forwarding Training Council, to enable it to devise and implement appropriate training policies. The report recommends the introduction of management training as an integral part of career development, to improve management practices.

The report criticises the lack of adequate training facilities in certain areas of the country including the Midlands, Scotland, Wales and the West country which emphasises the need for a national training strategy, supported by proficient trainers.

Redundancy survey

General managers and production managers are more likely to be made redundant than other executives according to a survey by the Institute of Personnel Management. The most common reason for declaring executives redundant is a change in management structure, and the decision on whom to make redundant is most frequently based on work performance.

* *Executive Redundancy*, IPM Information Report 30, £15.

New approach to work experience needed in school curriculum, says training director

An appeal to integrate properly organised work experience into the school education of 14- to 19-year-olds has been made by Dr Ron Johnson, Director of Training at the Manpower Services Commission.

Addressing the National Education Conference of the National Union of Teachers, he said: "The knowledge of most young people including young graduates of the world of work, of different jobs and different sectors of employment is generally deplorable."

"I am not convinced that it is good enough to leave this to be covered in the traditional curricula of our schools and it seems to me that a new approach is required."

Emphasising the need to distinguish between the curricula for young people up to 16 and those between 16 and 19, Dr Johnson said that as far as the school leaver was concerned: "Few employers expect specific job skills to be covered in secondary schools."

Basic requirements

Available evidence pointed to eight basic requirements that employers wanted young people to fulfil. They were:

- to read, write and do arithmetic;
- to have some understanding of the need to produce materials, to manufacture goods and distribute and sell them at a price people could afford;
- to appreciate the need for punctuality and the need to work consistently, quickly and accurately;
- to understand the different types of jobs and industries;
- to be able to communicate, take part in group discussion and use the telephone;
- to produce practical solutions to everyday problems;
- to learn without being formally instructed, from experience and from situations arising at work; and
- to get on with a range of people at work, and recognise the need to share knowledge and skills in achieving results.

Turning to the needs of 16-19 year olds staying at school, he said: "Major reform is widening the choice and scope of studies far beyond traditional academic disciplines."

"I know that many young people will be preparing for university or other courses with prescribed entry qualifications. But we may need to look afresh at the effect of these examinations on the overall study programmes of these young people."

He warned of the pressing problem facing young people who stayed at school without such clear goals.

Declaring a personal interest in how young people were prepared for their lives at work, Dr Johnson told the conference: "The problems our young people face are not merely concerned with earning a living. The greatest challenge of all is to cope effectively with the changes they will face in every sphere of life."

New post will help women training



Mrs Rennie Fritchie, new full-time Training of Women Co-ordinator at the Food Drink and Tobacco Industry Training Board. The post is believed to be the first of its kind within a training board.

Including those working in distribution, women make up 40 per cent of the 1.2 million employees in the food, drink and tobacco manufacturing industries.

Mrs Fritchie's appointment illustrates the board's determination to help create better training opportunities for women who want more responsible posts and to help companies to improve their training of female staff.

She is responsible for administering a new grant scheme for training women over 30 years of age for managerial and significant supervisory posts. This scheme, introduced by the board last April, has been developed to encourage employers to examine more critically their provision of opportunities for the training of women for such posts.

Twenty grants have been made available for the training period April 6, 1979 to April 5, 1980 to be awarded at the board's discretion.

Steel closure towns get Development Area status

To alleviate the effect of steel closures, the Government has made Corby and Shotton Development and Special Development areas respectively (*Employment Gazette*, November 1979, p. 1087).

An Order before the House of Commons took effect from December 12, 1979 designating the Corby Employment Office Area as a Development Area and the Shotton Travel-to-Work Area (comprising the Employment Office Areas of Flint, Holywell, Mold and Shotton) as a Special Development Area.

As a Development Area, firms investing in Corby will now be eligible for a full range of regional incentives including regional development grants and regional selective financial assistance under section 7 of the Industry Act 1972. Corby is also now eligible for assistance from the European Regional Development Fund infrastructure and industrial projects.

Firms investing in the Shotton travel-to-Work Area are now eligible for the highest rates of regional incentives available in Great Britain. The area will continue to be eligible for assistance from the European Regional Development Fund towards infrastructure and industrial projects and also, as a steel closure area, from the non-quota section of the Fund and from the European Coal and Steel Community.

Jobcentre found all store's staff

A Jobcentre was officially thanked for its services in recruiting staff at the civic opening of a giant supermarket in Huddersfield recently.

During the opening of the new Hillard's Superstore, managing director Peter Hartley made a point of thanking Jobcentre manager Dick Mortimer for the help given by the Huddersfield Jobcentre in recruiting staff for the store.

Handled applications

The 34,000 sq ft superstore required almost 200 staff and the Jobcentre handled 1,400 applications for the jobs.

Among the tasks the Jobcentre-recruited staff will be doing are operating the electronic checkout tills, manning the 450-car double storey car-park and looking after a new system which enables shoppers to take full trolleys to the car park.

Homeworkers

New regulations are proposed to protect homeworkers from dangerous substances

Proposals for new regulations* to replace outdated sections of the Factories Act, and other legislation dealing with the registration of homeworkers have been published for consultation by the Health and Safety Commission. Comments are asked for by June 30, 1980.

Under the Commission's proposals, the new regulations would replace section 133 of the Factories Act, and various orders and regulations which date back to 1911. Section 133 was designed to prevent homework from being undertaken in unhygienic conditions but, say the Commission, the infectious diseases associated with such conditions are now largely under control, and views on precautions have also changed.

Obligations

Potential risks to homeworkers' health and safety arise nowadays much more from the actual processes used. The new proposals would provide information to enable inspectors to ensure that employers carried out obligations already placed on them by the Health and Safety at Work Act with regard to homeworkers, while avoiding the accumulation of unnecessary detail.

The proposals aim to control risk from materials or equipment provided for homeworkers at source. They envisage that firms or individuals putting work out to homeworkers would send information to their local inspector twice a year about the nature of the work and the materials or

equipment used. They would also be expected to keep a record of the names and addresses of their homeworkers.

The Commission also propose that certain potentially dangerous substances should be banned from use in homework, or permitted only under strictly defined conditions. Inspectors would in any case be able to prohibit the individual issue of any substance, if the circumstances warranted it, using the normal means of enforcement under the Act.

"Homeworkers" would not include self-employed craftsmen, the document proposes, and would cover only those who do not market their own product. Processes such as duplicating and clerical work would not be included within the scope of the regulations.

However, it is made clear that anyone who employs homeworkers even for these processes must comply with the general provisions of the Act. Consequently, any homeworker, whether working on a notifiable process or not, is entitled to help and advice from the enforcing authorities.

It is not intended that routine inspections should be made of domestic premises. Inspectors would assess potential risks from the returns of the type of work put out and the materials and equipment used, and would pursue any question of risk to homeworkers with the supplier of the work.

* *Homeworkers—Draft Regulations*, 50p from HSE Enquiry Point, Baynards House, 1 Chepstow Place, London W2 4TF.

Railways

Short cuts across lines cause needless deaths

The safety of men at work on the line is currently the most intractable problem faced by railway management, says Lt. Col. Ian McNaughton, Chief Inspecting Officer of Railways, in a report* to the Minister of Transport and the Health and Safety Commission published recently.

Despite sustained improvement up to 1973, the situation during the past five years has remained static with an average of 30 fatal accidents a year during the movement of rail vehicles.

The number of deaths says Lt. Col. McNaughton, are unnecessarily increased by those railwaymen who needlessly endanger themselves by taking short cuts across running lines, walking on the line with their backs to oncoming traffic, or simi-

lar dangerous practices.

Apart from British Rail and London Transport, the Railway Inspectorate also has a general responsibility for the oversight of some 28 minor statutory and 140 non-statutory passenger-carrying railways and tramways.

Their accident record has been satisfactory, but since they are largely steam worked a need has arisen for some guidance on the operation and maintenance of steam locomotive boilers. A guidance note will be published by the Health and Safety Executive soon.

* *Railway Accidents: Report on the Safety Record of the Railways in Great Britain during the year 1978*, HMSO, price £3.25 plus postage.

Report highlights research work of HSE

The latest report* on the research programme of the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) concentrates generally on practical developments designed to improve health and safety at work. A summary of the report can be found on p. 40.

During 1978, the period covered by the report, research ranged from the safety of fairground equipment to the potential use of a new infra-red measuring method for determining the concentration of asbestos fibres.

Most of the research and testing took place at the HSE's own laboratories at Buxton, Cricklewood and Sheffield, but 26 per cent of the £10 million expenditure was allocated to extramural contracts. This provides the Executive with essential expertise and facilities which are not immediately available within HSE.

* HMSO, £2.50.

Statutory medical examination fees go up this month

The fees paid by employers to the Health and Safety Executive's Employment Medical Advisory Service (EMAS) for statutory medical examinations under various Factories Act Regulations have been increased by new regulations which came into operation on January 7, 1980*.

The fees have not been increased since 1971, and need to be increased in order to carry out the policy of the Health and Safety Commission and of the Government to move towards charges that will recover the full economic cost of the examinations.

They include, for instance, those for examinations to detect increased lead absorption or early signs of lead poisoning, by far the major proportion of all statutory examinations. They will increase from £1.05 to £6.75 for the first person examined and from 35p to £2.25 for every other person examined.

About 22,000 statutory medical examinations are carried out by EMAS every year. A further 90,000 examinations are carried out by EMAS-approved doctors employed by the companies concerned; their fees are agreed between the doctor and the employer concerned.

* S.I. 1979 No. 1553: *The Health and Safety (Fees for Medical Examinations Regulations 1979)*; HMSO; 20p plus postage.

International conventions: Government publishes White Paper on its intentions

The Government's proposed action over two Conventions adopted by the International Labour Organisation are the subject of a recent White Paper (Cmnd. 7786, 90p, HMSO).

Public service

The first Convention concerns labour administration, and the second concerns trade union rights in the public service. The Government has welcomed these instruments and intends to ratify both Conven-

Financial institutions should invest more in small firms



Joseph: discussion with leading figures

Industry Secretary Sir Keith Joseph has said that the Government looks to the financial institutions to increase their investment, by a variety of methods, in the small firms field.

In the course of a general discussion on small firms with leading figures in the financial institutions, Sir Keith said that there was a general consensus that an "equity gap" existed for the smallest firms, in sums from about £100,000 right down to a few thousand pounds.

Sir Keith acknowledged the problems of high risk and the high cost of vetting and monitoring such small investments, but he suggested the institutions and their policy holders, pension fund members etc had a common interest in the revival of the economy, of which a reinvigorated small firms sector was a crucial element.

tions and to accept the Recommendations which supplement them.

Primarily designed for developing countries, the instruments on labour administration lay down the pre-requisites for developing and applying a national labour policy. Emphasis is on decentralisation and on representation at all stages of the views and interests of workers and employers.

From the other Convention and Recommendation, public servants receive rights which have already been secured for other workers by ILO instruments adopted 30 years ago.

Conditions of employment

They cover protection of the right to organise, and procedures for determining their conditions of employment. They protect public servants against discrimination for taking part in union activities, and their unions against any interference from the public authorities.

Each country can determine how far the terms of the Convention are applied to the most senior public employees, those engaged on highly confidential work, the armed forces and the police.

The Recommendation (but not the Convention) also provides for recognition of unions which goes beyond accepted practice in this country, so acceptance of the Recommendation is therefore subject to a reservation on this point.

Clerical training ignored in most firms—booklet

Training for clerical work is a "modern Cinderella" in most British firms, says a new Manpower Services Commission booklet. Yet often a firm's clerical staff are expensive to recruit and keep, are often the major contact point with customers, and their inefficiency costs money.

Available to managers

To focus employers' attention on the latest developments in clerical training, the booklet, *Identifying Clerical Training Needs*, is being made available, at £1 per copy, to managers throughout the country, particularly to personnel managers of small firms.

It is the latest in the "People and Work" series of guides which the MSC launched last November.

The guide emphasises the importance of proper clerical training and management understanding of this need by pointing out: — clerical jobs are continually changing in

Wool industry should not have tolerated its problems

Some problems in the wool textile industry have remained unresolved in a way which the industry should not have tolerated, says a report from the Health and Safety Executive.

Reported accidents

Although the incidence of reported accidents in the industry is just below that for manufacturing industry as a whole, the proportion involving moving machinery is almost double the national industrial average. Other types covered include noise and the use of dyestuffs.

* *Wool Textile: Health and Safety 1971-1977*; HMSO, £1 plus postage.

One day seminars to be held on dust and fume

The Department of Industry's Warren Spring Laboratory is holding a series of one-day seminars on dust and fume control at various sites throughout the country. The next meeting will be held at Bristol on March 13, 1980. Subsequent meetings are planned in Glasgow, Birmingham, London and Newcastle.

Further details from: Mr K. W. Payne, Warren Spring Laboratory, PO Box 20, Gunnels Wood Road, Stevenage, Herts SG1 2BX (tel: 0438 3388 or telex 822550).

response to developing technology:

— many clerical jobs require specialist training and involve responsibility.

It also explains that clerical training is often passed over because: there are other more obvious claims on company resources; it is difficult to identify the specific training needs; and the importance of clerical activities is often underestimated.

Four other titles

Together with four other titles—*Selecting the Younger Trainee*; *Trainability Testing*; *Selecting and Training Coloured Workers*; *Auditing Management Development*—the new guide is available from the Manpower Services Commission (Training Services Division) Box No PW200, Selkirk House, 166 High Holborn, London WC1V 6PF. Free introductory leaflets are also available containing essential elements of the practical guides.

The long-term unemployed: some new evidence

by Maureen Colledge and Richard Bartholomew,

Manpower intelligence and planning division, MSC

IN OCTOBER 1979 the number of those unemployed for more than one year (the definition of long-term unemployment used in this study) stood at 337,000. This figure constituted just over a quarter of all those registered as unemployed. Long-term unemployment in 1979 was higher than at any time since the Second World War and in the last decade alone had nearly quadrupled. The gravity of this problem is obvious, yet there is at present a gap in the information available on the long-term unemployed, particularly in regard to their individual characteristics and what MSC programmes currently do for them. The MSC has therefore mounted a research study which provides information to fill that existing gap and to indicate where and in what ways additional help could be most effective.*

Purpose and structure of the study

The general aims of the study were to provide information on:

- the educational, training and employment backgrounds of the long-term unemployed, to indicate their potential for work and training;
- The social, physical and psychological factors affecting their ability to take up work or training; and
- their attitudes towards various MSC programmes.

We have chosen to focus upon the individual characteristics of the long-term unemployed rather than attempting to explain the existence of long-term unemployment. The recent increase in long-term unemployment is the result of the same causal factors which have led to a substantial rise in total unemployment, and long-term unemployment and total unemployment can be shown to be closely related to one another. A study of the characteristics of individuals can however partly explain why some particular categories of people are more likely to find themselves out of work for lengthy periods.

The research commissioned for the study involved:

- a large-scale structured survey of 1,698 long-term unemployed people who were randomly selected for interview from those registered at Jobcentres and Employment Offices; this was carried out by Research Surveys of Great Britain Ltd, and is referred to below as the *RSGB survey*;
- 50 depth interviews with long-term unemployed people, including ten who were registered with PER: these were carried out by Cragg Ross and Associates, and are referred to below as the *CR study*.

The RSGB survey provided information about the characteristics and activities of the long-term unemployed while the CR study gave information about the effects of long-term unemployment on individuals and about their attitudes towards various MSC schemes. The data from these sources was supplemented by statistical information

from PER computer records about all long-term unemployed professionals and executives registered with them (12,797 people in September 1979) and by information from a recent follow-up survey of MSC Special Programme participants which included 113 previously long-term unemployed people.

The sample of respondents obtained for the RSGB and CR parts of the study very closely matched available national statistics for the long-term unemployed population in terms of age, sex, duration of unemployment and regional profiles, though there may be other respects in which our sample differed from the overall pattern.

The long-term unemployed

The general picture of the long-term unemployed which emerged from the RSGB and CR work indicates that a number of inter-related factors including age, level of qualifications and skills, type of occupation and industry, health, regional location and employment history help to explain why some unemployed individuals are more likely than others to find themselves in the predicament of being out of work for long periods. However, the importance of these various factors naturally varies from time to time and place to place.

We know from national statistics that four out of five of the long-term unemployed are men. The sex distribution of those surveyed was very similar to that indicated by

‘A quarter of all those interviewed who had gone after jobs thought that they had failed to obtain work because employers regarded them as too old. Many of the older respondents were reconciled never to working again.’

national statistics with 79 per cent of the RSGB survey sample being male. Fifty-eight per cent of all those interviewed in this survey were married and over one-third had dependent children. Disproportionately more men than women were married.

The age profile of those interviewed in the RSGB survey was very similar to that found in national statistics for all the long-term unemployed. The long- and short-term unemployed differ considerably in terms of age distribution. Those unemployed for less than one year are heavily concentrated among the under 35-year-olds. In April 1979, 64

* The full report, *A Study of the Long-Term Unemployed*, is available from the Manpower Intelligence and Planning Division, Manpower Services Commission, Room 10/6 Selkirk House, 166 High Holborn, London.

Special Features

per cent of the unemployed out of work for less than one year were under 35, while 65 per cent of the long-term unemployed were aged 35 or older. The RSGB survey showed the same picture: 65 per cent were aged 35 or over. Age therefore appears to be an important contributory factor in long-term unemployment, and those older workers who were out of work certainly believed it to be so. A quarter of all those interviewed who had gone after jobs thought that they had failed to obtain work because employers regarded them as too old. Many of the older respondents were reconciled never to working again.

Nearly three-quarters of those interviewed in the RSGB survey had formerly been manual workers, the majority having held semi-skilled or unskilled jobs. Only 20 per cent of respondents in this survey claimed to have had craft-type jobs. Women and the older long-term unemployed were more likely to have worked previously in non-manual jobs, whereas the younger long-term unemployed were more likely to have worked in semi-skilled or unskilled manual occupations. Those people in the RSGB survey who had formerly worked in professional and managerial jobs were concentrated in the 60 plus age group.

Information from PER records showed that long-term unemployed male registrants came principally from managerial occupations in both the service and industrial sectors and from teaching. A large number (46 per cent) of the long-term unemployed women registered with PER were teachers, mainly in primary and secondary education. In all occupational groups, with the notable exception of teaching, at least half of the unemployed men were aged 55 or over. Some of these had probably taken early retirement (and may have been occupational pensioners) or could not find another job because of their age. In teaching occupations, however, the age distribution of the long-term unemployed was very different: some 41 per cent of the men and two-thirds of the women were under 35.

Only a minority of the long-term unemployed in the RSGB survey had any formal educational or vocational qualifications. Most had left school at the minimum leaving

... there comes a point when people can no longer sustain their motivation in the face of continued rejection, heightened awareness of their own shortcomings, disillusionment with job-finding services, belief that all available options have been covered, and a knowledge that jobs are scarce anyway.

age and 77 per cent had no formal qualifications whatsoever. Even among the 16-24 years age group, 73 per cent had no qualifications. Moreover, a small but significant proportion of those interviewed seemed to have literacy or language problems.

In terms of the industry of their last employer, the respondents in the RSGB survey came disproportionately from construction, manufacturing and the basic industries—all sectors which have suffered reductions in employment in recent years and where employment prospects are not good.

The regional pattern of long-term unemployment follows fairly closely the regional distribution of these declining industries. The long-term unemployed are located disproportionately in certain regions. National unemployment statistics for April 1979 show that the percentage of

unemployed who are long-term unemployed ranges from 31 per cent in the North and North-West to 22 per cent in the South East (including London and East Anglia). In terms of the ratio of long-term to short-term unemployment, the regional profile for all PER registrants was similar to that for unemployed people generally.

Respondents in the RSGB survey gave a number of reasons for leaving their last job. Redundancy was the single most important cause, accounting for a quarter of the reasons given, and was particularly significant in the older age groups. Younger people were more likely to have been dismissed for reasons not connected with health or to have left on their own accord through dissatisfaction. Ill health assumed greater importance among those aged 35 and over, accounting for about a quarter of the reasons mentioned by these older age groups.

Health was clearly a major factor affecting the employability of some of those interviewed. More than a third of the sample in the RSGB survey said that they had some handicap or illness which affected their activities, and 13 per cent were registered as disabled. These figures indicate that there are considerably more registered and unregistered disabled people among the long-term unemployed than

People become locked into a vicious circle: lack of success in job finding reduces their motivation and this subsequently reduces even further their chances of finding work.

there are among the unemployed in general, where in March 1979 four per cent were registered disabled and a further five per cent were unregistered disabled. The significance of health problems increased in the older age groups and amongst those who had previously worked in lower status jobs. The state of a person's health also affected the duration of their unemployment; 47 per cent of the registered disabled in the RSGB survey had been unemployed for over three years as compared with only 22 per cent of those who suffered from no handicap or illness.

Nearly all those interviewed had had some previous experience of work. For many this was their first experience of unemployment while others had only been unemployed once before. More erratic work histories were evident in the case of some semi-skilled workers though this may have been a reflection of the unstable and insecure nature of employment in these occupations rather than the result of "fickleness" on the part of individuals.

Job-seeking

In both the RSGB survey and the CR study it was apparent from respondents' actions and attitudes that most wanted to be working. The duration of unemployment did however tend to affect adversely people's motivation to find work. The CR study in particular suggested that there comes a point when people can no longer sustain their motivation in the face of continued rejection, heightened awareness of their own shortcomings, disillusionment with job-finding services, belief that all available options have been covered, and a knowledge that jobs are scarce anyway. In short, people become locked into a vicious circle: lack of success in job-finding reduces their motivation and this subsequently reduces even further their chances of finding work.

In spite of this tendency, most respondents in the RSGB survey were still actively seeking jobs and visiting Jobcentres and Employment Offices was for them the most widely-used method of job-seeking. However, the frequency of use of Jobcentres and Employment Offices, declined with increasing length of unemployment and those in the older age groups were less likely than the younger long-term unemployed to have made recent visits. Nevertheless, the average number of jobs that people had gone after or been sent to was 13, although a minority had not been after any. It seems that people's own initiatives were more important than those of Jobcentres or Employment Offices in finding jobs to go after. Sixty per cent of those who had successfully found jobs by the time they were actually interviewed had obtained them mainly independently—through friends, by approaching employers directly and by applying to jobs advertised in local newspapers.

The attitudes of the long-term unemployed to Jobcentres and Employment Offices were, as might be expected, largely negative. Comparison with the findings of an Employment Service Division survey carried out in 1977 shows that the long-term unemployed people in the RSGB survey were more critical of the Government employment services than were employed and unemployed job-seekers generally.

However, in comparison with this earlier survey of attitudes, the long-term unemployed people in the RSGB survey were more likely to agree that the staff were helpful and sympathetic even if they were dissatisfied with the overall level of service which was provided. It is impossible to say to what extent this degree of criticism was justified. It

Many of these people compared their benefits with the likely pay from jobs which were available and felt that the extra amount was inadequate compensation for the rigours of a job and the expenses incurred by travel and extra food. In fairness . . . the pay levels expected from a job rarely seemed to be unrealistically high.

must be remembered that many of the long-term unemployed had characteristics such as poor health, low skill levels and, occasionally, erratic work records which would have made it very difficult to place them with employers. Yet it was understandable for them to take a negative view of an employment service which had apparently failed to remedy their predicament by finding them a job.

This criticism has to be seen in the light of the limits which many of the long-term unemployed in the RSGB survey placed on the sort of job which they would consider. Inadequate pay, travelling distances and heavy work, were given as the main limitations to taking jobs. Flexibility in job requirements did not appear to alter with increasing lengths of unemployment though people located in areas of high general unemployment were more prepared to consider any kind of job opportunity which occurred. Almost a quarter of those interviewed in the CR study regarded pay as a dominant constraint on their job flexibility. Many of these people compared their benefits with the likely pay from jobs which were available and felt that the extra amount was inadequate compensation for the rigours of a job and the expenses incurred by travel and extra food. In fairness to such people, the pay levels expected from a job

rarely seemed to be unrealistically high. Sixty per cent of those in the RSGB survey for instance said that they expected to earn a gross weekly wage of less than £70 per week.

Personal morale

Previous research has shown that prolonged unemployment affects an individual's psychological and social well-being*. The respondents in both the RSGB survey and the CR study were no exception. Most had become very pessimistic about their chances of finding work. Few of those interviewed in depth in the CR study demonstrated any confidence that they were acceptable, attractive or potentially useful to employers and many were resigned to

It does bother me. But if you ponder on it, you'd go loony. You can't plan ahead, so you just live day-to-day . . . It's not just the money. Work gives you something to do. I'm just wasting away.

believing the converse. Young would-be entrants to the labour force and those older workers whose working lives had prematurely ended displayed the lowest levels of confidence and self-esteem.

Very few respondents seemed to be able to fill their time in a satisfying way. Boredom, idleness and listless depression were frequent complaints. In the words of one respondent in the CR study: "It does bother me. But if you ponder on it, you'd go loony. You can't plan ahead, so you just live day-to-day . . . It's not just the money. Work gives you something to do. I'm just wasting away."

Lengthy unemployment had also affected the respondents' personal and social relationships. In the CR study, several said that budget reductions and over-proximity caused frequent tensions between family members occasionally leading to violence, divorce and family break-ups. Many complained that unemployment diminished their social activities and led to a loss of friends.

Young people were particularly concerned about this tendency. In the words of one young person in the CR study: "When I was at school, I used to have loads of friends. Now a lot of them . . . have got jobs and you tend to lose contact. I've become lonely . . . I do get terribly depressed at times. I think I'll end it all, but I haven't got the nerve."

Others noted with a measure of distaste that any social life they did have tended to revolve around other people in similar circumstances and that this formed a separate structure divorced from the mainstream of social activity. Unemployment also led to a loss of social status. Several respondents noted that other people tended to view them as scroungers and ne'er-do-wells.

MSC schemes

Those interviewed in the RSGB survey did not display a high degree of awareness about the existence of the various MSC schemes which are designed to help people get jobs or training. The Training Opportunities Scheme and the Job

* A useful review of the more important studies in this area can be found in Richard Harrison, *The Demoralising Experience of Prolonged Unemployment*, *Employment Gazette*, April 1976. A more recent study is J. M. Hill, *The Social and Psychological Impact of Unemployment*, Tavistock Institute, April 1977.

Creation Programme were the two schemes about which respondents had most knowledge. As might be expected, nearly half of those under 25 knew about the Youth Opportunities Programme. In spite of the overall lack of awareness just under a quarter of the sample had applied to one or other of the schemes though the rate of *successful* applications was not high.

While more than one third of respondents in the RSGB survey—mainly younger people—said that there was some sort of training they wanted to do, less than half of them had actually attempted to gain such training. Interest was highest in training for the engineering and construction trades. The CR study revealed that even among those interested in training there was an underlying concern about the acceptability of Government training courses to unions and employers. Some were anxious about the potential lack of a permanent job at the end of the training scheme. Similar

‘When I was at school, I used to have loads of friends. Now a lot of them . . . have got jobs and you tend to lose contact. I’ve become lonely . . . I do get terribly depressed at times. I think I’ll end it all, but I haven’t got the nerve.’

fears were expressed about temporary work schemes, although four out of five of those interviewed said that they might be interested in a scheme of this kind.

However, evidence from a study of former long-term unemployed people who had joined the MSC’s Special Temporary Employment Programme suggests that such schemes only partially resolve the problems encountered by the long-term unemployed. The group of people included in this small study were fairly atypical of the long-term unemployed as a whole: they were disproportionately younger; were overwhelmingly drawn from the shorter duration long-term unemployed; and possessed a slightly higher level of qualifications than the long-term unemployed generally.

Yet despite this, on leaving their scheme these people

were more than twice as likely as their fellow scheme-leavers, who had formerly been unemployed for less than a year, to find themselves once again without a job. Just over a third of the previously long-term unemployed who had

‘It is clear that for many the long duration of unemployment progressively reduces their chances of becoming employed as they gradually and perhaps realistically despair of ever finding work and consequently lose the motivation necessary for continued job-seeking.’

left their schemes found themselves in this position. It is possible to conclude from this that the factors which had contributed originally to their long-term unemployment continued to adversely affect their success in job-seeking even after they had been on a scheme. Conversely, however, it must not be forgotten that attendance on such schemes did apparently help nearly two-thirds of the former long-term unemployed participants to find work eventually.

Conclusions

It is apparent from the overall findings of our study that the long-term unemployed are handicapped by a number of factors some of which such as age and health problems could not easily be resolved. Moreover, it is clear that for many the long duration of unemployment progressively reduces their chances of becoming employed as they gradually and perhaps realistically despair of ever finding work and consequently lose the motivation necessary for continued job-seeking.

The survey indicates that both the Government employment service generally and current MSC Special Programmes can only hope to resolve a part of the problem. Many of the long-term unemployed have personal and individual needs which affect their employability but which are difficult and costly to deal with. Even if it were possible to provide such help, a major reduction in the number of long-term unemployed would require a considerable increase in the level of employment. ■

Job prospects

Career attitudes of final year undergraduates

CONCERN* about the number of graduates willing to enter manufacturing industry and join small companies, which are likely to provide new opportunities, has generated increased interest in the attitudes to employment of undergraduates. A major source of statistical information is the series of co-operative studies of final-year undergraduates in Great Britain that have been carried out by Market & Opinion Research International (MORI)* since 1970. This article highlights the main results of the latest survey (in March 1979), which for the first time includes women, and reviews the changes in recent years of men undergraduate attitudes. The previous study (for 1976) was described in the October 1977 issue of *Employment Gazette*. MORI are intending to repeat this study in March 1980 for organisations interested in the recruitment of graduates.

Summary

There are marked differences between men and women undergraduates in their attitudes to career expectations, their progress in choice of career, and in their use of sources of career information. The main differences are:

- Men expect to earn more than women upon leaving university and, to an increasing extent, during their early and mid career.
- When considering career opportunities, men placed greater emphasis on a high starting salary and the importance of freedom from supervision whereas women were more concerned with the opportunity to work with people and to use their time in a full and constructive way.
- Men plan to stay longer at their first job than do women.
- Women prefer to work in London whilst men tend to prefer work out of London.

- Men are more interested than women in a very large company and in manufacturing industry, but a high proportion of graduates of both sexes wanted to work with a small company.

These differences need to be interpreted with care because of the inter-relation between the variables measured in the survey, especially sex, subject of study, and career intention. The sample profile (table 1) provides an indication of the main inter-relationships of this study as well as summarising the main results.

The changes in *men* undergraduate attitudes include:

- the importance of the University Careers Office as a source of information for evaluating future career opportunities has increased in recent years and this is now the most valuable single source and is heavily used.
- more than a third (36 per cent) of those who had applied for jobs in their final year and been interviewed had received job offers by the time of the survey in March 1979—an increase from 24 per cent in 1971.
- the preference of men to work outside London has weakened in recent years.
- since the early 1970s there has been a decline in the belief that large companies are essential for the nation’s growth.
- there is a strong rejection (especially in 1979) of the belief that the ability to contribute to society is precluded by working in industry or business.

Career expectations

The results

Table 2 shows the most important factors considered to be influencing the undergraduates choice of career. The most important consideration in 1979 remains job satisfaction—in particular, that the work should provide a sufficient intellectual challenge. A high starting salary continues to be regarded as a low priority in career choice.

There are some marked differences between the sexes in 1979, with men placing a greater emphasis on the importance of freedom from supervision, a high starting salary, and promotion, and women being more concerned with an opportunity to work with people and making full and constructive use of their time.

Final year students in 1979 expect to be earning a *salary* of £3,660 per annum in their first job (table 3). Expectations do not vary enormously and over two-thirds of students expected to get an initial income of between £3,000-£4,250 per annum. The corresponding figures for 1976 were £2,200-£3,500 per annum and for 1973 £1,200-£1,800 per annum. Engineers expect to earn about 17 per cent more than those studying arts subjects, and men expect to earn more than women. Later in their career students appear to recognise distinct salary levels

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Table 1 Sample profile Percentage

Main variables	Sex			Subject of study			
	Male	Female	All	Engin- eering and tech- nology	Science	Social science	Arts
Total respondents	66	34	100	15	26	30	29
Sex							
Male	100	—	100	21	29	29	21
Female	—	100	100	2	21	31	46
Subject of study							
Engineering/ technology	96	4	100	100	—	—	—
Science	72	28	100	—	100	—	—
Social science	65	35	100	—	—	100	—
Arts	47	53	100	—	—	—	100
University							
“Oxbridge”	81	19	100	8	28	25	40
London	62	38	100	16	37	25	24
Redbrick/New	63	37	100	17	24	32	27
Career field interest							
Public service	54	46	100	7	22	42	30
Education	55	45	100	3	34	20	43
Any business/ industry	74	26	100	23	27	25	25
R&D/Engin./ Tech. Manag.	89	11	100	51	37	8	3
Professions	70	30	100	2	23	59	15

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Table 2 "What are the most/other important factors influencing your choice of career?"

Table with 6 columns: Factors, 1972, 1973, 1976, 1979, and Percentage (Male/Female). Rows include intellectual challenge, responsibility, opportunity, and starting salary.

* factors omitted in 1976
Notes: Multiple replies mean that the sums of the percentages given are much larger than 100 (especially marked in 1972) and that caution should be used in making comparisons over time.

Table 3 Salary expectations (1979 survey) "What salary do you expect to be earning..."

Table with 4 columns: Mean expected salary (£), On leaving university, At age 30, At age 45. Rows include all respondents, sex, and subject.

Base: All respondents (1021)
Note: All salary answers are assuming present salary levels

associated with different employment sectors, with Education having the lowest salaries, followed by the Public Service, Business and Industry, and with Professional Careers coming out on top.

The survey question 'Once you begin work, how long do you expect to stay with your first employer?' showed that most students appear to be taking their first job seriously as an important step in their career.

The percentages of students who would like to work in London and to work overseas are shown in tables 4 and 5 respectively. Men undergraduates would still prefer to work out of London although this preference has been weakening over the years.

Progress in choice of career

About two-thirds of students had decided upon their career field by March of their final year, over half (58 per cent) had applied for a job, and of these 81 per cent had had

at least one interview. The percentage of male undergraduates having had interviews by the time of the survey has remained stable (at around 50 per cent) since 1971 (table 6), but the proportion of these offered a job has increased over time.

Engineering students are more likely to have both applied for a job and attended an interview than arts students. Although Oxbridge students were no more likely to have applied for a job than other students, those who had done so in 1979 were noticeably more likely to have obtained an interview (88 per cent) than were applicants from other universities.

For the actual interview most students who were seen in 1979 by prospective employers have been favourably impressed by some aspect of the interviewer's technique. Students were most concerned that the interviewers should be friendly (46 per cent) and interested (29 per cent).

Sources of career information

The growth in importance of the University Careers Office as a valuable source of information for evaluating future career opportunities and prospective employers is

Table 4 "Would you during the early years of your career..."

Table with 5 columns: Replies, 1974, 1976, 1979, and Percentage (Male/Female). Rows include 'Strongly prefer to work IN London?' and 'Strongly prefer to work OUT OF London?'.

Table 5 "How important is the opportunity of being sent overseas for a few years to you?"

Table with 6 columns: Replies, 1972, 1974, 1976, 1979, and Percentage (Male/Female). Rows include 'Very/quite important', 'Neither important nor unimportant', and 'Quite/very important'.

Table 6 Interviews/offers

Table with 8 columns: 1970, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1974, 1979, and Percentage (Male/Female). Rows include 'Percentage having any interviews this academic year...' and 'Percentage of those having interviews who have received offers'.

Table 7 "Which sources proved of greater value for evaluating organisation career opportunities?"

Table with 5 columns: Source, 1972, 1973, 1979, and Percentage (Male/Female). Rows include 'Company literature', 'Fellow students', 'Parents/relatives/friends', 'University Careers Office', and 'Career directories'.

*Sources omitted
Notes: Multiple replies mean that the sums of the percentages given are much larger than 100 (especially marked in 1972) and that caution should be used in making comparisons over time.

illustrated in table 7. Over three-quarters (78 per cent) of students in 1979 had made use of the Careers Office services, and virtually all those who had attended an interview (95 per cent) had done so.

Attitudes to business

A new question was asked in the 1979 survey to find out how interested students would be in working for four types of organisation—a small company, a very large company, a nationalised industry, and manufacturing industry.

Table 8 Career interest—type of organisation

Table with 7 columns: Percentage interested in working for—, All, Male, Female, Subject (Engineering, Science, Social science, Arts), and Percentage. Rows include 'A very large company', 'A small company', 'A nationalised industry', and 'Manufacturing industry'.

Table 9 Attitudes to business (students agreeing with the statement)

Table with 6 columns: Statement, 1971, 1972, 1973, 1979, and Percentage (Male/Female). Rows include 'Large companies are essential for the nation's growth...' and 'Working in industrial or business jobs you don't really make much contribution to society'.

students were totally against working for this type of establishment, and large numbers were classed as very/fairly interested. Social science and arts students were more against working for either of the named sectors than engineering and science students.

Finally, students were shown several statements about industry and business and asked whether they agreed or disagreed with them. Those statements which were asked in previous years are featured in table 9.

There has been a decline over the years in the belief that large companies are essential for the nation's growth—in 1971 80 per cent of those men asked believed this to be true compared with 66 per cent in 1979 (males only).

Two other statements on attitudes to business are specific to the 1979 survey. Approximately 60 per cent of students agreed with the statement that as companies grow bigger they become impersonal in their relations with people.

Description of the survey

Between March 5 and 20 1979 MORI conducted a research study among final-year university undergraduates (continued on page 22)

The extent of closed shop arrangements in British industry

by John Gennard, Stephen Dunn and Michael Wright*

Industrial Relations Department, London School of Economics

THE LAST comprehensive survey of the extent of the closed shop was undertaken by McCarthy who published his results in 1964¹. He reported that about 3.75 million workers were employed in circumstances where union membership was a condition of obtaining and/or maintaining employment. Despite increasing public concern over the closed shop our knowledge of the incidence of the practice remains essentially that published some 15 years ago.

In April 1978 the Industrial Relations Department of the London School of Economics began research to provide data on the extent of contemporary closed shop arrangements in British industry². The statistical information upon which this article is based has been collected over a period of 18 months, and two main methods have been used to calculate the number of workers affected by closed shop arrangements. Firstly, for some industries figures are based on information provided in over 250 personal interviews conducted on both sides of industry. Personal contact was made with senior industrial relations managers in central government, local authorities, the nationalised industries, the water authorities, and over 100 private companies. In addition, interviews were conducted with senior officials of 26 employers' associations, and 90 individual trade unions³. Secondly, for some industries the figures are based on information derived from postal surveys of a representative cross section of firms and supplemented by personal interviews conducted on both sides of industry.

Postal surveys

Postal surveys were undertaken of approximately 1,200 establishments affiliated to the Engineering Employers' Federation⁴, of over 100 separate local authorities in England and Wales, of the six Passenger Transport Executives, and of a number of companies that are highly decentralised in industrial relations matters, and highly diversified in terms of the nature of their output.

In addition to the information collected by these two methods, the research team also had access to data collected by three other academics working either directly or indirectly in the closed shop field⁵.

From this work programme we have obtained reliable information about the extent of the closed shop among 19 million of the estimated 22 million in employment⁶ thus giving a coverage rate of 84 per cent. Although management has been the major source of information, for some industries we have obtained figures from unions which proved consistent with employer estimates. In other industries, figures are based solely on management records since the trade unions were unable to provide any reliable data, but there is nothing to suggest these figures might be disputed by the unions. In other industries, the figures are based solely on trade union sources because either the employers refused to cooperate with our work or were unable to provide the information required.

* The authors would like to thank Mark Gregory for his assistance in the preparation of this article.

Definitional and identification problems

The most widely accepted definition of the closed shop continues to be that coined by McCarthy who considered it to be "a situation in which employees come to realise that a particular job is only to be obtained or retained if they become and remain members of one of a specified number of trade unions"⁷. This definition is necessarily loose for the label "closed shop" has traditionally been attached to a wide range of practices involving union membership as a condition of employment. To conform with established usage, the present study has not tied itself to any tighter a definition, except to make explicit that the term "closed shop" has also been understood to encompass arrangements whereby certain employees within grades for which union membership is compulsory are excused such membership on grounds of, say, religious belief or conscience. In short, 100 per cent union membership is not required for a practice to qualify as a closed shop.

Unfortunately, this kind of broad definition is not accepted universally. On occasions, both employers and trade unionists have defined the closed shop far more narrowly, usually in order that an arrangement with which they were associated might be excluded from the closed shop classification.

McCarthy discusses such difficulties in some detail⁸. Since his survey the problem has been added to by the spread of union membership agreements (UMAs) and their increasingly common exclusion from compulsory union membership of those employees who were outside the union at the time of the agreement's introduction. While such agreements fall within our understanding of the closed shop, a number of employers have been reluctant to refer to them as such because of the considerable pockets of non-membership within the agreement's jurisdiction and the absence of compulsion on existing non members to join the union.

In general, however, the increasing tendency towards written closed shop agreements and UMAs has helped rather than hindered research because almost all stipulate union membership to be a condition of employment and thus, in fulfilling this basic criterion, are easily identified as falling within our definition of the closed shop. Where closed shop arrangements are not the subject of written agreements, where they exist in custom and practice and are regulated with varying degrees of informality and management involvement, identification of the basic criterion may itself become a problem.

Above, it was noted that the closed shop cannot be taken as evidence of 100 per cent membership. Equally, 100 per cent membership cannot be taken as evidence of the closed shop. Often it is far from easy to ascertain whether areas where 100 per cent union membership has been long established are de facto closed shops. Where for example a union is attempting to enforce a closed shop unilaterally on an unwilling management, there may be disagreement between the two sides over the degree of compulsion involved

Table 1 The extent of the closed shop: coverage

	No. of employees June 1978 (thou)	No. of workers covered (thou)	Percentage covered by survey	No. known to be in closed shop (thou)	Percentage of workers covered by survey in closed shops	Minimum percentage of total workforce in closed shop
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	377	360	96	3	1	1
Mining and quarrying	341	296	87	296	87	87
Food, drink and tobacco	696	500	72	266	53	38
Coal and petroleum product	36	30	83	20	67	55
Chemical and allied industries	429	325	76	137	42	32
Metal manufacture	459	370	81	228	62	50
Mechanical engineering	925	786	85	412	52	45
Instrument engineering	147	118	80	16	13	10
Electrical engineering	740	629	85	220	35	30
Shipbuilding and marine engineering	175	145	83	99	68	57
Vehicles	764	650	85	369	57	48
Metal goods nes	537	460	86	178	39	33
Textiles	464	330	71	100	30	21
Leather, leather goods and fur	40	36	90	6	15	14
Clothing and footwear	365	300	82	83	28	23
Bricks, pottery, glass, cement	263	190	72	88	46	33
Timber and furniture	259	195	75	76	39	29
Paper, printing and publishing	537	445	83	354	79	66
Other manufacturing	328	270	82	137	50	41
Construction	1,219	1,086	89	89	8	7
Gas, water, electricity	340	335	99	273	81	80
Transport and communications	1,426	1,150	81	798	69	56
Distributive trades	2,683	2,200	82	397	18	15
Insurance, banking and business finance	1,134	920	81	52	6	5
Professional and scienti- fic services	3,575	3,200	90	126	4	3
Miscellaneous services	2,364	2,140	87	132	6	6
Public administration and defence	1,586	1,300	82	226	17	14
All	22,209	18,766	84	5,181		

in ensuring workers belong to the union. But even where management shares some of the administrative burden of monitoring 100 per cent union density, through, for example, the "check off" and the screening of job applicants for willingness to join the union(s), the situation may still not be recognised as a closed shop because of the absence of a test case to decide whether non-union membership constitutes proper grounds for dismissal.

If job applicants do not refuse to join the union, if employees do not lapse or tear up their union cards, or are not expelled from the union, and if trade union membership has become a deeply ingrained habit, then the issue of whether a closed shop exists in a certain workplace may lie dormant for years. Can a closed shop be said to operate in this instance? That would depend, according to McCarthy's definition, on the extent to which employees realise, when union and perhaps management pressure is exerted upon them, that failure to take up or maintain union membership would in the end result in loss of job. Especially at the macro level on which the present investigation was conducted, qualitative information on such workplace matters was not usually available. Reliance had to be placed on an open acknowledgement by the interviewee that an informal closed shop operated in a certain area. In general, a managerial acceptance of a *de facto* closed shop was regarded as evidence of its existence, although a managerial denial was not necessarily regarded as sufficient to label a grade or establishment "open". Where possible verification was sought from trade union sources and when the two

sides disagreed, the researchers were left to weigh up the evidence and make a judgement.

It is likely, therefore, that included in the present survey are closed shops that were not perceived as such by interviewees. On balance, nevertheless, because of the difficulty in identifying informal workplace practices when collecting information from company or trade union headquarters, the findings presented here are considered to be an underestimate of the closed shop population.

The general picture

Table 1 shows that on the basis of information collected, closed shop arrangements affect at least 5.2 million of the 22.2 million employees in Great Britain, that is 23 per cent or just under one in four workers. This compares with McCarthy's figure of one worker in six. This 5.2 million must be regarded as a minimum total, not only because of the identification problems underlined in the previous section, but also because in certain industries, notably construction, it proved difficult to obtain reliable quantitative information, although closed shops were known to exist. The figure given for construction in table 1 is based solely on information known to be reliable and in practice is likely to be a substantial underestimate.

Table 1 also shows the absolute and proportionate distribution of employees covered by closed shops on the basis of the Standard Industrial Classification (1968). The industries with the highest proportion of workers in closed shop arrangements are mining and quarrying (87 per cent), gas,

water and electricity (80 per cent), paper, printing and publishing (66 per cent) transport and communications (56 per cent), shipbuilding and marine engineering (57 per cent), coal and petroleum products, which include the oil companies (55 per cent) and metal manufacture which includes the steel industry (50 per cent). The industrial orders containing the smallest proportions of the workforce in closed shops are professional and scientific services which includes manual as well as non manual workers in the education and health services (three per cent), insurance, banking and business finance (five per cent), miscellaneous services which includes television and radio services (six per cent), instrument engineering (10 per cent), leather, leather goods and fur (14 per cent), distributive trades which includes retail distribution (15 per cent) and public administration and defence (14 per cent). This order includes central and local government services.

(However, many central and local government activities are classified into other industrial orders—for example, the Royal Ordnance factories are classified into mechanical engineering, the naval dockyards under shipbuilding and marine engineering, the building and civil engineering establishments of government departments, local authorities and new towns under the construction order, whilst government Skillcentres and local authority education services come under professional and scientific services.)

Contemporary distribution

Comparing the contemporary industrial distribution of the closed-shop population with McCarthy's findings presents some difficulties. McCarthy does not adhere rigidly to the SIC as we have done, but presents his figures by categories which appear to be a mixture of broad industrial orders, minimum list headings and his own divisions. These seem to have been developed on the grounds that they make more sense in industrial relations terms⁹. For example, local government employment is collected together under one heading rather than being spread out over several SICs. Some care must, therefore, be exercised to ensure that false comparisons are not made. Where McCarthy's industrial breakdown coincides with the SIC, then trends in the distribution of the closed shop population can be indicated. Elsewhere conclusions are necessarily more tentative.

Of major interest is how far the closed shop population increase has been a result of the intensification of closed shops in those industries where the practice was well established when McCarthy undertook his study and how far it has been a result of a diffusion of the closed shop into industries where the practice was formerly unusual.

As regards McCarthy's five industries within which the closed shop covered 40 per cent or more of the workforce—mining, metal manufacture, engineering, shipbuilding and paper, printing and publishing—it must be noted that the total workforce has shrunk by more than 20 per cent since 1962, compared to an average across all sectors of two per cent, so that even for these industries to have maintained their own closed shop population, to say nothing of their share of the overall closed shop population, a proportionate increase of workers covered would have had to have occurred since the early 1960s.

In some cases shrinkage has been such that numbers in closed shops have failed even to remain static. In mining

and quarrying, for example, the proportion in closed shops has stayed constant (87 per cent) but the number involved in such arrangements has been whittled down from 630,000 to 296,000. Within the limits of the data, a similar pattern has emerged in shipbuilding, the drop being from 150,000 to 99,000. In metal manufacture, the proportion appears to have increased by several percentage points but the number covered has fallen by about 30,000. Again, accepting the problems of definition, engineering seems not to have contributed greatly to the increase in employees in closed shops. Indeed, only paper, printing and publishing has shown both an increase in proportionate coverage (48 per cent to 66 per cent) and in numbers involved (295,000 to 354,000). Overall, these five industries now contribute 42 per cent of the total number of employees in closed shops in contrast to 67 per cent fifteen years ago.

On the other hand, a number of industries shown to be largely 'open' by McCarthy have experienced significant increases in closed shop coverage. In food, drink and tobacco the number of workers affected by such arrangements has grown from 35,000 (four per cent) to 266,000 (about 40 per cent); in clothing, and footwear from 40,000 (seven per cent) to 83,000 (23 per cent) despite a shrinkage of employment in this SIC; in public utilities from 30,000 (eight per cent) to 273,000 (80 per cent); and in transport and communications from 390,000 (23 per cent) to 798,000 (56 per cent). In this last case, the increase has occurred despite a reduced contribution from a traditional closed shop occupation, dockworking, from 68,000 to 30,000, because of a notable spread of closed shops on the railways, in air and road passenger transport (190,000 to 392,000) and in the Post Office.

Even in the last four main SIC orders, although clear comparisons cannot be made with McCarthy and although the closed shop density has only increased slightly to about six per cent, the huge growth in employment in these areas—42 per cent since 1962—has meant they have had some impact on the closed shop pattern. Indeed, when transport and communication, distribution and the public utilities are added, a third of the closed shop population is to be found in the service sector, compared to 23 per cent in McCarthy's survey.

White-collar penetration

To a certain extent, the closed shop has become more widespread through its penetration into white-collar employment, where about 11 per cent of the workforce are now covered by such practices whereas 15 years ago the proportion was 3.5 per cent. Today there are at least 1.1 million non-manuals (22 per cent of the total closed-shop population) in closed shops compared to 300,000¹⁰ (eight per cent of the total closed-shop population) in the early 1960s. The practice does however remain predominantly a feature of manual employment, where at least 30 per cent (4.1 m) of the workforce are covered. This helps explain why there has been a slight fall in the proportion of members of TUC unions involved in closed shops (45 per cent according to McCarthy and 43 per cent at present). The affiliation to the TUC of a number of major white-collar trade unions since the early 1960s and the growth in white-collar unionism generally, has altered the distribution between blue- and white-collar membership

in favour of less closed-shop-prone non-manual trade unionists.

In becoming more diffused throughout the economy, the closed shop has also become increasingly formal in status, especially where white-collar workers are concerned. McCarthy estimated that about 20 per cent of the closed shop population were covered by practices accorded some kind of formal recognition by management although these were not necessarily written down. Our findings show that over half are now in closed shops regulated by written joint closed shop agreements¹¹.

Pre- and post-entry closed shops

Table 2 shows the industrial distribution of closed shop arrangements in British industry on the basis of two broad categories. A minority of the closed shop population (837,000 or 16 per cent) are in "pre-entry" closed shops. The remaining 4.3 million (84 per cent) are affected by "post-entry" arrangements. It is important to distinguish carefully between the two types.

Through a **pre-entry** shop, a union seeks to control the supply of labour to employers by restricting entry to the union and by insisting at the same time that job applicants hold an appropriate union card before being considered for appointment. "Entry to the job is made contingent on entry to the union"¹². The way in which such "entry control" is exercised varies. McCarthy identified four methods¹³.

The labour supply shop—in which the union office or branch is accepted as the sole or main supplier of labour, effectively operating as a labour exchange. Recruitment of manual labour in national newspapers operates on this basis.

The labour pool shop—in which employers recruit from a recognised pool of labour confined to workers accepted into membership by the unions. Here the union office does not perform the functions of a labour exchange. Once an individual has secured entry to the pool, he is free to move from one job to another without reference to the union. Such arrangements are found in dockwork and amongst merchant seamen.

The promotion veto shop—in which seniority of union membership determines the ordering of promotion to higher status jobs, as happens amongst process workers in the steel industry.

The craft qualification shop—by which, in its purest form, craft unions or sections of unions restrict membership to those who have served an apprenticeship, ensure all apprentices join the union, and limit the numbers trained in this manner by imposition of an "apprenticeship ratio", with the intention of confining access to certain skilled jobs to union members. This kind of arrangement operates amongst skilled grades in the general printing trade.

According to the present survey, the numbers in the first three types of pre-entry shop have dwindled drastically. Those in labour supply shops have dropped from 141,000 to 74,000, in labour pool shops from 145,000 to 72,000 and in promotion veto shops from 193,000 to 127,000. In each case the explanation lies in declining employment in the industries involved.

The last variant is however more problematical. Whereas McCarthy placed 167,000 workers in craft qualification shops and another 104,000 in uncategorised pre-entry arrangements, our residual population, once the first three types have been excluded is 569,000. This significant

Table 2 The extent of the closed shop

	Pre-entry (thou)	Post-entry (thou)	All	Percentage of all closed shops
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	1	2	3	—
Mining and quarrying	—	296	296	5.7
Food, drink and tobacco	12	254	266	5.1
Coal and petroleum products	1	19	20	0.4
Chemical and allied industries	62	75	137	2.6
Metal manufacture	33	195	228	4.4
Mechanical engineering	79	333	412	7.9
Instrument engineering	2	14	16	0.3
Electrical engineering	53	167	220	4.2
Shipbuilding and marine engineering	64	35	99	1.9
Vehicles	65	304	369	7.1
Metal goods nes	11	167	178	3.4
Textiles	33	67	100	1.9
Leather, leather goods and fur	2	4	6	0.1
Clothing and footwear	6	77	83	1.6
Bricks, pottery, glass, cement	5	83	88	1.7
Timber and furniture	21	55	76	1.5
Paper, printing and publishing	176	178	354	6.8
Other manufacturing	28	109	137	2.6
Construction	5	84	89	1.7
Gas, water, electricity	—	273*	273	5.3
Transport, communications	91	707	798	15.4
Distributive trades	20	377	397	7.7
Insurance, banking and business finance	—	52	52	1.0
Professional and scientific services	3	123	126	2.4
Miscellaneous services	44	88	132	2.5
Public administration and defence	20	206	226	4.4
All	837	4,344	5,181	100.0

Note: * Some of these, probably operate as pre-entry.

increase is sufficient to raise the total pre-entry population from McCarthy's 750,000 to 837,000, which is surprising considering that our research has shown no large groups of workers who have succeeded in establishing new pre-entry closed shops since 1964.

The discrepancy may be partly explained by differences in identification. As McCarthy noted, the craft qualification shop does not always operate in the pure form¹⁴. He acknowledged that a significant portion of the workforce in certain industries, particularly engineering, were normally classified as craftsmen and would have been expected to aspire to pre-entry closed shops based on apprenticeship ratios and membership of the appropriate section of a craft union. He considered however that the degree of dilution, the size of the engineering sector and the impossibility of imposing an apprenticeship ratio, meant that craft qualification shops of the "pure" type found in printing were not likely to be extensively found in engineering.

Our evidence, especially that derived from our survey of the EEF members, suggests that this vulgarised version of the craft qualification shop, which operates in the absence of an apprenticeship ratio, has long been a fairly common feature of skilled employment, not only where skilled craftsmen form a relatively high proportion of an industry's workforce, as in engineering, but also where a handful of maintenance or similar craftsmen are employed in an establishment in which the bulk of the workforce is semi- or unskilled. Although varying in detail, these vulgarised craft qualification shops work broadly as follows.

Certain skilled jobs in a plant are designated as belonging to members of certain unions or of the craft sections of certain unions so that to fill a particular vacancy a job applicant would be expected to show his union card, partly as proof of acceptability to the established workforce and partly as evidence of competence, even though in every case the applicant would not necessarily have completed an apprenticeship to secure that card. In other words, the tendency would be towards a "union qualification" shop, the criterion being that the job applicant by either apprenticeship or some other possibly dilutionary means has managed at some stage in his life to obtain a craft card¹⁵.

Although the vast majority (well over 80 per cent) of

Table 3 The extent of the pre-entry closed shop

	Manual	Non-manual	All	Percentage of all pre-entry closed shop workers	Percentage of workforce in pre-entry closed shops
	(thou)	(thou)			
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	1	—	1	0.1	0.3
Mining and quarrying	—	—	—	—	—
Food, drink and tobacco	12	—	12	1.4	1.7
Coal and petroleum products	1	—	1	0.1	2.8
Chemicals and allied industries	62	—	62	7.1	14.5
Metal manufacture	33	—	33	3.9	7.2
Mechanical engineering	78	1	79	9.4	8.5
Instrument engineering	2	—	2	0.2	1.4
Electrical engineering	49	4	53	6.3	7.2
Shipbuilding and marine engineering	64	—	64	7.2	36.6
Vehicles	65	—	65	7.8	8.5
Metal goods nes	11	—	11	1.3	2.0
Textiles	33	—	33	3.9	7.1
Leather, leather goods and fur	2	—	2	0.2	5.0
Clothing and footwear	6	—	6	0.7	1.6
Bricks, pottery, glass etc	5	—	5	0.6	1.9
Timber and furniture	21	—	21	2.5	8.1
Paper, printing and publishing	172	4	176	21.0	32.8
Other manufacturing	28	—	28	3.3	8.5
Construction	5	—	5	0.6	0.4
Gas, water and electricity	—	—	—	—	—
Transport and communications	91	—	91	10.9	6.4
Distributive trades	20	—	20	2.4	0.7
Insurance, banking and business finance	—	—	—	—	—
Professional and scientific services	3	—	3	0.4	0.1
Miscellaneous services	8	36	44	5.3	1.9
Public administration and defence	20	—	20	2.4	1.3
All	792	45	837	100.0	

workers covered by pre-entry shops other than labour supply, labour pool and promotion veto are in skilled grades, this is not always the case. In engineering, for example, we have found pockets of semi- and unskilled workers in pre-entry shops. Here, clearly, craft qualification is unlikely to be a factor; rather, an even more vulgarised version of the practices described above probably operates. To be acceptable a job applicant has to have been a member of a certain union for a specific period, or where there is a waiting list for jobs in certain high paying establishments, priority may be given to existing union members.

Pre-entry quantified

McCarthy made no attempt to estimate how far such craft qualification shops of varying degrees of purity existed in engineering, incorporating instead all those covered by pre-entry arrangements in that industry in the uncategorised 104,000 mentioned above, along with other similarly unclear pre-entry practices found in the rest of the economy. The present research has been able to quantify such practices through the EEF survey, which revealed that in engineering alone well in excess of 200,000 engineering workers, mostly craftsmen, on management admission might be found in craft qualification shops and their diluted versions.

At first sight, this suggests a startling increase in pre-entry arrangements in engineering since 1964. However, the survey also revealed that at least 75 per cent of those in pre-entry shops were covered by practices which pre-dated 1965, which in turn suggests that the McCarthy figure was a considerable underestimate, especially as his 104,000 residual pre-entry population covered all sectors of the economy, not merely engineering. For that reason, we have concluded that the apparent increase in the pre-entry closed shop population since McCarthy's study is due to McCarthy's unwillingness to include a substantial portion of workers in vulgarised Craft qualification shops in his pre-entry total because of a lack of available data¹⁶ and that

Table 4 The extent of the post entry closed shop

	Manuals	Non-manuals	All	Percentage of all post entry closed shop workers	Percentage of workforce in post-entry closed shop
	(thou)	(thou)	(thou)		
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	2	—	2	—	0.5
Mining and quarrying	200	96	296	6.8	86.6
Food, drink and tobacco	206	48	254	5.8	36.5
Coal and petroleum products	18	1	19	0.4	52.8
Chemical and allied industries	72	3	75	1.7	17.5
Metal manufacture	148	47	195	4.5	42.5
Mechanical engineering	284	49	333	7.7	36.0
Instrument engineering	10	4	14	0.3	9.5
Electrical engineering	146	21	167	3.8	22.6
Shipbuilding and marine engineering	28	7	35	0.8	20.0
Vehicles	282	22	304	7.0	39.8
Metal goods nes	152	15	167	3.8	31.1
Textiles	66	1	67	1.5	14.4
Leather, leather goods and fur	4	—	4	0.1	10.0
Clothing and footwear	76	1	77	1.8	21.1
Bricks, pottery, glass, cement	73	10	83	1.9	31.6
Timber and furniture	55	—	55	1.3	21.1
Paper, printing and publishing	138	40	178	4.1	33.1
Other manufacturing industry	106	3	109	2.5	33.2
Construction	84	—	84	1.9	6.9
Gas, water, electricity	169	104	273	6.3	80.1
Transport and communication	585	122	707	16.3	49.6
Distributive trades	77	300	377	8.7	14.1
Insurance, banking and business finance	2	50	52	1.2	4.6
Professional and scientific services	123	—	123	2.8	3.4
Miscellaneous Services	20	68	88	2.0	3.7
Public administration and defence	149	57	206	4.7	13.0
All	3,275	1,069	4,344	100.0	

in fact the numbers in pre-entry practices have remained either static or more probably have declined.

The dominant single industry, in terms of the pre-entry closed shops is paper, printing and publishing (table 3). Not only does it account for approximately one in five of all pre-entry employees but also one in four of all workers in manufacturing who are subject to such arrangements. Chemicals and allied industries, which include printing ink and printers' rollers manufacture, form the sixth most important SIC in terms of absolute numbers in pre-entry closed shops. Only 45,000 non-manuals (0.4 per cent of the total white-collar workforce) are covered by pre-entry arrangements. Miscellaneous services accounts for 80 per cent of such workers and they are mainly actors, musicians, and film and independent television workers. In printing, paper and publishing the main non-manual groups covered by pre-entry arrangements are press telegraphists and clerical workers in national newspapers while in engineering they are mainly draftsmen and foremen many of whom have been recruited from craft manual grades.

Pre-entry closed shops are predominantly informal. Only 14 per cent of workers covered by pre-entry arrangements work under a written collective agreement between management and union. The vast majority of pre-entry arrangements are long standing, appearing well before 1970, and almost always unwritten.

Predominant group

The predominant group of closed shop practices, covering 84 per cent of those in closed shops may be defined as **post-entry**. These do not attempt to control the supply of labour to the firm. An employer is free to recruit a non-union member provided he or she agrees to join the union immediately upon or shortly after starting work, the intention being to maximise union membership within the establishment because it is seen as beneficial in a variety of ways to the union and/or to management¹⁷.

Table 4 shows the distribution of the post-entry closed

shop population between manual and non manual workers on the basis of industrial order as well as the proportion of the total workforce in each industry covered by such arrangements. Although the majority of workers in post-entry closed shops are manual, there are nevertheless a significant proportion of white collar workers affected by such practices. Non-manuals account for 25 per cent of the total post entry closed shop population and taking the total white collar workforce about one in ten are employed in post-entry closed shops.

Compared to pre-entry closed shops, post-entry shops are much more likely to operate as a result of a negotiated agreement between management and the appropriate union or group of unions over union membership. The written formal post entry closed shop agreement has been the most recent development in compulsory union arrangements in Britain. Two sources of written arrangements can be identified. The first is the formalisation of previous informal arrangements, while the second is the growth of new written arrangements which usually allow certain categories of employees to remain in employment without being members of an appropriate trade union¹⁸.

The establishment of new closed shops by written agreement is a particular characteristic of white collar arrangements, especially amongst clerical workers in engineering, brewing and food, and shop assistants in retail distribution. Certainly, in comparison with blue collar, a far greater proportion of white collar closed shops are regulated by formal written agreements, at least partly because white collar closed shops tend to be more recent than those covering manuals. Ninety-four per cent of non-manual workers covered by post-entry arrangements work under a formal collective agreement covering union membership while for manuals the corresponding figure is 52 per cent. Taking all employees covered by post entry closed shops, three out of five work under a formal collective agreement covering union membership.

Highly concentrated

McCarthy's study showed the post-entry closed shop to be highly concentrated in two industries—coal mining and engineering—which accounted for almost two-thirds of the total number¹⁹. Today the post-entry closed shop has become somewhat more widespread among industries, although this trend is more evident for manual workers than for non-manual. Among non-manuals, four industries account for just under 60 per cent of the total non-manual post-entry closed shop population—distributive trades covering especially the Co-operative societies and two well-known high street supermarket chains account for 28 per cent; transport and communications for 11 per cent including airline pilots, merchant navy officers and white-collar grades on the railways and in the Post Office; gas, water and electricity, and mining and quarrying, account for 10 and nine per cent respectively.

Among manual workers the five most important industries in terms of percentage coverage account for less than a half of the total manual post entry closed shop population—transport and communications (18 per cent) mining and quarrying (six per cent), and food, drink and tobacco (six per cent). When all workers in post entry closed shops are considered, then seven industrial orders account for three in five of the total. Of the total number of manual workers in post entry shops, nearly one in five are

employed in transport and communications particularly in the railways and road passenger transport, while approximately three out of every ten non manuals working in post entry shops are to be found in the distributive trades, particularly in the Co-operative movement.

Areas of employment with few closed shops

Most employees in "open" areas of employment work in companies or industries where trade union organisation is weak and collective bargaining arrangements are little developed. However, there are also areas where there is a high proportion of employees in trade unions but very few closed shops. Three types of circumstances have been identified where high density unionism is not accompanied by the closed shop.

First, there are cases where there have been demands for the closed shop, but these demands have been successfully resisted by management. This category covers around two million workers including employees in certain grades of the health service, industrial Civil Service, and non-industrial Civil Service, the wool textile industry, the hosiery and knitwear industry and journalism.

Second, there are areas of high union density with little or no demand for the closed shop. Often the trade unions operating in these areas have adopted formal policies opposing the closed shop at their annual conferences. This category includes two million workers such as higher grade civil servants, teachers in primary, secondary and higher education, post office engineers and management grades in the Post Office and health service.

Third, there are a small number of cases where closed shops used to operate but have now either been withdrawn by the employer or the agreement has been altered to the extent that it no longer constitutes a closed shop. The number of workers involved is around 200,000. The bulk of this figure is drawn from three particular cases.

The largest number of employees in this category are local authority workers mainly in the Midlands where there have been several cases of closed-shop arrangements being rescinded, following a change in the political control of the authority. In the printing industry there have been isolated cases in which established closed shops have been withdrawn. The third example is that of the baking industry where the Bakers Federation withdrew from an industry wide union membership agreement following the 1978 national dispute.

Summary

At present, closed shop practices cover at least 5.2 million employees compared to 3.75 million some 15 years ago. These arrangements are now found over a wider spectrum of industries than in the early 1960s.

The older closed-shop industries—coal mining, metal manufacture, engineering, ship-building and printing—accounted for two thirds of the total closed shop population in the early 1960s in contrast to just over two-fifths today. The most pronounced growth has occurred in the food, drink and tobacco, clothing and footwear, gas, water and electricity, and transport and communications sectors. Also significant in its spread has been the penetration of the closed shop into white-collar areas of employment. Today, at least 1.1 million non-manual employees (22 per cent of the closed-shop population) are covered by such arrangements compared to 300,000 (8 per cent of

the closed shop population) in the early 1960s.

The closed shop nevertheless is still more commonly found among manual workers in so far as at least one third of blue collar employees are involved in closed shop practices in contrast to about one in ten of white collar employees. More than 80 per cent of employees in closed shops are covered by the post-entry type under which the individual worker must join an appropriate trade union upon or soon after commencing employment. Only a minority are affected by closed shops of the pre-entry variety, whereby a job applicant must possess the appropriate union card before he or she can be appointed. These kinds of pre-entry practices tend to remain informal whereas post-entry arrangements have tended in recent years to become the subject of formal written agreement between management and the appropriate union or unions.

Footnotes

- (1) W. E. J. McCarthy, *The Closed Shop in Britain*, Blackwell, Oxford, 1964.
- (2) This study, which is due to be completed in 1980 is being financed by the Department of Employment. Some preliminary results appeared in the November 1979 issue of *Employment Gazette*.
- (3) The authors would like to express their thanks to all the individuals and organisations which co-operated so well in this exercise. These individuals and organisations are not responsible for any of the views expressed in this article. They are solely those of the authors. ■

Career attitudes of final year undergraduates

Continued from page 15

in Great Britain for the Department of Employment and several other business and government organisations. The objectives of the study were to assess students' attitudes towards careers, the extent to which they had progressed in their choice of career, and their assessment of the career opportunities offered by specific organisations. This 1979 survey was the seventh in a series carried out by MORI since 1970.

This article has highlighted the main conclusions of this latest survey and provides a comparison of trends between 1979 and earlier years in those areas where the questionnaire has remained essentially unchanged.

The 1979 study covered the following topics:

- factors important in choosing a career
- salary expectations
- intentions of staying with the first employer
- attitudes towards working in London and overseas
- progress in the choice of career
- job applications, interviews and offers
- attitudes to industry
- the value of different sources of career information

Method

In all, 1,021 final-year undergraduates were interviewed at 18 universities* throughout Great Britain using quota sampling. The sample excluded those studying medicine, dentistry, veterinary science, theology and divinity as these people were considered to be career determined and not of

- (4) The authors would like to express their thanks to the EEF for their kind and generous assistance in this exercise.
- (5) The research team would like to express their thanks in this respect to W. Brown and M. Hart of the Social Science Research Council's Industrial Relations Research Unit at the University of Warwick, and to S. Harrison from the Nuffield Centre for National Health Studies located at the University of Leeds.
- (6) "Employees in Employment at June 1978," *Employment Gazette*, October 1978.
- (7) Op. cit. p. 3.
- (8) Ibid. p. 7-16.
- (9) Ibid. p. 29.
- (10) Including retail workers in the Co-operative Societies.
- (11) See "The Content of British Closed Shop Agreements", Gennard, Dunn and Wright, *Employment Gazette*, November 1979.
- (12) McCarthy op. cit. p. 17.
- (13) Ibid. pp. 16-20.
- (14) Ibid. p. 19.
- (15) Ibid. p. 48.
- (16) This conclusion does not necessarily affect McCarthy's overall total of workers in closed shops (3.75 million); rather the distribution between pre- and post-entry arrangements. In other words the proportion in pre-entry shops may have been higher than McCarthy reported.
- (17) See "Why bosses love the closed shop", M. Hart; *New Society*; February 15, 1979.
- (18) Gennard, Dunn and Wright, op. cit.
- (19) Op. cit. p. 52.

interest within the defined objectives of the study. The results were weighted to the known population by subject, sex and university type to achieve a total weighted sample of 1,014.

Postscript

The most important consideration for students choosing a career is that it should provide job satisfaction. This is reflected in the weight given to the presence of sufficient intellectual challenge, the full and constructive use of the graduate's time, the opportunity to exercise responsibility, and of working with people rather than things. Less immediate considerations, such as the long-term career opportunities and training which provide a marketable asset, were considered moderately important but it was the nature of the work itself that was the prime consideration.

The material rewards of the career, such as a good pension scheme, the possibility of a company car and, even, a high starting salary were not identified as particularly important considerations in choosing a career. This interview response is, psychologically, to be expected from students in their final year. However, once the career field has been decided upon and the student is choosing a particular employer, such factors (especially salary) might be expected to assume greater importance. ■

*Birmingham, Brunel, Cambridge, Cardiff, Durham, Edinburgh, Essex, Lancaster, Leicester, Leeds, London (includes Chelsea College, Imperial College, King's College, London School of Economics, Queen Mary College and University College), Loughborough, Manchester, Newcastle, Nottingham, Oxford, Swansea, Warwick.

Skill shortage indicators

October results of the quarterly survey of hard-to-fill skilled vacancies

THE RESULTS OF the DE/MSO quarterly survey of hard-to-fill vacancies conducted in July were discussed in the October issue of *Employment Gazette*. In this article we look at the October figures.

The survey is conducted by local Employment Offices and Jobcentres and covers three categories of notified skilled vacancies which have proved particularly difficult to fill:

Category A—those which have been notified for two months or more but are still unfilled in firms with at least three such vacancies in the same or different occupations.

Category B—other vacancies for skilled workers which are thought to be constraining production or impeding plans for expansion (NB: some vacancies reported in Category A may also be constraining production/expansion).

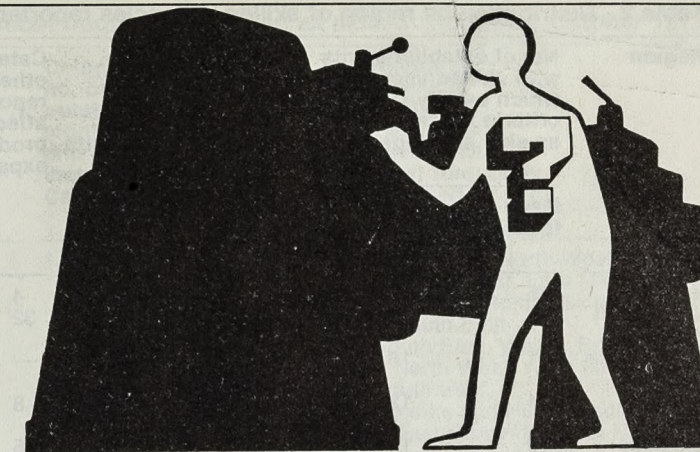
Category C—unfilled vacancies in a range of ten selected engineering occupations which have been notified for two months or more but which

Table 1 Comparison of results from DE/MSO quarterly survey with quarterly count of registered unemployed and unfilled notified vacancies in 36 skilled engineering occupations

	Oct 1978	Jan 1979	Apr 1979	Jul 1979	Oct 1979
No. of vacancies which satisfied criteria for reporting as skilled shortages	10,858	9,118	9,244	10,319	10,891
Vacancies reported to be affecting production/expansion as % of all vacancies reported*	16	17	15	18.5	19.5
No. of establishments with skilled vacancies which satisfied skill shortage criteria*	934	820	667	741	735
Establishments where production/expansion affected as % of all establishments reported*	27	30	30	35	31
National ratio of notified vacancies to registered unemployed in 36 skilled engineering occupations (V/U ratio) †	0.54	0.53	0.50	0.63	0.61
No. of engineering occupations with V/U ratio over 1:1 †	6	8	6	8	8

* DE/MSO quarterly survey (see text).
† Quarterly count of registered unemployed and unfilled vacancies by occupation.

- Notes: (1) Vacancies for sewing machinists and establishments with such vacancies were excluded from the April and subsequent surveys. For this reason, and to facilitate comparison between quarters the figures from earlier surveys have been revised accordingly.
(2) Information taken from the quarterly count of registered unemployed and unfilled notified vacancies relates to September and December 1978, March, June and September 1979.
(3) The results of research conducted during 1977 showed that probably around a third of all vacancies are notified to the MSO's Employment Service, although this varies according to skill and locality.



do not qualify to be reported in Categories A or B above.

Because the survey is restricted to detailed information on vacancies notified to the MSO it is not a complete count of all shortages. By collecting information only on the categories described, the survey concentrates on vacancies which have proved particularly hard to fill.

The survey in perspective

Comparison of the October results with other skill shortage indicators (table 1) suggests a similar trend in demand and supply of skilled manpower.

Local office returns for the October survey confirm that recruitment difficulties are concentrated in skilled engineering occupations. They indicate little significant change in unsatisfied demand for skilled labour overall but suggest a slight easing in the proportion of firms experiencing production/expansion constraints attributable to skill shortages.

The September count of registered unemployed and unfilled notified vacancies indicated that in 36 selected skilled engineering occupations in the country as a whole the position had remained fairly constant. As in the previous survey, there were less than five registered unemployed people for every three unfilled notified vacancies and in eight of the 36 occupations there was a crude excess of vacancies over the number of unemployed.

The CBI's October survey of industrial trends indicated that the proportion of firms covered by the survey and expecting shortages of skilled labour to constrain output over the next four months had fallen to 20 per cent from 21 per cent in July. Against this the CBI report a marked increase (from 51 per cent to 61 per cent) in the proportion of firms working below a satisfactory full-rate of operation.

Summary of October results

In the DE/MSO October survey, 10,891 notified vacancies for skilled occupations satisfied the criteria for reporting as skill shortages (table 2). This is an increase of about 5 per cent over vacancies reported in July but is not reflected equally in the returns from all regions.

Vacancies in skilled engineering occupations were reported most frequently as hard to fill (tables 3 and 4) and those presenting the greatest difficulty were:

- (a) Machine tool setter operators; maintenance fitters (non-electric); tool makers and tool fitters; electricians (plant and machinery); metal working produc-

Table 2 Distribution by region of skilled vacancies reported as skill shortages: October 1979

Region	No. of establishments with skilled vacancies which satisfy the criteria for reporting as skill shortages		Category (A): no. of vacancies outstanding 2 months and in establishments with 3 or more vacs.	Category (B): other vacancies reported because affecting production or expansion	Category (C): no. of vacancies outstanding 2 months or more in 10 selected occupations and not included in category A or B	Total no. of vacancies reported	% of total vacancies reported which are affecting production/expansion*
	Manu-facturing	Non-manu-facturing					
Northern	15	4	278	4	79	361	1.5
North West	37	7	586	32	269	887	19
Yorks & Humberside	21	18	662	—	256	918	36.5
East Midlands	64	13	931	8	425	1,364	5.5
West Midlands	48	11	304	15	503	822	23.5
East Anglia	11	3	77	—	173	250	16
South East	288	22	2,212	44	2,230	4,486	27.5
South West	56	7	548	17	345	910	37
Scotland	43	14	319	15	131	465	12
Wales	44	9	271	35	122	428	47
Total (all regions)	627	108	6,188	170	4,533	10,891	19.5

* The number of vacancies reported as skill shortages and which are thought to be constraining production/expansion is expressed here as a percentage of the total number of vacancies (i.e. the sum of categories A, B and C) reported in each region.

Table 3 Regional breakdown of vacancies in skilled engineering occupations most frequently reported as skill shortages (category A and B): October 1979

Occupation	North	North West	Yorks and Humberside	East Midlands	West Midlands	East Anglia	South East	South West	Scotland	Wales	All regions
Machine tool setter operators	5	171	25	103	49	22	410	134	43	27	989
Maintenance fitters (non-electric)	2	20	125	83	50	7	226	5	17	13	548
Tool makers, tool fitters	4	51	4	18	45	2	225	52	8	72	481
Electricians (plant and machinery)	3	2	86	58	58	3	93	13	6	18	340
Metal working production fitters (fine-limits)	5	135	40	9	4	—	59	35	5	—	292
Sheet metal workers	3	24	48	32	—	3	105	13	19	7	254
Instrument mechanics	150	7	10	9	4	—	8	—	44	—	233
Other centre lathe turners	3	24	—	26	8	2	76	17	27	7	190
Production fitters and wiremen	—	6	2	3	1	4	166	7	1	—	190
Engineering draughtsmen	—	2	12	—	—	6	145	—	4	—	169
Press and machine tool setters	—	—	1	13	22	—	72	2	—	8	118
Radio, TV and other electronic fitters and mechanics	54	20	—	1	1	—	26	2	7	2	113

tion fitters (fine-limits); sheet metal workers and instrument mechanics. Shortages of these skills were reported in most regions and although the highest number were reported in the South East critical shortages of some skills are experienced in other areas.

(b) Significant problems were reported in a number of other occupations, including centre lathe turners, engineering draughtsmen and radio, television and other electronic fitters and mechanics. These generally were restricted to particular areas and individual regions.

A total of 735 establishments (627 manufacturing and 108 non-manufacturing) were reported as having significant skill shortages as defined by the survey. These involved 6,188 vacancies outstanding for two months or longer in establishments with three or more such vacancies (Category A); 170 vacancies reported specifically because they were constraining production/expansion (Category B); and a further 4,533 vacancies in 10 selected skilled engineering occupations (Category C).

To put these results into perspective, the number of manufacturing establishments with qualifying shortages of skilled labour is equivalent to about five per cent of all such establishments employing over 100 people and to some three per cent of all establishments employing more than 50. Two hundred and twenty-eight firms, about 31 per cent of those covered by the survey, involving 2,121 vacancies, some 19½ per cent of all vacancies reported, were thought by ESD local office managers to be experiencing production/expansion constraints attributable to skill shortages.

In overall terms, these results indicate little change over the quarter in demand for skilled labour.

A lack of the particular skills required by an employer is the major reason for vacancies remaining unfilled. Reluctance to engage Skillcentre trainees, relative pay, difficulties over housing provision (particularly in the South East) and employers' selective requirements attached to individual vacancies are also frequently identified as contributory factors.

The industrial distribution of establishments with

Table 4 Analysis of vacancies in engineering occupations most frequently reported as skilled shortages: October 1979

Occupation	Category A: no. of vacancies outstanding 2 months or more and in establishments with 3 or more vacancies	Category B: other vacancies reported because affecting production expansion	Category C: no. of vacancies outstanding 2 months or more and not included in Category A or B	Total vacancies reported	Regions in which unfilled vacancies have been most frequently reported as skill shortages
Machine tool setter operators	951	38	1,231	2,220	South East, North West, South West, East Midlands
Maintenance fitters (non-electric)	546	2	971	1,519	Yorks and Humberside, South East
Toolmakers, toolfitters	474	7	440	921	South East, Wales, South West, North West, West Midlands
Electricians (Plant and Machinery)	337	3	410	970	South East, Yorks and Humberside, East Midlands, West Midlands
Metal working production fitters (fine-limits)*	290	2	—	292	North West, South East
Sheet metal workers	239	15	527	781	South East, Yorks and Humberside
Instrument mechanics	231	2	63	296	North, Scotland
Other centre lathe turners	180	10	278	468	South East
Production fitters and wiremen	189	1	205	395	South East
Engineering draughtsmen	167	2	258	427	South East
Press and machine tool setters*	118	—	—	118	South East
Radio, TV and other electronic fitters and mechanics	113	—	150	263	North

* These occupations are not included in the 10 selected occupations on which local offices are required to take a statistical count of vacancies in Category C.

reportable hard-to-fill skilled vacancies covered by the surveys indicates, as in previous quarters, that these are concentrated in mechanical and electrical engineering, vehicles, metal goods (not elsewhere specified) and construction.

Information collected on occupations on the Professional and Executive Register (PER) indicates that in October shortages continued to affect several categories of engineer, computer personnel and accountants.

MSC action on hard-to-fill skilled vacancies

Reports from local employment offices and jobcentres on hard-to-fill skilled vacancies show that the MSC, through its employment and training services, is helping in various ways to ease employers' recruitment difficulties. Extensive efforts are made to draw jobseekers' attention to the unfilled vacancies being reported as skill shortages. Many vacancies are widely circulated beyond the immediate travel to work area and in several cases they are further

publicised on local radio, on television, in the local and national press. Some local offices provide special interview facilities and arrange special recruitment campaigns in conjunction with employers. The training services help by, for example, setting up additional training facilities within a firm, providing training sponsored by employers in Skillcentres and encouraging the recruitment of Skillcentre trainees. In some cases the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service is called in to provide advice on manpower planning and utilisation and other relevant issues.

The MSC's Regional Manpower Services directors and their boards follow up and where appropriate initiate further remedial action on hard to fill skilled vacancies reported as skill shortages. Special teams may visit firms identified as having problems to discuss in detail with employers their skilled manpower requirements and to investigate the scope for additional MSC action; or the MSC's regional training officer may visit firms to discuss whether their needs for skilled people are amenable to a training solution.

ONE OF the problems underlying the status of the engineering profession, pinpointed by the Finniston Committee's report, is the way the term "engineer" has come to be used indiscriminately to describe both the professionals (the true engineer) and the mechanics in the industry (the manual workers).

The committee commissioned a survey to find out what people understood by the word "engineer" and what it conjured up in their minds in terms of a worthwhile career.

Space was bought in the NOP Omnibus Survey. The sampling frame was the Electoral Register from which a two-stage stratified random sample was drawn. Field work was carried out during the period June 22-July 5 1978; 1,667 interviews took place with identified adults aged 18 or over. An additional 406 respondents were also questioned; these having been identified as having one or more children aged 11-19. There is no reason to suppose that the sample interviewed was not representative of the general public.

Respondents were asked to rate a number of jobs, including "engineer", no attempt having been made to define the meaning of the word "engineer". The results are summarised in table 1.

Table 1 Answers to the question: "How do you rate . . . as a career for a young persons nowadays?"

	Very good career	Good career	Neither good nor poor career	Poor career	Very poor career	Don't know
	per cent	per cent	per cent	per cent	per cent	per cent
Hairdresser	12	54	18	14	1	1
Policeman/woman	17	54	13	15	1	1
Secretary	19	61	13	6	-	1
Teacher	24	51	11	12	1	1
Welder	12	54	21	11	1	1
Accountant	57	37	4	2	-	1
Doctor	69	26	2	2	-	1
Draughtsman/woman	39	50	8	3	-	1
"Engineer"	38	53	6	3	-	1
Estate agent	30	46	16	7	-	1

Doctors were most highly rated as career prospects, followed by accountants, with "engineers" and draughtsmen/women tying for third place—these four jobs being rated much more highly than the other careers. Respondents in households that included an engineer tended to mark "engineering" as a career slightly less highly than did other respondents. Respondents classified by NOP as belonging to D/E social classes marked "engineering" more highly than did those classified as belonging to higher social classes. "Engineering" as a career was more highly thought of by women than by men. With the exception of welder, all the jobs shown in the above table (including "engineer") were thought of as less good prospects by young people aged 18-24, than they were by people in older age groups.

Having attempted to illustrate to the respondent, the sort of person who would be called a professional engineer, further questions were asked which elicited the answers shown in table 2.

Professional engineering as a career was much more highly rated as a career for men than as a career for women: and, this response was almost identical from male and

Table 2 Answer to the question "How would you rate professional engineering as a career for a young person?"

	For a man	For a woman
	per cent	per cent
Very good career	60	25
Good career	33	31
Neither good nor poor career	4	16
Poor career	1	20
Very poor career	-	5
Don't know	2	3

from female respondents. Those in social classes A/B rated professional engineering as a career for men less highly than did those in other social classes, but more highly as a career for women. Professional engineering as a career for men was less highly rated by the young than by those in older age groups; but as a career for women the reverse was true, perhaps reflecting past prejudices about women as engineers. Those respondents living in households that included an engineer rated professional engineering less highly than did those who had no engineer in their household, and, interestingly, there was no difference between the rating given if the engineer in the household was a manual worker and the rating given if that engineer was a professional engineer, that is no indication that professional engineering was looked upon by those with a manual engineer in the household, as being prestigious.

Respondents' views

Attempts were made to establish why the respondents viewed professional engineering as a good or bad career with the following results:

- (a) Most of those who thought professional engineering was a good career for a man, mentioned good prospects, good salaries and the availability of good jobs. Long training and the acquisition of particular skills were also mentioned.
- (b) No particular reasons for their views were adduced from the one per cent of respondents who thought professional engineering was a poor career for men.
- (c) Fifty-six per cent of respondents thought professional engineering would be a good career for women, and they specified very much the same reasons as those shown in (a) above relating to men. Many respondents spontaneously commented "female professional engineers would be just as capable as male". Even of those who thought professional engineering would be a good career for women, many expressed reservations about women being accepted.
- (d) Twenty-five per cent of the respondents thought professional engineering would be a poor career choice for a woman, over half of this 25 per cent justifying their view with such comments as "engineering is a man's career", "women would not be suited", and over a quarter arguing that "women would not be strong enough". These prejudices were particularly marked among female respondents and amongst those of lower social class.

Table 3 Type of work mentioned in response to the question: "What kind of things do you think an 'Engineer' might actually do?"

Type of work	Proportion mentioning
	per cent
Manual level/making things/working with machinery	68
Professional level/design/planning/research	13
Vague answer/don't know	19

If no prompting is given, most people identify an "engineer" as someone doing a manual level job. About a fifth of the respondents expressed ignorance when replying to this question.

In order to assess the extent to which the sample of the general public who were interviewed could correctly identify the sort of work that might be done by an "engineer" (that is, someone the respondent identified as an engineer without any definition being given of the term) further questioning took place, giving the results shown in table 3.

Attempts were made to find out whether members of the general public could tell the difference between what an "engineer" would do and what a professional "engineer" would do, without having been prompted as to what a professional engineer does. The results follow:

- (a) When asked about the difference in the work they do between an "engineer" and a professional "engineer", of the 68 per cent of the respondents who associated the word "engineer" with someone doing a manual level job, (see table 3) 14 per cent thought there was no difference; 38 per cent mentioned "higher" manual jobs, for example "foreman" or "someone with more qualifications"; and 27 per cent mentioned jobs that could properly be classified as professional.
- (b) Of the 13 per cent of our respondents who, when asked "What kind of things do you think an 'engineer' would do?" associated the word "engineer" with someone doing a professional type job; 92 per cent thought there was no difference, confirming that their idea of an "engineer" was someone who did the sort of work they properly classed as professional, and seven per cent incorrectly mentioned manual type jobs as being the likely work of the professional.
- (c) The 19 per cent who, in response to the question "What kind of things do you think an 'engineer' would do?" said they did not know, produced some pretty wild responses when pushed to specify the difference between an "engineer" and a professional "engineer"—as would be expected.

While it would appear that the majority of the public identify the word "engineer" with someone who does a manual level job, nevertheless about half the respondents recognised that a professional "engineer" either did work that could properly be classified as professional, or that required higher qualifications than an "engineer" or that carried some form of managerial responsibility.

Having been told about examples of various types of professional engineering work, respondents were asked to specify the exams and/or qualifications they thought were needed by the professional engineer to do the work described. The results follow:

- (a) A minority of people thought that a degree was a necessary qualification for a professional engineer.

- (b) A quarter and a third of those questioned thought that an apprenticeship was a necessary qualification for an electrical and for a mechanical engineer respectively.
- (c) Eleven per cent of respondents answered "Don't know".
- (d) Even if HNC/HND were accepted as an adequate qualification for a professional engineer, at least 38 per cent of our respondents thought a lower qualification was all that was needed.

These results bear out other evidence of the ignorance of most people about the qualifications needed by professional engineers. It is arguable that the population in general would be equally ignorant of the qualifications needed by other professionals, for example accountants or lawyers.

Examination of the detailed answers given to this question shows that:

- (i) More women than men express a complete ignorance of the qualifications needed to become a professional engineer.
- (ii) Those classified in the D/E social classes are more ignorant of the qualifications needed than are those in higher social classes.
- (iii) Even those respondents living where there is an engineer in the house, appear to be no more knowledgeable about the qualifications needed, by a professional engineer, than are others.
- (iv) A markedly higher proportion of men aged 25 and over think an HNC/HND is the required qualification of the professional engineer, than do women and younger men—maybe because this qualification in engineering is almost exclusively held by males, and by those over 24.

Respondents were invited to answer a question relating to pay, status and opportunities, and table 4 summarises the results.

From table 4 it will be noted that:

- (a) In general, favourable opinions about professional engineers are supported.
- (b) It is only on pay relative to responsibility that agreement and disagreement about match; pay relative to qualification is in general considered to be fairly good.

(Continued on p. 30)

Table 4 Impressions of professional engineers

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Don't know
	per cent	per cent	per cent	per cent	per cent	per cent
Professional engineers are well paid considering the qualifications they need to have	18	26	19	10	8	20
Professional engineering is a career where brains and hard work will get you to the top	44	24	11	7	4	9
Professional engineers do a lot to help the economy of this country	38	30	14	4	2	12
Professional engineers are well paid considering the responsibility they have to take	12	19	24	13	11	21
There are always plenty of good job opportunities for professional engineers	26	24	13	16	10	12
Professional engineers are hardly ever made redundant	22	21	24	11	5	18

Stoppages of work due to industrial disputes in 1979*

THE NUMBER OF stoppages of work† beginning in 1979 in the United Kingdom, which came to the notice of the Department of Employment, was 2,045 compared with 2,471 in 1978. In addition 45 stoppages which began in 1978 continued into 1979 compared with 27 remaining in 1977 and continuing into 1978. The provisional total of 2,045 stoppages beginning in 1979 was lower than the annual average of 2,701 over the previous ten years. Stoppages of work in 1979 resulted in the loss of about 29,116,000 working days during the year at establishments where the disputes occurred, compared with 9,405,000 working days lost during 1978 through stoppages in that year, and an annual average of 10,608,000 over the previous ten years.

The aggregate number of workers involved in stoppages in progress in 1979 was about 4,454,100 including 375,000 workers who were indirectly involved (that is, thrown out of work at the establishments where the disputes occurred, but not themselves parties to the dispute). The corresponding total for 1978 was 1,041,500 including some 275,800 who were indirectly involved.

The 15 major stoppages which are briefly reported in this article, accounted for over 23 million of the total working days lost in 1979.

Industrial analysis

The provisional totals of 1.6 million workers and nearly 18 million working days lost shown against the engineering

industries in Table 1 include large proportions (perhaps of about 20 per cent) in respect of engineering workers employed in other industries (for example motor vehicle and aerospace equipment). These will be allocated to their appropriate industries in the revised table to be published in the full annual article in the middle of this year.

The provisional figures for 1979 show a decrease in the number of stoppages of 426, or 17 per cent compared with 1978. The number of workers involved in stoppages in 1979 either directly or indirectly increased by 3,410,500, nearly fourfold the figure for 1978. Similarly the number of working days lost increased by nearly 20 million over 1978.

* The figures are provisional and subject to revision. Final figures for 1979 are scheduled to appear in the June or July 1980 issue of *Employment Gazette*.

† The statistics relate to stoppages of work due to industrial disputes connected with terms and conditions of employment. Stoppages involving fewer than 10 workers or lasting less than one day are excluded except any in which the aggregate of working days lost exceeded 100. Workers involved are those directly involved and indirectly involved (thrown out of work although not parties to the disputes) at the establishments where the disputes occurred. The number of working days lost is the aggregate of days lost by workers both directly and indirectly involved (as defined). It follows that the statistics do not reflect repercussions elsewhere, that is, at establishments other than those at which the disputes occurred. For example, the statistics exclude persons laid off and working days lost at such establishments through shortages of material caused by the stoppages included in the statistics.

There are difficulties in ensuring complete recording of stoppages, in particular those near the margins of the definitions, for example short disputes lasting only a day or so. Any under-recording would of course particularly bear on those industries most affected by this type of stoppage; and would have much more effect on the total of stoppages than of working days lost.

Table 1 Stoppages

Industry group	1979			1978		
	Stoppages beginning in period	Stoppages in progress		Stoppages beginning in period	Stoppages in progress	
		Workers involved	Working days lost		Workers involved	Working days lost
SIC 1968						
Agriculture, forestry, fishing	—	—	—	1	—	‡
Coal mining	295	52,600	112,000	338	103,500	195,000
All other mining and quarrying	11	1,200	15,000	13	1,500	6,000
Food, drink and tobacco	90	62,500	795,000	123	64,600	693,000
Coal and petroleum products	5	2,500	46,000	4	1,100	8,000
Chemicals and allied industries	49	16,700	118,000	52	13,100	127,000
Metal manufacture	135	41,000	397,000	150	47,700	360,000
Engineering	348	1,641,200	17,863,000	411	144,400	1,193,000
Shipbuilding and marine engineering	39	23,400	200,000	44	30,100	160,000
Motor vehicles	152	199,500	1,555,000	194	234,300	3,495,000
Aerospace equipment	28	26,500	139,000	37	20,700	284,000
All other vehicles	15	5,900	23,000	16	18,300	267,000
Metal goods not elsewhere specified	120	26,400	249,000	133	28,200	225,000
Textiles	41	12,600	71,000	68	15,300	131,000
Clothing and footwear	26	7,200	38,000	36	8,300	47,000
Bricks, pottery, glass, cement, etc	45	19,500	79,000	57	17,000	130,000
Timber, furniture, etc	21	3,100	19,000	30	5,000	20,000
Paper, printing and publishing	44	22,300	700,000	85	25,000	301,000
All other manufacturing industries	61	38,700	153,000	78	25,300	234,000
Construction	167	45,200	356,000	185	39,000	416,000
Gas, electricity and water	19	9,200	33,200	16	5,500	65,000
Port and inland water transport	67	17,900	94,000	74	23,100	97,000
Other transport and communication	97	202,600	1,257,000	136	74,400	264,000
Distributive trades	45	7,900	64,000	61	8,400	63,000
Administrative, financial and professional services	105	1,951,400	4,103,000	118	78,900	542,000
Miscellaneous services	33	17,000	639,000	34	8,700	80,000
All	2,045	4,454,100	29,116,000	2,471	1,041,500	9,405,000

‡ Less than 50 workers or 500 working days.

§ Some stoppages of work involved workers in more than one industry group, but have each been counted as only one stoppage in the total of all industries taken together.

Major stoppages of work during 1979

The following stoppages resulted in a loss of 100,000 or more working days each. The provisional estimated number of days lost, rounded to the nearest thousand, is shown in brackets.

Food, drink and tobacco

From early September employees of a whisky distilling company progressively withdrew their labour from bottling and blending plants, distilleries and a warehouse in various parts of Scotland. The dispute which involved over 6,000 workers followed a breakdown in their annual wage negotiations. Talks held under the auspices of ACAS led to acceptance of an improved offer and a resumption of work from October 18. (176,000)

Production was brought to a halt at tobacco factories in Belfast and Ballymena on April 23 when 3,500 process workers withdrew their labour in support of their demand for pay parity with craftsmen. The company's offer to discuss selective re-gradings was rejected. Work was resumed on June 11 following a majority vote in favour of accepting an improved pay offer. (119,000)

Engineering

A national engineering pay dispute involving an estimated 1.5 million workers began with one day stoppages on 6, 13 and 20 August and continued with a series of two day stoppages during September. On October 4 the dispute ended by agreement on a settlement which provided new national minimum pay rates, phased increases in holiday entitlement and a 39 hour working week to be introduced in November 1981. (16,000,000)

Electrical engineering

A seven week stoppage by about 3,800 employees of an East Kilbride company manufacturing record decks ended on February 23 when the workers accepted an improved pay offer. (114,000)

The rejection of a wage offer led to a twelve week stoppage of work at factories in Edinburgh and Dalkeith which manufacture radar navigation equipment. The 2,500 manual workers decided by a majority vote to accept an improved pay offer and work was resumed on November 5. (150,000)

Shipbuilding and marine engineering

Dissatisfaction over their pay and conditions agreement led to a stoppage of work by North Sea offshore construction workers which began on January 5 and by the end of the month involved over 4,000 men. The main demand was for changed working patterns to allow extra shore leave. On the assurance that negotiations on their claim would proceed a return to work started at the end of February. (144,000)

Vehicles

At a Coventry car plant 2,000 assembly workers withdrew their labour on July 2 in protest against the company's refusal to improve a 5½ per cent pay offer. They were joined a week later by workers from the component packaging depot and on the following day by a further 3,500 men from

Table 2 Stoppages in the years 1969-1979

Year	Number of stoppages beginning in year	Workers* involved in stoppages (thousand)			Aggregate working days lost in stoppages (thousand)		
		Beginning in year		In progress in year	Beginning in year		In progress in year
		Directly	Indirectly		(a)	(b)	
1969	3,116	1,426	228†	1,665†	6,799	6,925	6,846
1970	3,906	1,460	333	1,801	10,854	10,908	10,980
1971	2,228	863†	308†	1,178†	13,497	13,589	13,551
1972	2,497	1,448†	274†	1,734†	23,816	23,923	23,909
1973	2,873	1,103	410	1,528	7,089	7,145	7,197
1974	2,922	1,161	461	1,626	14,694	14,845	14,750
1975	2,282	570	219	809	5,861	5,914	6,012
1976	2,016	444†	222†	666†	3,230	3,509	3,284
1977	2,703	785	370	1,166	9,864	10,378	10,142
1978	2,471	725†	276†	1,041†	8,890	9,391	9,405
1979	2,045	4,057	373	4,454	28,615	‡	29,116

(a) The figures in this column only include days lost in the year in which the stoppages began.

(b) The figures in this column include days lost both in the year in which the stoppages began and also in the following year.

*Workers involved in more than one stoppage in any year are counted more than once in the year's total. Workers involved in a stoppage beginning in the year and continuing into another are counted in both years in the column showing the number of workers involved in stoppages in progress.

†Figures exclude workers becoming involved after the end of the year in which the stoppage began.

‡As some stoppages were still in progress at the end of the year this figure is not yet available.

the engine plant. A return to work began on October 8 by the assembly workers, and ten days later by the engine builders on agreed terms. (300,000)

About 8,000 workers at a Merseyside car plant staged a one day stoppage on August 29 in protest against some clauses linked to the company's annual pay offer. Although both the engineering and production workers had called off the strike on October 29 and November 1 respectively, a return to work did not take place as 250 machine setters remained in dispute over a grading issue. Their dispute was settled on November 13 and the following week car production at the plant was resumed. (440,000)

Production at a Midlands car plant was brought to a standstill on November 19 after a union convenor had been dismissed and three officials were disciplined for allegedly attempting to disrupt the company's recovery programme. Stoppages in protest against the company's action took place at several plants, mainly in the Midlands, and at the height of the dispute involved about 46,000 workers. A return to normal working commenced towards the end of November, when the AUEW executive committee decided to carry out an inquiry into the dismissal. (190,000)

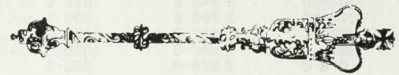
Paper, printing and publishing

During October a resumption of work began at a national newspaper company following an eleven month stoppage involving about 3,000 employees. The dispute was over issues which included the introduction of new technology, manning levels, negotiation of new dispute procedures and restructuring of wages. (592,000)

Transport and communication

A national strike by an estimated 65,000 lorry drivers began from January 2 after rejection of a pay offer. This action caused major distribution difficulties, due to widespread picketing of factories and ports, resulting in a large number of workers, estimated at 250,000, not connected with road haulage to be laid off. These figures are excluded from the statistics. An estimated 20,000 employees engaged in the road haulage industry, but not drivers, were also laid off and these are included in the statistics. Towards the end of January area negotiations between the Road

Questions in Parliament



Engineering apprentices

Mr Harold Walker (Doncaster) asked the Secretary of State for Employment, how many persons had entered into engineering apprenticeships in each of the last ten years; how many of these had done so with the aid of Government grants and awards; and what numbers he expected to be taking up apprenticeships this year and next year.

Mr Lester: I am informed by the Manpower Services Commission that reliable information can only be given in respect of craft and technician apprentices recruited by firms in scope of the Engineering Industry Training Board and who follow courses of off-the-job first year training as approved by that Board. The figures are as follows:

Year	Total	Additional recruitment assisted by government grants and awards (included in total)
1969/1970	26,552	—
1970/1971	25,589	—
1971/1972	21,942	2,489
1972/1973	16,788	1,528
1973/1974	16,920	—
1974/1975	23,496	—
1975/1976	25,243	3,436
1976/1977	24,249	3,619
1977/1978	24,643	3,030
1978/1979	24,248 (estimated)	1,595 (estimated)

The intake for the current year 1979/1980 is not yet complete but it is expected to be of the order of 24,000, of which some 1,800 will have been recruited with the aid of Government financed premium grants and training awards.

A decision on the desirable intake in 1980/81 will not be taken by the Engineering Industry Training Board until the Spring 1980.

(December 18)

Youth grants

Mr Tony Marlow (Northampton North) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he would publish a table showing the various grants available per week, classified by the age of the recipient, for young people receiving unemployment benefit, grants under the Youth Opportunities Scheme, grants under the Training Opportunities Scheme, and any other grants payable by his Department, classified as to whether the recipient lives at home within two miles from his place of work, and away from home, respectively; and how this compared with the national rate of pay in the engineering industry.

Mr Lester, pursuant to his reply (Official report December 18, 1979), gave the following information:

A selection of Parliamentary questions put to Department of Employment ministers on matters of interest to readers of *Employment Gazette* between December 12 and December 21 is printed on these pages. The questions are arranged by subject matter, and the dates on which they were answered are given after each answer. An asterisk after the date denotes that the question was answered orally.

Department of Employment Ministers

Rt. Hon. James Prior M.P., Secretary of State

Earl of Gowrie, Minister of State

Jim Lester M.P., Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State

Patrick Mayhew M.P., Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State

The following table gives information on unemployment benefit, grants and allowances payable by my Department weekly, compared with national minimum rates of pay in the engineering industry for young people aged under 19. The figures given are for single young people with no dependants.

The grants do not vary with distance travelled but in the case of YOP and Employment Rehabilitation Allowances, travel expenses over £4 a week are reimbursed. In addition, travel expenses over £2.35 per week are reimbursed for those receiving Employment Rehabilitation Allowances who are disabled, and there is help with fares and home visits for young people in employment receiving help under the Employment Transfer Scheme. Youngsters under 19 are not eligible for the Training Opportunities Scheme.

Payment	£ per week
Unemployment benefit	
Flat rate and assuming full contributions record	18.50
Youth Opportunities Programme (including employment rehabilitation courses)	
Flat rate allowance (travel expenses over £4 per week, or over £2.35 per week if disabled, paid by MSC)	23.50
Abated allowance if living in lodgings with lodgings expenses (including mid-day meal) paid	15.65
Employment transfer scheme	
For applicants without dependants —disturbance allowance	14.0 (for first three months) 7.00 (for next nine months)
For applicants with continuing liabilities in their homes areas Plus help with fares, house buying and selling and household removal. Also, up to four assisted home visits a year for those under 18	up to 17.00 (for up to two years)
Minimum rates of pay in the engineering industry	
Apprentices—aged 16	32.85
aged 17	43.80
aged 18	54.75
Junior unskilled workers—aged 16	26.25
aged 17	36.75
aged 18	42.00

The Manpower Services Commission is reviewing the scope and structure of allowances for all their various programmes.

(December 21)

TUC payments

Mr Ivor Stanbrook (Bromley Orpington) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he would list the payments made by his Department to the Trades Union Congress for the current and each of the last five years, giving the purpose of each payment; and if he had any plans to increase the payments in future.

Mr Mayhew: The only relevant payments are those made in connection with trade union education and training. Since 1976/77 my Department and the Department of Education and Science have made a joint and equal contribution towards the training provided by the TUC and its affiliates for lay officials. The amounts paid to the TUC by both departments have been as follows:

1976/77	£400,000
1977/78	£640,844
1978/79	£1,000,000
1979/80	£1,455,000 (estimate provision).

The TUC has sought a modest increase in real terms for 1980/81 and this request is under consideration by the Government.

(December 21)

Productivity and earnings

*The Baroness Hornsby-Smith asked Her Majesty's Government what had been the average annual rate of growth in productivity over the past five years; and how this compared with the average growth of earnings over the same period.

Lord Gowrie: Between the second quarter of 1974 and the second quarter of 1979 the estimated annual rate of increase of output per person employed was 1.6 per cent. The average annual rate of increase in earnings was 16.2 per cent.

(December 17)*

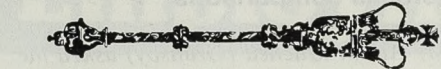
Redundancy Fund

Mr Jim Graigen (Glasgow, Maryhill) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what was the current state of the Redundancy Fund.

Mr Lester: Taking into account interest on investment just notified of £2.9m the fund was in surplus of approximately £132m as at December 12, 1979.

(December 13)

Mr Jim Craigen (Glasgow, Maryhill) also asked the Secretary of State for Employment



if he would list the investments made with monies from the Redundancy Fund, giving details of rates of interest, maturity dates and yield.

Mr Mayhew: gave the following information: The following table lists the investments held in The Redundancy Fund Investment Account at November 30, 1979:

Title and rate of interest	Maturity date	Nominal £(thou)	
Treasury stock	9½%	1980	15,600
Exchequer stock	13%	1980	15,000
Treasury stock	9½%	1981	12,400
Exchequer stock	8½%	1981	15,000
Exchequer stock	12½%	1981	2,600
Treasury stock	8½%	1980-82	9,300
Treasury stock	14%	1982	4,920
Exchequer stock	9½%	1982	15,000
Exchequer stock	8½%	1983	9,200
Treasury stock	12%	1983	6,900
Treasury stock	9½%	1983	10,150
Exchequer stock	10%	1983	9,900
Treasury stock	12%	1984	5,100
Local authority Loans	16½-17½%	Within one year	3,815
Ways and means at	15½%	—	1,330
Cash balance	—	—	4
			136,219
			£(thou)
(a) Purchase price of stock			132,000
(b) One year's income on the nominal stockholdings at the rates of interest shown above			14,093

(December 14)

Pneumoconiosis

Dr John Cunningham (Whitehaven) asked the Secretary of State for Employment, if he would set out a comparison of the compensation available to coal miners or their dependants who had contracted pneumoconiosis with that available to beneficiaries under the Pneumoconiosis etc (Workers' Compensation) Act 1979 if he would illustrate the levels of payment for comparable age and amount of disability.

Mr Mayhew: Some sample comparisons between amounts payable under the National Coal Board's pneumoconiosis compensation scheme to or in respect of sufferers first certified as suffering from the disease prior to October 1, 1974, and those payable under the Act are given in the following tables. It should, of course, be remembered that the value of money has fallen by 50 per cent since 1974.

No meaningful comparison can be made between payments under the Act, and those under the NCB scheme in respect of sufferers first certified as suffering from pneumoconiosis after October 1, 1974, because in these cases the NCB Scheme includes provision for weekly payments related to the current level of earnings in the coal industry.

(December 17)

Sufferers

Percentage assessment at the relevant date (a)	Age	NCB Scheme 1974 £	Pneumoconiosis etc (Workers' Compensation Act 1979) £
10	42	3,000	7,200
10	57	1,000	2,400
10	72	350	825
20	47	4,250	8,500
20	62	1,250	2,500
40	52	7,000	11,250
40	67	1,200	1,925
100	57	8,000	12,800
100	72	2,350	3,750

Dependants of deceased sufferers (b)

Percentage assessment of sufferer at relevant date (a)	Age	Age of sufferer at death	NCB Scheme 1974		Pneumoconiosis etc (Workers' Compensation) Act 1979	
			If sufferer died as a result of the disease (£)	If sufferer did not die as a result of the disease (£)	If sufferer died as a result of the disease (£)	If sufferer did not die as a result of the disease (£)
10	42	57	2,450	2,000	5,875	4,800
10	42	72	2,950	2,650	7,100	6,375
20	47	62	3,400	3,000	6,800	6,000
20	47	72	4,000	3,700	8,125	7,400
40	52	62	5,200	4,450	8,300	7,100
40	52	72	6,350	6,050	10,400	9,675
100	57	67	5,550	5,250	9,125	8,400
100	57	77	6,300	6,000	10,325	9,600

(a) The relevant date is the date from which disablement benefit became payable under the NCB Scheme, and the date on which a Pneumoconiosis Medical Board first determined the disabled person was suffering from the disease under the Act.
(b) Dependants of sufferers who died on or after January 26, 1970 under the NCB Scheme; all dependants in so far as the relevant information is available under the Act.

Questions in Parliament

EEC earnings

Mr Tom Benyon (Abingdon): asked the Secretary of State for Employment, what were the average weekly earnings in the EEC member states in their national currencies and in the £ sterling at the latest date for which comparable figures were available.

Mr Lester: The following table gives the latest available information. Corresponding figures for Italy and Denmark are not available.

Owing to differences in national definitions and methods of compilation, the figures are not fully comparable. Moreover, international comparisons of earnings statistics are not meaningful unless account is taken of (i) differences in taxation and social benefits, (ii) differences in internal purchasing power which are not reflected by market exchange rates, and (iii) in the case of weekly earnings, the differences in the average number of hours worked.

Average gross weekly earnings of male and female manual workers in industry—October 1978

	National currency	£ sterling
Belgium	7,294 BFR	125
France	724 FF	85
Germany (FR)	503 DM	136
Irish Republic*	73 £	73
Luxembourg	8,402 LFR	144
Netherlands	532 HFL	132
United Kingdom	74 £	74

* Relates to Manufacturing industry only—September 1978
Sources: Eurostat; Hourly Earnings, Hours of Work, Rapid Information Sheet October 1979; Irish Industrial Inquiries—Fourth Quarter, 1978 (December 20)

Maternity leave in the European Community

In answer to a question from Dr Oonagh McDonald, MP for Thurrock, the Secretary of State for Employment outlined to Parliament the latest available information on the provisions relating to maternity leave, including the right to return to work and maternity pay in the EEC countries.

Because account must be taken of differences in wage levels, standards of living, taxation treatment and other social conditions, such as benefits available in the social security systems as a whole simple comparisons between levels of benefit in different countries were hazardous. The comparative table below should therefore be treated with caution.

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Country	Qualifying period for right to maternity leave	Ante Natal Leave	Post Natal Leave	Qualifying conditions for cash benefits	Cash benefits to employee	Qualifying conditions for reinstatement	Reinstatement period	Alternative re-engagement conditions
UK	Must have been employed by the employer for at least 104 weeks immediately before the beginning of 11th week before expected week of confinement if she works 16 hours or more a week or for at least 5 years if she works less than 16 hours a week but not less than 8 hours.	11 weeks	29 weeks	Maternity pay —as for Maternity leave Maternity grant (a) At least 26 paid contributions if insured before April 6 1975 or Contributions paid in any one tax year amounting to at least 25 times the minimum weekly contribution for that year. and (b) Contributions paid or credited in the appropriate tax year amounting to 25 times the minimum weekly contribution for that year. Maternity allowance (a) At least 26 paid contributions if insured before 6 April 1975 or Contributions must have been paid in any tax year amounting to at least 25 times the minimum weekly contribution for that year. (b) Contributions must have been paid or credited in the appropriate tax year amounting to at least 50 times the minimum weekly contribution for that year. Earnings-related supplement Employed earners' contributions must have been paid in relevant tax year amounting to more than 50 times the minimum weekly contribution for that year.	Maternity Pay For first six weeks absence 90% of weekly wage less flat rate maternity allowance (£15.75 pw). Maternity grant (£25) Maternity allowance For 11 weeks before and 7 weeks after birth, flat rate maternity allowance payable if contribution conditions satisfied and earnings related supplement payable in third week and thereafter if entitlement satisfied.	As for right to maternity pay and must inform employer 21 days before absence that she intends to return and advise employer 7 days before date of intended return.	Up to 29 weeks after confinement.	Reinstatement period may be extended by four weeks by employer or (if sick) by employee.
Belgium	None	6 weeks	8 weeks	Maternity grant Insured with family allowance fund. Maternity allowance 6 months' contributions.	Maternity Grant 1st child—£311.75 2nd child—£215.02 Subsequent children—£115.66. Maternity allowance Manual worker—1 week full pay from employer. Maternity allowance for 13 weeks @ 79.5% of earnings. Non-manual worker—1 month full pay. Maternity allowance for 10 weeks @ 79.5% of earnings.	None	8 weeks after confinement.	
Denmark	None	No explicit rights	No explicit rights	Maternity allowance (All employed women). Annual earnings of at least 8,260 Kroner (£795.76) or earnings at this rate in 6 of the last 12 months and in the last 4 weeks before absence. Pre-natal allowance All women. Pregnancy must be declared by the end of 3rd month and 3 medical examinations must be carried out (before the end of 3rd month of pregnancy, during the 6th month and the first part of the 8th month) Post-natal allowance All women. Three medical examinations of the child—in the first week after birth and at 9 months and 24 months after birth.	Manual workers—8 weeks before and 6 weeks after birth—90% of average weekly earnings. Non-manual workers—minimum of 50% of normal salary from employer for up to 5 months. 3 instal.—£43.97 £87.95 £65.96 respectively after each examination.	None	6 weeks after confinement (still to be contested in the courts).	
France	None	6 weeks	10 weeks	Maternity allowance 200 hours of employment in the 3 months or the calendar quarter before the beginning of the 9th month preceding the expected date of confinement or the beginning of the maternity allowance period. Ten months of insurance contributions paid or credited before the expected date of confinement. Pre-natal allowance All women. Pregnancy must be declared by the end of 3rd month and 3 medical examinations must be carried out (before the end of 3rd month of pregnancy, during the 6th month and the first part of the 8th month) Post-natal allowance All women. Three medical examinations of the child—in the first week after birth and at 9 months and 24 months after birth.	For 16 weeks of maternity leave 90% of normal earnings. 3 instal.—£129.92 £64.96 £64.96 respectively after each examination.	None	10 weeks after confinement. If woman wishes to extend leave, loses right to reinstatement but retains a right to priority of re-engagement during year following end of maternity leave.	

Country	Qualifying period for right to maternity leave	Ante natal leave	Post natal leave	Qualifying conditions for each benefit	Cash benefits to employee	Qualifying conditions for reinstatement	Reinstatement period	Alternative re-engagement conditions
Germany	None	6 weeks	8 weeks	Maternity allowance 12 weeks' insurance between the 10th and the 4th month preceding confinement. Maternity grant All insured women.	For period of leave average net pay over 13 weeks prior to maternity leave. £26.92	Must advise employer at least 4 weeks before leave begins of her intention to continue working.	8 weeks after confinement.	
Ireland	None	No explicit rights	No explicit rights	Maternity grant The grant is paid on either the mother's own insurance or her husband's; if both are insured two grants may be payable. At least 26 contributions paid entry into insurance; and At least 26 contributions paid or credited in the contribution year preceding the benefit year in which the confinement takes place or in a subsequent complete contribution year before the date of confinement. Maternity allowance 26 contributions paid since entry into insurance; and At least 26 contributions paid or credited in the last complete contribution year preceding the benefit year in which the allowance is due to begin, or in a subsequent complete contribution year, if any, before the allowance is due to begin. Pay-related supplement Claimant must have entitlement to flat-rate maternity allowance and earnings of more than £14 a week.	Maternity grant Lump sum — £8 Triplets — £100* Quads — £150* Maternity allowance £14.35 pw + pay related supplement for 12 weeks. Total benefits may not exceed full pay. *No contribution conditions to be satisfied for these payments.	None	6 weeks after confinement.	
Italy	None	8 weeks	12 weeks	Maternity allowance National Sickness Insurance Institute (membership of).	During period of leave—80% of normal pay.	None	12 weeks after confinement.	Worker may exercise option to take further leave for any 6 month period up to child's first birthday. Employer must keep her job open for her. Benefits during optional leave period amount to 30% of normal pay.
Luxembourg	None	8 weeks	8 weeks	Maternity grant For 1st instalment; mother must have been resident during the whole year before birth of the child; 6 medical examinations are necessary. For 2nd instalment; one parent must have been resident during the whole year before the birth of the child, one medical examination of the mother necessary. For 3rd instalment; 6 medical examinations of the child until 2 years old. Maternity allowance Insurance for 6 months in the year preceding confinement.	Maternity grant 1st instal.—£176.21 2nd instal.—£176.21 3rd instal.—£176.21 Maternity allowance For period of leave—social security benefit amounting to average earnings over 3 months prior to confinement.	None	8 weeks after confinement.	May be reinstated in "similar" job.
Netherlands	None	6 weeks	6 weeks	Maternity allowance All insured women. No entitlement to benefit if pregnancy started before the beginning of insurance or if confinement takes place within the six months after this.	Normal pay.	None	6 weeks after confinement.	Leave following confinement may be extended if it is "medically necessary".

Sterling amounts shown are conversions using exchange rates as at 29.12.78. The U.K. maternity allowance increased to £18.50 per week from 12 November 1979.

Disabled people

Returns of unemployed disabled people at November 8, 1979

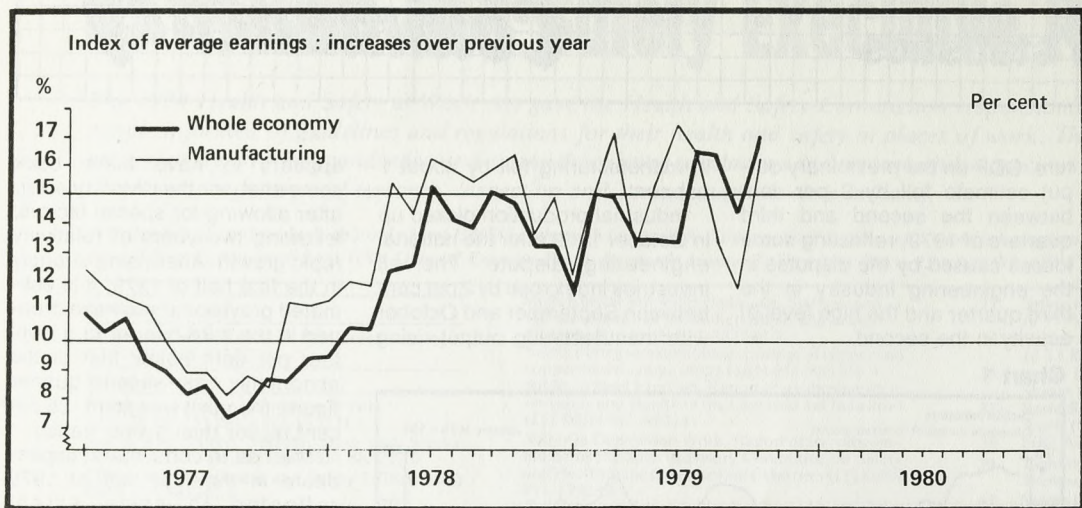
Section	Returns of unemployed disabled people at November 8, 1979		
	Male	Female	All
Section 1			
Registered	43,555	7,266	50,821
Unregistered	54,442	15,058	69,500
Section 2			
Registered	6,673	1,503	8,176
Unregistered	2,805	902	3,707

Placings of Disabled people from October 6, 1979 to November 2, 1979

Category	Section	Male	Female	All
		Registered disabled people	1,897	418
Unregistered* disabled people	Section 2	145	64	209
	Section 1	1,777	621	2,398
All placings		3,819	1,103	4,922

* Only registered disabled people are placed in sheltered (Section 2) employment. Notes: (a) Section 1 classifies those disabled people suitable for ordinary or open employment. Section 2 classifies those disabled people unlikely to obtain employment other than under special or sheltered conditions. (b) At April 16, 1979, the number of people registered under the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944 and 1958 was 482,006. (c) Unregistered disabled people are those who satisfy the eligibility conditions for registration, but have chosen not to register under the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944 (registration is voluntary).

Chart 3



Private investment in these two sectors taken together was 3 per cent higher in the six months to September than in the previous six months. *Stockbuilding* in the first three quarters of 1979 continued at a rate similar to that of the second half of 1978.

On the overseas side, the underlying position indicates that the UK was in deficit but at a much smaller scale than early in 1979. *Exports of goods* (excluding erratic items) in November recovered from the effects of the engineering dispute and were 10 per cent higher than in October. However, in the three months to November, exports were 1 per cent lower than in the previous three months, though exports of fuel rose by 15 per cent.

Imports of goods (excluding erratic items) in the three months to November were at the same level as in the previous three months. Principally as a result of the recovery in exports, the *visible trade deficit* fell to £56 million from a level of £339 million in October.

In the three months to November there was a deficit of £542 million compared with £495 million in the previous three months. With invisibles projected to be in surplus by £162 million in the three months to November 1979, the current account was in deficit by £380 million compared with £335 million in the previous three months.

Government supply expenditure was running at a rate 17 per cent higher over the nine months to the end of December than for the same period of 1978. This compares with a Budget forecast of 15 per cent for 1979/80 as a whole. *Central Government borrowing* from April to December was £10.1 billion. For the financial year as a whole the Central Government Borrowing Require-

ment will be somewhat below this because of large revenue receipts which normally occur in the first quarter, as well as substantial inflows from the special sales of assets.

In the five months since mid-June, *money supply* on the broad definition, Sterling M3, has grown at an annual rate of 12.9 per cent and so remains above the top end of the target range of 7-11 per cent (annual rate) for the 16 months to mid-October 1980.

Sterling M3 grew by £350 million (0.6 per cent) in the banking month of November. This increase was made up of almost £1,200 million in domestic credit, offset mainly by a net outflow abroad of over £800 million which may have been associated with the removal of exchange controls.

Sterling remains strong, particularly against the dollar. The effective *exchange rate*, underpinned by high interest rates and North Sea oil, has been edging up since Christmas to the highest levels since September 1979.

Average earnings

The underlying year-on-year increase in average earnings has edged up in recent months; in November 1979 it was around 18 per cent, compared with increases of about 17 per cent in October and 15 to 16 per cent in September. This upward trend reflects both new settlements in recent months at higher (although still varied) levels compared with a year ago, and also the effects of supplementary payments to public sector employees under comparability awards agreed in earlier settlements.

The *whole economy index* rose markedly between October and November and the year-on-year increase moved from 17.0 per cent to 19.2 per cent. However,

the November figure was inflated by several purely temporary factors; these include arrears of earnings paid in November but accrued in earlier months (which could have added up to 1 per cent to the year-on-year increase) and erratically high overtime earnings in engineering, probably to make good some production lost during the national dispute (which is estimated to account for a further 0.2 per cent).

In addition, some pay groups are known to have received annual pay increases by November 1979 but not by November 1978. This change in the timing of settlements, the effect of which is likely to unwind during the coming months, is thought to have increased the year-on-year change in November by around 0.25 per cent.

The *index for production industries and certain services* (older series) increased somewhat less than the whole economy index in the year to November, by 18.3 per cent, or 17 per cent if allow-

ance is made for the special temporary factors. In the last few months earnings in sectors not covered by this index (mainly public sector service industries) have tended to increase faster than elsewhere, having shown relatively low increases throughout 1978 and the first part of 1979.

Recent increases in earnings have not been matched by increases in output per head. Between the third quarters of 1978 and 1979 *wages and salaries per unit of output* rose by 16.5 per cent. Although this figure may be slightly inflated by the effects of the national engineering dispute, which depressed production more than earnings, the underlying increase in unit wage costs in Britain remains faster than for most major foreign competitors.

Retail prices

The year-on-year increase in the *retail prices index* remained fairly level in the fourth quarter; in December it was 17.2 per cent, compared with 17.4 per cent in November and 17.2 per cent in October. These rates were higher than in the third quarter, and some further increase must be expected. Figures for the fourth quarter are consistent with the Budget forecast.

The increase in the *tax and price index* (TPI) over a year earlier, at 14.9 per cent, was 2.3 per cent less than that in the RPI; the difference is likely to remain at about this figure in the next few months. The TPI in December was 119.8 (January 1978 = 100).

Over six months the change in the *index of retail prices, excluding seasonal food*, was 9.6 per cent, compared with the 10.7 per cent recorded last month. This increase includes the once-for-all effects of the June Budget.

Chart 4

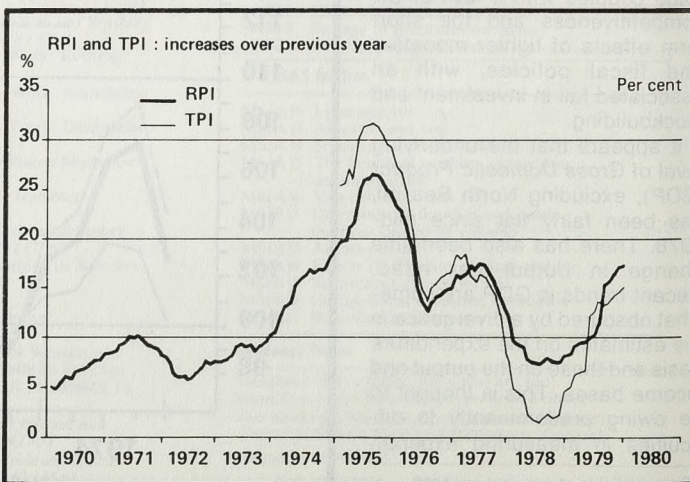
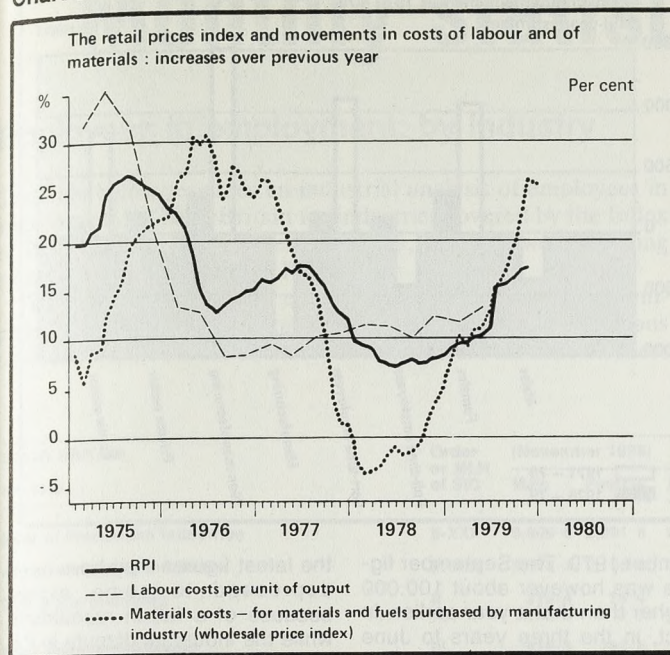


Chart 5



Recent monthly movements in the RPI, excluding seasonal food, have averaged a little under 1 per cent.

In December, the monthly increase in the RPI was 0.7 per cent. This was mainly caused by increases in the prices of food, particularly bread and eggs; by increases in television licence fees; in average charges for electricity; and by price increases over a wide range of goods and services.

The *Government's Industry Act* forecast (published on November 22) shows a decrease in the year-on-year rate of increase of retail prices to about 14 per cent by the fourth quarter of 1980, assuming that monetary growth is held within the new target range. Although the expected recession in industrial countries may limit further rises in commodity prices, the higher import prices that were experienced last year will affect retail prices in the early part of

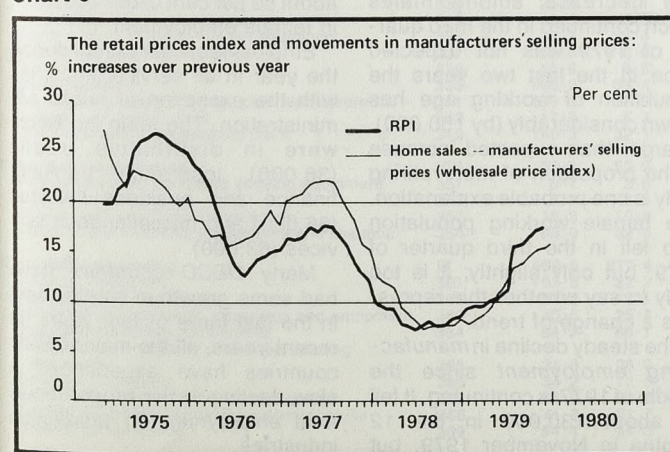
1980.

The growth of domestic costs depends on the outcome of pay negotiations. The forecast allows for a progressive reduction in the level of settlements in response to the Government's fiscal and monetary policies. In the shorter term, the increase in mortgage interest rates will add nearly 1 per cent to the RPI in January.

The *prices of home sales of manufactured products* (wholesale price index, WPI) in December were 15.5 per cent higher than a year earlier, the same as recorded in the previous month. (This index does not reflect changes in VAT; just over half of the retail goods and services covered by the RPI are represented in it and its movements tend to be reflected in the RPI after some delay).

Food manufacturers' prices were 11.75 per cent higher than a year earlier; for industries other than food, drink and tobacco the

Chart 6



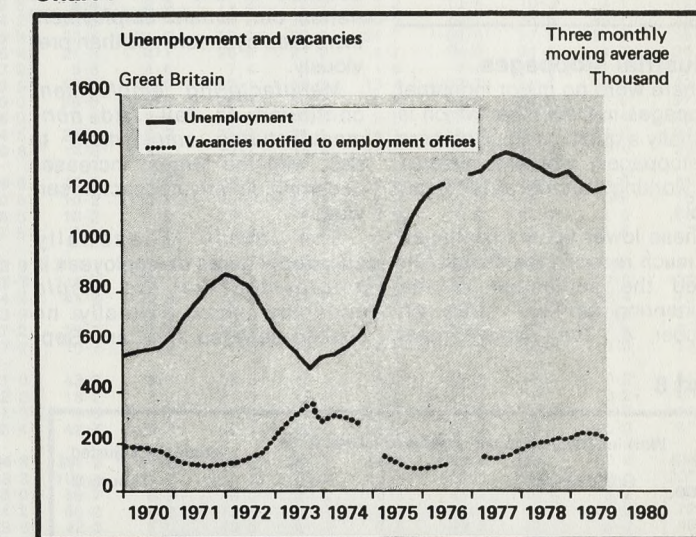
increase was 17.75 per cent.

Among the indicators of inputs likely to influence retail prices, *labour costs per unit of output* for the whole economy rose sharply in the third quarter 1979 and were 17.9 per cent higher than a year earlier, markedly above the increase of 13.9 per cent recorded for the second quarter. The increase in unit labour costs resulted mainly from an increase in the rate of growth of earnings and a decrease in GDP.

The *prices of materials and fuels purchased by manufacturing industry* (WPI) for December were 26 per cent higher than a year earlier compared with 26.25 per cent in November. Materials and fuels account for about one-half of the costs of manufacturing industry.

The year-on-year increase shown by retail prices in the United Kingdom is currently higher than most of our major competitors; a rising trend is however apparent in many of these countries.

Chart 7



Unemployment and vacancies

Latest movements in the seasonally adjusted figures indicate fairly clearly that the expected upturn in the unemployment trend is now under way. *Unemployment* in Great Britain fell gradually from late 1977 until September 1979 (apart from a setback early last year caused by the particularly bad weather and the road haulage dispute), but in the summer months the rate of decline slowed down and unemployment has been rising since October.

Apart from a dip early in 1979, *notified vacancies* had been increasing steadily for about two years; but they started to decline in June. Since then notified vac-

ancies at employment offices (which account for about one-third of all vacancies in the economy) have dropped by about 7,000 a month, seasonally adjusted.

The rise in unemployment has tended to be reduced by the *special employment and training measures* which have had an increasing effect in recent months. At the end of November about 380,000 people were being assisted under the schemes, about 120,000 more than at the beginning of 1979.

The actual effect on the unemployment register however is less than this; for example, some people do not sign the register when they become unemployed and some schemes need to support more than one person to prevent someone being made redundant.

Unemployment, excluding school leavers and seasonally adjusted, rose by 11,000 in December to 1,234,000 (5.2 per cent of all employees). Over the

past year unemployment has fallen by 27,000.

The improvement is more than accounted for by a fall of 41,000 in the number of men on the register. This was partly offset by a rise of 13,000 for women. Unemployment among married women has risen over the last year; in contrast the figures for other women have fallen.

School leavers registered as unemployed totalled 36,000 in December. This represents a fall of 10,000 over the previous month and is 4,000 lower than at the corresponding time in 1978.

Of the total unemployed (1,292,000), 197,000 had been on the register for four weeks or less at the time of the December

Stoppages of work

The official series of statistics of stoppages of work due to industrial disputes in the United Kingdom relates to disputes connected with terms and conditions of employment. Stoppages involving fewer than 10 workers or lasting less than one day are excluded except where the aggregate of working days lost exceeded 100. Workers involved are those directly involved and indirectly involved (thrown out of work although not parties to the disputes) at the establishments where the disputes occurred. The number of working days lost is the aggregate of days lost by workers both directly and indirectly involved (as defined). It follows that the statistics do not reflect repercussions elsewhere, that is, at establishments other than those at which the disputes occurred. For example, the statistics exclude persons laid off and working days lost at such establishments through shortages of material caused by the stoppages included in the statistics.

There are difficulties in ensuring complete recording of stoppages, in particular those near the margins of the definitions, for example short disputes lasting only a day or so. Any under-recording would of course particularly bear on those industries most affected by this type of stoppage; and would have much more effect on the total of stoppages than on working days lost.

More information about definitions and qualifications is given in a report on the statistics for the year 1978 on pages 661 to 670 of the July 1979 issue of *Employment Gazette*.

The number of stoppages beginning in December* which came to the notice of the department, was 43. In addition, 30 stoppages which began before December were still in progress at the beginning of the month.

The approximate number of workers involved at the establishments where these stoppages occurred is estimated at 33,800 consisting of 19,500 involved in stoppages which began in December and 14,300 involved in stoppages which had continued from the previous month. The latter figure includes 300 workers involved for the first time in December in stoppages which began in earlier months.

Of the 19,500 workers involved in stoppages which began in December 18,700 were directly involved and 800 indirectly involved.

What do readers think?

During January and February 1980 'Employment Gazette', the Department of Employment's regular monthly journal of record, will be carrying out a survey of its readers to ensure that the magazine is continuing to meet their needs and interests.

The survey will establish readers' attitudes to the different sections of the Gazette;

- find out what readers use most;
- what they would like to see expanded or reduced;
- and what new topics they would like to see covered which it might be possible to introduce.

Contact will be made with certain subscribers by telephone during January by the British Market Research Bureau Ltd who have been appointed to carry out the survey by the Department of Employment. Each of these subscribers will be asked who the readers of that copy are and who else refers to it.

Following this telephone contact in January, some of the identified users of the Gazette will receive a questionnaire in the post to complete and return to the research company.

In particular, the many public and academic librarians who subscribe to the publication are asked to cooperate in identifying their 'Employment Gazette' users and to encourage them to take part in the survey if they are approached.

Causes of stoppages

Principal cause	Beginning in Dec 1979		Beginning in the twelve months of 1979	
	Stoppages	Workers directly involved	Stoppages	Workers directly involved
Pay—wage-rates and earnings levels	19	8,300	1,170	3,736,400
—extra-wage and fringe benefits	2	6,500	45	14,900
Duration and pattern of hours worked	3	300	31	7,400
Redundancy questions	1	100	59	46,200
Trade union matters	4	700	132	70,000
Working conditions and supervision	5	2,300	153	24,500
Manning and work allocation	4	200	258	41,100
Dismissal and other disciplinary measures	5	400	197	116,500
Miscellaneous	—	—	—	—
All causes	43	18,700	†2,045	4,057,000

Duration of stoppages ending in December 1979

Duration of stoppage in working days	Stoppages		Workers directly involved	Working days lost by all workers involved
	Over	Not more than		
—	1	11	14,800	14,000
1	2	7	1,700	2,000
2	3	4	200	1,000
3	6	12	1,100	6,000
6	12	5	700	9,000
12	—	15	8,700	80,000
All stoppages		54	27,000	113,000

* The figures for the month under review are provisional and subject to revision, normally upwards, to take account of additional or revised information received after going to press. Continuous revision is reflected in figures for earlier months in the current year included in the cumulative totals on this page and in table 133 on page 98 of *Employment Gazette*. The figures have been rounded to the nearest 100 workers and 1,000 working days; in the tables the sums of the constituent items may not, therefore, agree with the totals shown.
† Includes five stoppages involving "sympathetic" action.

The aggregate of 115,000 working days lost in December includes 78,000 days lost through stoppages which had continued from the previous month.

Statistics for 1979

A summary of the provisional statistics of stoppages of work for 1979, with comparative figures for 1978 is given in the article on pages 28 and 35 of *Employment Gazette*.

Statistical series

Tables 101-134 in this section of the *Gazette* give the principal statistics compiled regularly by the Department in the form of time series, including the latest available figures together with comparable figures for preceding dates and years.

They are arranged in subject groups, covering the working population, employment, unemployment, unfilled vacancies, hours worked, earnings, wage rates and hours of work, retail prices and stoppages of work resulting from industrial disputes. Some of the main series are shown as charts. Brief definitions of the terms used are at the end of this section.

The national statistics relate either to Great Britain or the United Kingdom, and regional statistics to the standard Regions for Statistical Purposes (see *Employment Gazette*, June 1974, page 533) which conform generally to the Economic Planning Regions.

Working population. The changing size and composition of the working population of Great Britain at quarterly dates is in table 101, and more detailed analyses of the employment and unemployment figures are in subsequent tables.

Employment. As it is not practicable to estimate short-term changes in the numbers of self-employed persons, the group of employment tables relates only to employees. Monthly estimates are given for broad groups of industries covered by the Index of Industrial Production, and quarterly estimates are now given for other groups (table 103). Quarterly estimates for all industries and services, agriculture, Index of Production industries and service industries are separately analysed by region in table 102.

Unemployment. Tables 104-113 give analyses of the unemployed at the monthly counts. People are included in the counts if they are registered for employment at a local employment or careers office, have no job, and are both capable of and available for work on the count date. The counts include both claimants to unemployment benefit and people not claiming benefit, but they exclude non-claimants who are registered only for part-time work. Adult students seeking temporary employment during a vacation, and severely disabled people who are considered unlikely to obtain work other than under special conditions, are also excluded. The number unemployed is expressed as a percentage of total employees (employed and unemployed) to indicate the incidence of unemployment.

Separate figures are given in the tables for young people under the age of 18 seeking their first employment, who are described as school leavers. The numbers unemployed excluding school leavers are adjusted for seasonal variations. Detailed analysis of the unemployed by region, industry, occupation, age, duration and by entitlement to benefit, are summarised as time series. Also included, is a table of unemployment, total and seasonally adjusted, for selected countries: there are, however, varying methods in the compilation of these statistics.

Temporarily stopped workers who register to claim benefit but have jobs to which they expect to return are not included in the unemployment count, but are counted separately.

Unfilled vacancies. The vacancy statistics shown for the United Kingdom and analysed by regions in table 118 relate to vacancies notified by employers to local employment and careers office, and which, at the date of the count remain unfilled. They are not a measure of total vacancies. Because of possible duplication the figures for employment offices and careers offices should not be added together. Seasonally adjusted figures at employment offices are given in table 119.

Hours worked. This group of tables provides additional information about the level of industrial activity. Table 120 gives estimates of overtime and short-time working by operatives in manufacturing industries; table 121, the total hours worked and the average hours worked per operative per week in broad indus-

try groups in index form. Average weekly hours of employees are included in tables in the following groups.

Earnings and wage rates. Average weekly and hourly earnings and hours of manual workers in the United Kingdom in industry groups covered by the regular (October) enquiries are given in tables 122 and 123; averages for full-time men and women are given by industry group in table 122. Average earnings of all non-manual workers in Great Britain in all industries, and in all manufacturing industries, are shown in table 124 in index form. Table 125 is a comparative table of annual percentage changes in hourly earnings and hourly wage rates of full-time manual workers. New Earnings Survey (April) estimates of average weekly and hourly earnings and weekly hours of various categories of employees in Great Britain are given in table 126. Table 127 shows, by industry group and in index form, average earnings of all employees in Great Britain, derived from a monthly survey; the indices for all manufacturing and all industries covered are also given adjusted for seasonal variations. These seasonally adjusted series are also given in table 129 together with a new (unadjusted) series for the whole economy. Average earnings of full-time manual men in the engineering, shipbuilding and chemical industries are given by occupation in table 128, in index form. Indices of basic weekly and hourly wage rates and normal hours of manual workers in the United Kingdom are given by industry group and for all manufacturing and all industries in table 131.

Retail prices. Table 132 gives the all-items and broad item group figure for the official General Index of Retail Prices. Quarterly all-items (excluding housing) indices for pensioner households are given in tables 132(a) and 132(b).

Industrial stoppages. Details of the number of stoppages of work due to industrial disputes, the number of workers involved and days lost are in table 133.

Output per head and labour costs. Table 134 provides annual and quarterly indices of output, employment and output per person employed for the whole economy, the Index of Production and manufacturing sectors, and for selected industries where output and employment can be reasonably matched. Annual and quarterly indices of total domestic incomes per unit of output are given for the whole economy, with separate indices for the largest component—wages and salaries. Annual indices of labour costs per unit of output (including all items for which regular data is available) are shown for the whole economy and for selected industries. A full description is given in the *Gazette*, October 1968, pages 810-803.

Conventions. The following standard symbols are used:

..	not available
—	nil or negligible (less than half the final digit shown)
□	provisional
—	break in series
R	revised
e	estimated
n.e.s.	not elsewhere specified
SIC	UK Standard Industrial Classification (1968)

Where figures have been rounded to the final digit, there may be an apparent slight discrepancy between the sum of the constituent items and the total as shown.

Although figures may be given in unrounded form to facilitate the calculation of percentage changes, rates of change, etc., by users, this does not imply that the figures can be estimated to this degree of precision, and it must be recognised that they may be the subject of sampling and other errors.

UNEMPLOYMENT

By entitlement to benefit

TABLE 112

THOUSAND

GREAT BRITAIN		Receiving unemployment benefit only	Receiving unemployment benefit and supplementary allowance	Receiving supplementary allowance only	Others registered for work	All unemployed
1974	May	172	58	186	119	535
	Nov	209	67	201	144	621
1975	Feb	271	91	236	159	757
	May	303	96	252	162	813
	Nov	421	124	373	202	1,120
1976	Feb	483	152	416	202	1,253
	May	454	143	420	203	1,220
	Nov
1977	Feb	469	144	535	217	1,365
	May	427	136	511	211	1,286
	Nov	470	129	574	265	1,438
1978	Feb	480	138	561	267	1,446
	May	426	117	528	254	1,325
	Nov	419	94	537	280	1,331

Notes: The group "others registered for work" includes those who at the operative date had been unemployed for only a short time and whose claims were still being examined. Also included are those who are registered for employment but not claiming benefits (e.g. those married women who are not entitled to benefit, some school leavers, some retired people who are again seeking employment, and some people who have been disqualified from receiving unemployment benefit or who have received all the unemployment benefit to which they are entitled in their current spell of unemployment).

British Labour Statistics Yearbook 1976

This series of yearbooks follows the publication of British Labour Statistics: Historical Abstract 1886-1968 (HMSO 1971). The yearbooks bring together, in a single volume for each calendar year, all the main statistics published in the Department of Employment Gazette for years from 1969 onwards; so that the yearbooks, together with the Historical Abstract for years up to 1968, provide a convenient standard source of reference. This 1976 Yearbook contains 372 pages including graphs, tables and a list of appendices. The topics covered include wage rates and normal hours, earnings and hours worked, unemployment, membership of trade unions, industrial disputes and accidents and labour costs. This will be a most valuable source-book for everyone concerned with the study and formulation of economic policies.

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UNEMPLOYMENT

Selected countries: national definitions

THOUSAND

TABLE 113

	United Kingdom*†		Bel-gium‡	Den-mark§	France*	Ger-many*	Ireland‡	Italy	Nether-lands*	Austria*	Greece* R	Norway*	Spain* R	Sweden¶	Switzer-land*	Austra-lia*	Japan¶	Canada¶	United States¶	
	Incl. school leavers	Excl. school leavers																		
NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED																				
Annual averages																				
1974	615**	600**	105	50	498	583	48	997	135	41	27	10.7	150	80	0.2	122	740	521	5,076	
1975	978	929	177	124	840	1,074	75	1,107	195	55	35	19.6	257	67	10.2	269	1,000	690	7,830	
1976	1,359**	1,270**	229	126	933	1,060	84	1,182	211	55	28	19.9	376	66	20.7	282	1,080	727	7,288	
1977	1,484	1,378	264	164	1,073	1,030	82	1,380	204	51	28	16.1	540	75	12.0	345	1,100	850	6,856	
1978	1,475	1,376	282	190	1,167	993	75	1,529	206	59	31	20.0	817	94	10.5	406	1,240	911	6,047	
Quarterly averages																				
1978 Q2	1,428	1,343	274	182	1,047	930	76	1,475	186	47	23	15.3	786	86	9.3	396	1,240	933	5,823	
Q3	1,571	1,369	271	173	1,179	904	71	1,488	209	37	20	18.0	837	106	7.9	388	1,203	881	6,055	
Q4	1,395	1,335	293	190	1,334	945	69	1,569	212	67	36	25.6	903	84	11.2	410	1,163	829	5,605	
1979 Q1	1,436	1,397	299	203	1,337	1,088	73	1,691	222	87	48	32.0	947	100	14.5	475	1,277	969	6,360	
Q2	1,328	1,258	284	152	1,261	805		1,590	193	46	22	22.2	1,015	85	10.3		1,153	859	5,883	
Q3	1,438	1,267	288	137	1,328	780		1,540	214	34	18	20.2	1,071	92	8.1	399	1,140	761	6,013	
Q4	1,359	1,307	307		1,474	809													5,798	
Monthly																				
1979 July	1,464	1,249	289	131	1,257	804		1,572	211	34	20	18.5	1,053	86	8.6	410	1,160	793	6,104	
Aug	1,455	1,272	288	143	1,303	799		1,516	218	33	20	22.2	1,065	102	8.1	397	1,180	772	6,137	
Sep	1,395	1,280	287	137	1,424	737		1,590	213	36	18	20.0	1,095	89	7.7	390	1,080	719	5,798	
Oct	1,368	1,298	296	139	1,480	762		1,635	207	50	23	19.9	1,107	78	7.8	384	1,110	743	5,781	
Nov	1,355	1,306	309		1,473	799		[1,646]	209	62	39	21.2	1,110	76	8.4	397		771	5,776	
Dec	1,355	1,316	315		1,469	867													5,836	
Percentage rate latest month																				
	5.6		11.6	5.3	7.8	3.8	10.1††	[7.7]	5.0	2.2	2.6	1.1	8.5	1.8	0.3	6.1	2.0	6.8	5.6	
NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, SEASONALLY ADJUSTED																				
Quarterly averages																				
1978 Q2		1,389	285	184	1,139	1,000	76		202	58	28	18.4	781	97			1,251	922	6,028	
Q3		1,368	284	186	1,234	995	74		206	59	30	20.8	852	107			1,288	921	6,027	
Q4		1,334	281	188	1,224	952	72		209	60	35	23.8	907	85			1,251	900	5,908	
1979 Q1		1,357	287	172	1,285	920	68 e		211	60	34	27.9	937	88			1,118	882	5,878	
Q2		1,304	296	157	1,369	875			210	57	27	25.3	1,015	96			1,162	855	5,880	
Q3		1,269	302	149	1,388	871			211	55	28 e	23.0	1,090	93			1,220	802	5,994	
Q4		1,286	295		1,352	816 e													6,103	
Monthly																				
1979 July		1,279	300	151	1,404	881			212	55	30	23.9	1,074	99			1,273	802	5,848	
Aug		1,265	303	149	1,406	875			210	55	30	23.4	1,082	97			1,250	809	6,149	
Sep		1,264	302	147	1,355	856			210	54	27 e	21.8	1,115	83			1,138	794	5,985	
Oct		1,282	298	145	1,340	832			208	56	31 e	20.9	1,118 e	76			1,212	843	6,182	
Nov		1,282	294 e		1,345	823 e			209 e	55 e	39 e	20.7 e	1,110 e	78				827	6,039	
Dec		1,295	293 e		1,370	793 e													6,087	
Percentage rate latest month																				
	5.3		10.8 e	5.5	7.3	3.4 e	9.5 e††		5.0 e	1.9 e	2.6 e	1.1 e	8.5 e	1.9			2.1	7.3	5.9	

Notes: 1 It is stressed that the figures are not directly comparable owing to national differences in coverage, concepts of unemployment and methods of compilation (described in an article on pages 710-715 of the July 1976 issue of *Employment Gazette*). There are two main methods of collecting unemployment statistics:

(1) by counting registrations for employment at local offices;

(2) by conducting a labour force survey from a sample number of households.

2 Source: SOEC Statistical Telegram for Italy, OECD Main Economic Indicators for remainder, except United Kingdom, supplemented by labour attaché reports. In some instances estimates of seasonally adjusted levels have been made from the latest unadjusted data.

* Numbers registered at employment offices. Rates are calculated as percentages of total employees.

† From October 1979 the unadjusted figures are affected by the introduction of fortnightly payment of benefit. The seasonally adjusted figures have been adjusted to take account of this as described in the November 1979 issue of *Employment Gazette* (page 1151).

‡ Insured unemployed. Rates are calculated as percentages of total insured population.

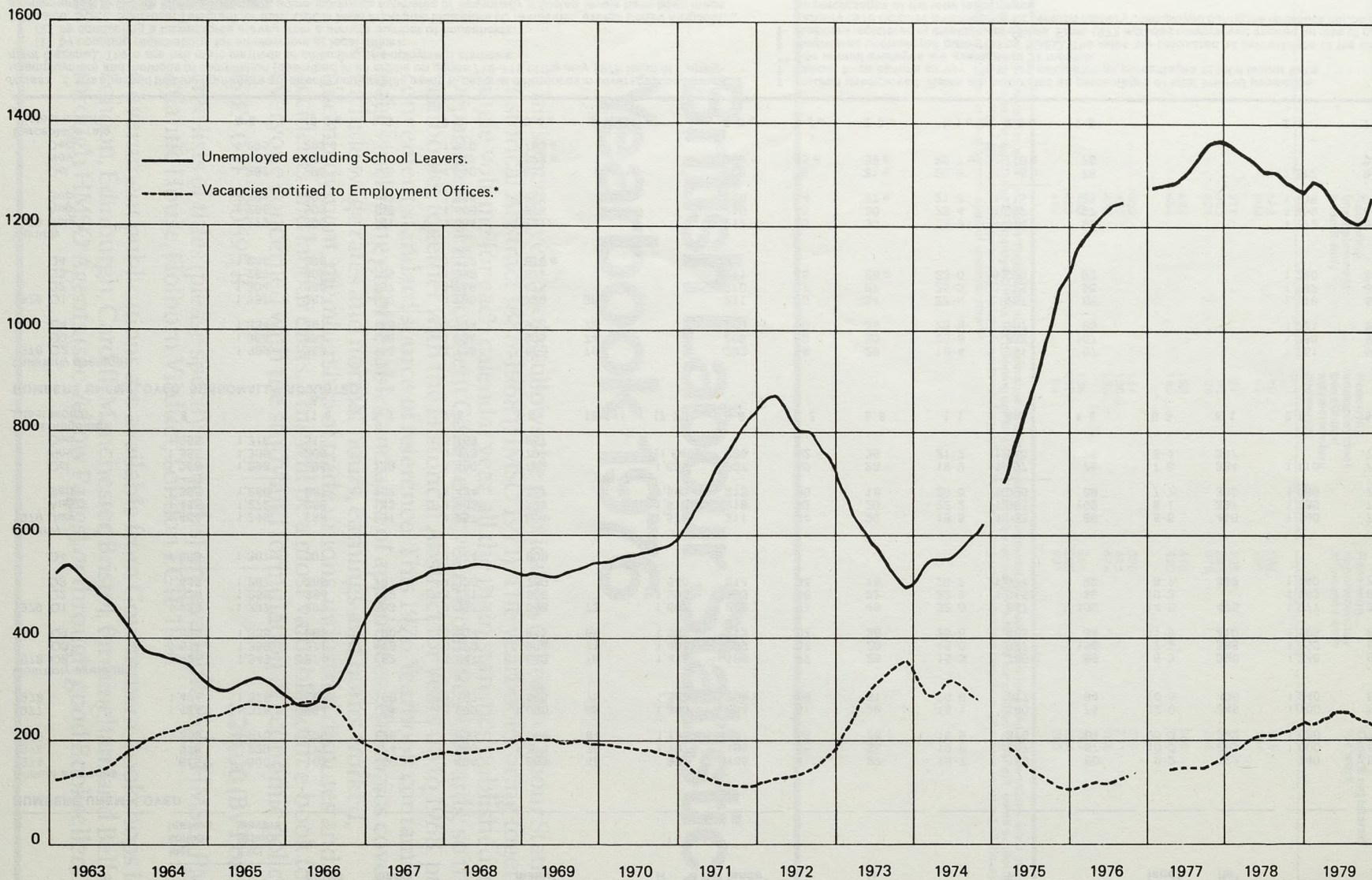
¶ Labour force sample survey. Rates are calculated as percentages of total labour force.

** The annual averages are averages of 11 months.

|| Registered unemployed published by SOEC. The rates are calculated as percentages of the civilian labour force.

§ Numbers registered at employment offices. From 1977 includes unemployed insured for loss of part-time work. From January 1979 includes an allowance for persons partially unemployed during the reference period and rates calculated as percentages of the total labour force.

†† Mar 1979



*Vacancies at employment offices are only a part, perhaps a third, of total vacancies.

Unemployed and vacancies: Great Britain

Three-month moving average: seasonally adjusted THOUSAND

UNEMPLOYMENT AND VACANCIES

Flows at employment offices, standardised and seasonally adjusted*

THOUSAND

TABLE 117

GREAT BRITAIN Average of 3 months ended		UNEMPLOYMENT†									VACANCIES		
		Joining register (inflow)			Leaving register (outflow)			Excess of inflow over outflow			Inflow	Outflow	Excess of inflow over outflow
		Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All			
											Male	Female	All
1975	June 9	258	102	360	225	94	319	34	8	41	159	179	-20
	July 14	264	110	375	228	98	326	36	13	49	157	173	-16
	Aug 11	264	113	377	230	100	330	34	13	47	160	167	-8
	Sep 8	266	117	383	236	104	340	30	13	43	163	167	-4
	Oct 9	264	118	383	239	108	347	25	11	36	161	165	-5
	Nov 13	260	119	379	235	109	344	25	10	35	155	161	-6
	Dec 11	254	116	371	226	106	332	29	11	39	148	154	-5
	Jan 8	246	112	357	215	99	314	31	12	43	146	147	-1
1976	Feb 12	242	110	352	217	99	315	25	12	37	148	144	4
	Mar 11	240	111	351	229	101	330	11	10	22	156	149	7
	April 8	244	113	357	239	108	347	5	5	10	163	159	4
	May 13	245	116	361	240	112	352	5	4	9	165	168	-3
	June 10	249	120	369	242	116	358	7	4	11	164	172	-8
	July 8	251	127	378	244	117	361	6	10	17	170	173	-3
	Aug 12	248	128	376	248	118	367	—	9	9	180	176	4
	Sep 9	244	129	373	245	119	364	-1	10	9	186	180	6
	Oct 14	242	129	371	246	124	370	-4	5	1	188	185	3
	Nov 11
	Dec 13
1977	Jan 13
	Feb 10
	Mar 10
	April 14	231	122	354	236	122	358	-5	—	-5
	May 12	236	126	362	242	126	369	-6	-1	-7	196	197	—
	June 9	238	127	365	232	124	356	6	3	9	192	198	-6
	July 14	248	141	389	242	131	373	6	10	16	192	196	-4
	Aug 11	245	139	384	237	129	366	8	10	17	193	195	-2
	Sep 8	245	141	386	241	131	372	5	10	14	192	194	-2
	Oct 13	245	141	386	243	137	379	2	4	6	199	198	1
	Nov 10	248	145	393	243	141	384	4	4	9	196	196	—
	Dec 8	245	143	388	244	143	387	1	—	1	198	193	5
1978	Jan 12	229	129	358	229	129	357	1	—	1	195	185	10
	Feb 9	222	125	347	227	126	353	-5	-1	-6	200	186	15
	Mar 9	220	127	347	231	129	360	-11	-2	-13	209	192	17
	April 13	226	132	358	238	137	375	-12	-5	-17	213	203	10
	May 11	229	135	363	239	139	379	-11	-5	-16	218	215	3
	June 8	232	138	369	240	140	380	-9	-3	-11	221	221	—
	July 6	241	149	391	249	145	394	-7	4	-3	229	231	-2
	Aug 10	240	150	390	247	144	391	-7	6	-1	232	231	1
	Sep 14	237	151	388	244	146	390	-7	5	-1	233	231	2
	Oct 12	236	151	387	244	151	395	-8	—	-8	238	232	7
	Nov 9	238	155	393	245	156	401	-7	-2	-8	237	233	4
	Dec 7	239	151	390	244	155	399	-5	-4	-9	235	232	3
1979	Jan 11	226	134	361	226	136	363	—	-2	-2	219	215	3
	Feb 8	224	130	354	217	130	347	7	—	7	210	206	5
	Mar 8	220	128	349	219	128	347	1	—	2	210	202	8
	April 5	222	134	355	232	139	371	-11	-5	-16	227	220	7
	May 10	215	131	345	235	137	372	-20	-6	-26	233	227	6
	June 14	219	137	356	237	142	379	-19	-4	-23	238	236	2
	July 12	229	151	381	240	145	385	-11	7	-4	235	240	-6
	Aug 9	236	157	393	247	150	397	-11	7	-4	241	248	-7
	Sep 13	235	158	393	240	150	391	-5	8	+3	236	245	-9
	Oct 11†	236	159	395	237	157	393	—	2	2	235	241	-6
	Nov 8	240	163	403	233	160	393	7	3	10	228	235	-7
	Dec 6	245	163	408	235	161	395	11	2	13	225	235	-10

* The flow statistics are described in the Gazette, September 1976, pp. 976-987. While the coverage of the flow statistics is somewhat different from the published totals of unemployed excluding school leavers, and of vacancies notified to employment offices, the movements in the respective series are closely related.
 † Flow figures are collected for 4 or 5 week periods between unemployment or vacancy count dates; the figures in this table are converted to a standard 4½ week month and are seasonally adjusted. The dates shown are the unemployment count dates; the corresponding vacancy count dates are generally 6 days earlier (5 days in the period before October 1975).
 ‡ The October monthly figures for those leaving the register have been increased to allow for the effect of fortnightly payment of benefit. (See page 1151 of the November 1979 Employment Gazette).

EARNINGS AND HOURS

Average weekly and hourly earnings and hours: manual and non-manual employees

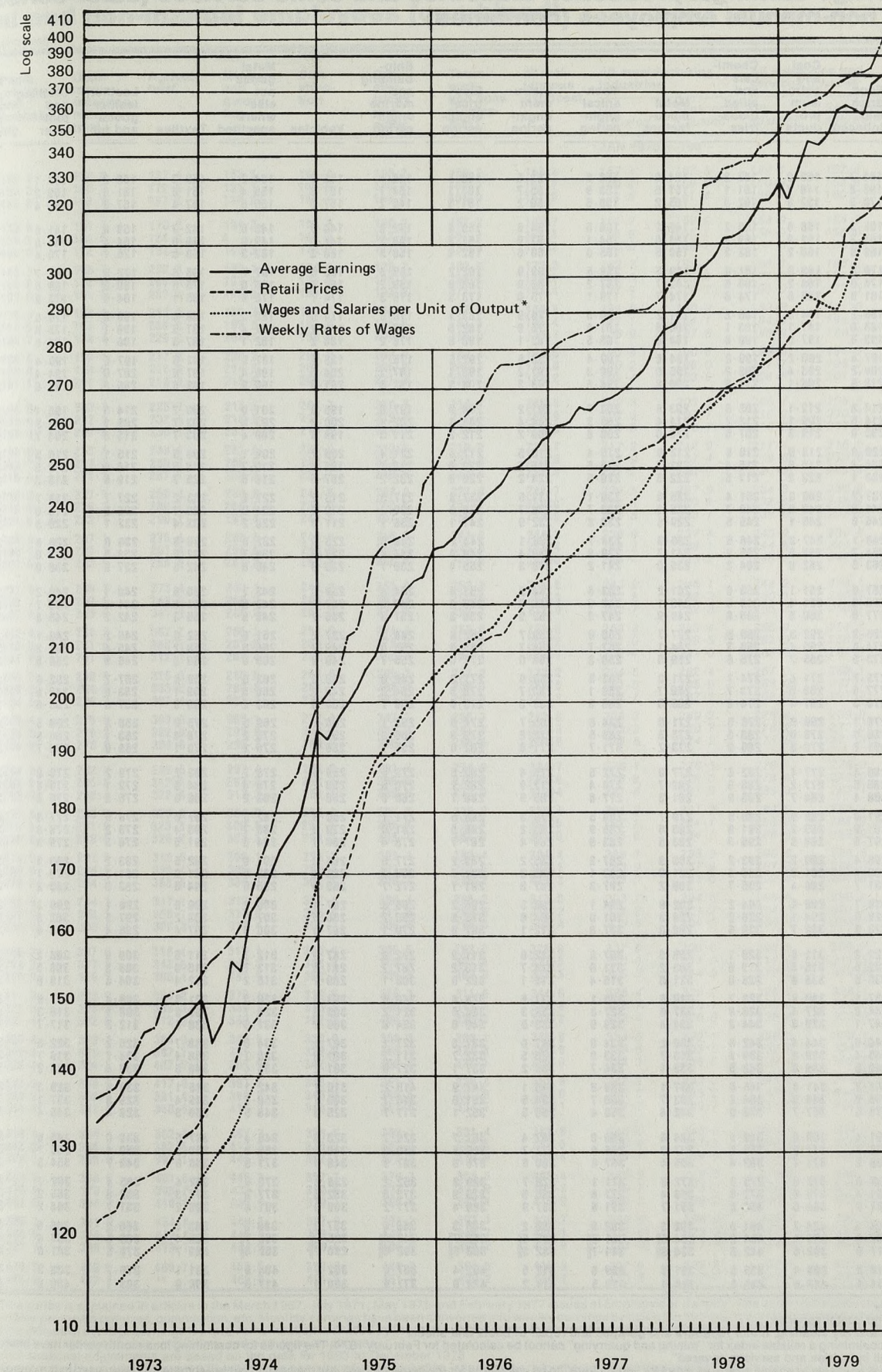
TABLE 126

GREAT BRITAIN	MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES					ALL INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES				
	Weekly earnings (£)		Hours	Hourly earnings (pence)		Weekly earnings (£)		Hours	Hourly earnings (pence)	
	including those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence		including those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	
				including overtime pay and overtime hours	excluding overtime pay and overtime hours				including overtime pay and overtime hours	excluding overtime pay and overtime hours
April										
FULL-TIME MEN, 21 years and over										
Manual occupations										
1972	33.6	34.5	45.6	75.8	83.7	32.1	32.8	46.0	71.3	69.1
1973	38.6	39.9	46.4	86.0	95.2	37.0	38.1	46.7	81.7	79.2
1974	43.6	45.1	46.2	97.4	123.1	42.3	43.6	46.5	93.5	91.1
1975	54.5	56.6	45.0	125.8	173.3	54.0	55.7	45.5	122.2	119.2
1976	65.1	67.4	45.1	149.2	146.3	63.3	65.1	45.3	143.7	141.0
1977	71.8	74.2	45.6	162.6	160.0	69.5	71.5	45.7	156.5	154.3
1978	81.8	84.7	45.8	184.8	181.8	78.4	80.7	46.0	175.5	172.8
1979	94.5	97.9	46.0	212.8	208.7	90.1	93.0	46.2	201.2	197.5
Non-manual occupations										
1972	43.7	43.8	38.9	111.3	122.4	43.4	43.5	38.7	110.7	110.8
1973	48.4	48.7	39.2	122.4	137.8	47.8	48.1	38.8	121.6	121.7
1974	54.1	54.5	39.1	137.7	173.3	54.1	54.4	38.8	137.9	138.1
1975	68.2	68.7	39.2	173.2	204.4	67.9	68.4	38.7	174.3	174.6
1976	80.2	80.9	39.1	204.3	223.8	81.0	81.6	38.5	210.3	210.6
1977	88.2	88.9	39.2	223.4	258.9	88.4	88.9	38.7	227.2	227.9
1978	102.4	103.0	39.4	258.1	293.8	99.9	100.7	38.7	257.1	257.9
1979	116.8	117.7	39.6	293.8	331.1	112.1	113.0	38.8	288.6	289.5
All occupations										
1972	36.2	37.1	43.9	83.7	93.5	36.0	36.7	43.4	83.7	83.3
1973	41.1	42.3	44.5	94.5	106.1	40.9	41.9	43.8	94.3	93.7
1974	46.3	47.7	44.3	106.9	136.5	46.5	47.7	43.7	107.6	107.2
1975	58.1	60.2	43.4	137.7	162.0	59.2	60.8	43.0	139.9	139.3
1976	69.2	71.4	43.4	163.2	177.7	70.0	71.8	42.7	166.8	166.6
1977	76.1	78.5	43.8	177.7	202.2	76.8	78.6	43.0	181.1	181.5
1978	87.3	90.0	44.0	202.2	231.8	86.9	89.1	43.1	204.3	204.9
1979	100.5	103.7	44.2	233.1	266.0	98.8	101.4	43.2	232.2	232.4
FULL-TIME WOMEN, 18 years and over										
Manual occupations										
1972	17.0	17.7	40.0	44.4	50.7	16.6	17.1	39.9	43.0	42.6
1973	19.6	20.5	40.0	51.2	60.1	19.1	19.7	39.9	49.6	49.1
1974	23.1	24.1	39.9	60.6	81.4	22.8	23.6	39.8	59.3	58.7
1975	30.9	32.4	39.5	81.8	101.5	30.9	32.1	39.4	81.6	81.1
1976	38.5	40.3	39.6	102.0	112.7	38.1	39.4	39.3	100.7	100.2
1977	43.0	45.0	39.8	113.4	127.5	42.2	43.7	39.4	111.2	110.7
1978	49.3	51.2	39.9	128.5	144.2	48.0	49.4	39.6	125.3	124.4
1979	55.4	57.9	39.9	145.4	168.0	53.4	55.2	39.6	139.9	138.7
Non-manual occupations										
1972	19.4	19.5	37.3	52.3	58.3	22.1	22.2	36.8	59.9	59.8
1973	21.8	21.8	37.3	58.5	68.8	24.5	24.7	36.8	66.2	66.1
1974	25.6	25.8	37.3	69.0	81.4	28.3	28.6	36.8	76.9	76.7
1975	35.2	35.4	37.1	95.2	95.0	39.3	39.6	36.6	106.1	105.9
1976	42.8	43.1	37.1	115.9	115.6	48.5	48.8	36.5	132.0	131.8
1977	48.1	48.4	37.1	130.1	129.8	53.4	53.8	36.7	143.8	143.7
1978	54.9	55.2	37.2	148.0	147.5	58.5	59.1	36.7	158.1	157.9
1979	62.3	62.8	37.2	168.5	168.0	65.3	66.0	36.7	176.8	176.6
All occupations										
1972	17.8	18.4	39.0	47.0	53.5	20.1	20.5	37.8	54.0	53.9
1973	20.3	21.0	39.0	53.9	63.4	22.6	23.1	37.8	60.5	60.3
1974	23.9	24.8	38.9	63.8	87.2	26.3	26.9	37.8	70.8	70.6
1975	32.4	33.6	38.5	87.2	86.9	36.6	37.4	37.4	98.5	98.3
1976	40.1	41.5	38.5	107.6	107.2	45.3	46.2	37.3	122.6	122.4
1977	44.9	46.4	38.7	120.0	119.6	50.0	51.0	37.5	134.0	133.9
1978	51.3	52.8	38.8	136.1	135.4	55.4	56.4	37.5	148.2	148.0
1979	57.9	60.0	38.8	154.6	153.7	61.8	63.0	37.5	166.0	165.7
FULL-TIME ADULTS										
(a) MEN, 21 years and over										
WOMEN, 18 years and over										
All occupations										
1972	31.7	32.7	42.6	76.4	84.1	31.4	32.0	41.8	75.8	75.0
1973	36.0	37.3	43.1	85.7	96.1	35.5	36.4	42.1	85.2	84.1
1974	40.8	42.3	43.0	97.6	125.4	40.6	41.7	42.0	97.8	96.8
1975	52.1	54.2	42.3	127.2	150.0	52.7	54.0	41.3	128.9	127.7
1976	62.5	64.7	42.3	151.8	163.3	62.7	64.2	41.1	154.7	153.8
1977	68.9	71.3	42.7	165.8	162.3	68.7	70.2	41.3	165.7	165.1
1978	78.8	81.5	42.8	188.7	187.0	77.3	79.1	41.4	188.6	187.9
1979	90.4	93.7	43.0	216.7	214.2	87.4	89.6	41.5	213.6	212.4
(b) MALES AND FEMALES, 18 years and over										
All occupations										
1973	35.6	36.8	43.1	84.6	95.0	35.0	35.9	42.1	84.1	82.9
1974	40.3	41.8	43.0	96.4	124.1	40.1	41.1	42.0	96.6	95.5
1975	51.5	53.6	42.3	125.8	150.0	52.0	53.4	41.4	127.3	126.0
1976	61.8	64.0	42.5	150.1	148.3	61.8	63.4	41.1	152.6	151.6
1977	68.0	70.4	42.7	163.8	162.3	67.8	69.3	41.3	165.7	165.1
1978	77.8	80.5	42.8	186.5	184.7	76.3	78.1	41.4	186.1	185.3
1979	89.1	92.5	43.0	213.9	211.3	86.2	88.4	41.5	210.7	209.3

Note: New Earnings Survey estimates
From 1974, age has been measured in completed years at January 1; but previously at the time of the survey.

Earnings, wage rates, retail prices

Average 1970 = 100



* See footnote at end of table 134

RETAIL PRICES General* index of retail prices: Percentage increases on a year earlier

TABLE 132 (continued)

UNITED KINGDOM	All items	Food	Alcoholic drink	Tobacco	Housing	Fuel and light	Durable household goods	Clothing and footwear	Transport and vehicles	Miscellaneous goods	Services	Meals bought and consumed outside the home	Goods and services mainly produced by nationalised industries
1971 Jan 19	8	9	6	2	9	5	8	7	13	11	9	10	10
1972 Jan 18	8	11	2	0	9	10	4	6	8	10	9	13	12
1973 Jan 16	8	10	6	2	14	6	4	7	5	2	9	10	6
1974 Jan 15	12	20	2	0	10	6	10	13	10	7	12	21	5
1975 Jan 14	20	18	18	24	10	25	18	19	30	25	16	19	20
1976 Jan 13	23	25	26	31	22	35	19	11	20	22	33	23	44
1977 Jan 18	17	23	17	19	14	18	12	13	14	16	8	18	15
1978 Jan 17	10	7	9	15	7	11	12	10	11	13	12	16	11
April 18	8	6	8	9	3	10	10	10	8	9	12	14	10
May 16	8	7	7	9	4	8	10	10	7	9	11	13	9
June 13	7	7	7	4	5	7	9	9	7	9	10	12	8
July 18	8	7	7	4	7	6	9	9	7	9	11	12	9
Aug 15	8	7	6	4	8	6	9	8	9	9	10	12	9
Sep 12	8	7	5	5	8	6	8	8	9	9	12	9	10
Oct 17	8	7	5	6	11	4	8	7	9	9	10	9	8
Nov 14	8	8	5	6	11	6	8	7	10	9	9	9	8
Dec 12	8	8	5	6	13	6	8	7	10	9	8	9	7
1979 Jan 16	9	11	5	4	16	6	7	8	10	9	8	10	7
Feb 13	10	11	5	4	18	6	7	7	10	9	8	10	6
Mar 13	10	11	5	4	19	6	7	7	11	10	8	10	6
April 10	10	10	5	3	20	6	7	7	12	11	8	11	6
May 15	10	10	6	3	21	5	8	7	12	11	8	11	6
June 12	11	11	7	3	23	5	8	8	15	11	9	12	5
July 17	16	12	14	14	23	9	14	12	22	17	13	18	7
Aug 14	16	12	15	13	21	12	13	12	23	18	13	18	8
Sep 18	16	13	16	16	21	14	14	11	23	18	14	21	11
Oct 16	17	14	16	16	22	15	14	11	23	19	15	22	12
Nov 13	17	14	17	16	22	17	15	12	23	19	15	22	13
Dec 11	17	14	18	16	20	18	15	11	22	19	16	22	14

Indices for pensioner households: all items (excluding housing)

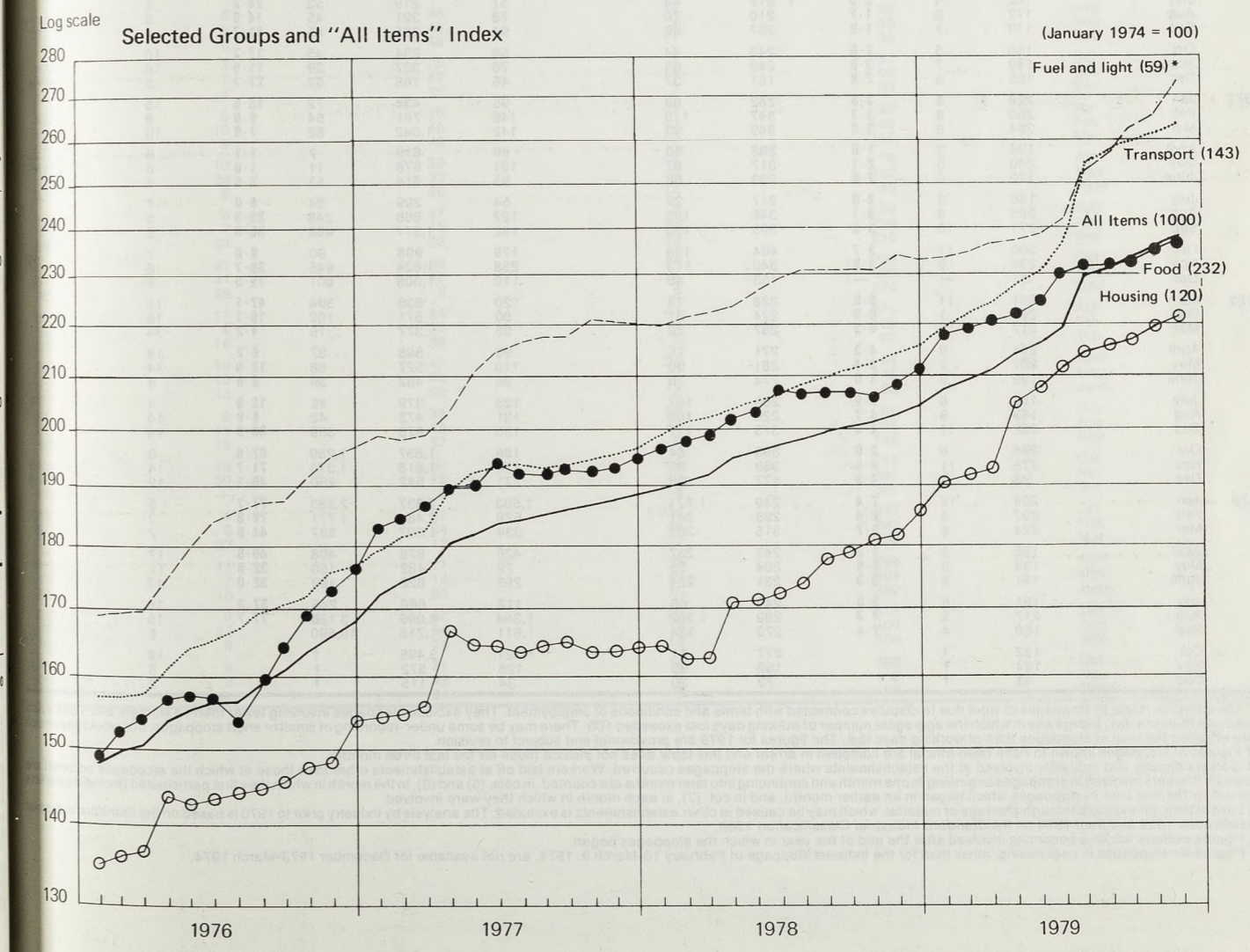
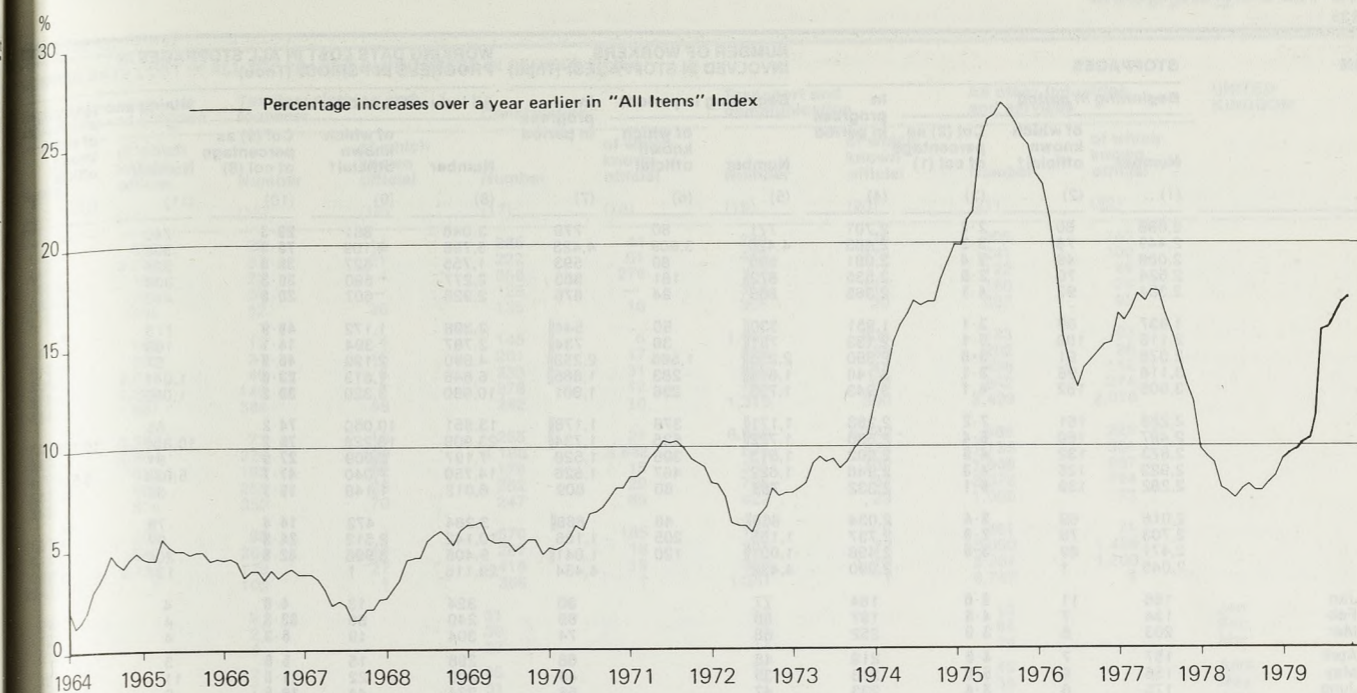
TABLE 132(a)

Index for UNITED KINGDOM	One-person pensioner households				Two-person pensioner households				General index of retail prices			
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
1968	122.9	124.0	124.3	126.8	122.7	124.3	124.6	126.7	120.2	123.2	123.8	125.3
1969	129.4	130.8	130.6	133.6	129.6	131.3	131.4	133.8	128.1	130.0	130.2	131.8
1970	136.9	139.3	140.3	144.1	137.0	139.4	140.6	144.0	134.5	137.3	139.0	141.7
1971	148.5	153.4	156.5	159.3	148.4	153.4	156.2	158.6	146.0	150.9	153.1	154.9
1972	162.5	164.4	167.0	171.0	161.8	163.7	166.7	170.3	157.4	159.5	162.4	165.5
1973	175.3	180.8	182.5	190.3	175.2	181.1	183.0	190.6	168.7	173.8	176.6	182.6
1974	199.4	207.5	214.1	225.3	199.5	208.8	214.5	225.2	190.7	201.9	208.0	218.1
JAN 15, 1974 = 100												
1974	101.1	105.2	108.6	114.2	101.1	105.8	108.7	114.1	101.5	107.5	110.7	116.1
1975	121.3	134.3	139.2	145.0	121.0	134.0	139.1	144.4	123.5	134.5	140.7	145.7
1976	152.3	158.3	161.4	171.3	151.5	157.3	160.5	170.2	151.4	156.6	160.4	168.0
1977	179.0	186.9	191.1	194.2	178.9	186.3	189.4	192.3	176.8	184.2	187.6	190.8
1978	197.5	202.5	205.1	207.1	195.8	200.9	203.6	205.9	194.6	199.3	202.4	205.3
1979	214.9	220.6	231.9	239.8	213.4	219.3	233.1	238.5	211.3	217.7	233.1	239.8

TABLE 132(b)
Group indices: annual averages

UNITED KINGDOM	All items (excluding housing)	Food	Alcoholic drink	Tobacco	Fuel and light	Durable household goods	Clothing and footwear	Transport and vehicles	Miscellaneous goods	Services	Meals bought and consumed outside the home
JAN 15, 1974 = 100											
INDEX FOR ONE-PERSON PENSIONER HOUSEHOLDS											
1974	107.3	104.0	110.0	115.9	109.9	108.5	109.5	109.0	114.5	106.7	108.8
1975	135.0	129.5	135.8	147.8	145.5	131.0	124.9	144.0	147.7	134.4	133.1
1976	160.8	156.3	160.2	171.5	179.9	145.2	137.7	178.0	171.6	155.1	159.5
1977	187.8	187.5	185.2	209.8	205.2	169.0	155.4	204.6	201.1	168.7	188.6
1978	203.1	199.6	197.9	226.3	224.8	184.8	168.3	228.0	221.3	185.3	209.8
INDEX FOR TWO-PERSON PENSIONER HOUSEHOLDS											
1974	107.4	104.0	110.0	116.0	110.0	108.2	109.7	111.0	113.3	106.7	108.8
1975	134.6	128.9	135.7	148.1	146.0	132.6	126.4	145.4	144.6	135.4	133.1
1976	159.9	155.8	160.5	171.9	180.7	146.3	139.7	171.4	168.2	157.1	159.5
1977	186.7	184.8	186.3	210.2	207.7	170.3	158.5	194.9	197.4	171.2	188.6
1978	201.6	196.9	199.8	226.6	226.0	186.1	172.7	211.7	217.8	188.5	209.8
GENERAL INDEX OF RETAIL PRICES											
1974	108.9	106.1	109.7	115.9	110.7	107.9	109.4	111.0	111.2	106.8	108.2
1975	136.1	133.3	135.2	147.7	147.4	131.2	125.7	143.9	138.6	135.5	132.4
1976	159.1	159.9	159.3	171.3	182.4	144.2	139.4	166.0	161.3	159.5	157.3
1977	184.9	190.3	183.4	209.7	211.3	166.8	157.4	190.3	188.3	173.3	185.7
1978	200.4	203.8	196.0	226.2	227.5	182.1	171.0	207.2	206.7	192.0	207.8

Index of retail prices



*Figures in brackets are the 1979 group weights

DEFINITIONS

The terms used in these tables are defined more fully elsewhere in articles in *Employment Gazette* relating to particular statistical series. The following are short general definitions.

WORKING POPULATION All employed and registered unemployed persons.	SEASONALLY ADJUSTED Adjusted for normal seasonal variations.
HM FORCES Serving, UK members of HM Armed Forces and Women's Services, including those on release leave.	MEN Males aged 18 years and over, except where otherwise stated.
EMPLOYED LABOUR FORCE Working population less the registered unemployed.	WOMEN Females aged 18 years and over.
TOTAL IN CIVIL EMPLOYMENT Employed labour force less HM Forces.	ADULTS Men and women.
EMPLOYEES IN EMPLOYMENT Total in civil employment less self-employed.	BOYS Males under 18 years of age, except where otherwise stated.
TOTAL EMPLOYEES Employees in employment plus the unemployed. (The above terms are explained more fully on pages 207-214 of the May 1966 and pages 5-7 of the January 1973 issues of <i>Employment Gazette</i>).	GIRLS Females under 18 years of age.
UNEMPLOYED Persons registered for employment at a local employment office or careers service office on the day of the monthly count who on that day have no job and are capable of and available for work. (Certain severely disabled persons, and adult students registered for vacation employment, are excluded).	YOUNG PERSONS Boys and girls.
UNEMPLOYED SCHOOL-LEAVERS Unemployed persons under 18 years of age who have not entered employment since terminating full-time education.	YOUTHS Males aged 18-20 years (used where men means males aged 21 and over).
ADULT STUDENTS Persons aged 18 or over who are registered for temporary employment during a current vacation, at the end of which they intend to continue in full-time education. These people are not included in the unemployed.	OPERATIVES Employees, other than administrative, technical and clerical employees in manufacturing industries.
UNEMPLOYED PERCENTAGE RATE The unemployed expressed as a percentage of the estimated total number of employees (employed and unemployed) at mid-year.	MANUAL WORKERS Employees, other than administrative and clerical employees, in industries covered by earnings enquiries.
TEMPORARILY STOPPED Persons who at the date of the count are suspended by their employers on the understanding that they will shortly resume work and are registered to claim benefit. These people are not included in the unemployment figures.	PART-TIME WORKERS Persons normally working for not more than 30 hours a week except where otherwise stated.
VACANCY A job notified by an employer to a local employment office or careers service office which is unfilled at the date of the monthly count.	NORMAL WEEKLY HOURS Recognised weekly hours fixed in collective agreements, etc.
	WEEKLY HOURS WORKED Actual hours worked during the week.
	OVERTIME Work outside normal hours.
	SHORT-TIME WORKING Arrangements made by an employer for working less than normal hours.
	STOPPAGES OF WORK—INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES Stoppages of work due to disputes connected with terms and conditions of labour, excluding those involving fewer than 10 workers and those which last for less than one day, except any in which the aggregate number of man-days lost exceeded 100.

DE leaflets for the public

The following is a list of leaflets published by the Department of Employment. Though some of the more specialised titles are not stocked by local offices, most are available free of charge from employment offices, local unemployment benefit offices and regional offices of the Department of Employment and the:

Public Enquiry Office
Department of Employment
Caxton House
Tothill Street
London SW1H 9NA
Telephone: 01-213 5551

Orders for bulk supplies of leaflets (ten or more) should be sent to General Office, Information 2, Department of Employment at the above address.

Note: This list does not include the publications of the Manpower Services Commission or its associated agencies, nor does it include any "on sale" publications of the Department of Employment.

Employment Protection Act

A series of leaflets covering specific provisions of the Act:

No 1	Written statement of main terms and conditions of employment	PL631
No 2	Procedure for handling redundancies	PL624
No 3	Employee's rights on insolvency of employer	PL619
No 4	Employment rights for the expectant mother	PL625
No 5	Suspension on medical grounds under health and safety regulations	PL618
No 6	Facing redundancy? Time off for job hunting or to arrange training	PL620
No 7	Trade union membership and activities	PL627
No 8	Itemized pay statement	PL633
No 9	Guarantee payments	PL629
No 10	Terms and conditions of employment	PL621
No 11	Rules governing continuous employment and a week's pay	PL628
No 12	Time off for public duties	PL626
No 13	Unfairly dismissed?	PL630
No 14	Rights on termination of employment	PL632

(A supplement is also available on the extension of individual rights to part-time workers.)

Individual rights of employees—a guide for employers. PL616

Briefly explains the rights for individuals in employment and sets out the corresponding obligations on employers.

Recoupment regulations—guidance for employers

Guidance on procedure for recoupment of unemployment and supplementary benefit for employers in cases where an employee has received benefit and has subsequently received an award from an industrial tribunal.

RCP1

Other related publications

Dismissal—employees' rights

Information on the improved remedies for unfair dismissal and the right to written reasons for dismissal.

Contracts of Employment Act 1972

A booklet giving details of the right to a longer period of notice according to length of service, and the right to a more informative written statement of terms and conditions of employment.

Employees' rights on insolvency of employer

Operational guidance for liquidators, trustees, receivers and managers, and the Official Receiver.

IL1 (rev)

Insolvency of employers

Safeguard of occupational pension scheme contributions.

IL2

Trade Union and Labour Relations Act 1974 and 1976

A guide to the Trade Union and Labour Relations Act 1974 incorporating changes made by the Employment Protection Act 1975 and the Trade Union and Labour Relations (Amendment) Act 1976.

Redundancy payments

The Redundancy Payments Scheme (Eleventh revision)

General guide for employers and employees about their rights and obligations under the Redundancy Payments Acts 1965 and 1969, incorporating changes made by the Employment Protection Act 1975.

The Redundancy Payments Scheme

A leaflet outlining aspects of the Redundancy Payments Scheme of particular interest to employees.

RPL6

The Redundancy Payments Scheme—offsetting pensions against redundancy payments

Information for employers on the rules for offsetting pensions and lump sum payments under occupational pension schemes against redundancy payments.

RPL1

Overseas workers

Employment of overseas workers in Great Britain
Information on the Work Permit scheme—not applicable to nationals of EEC member states.

OW5(rev)

Employment of foreign nationals in Great Britain
Student employment.

OW9

Employment of Commonwealth citizens in Great Britain
Trainees.

OW7(rev)

Industrial tribunals*Industrial Tribunals procedure*

For parties concerned in Industrial Tribunal proceedings. ITL1

Industrial Tribunals

For appellants with particular reference to Industrial Training Board Levy Assessments. ITL5

Determination of questions by Industrial Tribunals

For appellants and respondents, with particular reference to the Health and Safety at Work, etc Act 1974. ITL19

Other wages legislation*The Fair Wages Resolution*

Information for government contractors.

The Truck Acts

Leaflet on the main provisions of the Truck Acts 1831-1940, which protect workers from abuses in connection with the payment of wages. PL538

Payment of Wages Act 1960

Guide to the legislation on methods of payment of wages for manual workers (in particular those to whom the Truck Acts apply).

Special employment measures*Temporary Short Time Working Compensation Scheme*

For firms faced with making workers redundant. PL636(rev)

Job Release Scheme

Information on the scheme for employees. PL637

Small Firms Employment Subsidy—for manufacturing firms

Information for employers in private manufacturing companies in the Special Development Areas and Development Areas. PL639(rev)

Young people*The work of the Careers Service*

A general guide. PL585

Employing young people

For employers. PL604

What's your job going to be?

For young people making a career choice. PL603

Careers help for your son or daughter

For parents of school leavers. PL596

How did you get on when you started work?

Career advice for young people in employment. PL601

Finding employment for handicapped young people

Advice to parents. PL614

We get around

A leaflet describing a film which shows how the Careers Service helps young people to find the job they want. PL586

Manpower Studies*Higher education and jobs*

Summary of the Department of Employment's Unit for Manpower Studies' survey

Employment prospects of the highly qualified PL562

Job satisfaction*The Work Research Unit*

Information for employers, trade unions and others of the Work Research Unit's information, advisory, research and consultancy services.

Employment agencies*The Employment Agencies Act 1973*

General guidance on the Act, and regulations for users of employment agency and employment business services. PL594 (rev)

Is this your line of business?

Information on the Employment Agencies Act 1973 for employment agency and employment business operators. PL579

Equal pay*Equal Pay*

A guide to the Equal Pay Act 1970.

Equal pay for women—what you should know about it

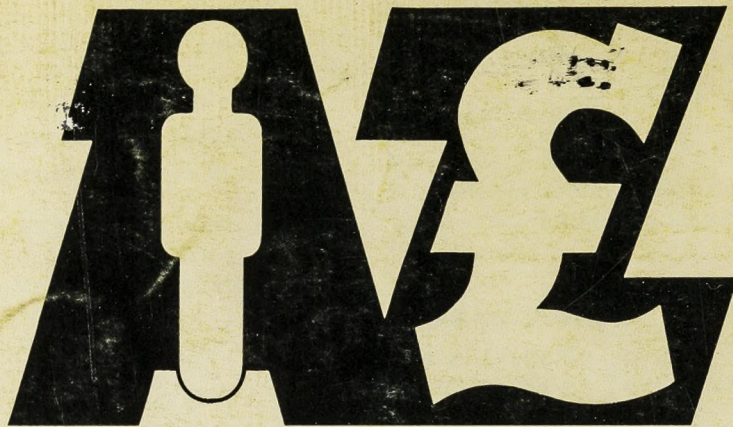
Information for working women. PL573(rev)

Race relations*Filmstrips for better race relations*

A leaflet describing two filmstrips on race relations for use by employees and management. PL577

Take 7

Leaflet describes a detailed survey of seven firms employing coloured workers.



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