



# Employment Gazette

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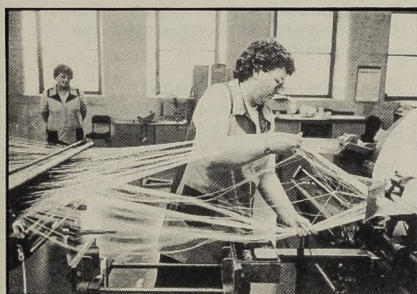
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#### COVER PICTURE

*How new recruits to self-employment measure up to the challenge is presented on p 286, while the characteristics of young and older workers are discussed on p 319.*

*Photo: Art Directors*



*Major shifts in British industry's approach to negotiating pay, hours and holiday settlements are revealed in the article on p 281.*



*A winning team in Nottingham—partnerships between private and public sector are examined on p 315.*

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## Free Department of Employment leaflets

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 in small quantities, free of charge from employment offices, jobcentres, unemployment benefit offices and regional offices of the Department of Employment.

In cases of difficulty or for bulk supplies (10 or more) orders should be sent to **Publications, Information 4, Department of Employment, Caxton House, Tothill Street, London SW1H 9NF.**

*Note:* This list does not include the publications of the Training Agency or the Employment Service, nor does it include any priced publications of the Department of Employment.

### General information

#### Your guide to our employment training and enterprise programmes

Details of the extensive range of DE and MSC employment and training programmes and business help PL856

#### Action for jobs

The above booklet translated into:  
 Bengali PL843 (Bengali)  
 Cantonese PL843 (Cantonese)  
 Gujarati PL843 (Gujerati)  
 Hindi PL843 (Hindi)  
 Punjabi PL843 (Punjabi)  
 Urdu PL843 (Urdu)  
 Vietnamese PL843 (Vietnamese)

#### Firm facts notice board kit

A do-it-yourself aid to help employers communicate essential information to employees

### Employment legislation

A series of leaflets giving guidance on current employment legislation.

- Written statement of main terms and conditions of employment** PL700 (1st rev)
- Redundancy consultation and notification** PL833 (3rd rev)
- Employee's rights on insolvency of employer** PL718 (4th rev)
- Employment rights for the expectant mother** PL710 (1st rev)
- Suspension on medical grounds under health and safety regulations** PL705 (1st rev)
- Facing redundancy? Time off for job hunting or to arrange training** PL703
- Itemized pay statement** PL704 (1st rev)
- Guarantee payments** PL724 (3rd rev)
- Employment rights on the transfer of an undertaking** PL699 (2nd rev)
- Rules governing continuous employment and a week's pay** PL711
- Time off for public duties** PL702
- Unfairly dismissed?** PL712 (5th rev)
- Rights of notice and reasons for dismissal** PL707 (2nd rev)
- Union secret ballots** PL701 (1st rev)
- Redundancy payments** PL808
- Limits on payments** PL827

### Union membership and non-membership rights

**The Employment Act 1988**  
 A guide to its industrial relations and trade union law provisions PL854

**A guide to the Trade Union Act 1984** PL752

**Industrial action and the law**  
 A guide for employees and trade union members PL869

**Industrial action and the law**  
 A guide for employers, their customers and suppliers PL870

**The law on unfair dismissal—guidance for small firms** PL715

**Fair and unfair dismissal—a guide for employers** PL714

**Individual rights of employees—a guide for employers** PL716

**Offsetting pensions against redundancy payments—a guide for employers** RPLI (1983)

**Code of practice—picketing**

**Code of practice—closed shop agreements and arrangements**

**Taking someone on?**  
 A simple leaflet for employers, summarising employment law

**Fact sheets on employment law**  
 A series of ten, giving basic details for employers and employees

**Unjustifiable discipline by a trade union** PL865

**Trade union executive elections** PL866

**Trade union funds and accounting records** PL867

**Trade union political funds** PL868

**Employment form (in packs of five)**  
 A form to assist employers to provide a written statement of an employee's main terms and conditions.

### Industrial tribunals

**Industrial tribunals procedure—for those concerned in industrial tribunal proceedings** ITL1 (1986)

**Industrial tribunals—appeals concerning improvement or prohibition notices under the Health and Safety at Work, etc, Act 1974** ITL19

**Recoupment of benefit from industrial tribunal awards—a guide for employers** PL720

### Overseas workers

**Employment of overseas workers in the UK**  
 Employers' guide to the work permit scheme OW5

**Employment of overseas workers in the UK**  
 Training and work experience scheme OW21(1982)

**A guide for workers from abroad**  
 Employment in the UK OW17

### Sex equality

**Sex discrimination in employment**

**Collective agreements and sex discrimination**

**Equal pay**  
 A guide to the Equal Pay Act 1970 PL743

**Equal pay for women—what you should know about it**  
 Information for working women PL739

### Wages legislation

**The law on payment of wages and deductions**  
 A guide to part 1 of the Wages Act 1986 PL810

A summary of part 1 of the Wages Act 1986 in six languages PL815

### Miscellaneous

**The Race Relations Employment Advisory Service. A specialist service for employers** PL748

**Jobshare**  
 A share opportunity for the unemployed PL825

**The Employment Agencies Act 1973**  
 General guidance on the Act, and regulations for use of employment agency and employment business services PL594 (4th rev)

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 A guide for suppliers and buyers PL832 (1st rev)

**A.I.D.S. and employment**  
 An attempt to answer the major questions asked about employment aspects of A.I.D.S. but also part of a wider public information campaign PL811

**Career development loans**  
 A scheme offering loans for training or vocational courses. Open to people over 18.

**Alcohol in the workplace**  
 A guide for employers PL859

## Careers guidance hits new heights

The Careers Service carried out over a million individual career guidance interviews in schools and colleges in 1988 and helped over 300,000 young people find jobs or YTS places, according to the Careers Service Annual Report.

In the report's foreword, Employment Secretary Norman Fowler says: "This latest Annual Report shows once again how many of the current developments in education, training and employment depend on a significant contribution from the Careers Service. Compacts, the Enterprise and Education Initiative, the extension of the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, the new YTS guarantee, Employment Training—the Careers Service has been involved in them all."

### Achievements

The Annual Report highlights other achievements:

- The Careers Service's contacts with employers are increasingly important as the number of school leavers begins to fall sharply. Careers Service staff visited over 176,000 employers and training providers during the year.
- With the new income support arrangements for young people under 18, the Careers Service has played a major role in ensuring that sufficient YTS places are available to meet demand and that young people are found jobs or YTS places as quickly as possible. The Careers Service now handles the recruitment of nearly 90 per cent of YTS trainees, a much higher proportion than in previous years.
- More careers information and guidance are being provided for adults. Many local Careers Services have become Training Agents to provide assessment, counselling and guidance for unemployed adults under the Employment Training programme.

Speaking at the conference, Employment Minister John Lee said the Government strongly supported the establishment of a Central London Careers Unit to work with employers and manage vacancies in inner London after the ILEA is abolished on April 1, 1990.

He said: "The centre of London—the West End, Westminster and the City—is the major centre of employment anywhere in this country with well over 30,000 employers or managing agents.



Open house. The careers library at the Heart of England School, Solihull, is always available to pupils, with help and advice on offer.

"A central unit is essential if young people in the London area are to be offered a decent standard of careers education and guidance. This is especially true for those parts of London which have very large numbers of disadvantaged young people."

Mr Lee said the two local education authorities (LEAs) at the heart of

London—the City of Westminster and the City of London—were also committed to the project and together agreed to contribute 40 per cent of the cost."

He added that LEAs had a clear duty under the 1973 Employment and Training Act to co-operate in the exchange of information about jobs and training opportunities for young people.

## Business leaders vie for TECs

Twenty-two groups of senior employers have applied for funding of up to £100,000 to establish Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) and draw up business development plans.

The National Training Task Force will be studying the applications and its recommendations will go to Employment Secretary Norman Fowler for his decision.

TECs, launched in March by the Prime Minister and Mr Fowler, will be responsible for many of the Government's business development schemes and training programmes.

The TECs which will be given the go-ahead will need to reflect the business and sectoral composition of the local labour market, as well as the interests of the wider community. One of the ideas behind TECs is to establish a feeling of identity and local ownership.

About 80 TECs are expected to be set up in England and Wales in the next three or

four years. Each will have a budget of between £20 and £50 million. Their responsibilities will include administering the £1,400 million Employment Training programme, YTS, enterprise programmes and help to small businesses.

Mr Fowler commented: "This is a very good start. It shows the enthusiasm that there is around the country."

He said it was particularly encouraging that the groups of employers who have come forward with TEC ideas are at chief executive and managing director level.

The 22 applications are from Essex, Milton Keynes, Isle of Wight, Hertfordshire, Hampshire, Kingston, Dorset, Devon and Cornwall, Birmingham, North West Midlands, Warwickshire, Walsall, North West and South Norfolk, Sheffield, Calderdale/Kirklees, Oldham, South and East Cheshire, Rochdale, Cumbria, East Lancs, Teesside, and Tyneside.

## Warning against EC labour regulations

Measures which impose unnecessary regulations and costs on employers, and which would destroy jobs will not be accepted by the Government, warned Employment Secretary Norman Fowler.

Speaking at the 13th national conference of the Small Business Bureau, he said the Government supported practical measures to encourage employment growth and to reduce unemployment, to improve training, and to encourage more labour mobility through the mutual recognition of professional qualifications throughout Europe and by ensuring there is better information on jobs.

"The single market," he said, "should bring employment gains which will improve working and living conditions. The real social dimension in 1992 is the opportunity to create new jobs and reduce unemployment. If we are serious about reducing unemployment in this country and in Europe as a whole, the last thing we should be thinking about is further and more detailed regulations."

Mr Fowler said the commitment to involve employees in their companies would continue through the encouragement of wider share-ownership and profit-related pay.

He added that the Government was not defensive on the issue of employee involvement.

Successful employee involvement depended on a spirit of co-operation not on formal machinery or legal requirements.

"Successful employee involvement has got to be suited to the circumstances of the particular firm and its employees. There is no single blueprint which is ideal for every company. If we try to force employee involvement into a legal straitjacket, we will destroy the diversity and flexibility which are among the greatest strengths of our voluntary system."

## 'A year of transformation'—ACAS report

Against a background of business confidence, exceptional labour productivity improvements, especially in manufacturing, and a continuing decline in unemployment, industrial action was low and rarely accompanied major pay negotiations, according to the 1988 annual report of the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS).

But, it reports, there was a strong rise in earnings which, on average, continued to outpace price rises significantly. And towards the end of the year the level of pay settlements in the private sector was beginning to rise, while forecasts were of lower growth and prices were edging up.

### Problems

The report said that the decline in unemployment had led to employers improving pay and conditions in order to recruit and retain employees. Overtime working had risen and for the first time for some years employers had faced problems of absenteeism and high turnover.

There had been intense competition for graduates and other young people, and in attracting women back into employment. Recruitment standards had been lowered, age restrictions eased, employees approaching retirement had been offered continuing employment, and there was a growing interest—and limited progress—in providing creche and other facilities.

Some employers had relocated, moving from Central London to Docklands and the suburbs, and also to East Anglia, the Midlands, the South West, South Wales and even further afield.

Despite this, ACAS had the clear impression that more workers were being attracted to jobs in the South East—often commuting weekly—than the number of jobs being transferred to areas of high unemployment.

On performance-related pay schemes the ACAS report warned: "There is a danger that changes introduced without a

sufficiently full analysis of their objectives and without full preparation may prove self-defeating and short-lived.

"If introduced hurriedly, without full consultation and understanding, then far from providing benefits they may prove unstable and demotivate and discourage."

On ACAS's role in individual conciliation, the report shows a 9 per cent increase to 44,443, from the 40,817 of 1987. Unfair dismissal cases were up 5 per cent to 36,340, but the 1,016 sex discrimination cases were the highest number ever, representing a 54 per cent increase over 1987.

The race discrimination caseload also increased, with the record 896 cases up 24 per cent on 1987.

ACAS report is available free from any ACAS office.

## SAFE scheme

A £225,000 scheme is to improve security for small firms in the Manchester and Salford areas.

Security Assistance for Enterprise (SAFE) is being tried out among firms employing up to ten people in the City Action Team (CAT) and Moss Side and Hulme Task Force areas.

It will allow qualifying firms in the CAT area to pay only half the cost of improving their security precautions against burglary, vandalism or arson, up to a maximum of £3,000. Firms based in the Moss Side and Hulme Task Force area will pay 25 per cent of the cost.

SAFE provides locks, bolts, window guards and even closed-circuit television systems.

Sponsored under the Action for Cities initiative by the CAT, which is contributing £150,000, and the Task Force which is to give £75,000, the scheme will be administered by the Greater Manchester Economic Development (GMED).

## Cash help to develop careers

Ford's 44,000 employees are to be offered financial help for personal and career development through a programme presented jointly by the company and trade unions.

The Employee Development and Assistance Programme (EDAP) will give interested employees up to £200 a year to spend on training courses.

These may result in basic academic, higher educational or Open University qualifications, or training in vocational or career skills, and will not affect job-related training already provided by the company.

Programmes to encourage healthier life-styles will also be made available.

EDAP will be funded through £1.8 million a year from the company, and government contributions could add another £150,000.

The programme was established during the 1987 contract negotiations between Ford and the hourly paid and salaried staff unions. Joint working parties were set up and agreement to a tripartite programme was reached in autumn 1988.

It will be run by a committee of representatives of the company and trade unions.

Ford's director of personnel John Hougham said: "EDAP will result in a better trained, fitter group of employees who will be well equipped to face the challenges of the future and developing technology. In addition, its existence demonstrates the constructive way in which the trade unions and Ford can work together for their mutual benefit and for that of all our employees."

## Ageist bosses told 'look in the mirror'

Employers should look in the mirror before they turn down job applicants aged over 50.

If this was done by those deciding employment policies, age discrimination would quickly wither away, according to the all-party Commons Employment Committee.

### Persuasive

The Committee's report recommended a persuasive approach to employers through a Government/Confederation of British Industries (CBI) campaign to 'sell' the potential worth of older workers. This, it felt, was preferable to making age discrimination illegal, as it is in the USA. Instead it agreed with the CBI's view that change could best be brought about by persuasion, example and encouragement.

But the report warned that if such measures did not work, pressure for legislation would inevitably grow from some quarters.

### Enlightened

Some UK employers already have an enlightened attitude. Tesco recruits staff up to the age of 69 and finds that its most reliable employees are its oldest. The company says that older recruits respond well to training and have in many cases a better attitude to work than younger people. It had also attracted more applications from people a decade younger when advertising for workers over 55.

British Rail, which recently increased the recruiting age for engine drivers from 23 to 46 says that the older entrants are as good as, if not better, than younger ones.

The report commented that despite these good examples, most employers were still disinclined to take on older workers, citing that they expected higher wages, were less



Persuasion, rather than legislation should help older unemployed people.

mobile, more likely to have health problems, too set in their ways, hard to train and "did not fit in". In fact, there was evidence that, at least in office work, they are more reliable and have less absenteeism.

### Debate

The committee concluded that the whole subject of the employment of older people should be the subject of a national debate.

Commenting that attention has focused primarily on young people, the report added: "The time has come to pay equal attention to the problems and potential of those towards the other end of their working lives."

## Long-term unemployment drops

Long-term unemployment has fallen below ¾ million, the lowest figure for more than six years.

In the quarter to April the number of long-term unemployed people has fallen by 77,000 and over the past two years there has been a record fall of over half a million.

### Prospects

All age groups have benefited, with young people experiencing the biggest reductions. Among 18 to 24 year olds, long-term unemployment is down by a third compared with a year ago and has more than halved over the past two years. Prospects are also improving for other age groups. Long-term unemployment among those aged over 25 has fallen by a quarter over the past year and by 38 per cent over the past two years. Included in the latter

figure is a 29 per cent reduction in long-term unemployment those aged 50 plus.

Also encouraging is the more noticeable fall being experienced by the very long-term unemployed. The number of unemployed people who have been unemployed for five years or more has fallen by 55,000 or 20 per cent over the past 12 months.

### Sharp falls

Latest figures also show further sharp falls in total unemployment among young people. The total number of unemployed 18 to 24 year olds is now about half of what it was only three years ago. The unemployment rate among the under-25s is now lower than most other European Community countries and about half the Community average.

Peter Naylor, the Institute of Personnel Management's vice-president and chair of its equal opportunities committee, gave a qualified welcome to the report, pointing out that age discrimination occurred earlier—35-plus for women and 40-plus for men.

### Recommendations

The committee recommended:

- A bi-annual report to the Commons on the progress made towards achieving "a decade of retirement".
- That the Employment Service should always ask employers seeking to impose age restrictions on recruitment if these are strictly necessary.
- That the Government should mount a campaign with the CBI to encourage employers' awareness of the potential worth of older people and to challenge the practice of discrimination.
- A Government review on its employees' retirement age and early pension entitlements to allow older people greater choice.
- A scheme for increasing the weekly "earnings disregard" from £15 for a man and dependent wife to £60 a week for six months, to encourage the over-50s to take on part-time work.
- That Employment Training should be opened up to unemployed people over 50 irrespective of how long they had been out of work.
- A pilot scheme which would give unemployed people over 55 £500 for an educational or training programme of their choice.

## Electricity at work

People who risk injury from using electricity at work are to be protected by new regulations.

The Electricity at Work Regulations 1989, laid before Parliament by Employment Secretary Norman Fowler, are among the most far-reaching safety regulations produced by the Health and Safety Commission since 1974.

From April 1, 1990, they will replace inflexible and outdated legislation, which was limited to certain sectors of industry, with a comprehensive and systematic approach to the control of electrical hazards in the workplace.

A key requirement is for employers to adopt a 'switch-off-first' approach.

*Electricity at Work Regulations, SI 1989 no 635. ISBN 0 11 096635 X. price £2.65, is available from HMSO or booksellers.*

## How to cheat the number one killer disease

Heart disease is Britain's number one killer according to the Health Education Authority (HEA).

Deaths from heart disease often deprive British companies of their most valuable and experienced staff, accounting for almost 40 per cent of all male deaths in the 35 to 64 age group. And 21 per cent of all absences from work are due to heart and circulation problems.

Women are just as much at risk as men—in 1985, over 23,000 women died prematurely from the disease.

The HEA has come up with some practical advice as part of its *Look After Your Heart!* campaign. Among its ideas are:

- Instead of heading for the pub at lunchtime, try a little gentle exercise, such as a brisk walk, or a swim. Twenty minutes exercise two or three times a week is enough to boost your overall fitness—and is better for you than an exhausting game of squash just once a week.
- Does your job involve long periods of sitting in one place? If so, try to sit upright rather than slouched, with shoulders back and head up, to avoid the build-up of stress. If you do feel stress creeping up on you, try to release the tension with deep breathing exercises, and by alternately clenching and releasing sets of muscles.



Signing on. Geoffrey Holland, the DE's Permanent Secretary takes on a health scheme for civil servants. Health Minister David Mellor shows a professional interest.

- Does your lunch consist of a hastily eaten helping of hamburger and chips? If you have a works canteen, check the menu for low-fat, high-fibre meals and choose those instead. Or, if you take a packed lunch, experiment with wholemeal bread and low fat fillings.
- Try to reach a workplace agreement

on smoking. If colleagues around you smoke, try to have a designated area set aside where they can do so without affecting non-smokers. Remember, passive smoking puts everyone at risk. And make sure you encourage the efforts of any smokers at work who are trying to kick the habit.

- Relaxation is all-important, so make sure you take time to relax at the end of the day. Try to spend half an hour relaxing or in gentle exercise before facing up to the evening's activities.

Since the *Look After Your Heart!* campaign started in 1987, over 100 employers have signed up to adopt workplace based health schemes for their staff, among them British Telecom, British Coal and National Westminster Bank.

Employers who join commit themselves to adopt at least three of a series of ten measures, which range from distributing leaflets to implementing a full-scale health promotion strategy.

Action plans on smoking, alcohol exercise and stress are made available.

In its first year the *Look After Your Heart!* campaign reached 2 million people through workplace initiatives alone.

If you are an employer and would like to know more about the *Look After Your Heart!* workplace programme, contact Glenys Row, Look After Your Heart Programme, HEA, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London WC1H 9TX.

## Netting jobs with skills training

Skills training through the Community Industry Scheme is to be given to young people who because of personal and/or social problems are at a disadvantage in obtaining employment.

The scheme which caters for unemployed 16 to 19 year olds has made a significant shift from its traditional role of offering work experience to focus on providing training.

Training allowances will be paid instead of wages and the young people on the scheme will be classed as trainees rather than employees.

Sixteen year olds will receive the same allowance as YTS trainees—£29.50 a week, and 17 to 19 year olds will get £35 per week.

Employment Minister Patrick Nicholls said he was sure the new arrangement would help to equip the trainees with the skills they needed to gain jobs.

Funded by the Employment Department and run by the registered charity Community Industry Limited, the scheme provides full-time places for 7,000 trainees through a mix of employer placements,

projects and CI workshops.

Training lasting up to a year will be offered in a wide variety of skills including construction, agriculture, printing, catering, retail sales, clerical and administration, mechanical engineering, metalwork, and social care.

Improving literacy and numeracy will be a prominent feature of the training and there will also be the chance to gain vocational qualifications.



Getting down to it. Patrick Nicholls (right) talks to trainee John Cordell (seated) and area manager Brian Dunn.

## Work permit scheme to be reviewed

The work permit scheme is to be reviewed to make it more responsive to the labour market.

Employment Minister John Lee said: "We are concerned to see that the scheme, taking into account the interests of the resident labour force, provides as efficient a service as possible to employers who need to employ people from outside the European Community."

The plan, described in a consultative paper, would reduce the burden of making applications without reducing necessary safeguards and would rely on employers' judgement of their own needs. It should result in faster processing of applications, so reducing employers' compliance costs.

### Minimum formalities

Under the proposals, work permits for certain highly qualified overseas nationals and for those who bring benefit to the UK economy would be granted with minimum formalities. The only checks would be those necessary to prevent abuse.

The main proposal would create a two-tier scheme for applications for ordinary employment. In the first tier, permits would be granted with the minimum of checks to employers known to the Department of Employment and would not be subject to a resident labour search. Overseas nationals in this tier must either

- be senior executives making transfers within firms known to the DE or who are taking part in recognised exchanges (at present about 3,500 people a year); or

- clearly bring substantial investment and job creation to the UK (at present about 500 a year); or
- have high level qualifications and experience recognised to be in short supply (at present about 3,000 a year).

### Conditions

The second tier would cover all other applications (about 3,000 people a year) and would still be dependent on a search of the EC labour force. The employer would have to show the positive benefit that would arise from the overseas worker's presence in the UK. Conditions could be attached to their stay.

Other proposals include:

- Information other than that on the application form to be required by the DE only in exceptional circumstances.

Employers would be involved in the design of application forms.

- Work permits for permanent employment to be issued initially for four years (it is 12 months at present). Approval of employment following the Training and Work Experience Scheme<sup>1</sup> to date from the first examination. The Immigration Rules, would need an amendment.
- Commonwealth workers' permits to be sent direct to the employer rather than the High Commission.
- A "season ticket" permit to be introduced for established entertainers to save separate applications.

Amateur entertainers, sports people and those working without pay would enter permit free for a limited period. This also would require an amendment to the Immigration Rules.

The changes would probably result in more applications for work permits. This increase would need to be justified as meeting essential needs.

Entry to work in the UK would still be generally restricted to workers who meet an immediate need not satisfied by residents or the EC labour market.

Work permit approvals for new jobs in 1988 were ordinary employment 9,849; entertainments and sport 12,308; and training and work experience 3,817.

The consultation paper goes on to propose closer working between the Home Office and the DE to allow employers and employees more freedom to negotiate terms and conditions of employment.

### Comments invited

Comments on the consultation paper should be sent to Peter Bellamy, HSL 3, Department of Employment, Caxton House, Tothill Street, London SW1H 9NF (tel. 01-273 5484) by Friday, June 30.

<sup>1</sup>The Training and Work Experience Scheme allows overseas nationals from developing countries to gain on-the-job training leading to an occupational skill or qualification; it also allows young foreigners to take short periods of work experience here in a supernumerary capacity.

## Space-age training

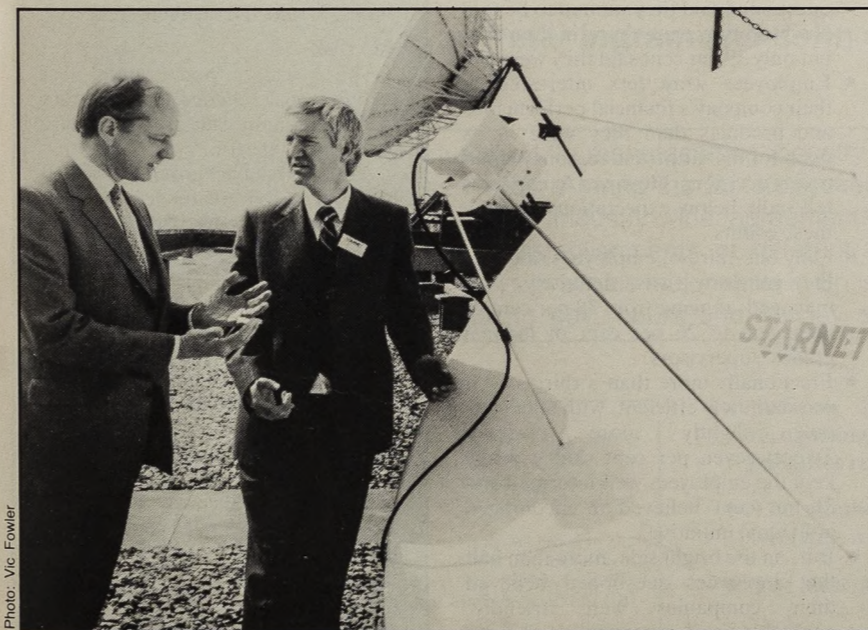
Satellite-delivered training courses have been made available through a £450,000 Training Agency pilot scheme.

The "Starnet Project" will use the European Space Agency's £400 million communications satellite 'Olympus' due to go into orbit on June 22.

The project, based at Polytechnic South West, Plymouth, will transmit interactive courses to trainees through a low-cost, small diameter satellite dish and de-coder linked to a television set.

More than 60 hours of broadcasting will be delivered during the next two years to a minimum of 1,000 UK trainees per broadcast. They will be able to talk to the presenter and other trainees by phone.

Small Firms Minister John Cope said: "Training and vocational education are crucial to our continued success and it is very important that we use new technologies, such as satellites, wherever they can help to make learning more effective."



Dishing it out. John Cope (left) talks to Professor Martin Tomlinson of the satellite team.

### Think big, buy small

"Think big, buy small" is the message going to 8,000 government purchasing officers through a new booklet advising on buying practices when dealing with small businesses.

Small Firms Minister John Cope told them when introducing the booklet: "You can achieve better value for money by being willing to buy from small firms."

He quoted the example of a Bradford-based small firm, ISCO 5, which successfully bid to print and supply forms for the Department of Employment. Not only was it a less expensive contract than previously, but the company's monthly stock replenishment drastically reduced the need for storage space, so saving rental costs.

The new guide called *Think big, buy small* lists pointers such as "include a new firm on every bid", "keep documentation simple" and "pay bills on time".

It was launched with a revised and



Helping hands. John Cope displays the booklets designed to help small businesses.

expanded publication *Tendering for Government Contracts* which lists contacts for small businesses.

Both booklets are available from: Department of Employment, Small Firms Division, Steel House, Tothill Street, London SW1 9NF. (tel 01-273 4746).

### Could do better

One-third of British employees say they could work harder, while half of those doing unskilled jobs feel they could do more.

But they are unsatisfied with their jobs, feel uninvolved at work and unable to express ideas and contribute to solving problems.

These facts are revealed in *Blueprint for Success*, a MORI survey for the Industrial Society, which assesses values, attitudes and perceptions at work.

Industrial Society director Alistair Graham said: "This is not an indictment of the workforce but of those who lead it."

The 1,063 employees interviewed work for private sector companies and feel that having an interesting and enjoyable job is more important than pay.

Mr Graham commented: "It seems that once again many employers will respond to staffing difficulties by bidding up pay rates. From our survey findings and report, we can say that they appear to be spending money on the wrong priorities."

Another fact to emerge was that employees prefer face-to-face communication through formal or informal chats with the boss, or departmental or group meetings. They do not like the grapevine system, and noticeboards, memos, company newspapers and videos are all unpopular as means of communication.

Key points of the survey were:

- Twenty-nine per cent said they had no opportunity to express their ideas or that no one takes much notice of them when they do.
- Asked to identify the five most important things looked for in a job,

66 per cent included "having an interesting and enjoyable job"; 52 per cent put "job security" and "feeling that you have accomplished something worthwhile" was included in the top five (41 per cent). Pay came a poor fourth with only 37 per cent. (A recent survey of managers revealed that they thought pay was the key factor in recruiting and retaining employees and only 11 per cent thought job satisfaction was an important factor.)

- Sixty-one per cent of employees questioned said they wanted to be told how well they were doing in their job, but only 39 per cent said they were.
- Employees were less interested in their company's financial performance and products than they were in its plans for the future and reasons behind major decisions. However, companies fell sadly below expectations on both these counts.
- Only one-third of employees said that the company was definitely well managed, ranging from 38 per cent of managers to 26 per cent of manual grades' supervisors.
- Fractionally more than a third said it was definitely efficient, with managers only slightly more positive. Twenty-seven per cent said it really kept the employees well-informed and 31 per cent believed it encouraged individual initiative.
- But, on the bright side, more than half the employees questioned believed their companies were friendly, profitable, and successful, and have quality products and services.

### 'Industry must improve safety record'

A principal cause of industrial disasters and accidents is the failure of management to plan, says Health and Safety Commission chairman John Cullen.

At a press conference to launch the Commission's *Plan of Work for 1989-90 and Beyond*, Dr Cullen said: "Our prime task must be to encourage industry by every available means to improve its safety performance."

Dr Cullen recognised that many parts of British industry have a good safety record.

"But too often," he added, "our study of major disasters—or of smaller incidents causing death or serious injury—reveals a lamentable lack of precaution, a significant management failure to plan to meet risks which on any reasonable effort of the imagination, were foreseeable."

The financial provision agreed by the Government will enable an increase in the inspection and enforcement activities of the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) in each of the next three years.

"Management generally faces a challenge to plan in a much more systematic and thorough-going way, to protect employees and the public," said Dr Cullen.

#### At risk

The scale and pace of technological change means that increasing numbers of people are potentially at risk.

Against this background the need has never been greater for the wide sharing of knowledge about risk, and for a carefully-planned approach to risk management, including understanding the crucial human factor.

To that end, relevant findings from further study by the HSE of the human factor will be published.

Further guidance publications based on the HSC/E experience of accidents and ill-health, and means of prevention will also be issued.

The HSE's Accident Prevention Advisory Unit will continue its programme of safety audits of large undertakings.

*Plan of Work for 1989-90 and Beyond*, is available from HMSO and booksellers. Price £4.00. ISBN 0 11 885490 9



Drummond Textile Mill, Manningham, Bradford.

Photo: Denis Doran/Network

### Pay determination in private manufacturing

*Its structure and process, 1979-86*

by Peter Ingram and John Cahill

Bargaining structures within manufacturing industry changed significantly between 1979 and 1986. Among the factors looked at in this article are trade union recognition, industry-wide agreements and the number of bargaining groups in establishments of different sizes. Based on two large-scale CBI surveys it reveals major shifts in British industry's approach to negotiating pay, hours and holiday settlements.

Peter Ingram is pay adviser at the Confederation of British Industry. John Cahill, who was formerly senior policy adviser to the CBI Employment Affairs Directorate and was responsible for much of the preparation of both the 1979 and 1986 surveys involved in this article, tragically died following an accident towards the end of last year.

This article represents a summary of a report recently published by the CBI drawing on a research project undertaken by staff in the Employment Affairs Directorate. The report, *The Structure and Processes of Pay Determination in the Private Sector, 1979-86*, is available at £20 to CBI members and academics and £40 to others.

- Between 1979 and 1986 the proportion of plants recognising trade unions for collective bargaining purposes remained about the same.
- The number of employees covered by multi-employer, industry-wide agreements has declined markedly.
- The level of bargaining has shifted towards plant level.
- The number of bargaining groups in establishments with more than 1,000 employees has declined.

**Table 1 Sample of manufacturing establishments by size and sector, 1979**

Sector	No of establishments	Size distribution of establishments (per cent)				Total number of employees
		20-99 employees	100-499	500-999	Over 1,000 employees	
Food, drink and tobacco	99	30	39	16	15	61,816
Chemicals and allied industries	159	39	31	17	14	87,196
Metals manufacture	77	31	51	10	8	27,078
Mechanical engineering	422	46	36	8	10	205,273
Instrument and electrical engineering	164	35	40	13	12	93,739
Textiles, clothing and footwear	179	31	57	8	5	49,529
Bricks, glass and timber	99	53	33	10	4	22,029
Paper, printing and publishing	120	40	44	9	7	36,495
<b>All sectors</b>	<b>1,319</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>583,155</b>

**Table 2 Sample of manufacturing establishments by size and sector, 1986**

Sector	No of establishments	Size distribution of establishments (per cent)				Total number of employees
		20-99 employees	100-499	500-999	Over 1,000 employees	
Food, drink and tobacco	57	7	51	16	26	51,811
Chemicals and allied industries	92	28	35	20	17	67,913
Metals manufacture	45	27	49	24	-	14,222
Mechanical engineering	158	39	40	10	11	96,815
Instrument and electrical engineering	77	20	57	10	13	56,848
Textiles, clothing and footwear	53	23	53	15	9	27,565
Bricks, glass and timber	26	30	58	-	12	14,139
Paper, printing and publishing	36	30	61	6	3	8,356
<b>All sectors</b>	<b>544</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>337,869</b>

The impact of bargaining structure on wage determination has long been an area of considerable interest in British industrial relations. In the 1960s and 1970s, the complexities of the structure of bargaining were widely thought to give rise to inflationary wage outcomes. Industry agreements appeared to overlap with company agreements and, within companies, different bargaining groups were in competition with each other.

The Dopovan Commission was set up in the 1960s partly in recognition of the importance of bargaining structures and their implications for wage determination. The Commission's report, produced in 1968, made a number of recommendations. Central to these was the encouragement of formal factory or plant bargaining to replace what the report described as the 'chaotic' and 'piece-meal' bargaining arrangements then operating.

### The 1979 and 1986 surveys

To assess the extent of change in bargaining structures in the 1980s, the CBI Employment Affairs Directorate undertook an extensive survey of the bargaining arrangements of companies in the CBI Pay Databank Survey in 1986 in order to contrast the results with an earlier survey carried out in 1979. The findings were reported in a recently published CBI Report<sup>1</sup>. This article summarises the key findings of the research.<sup>2</sup>

The two surveys used in this research are complementary to the CBI Pay Databank Survey of wage negotiations. The 1979 survey established the basis for the analysis of pay settlements in manufacturing by providing details, at the level of the establishment, on the structure of pay determination affecting individual bargaining groups within these establishments. The 1979 survey consisted of a structured sample of 4,000 establishments, drawn at

<sup>1</sup>The structure and processes of pay determination in the private sector: 1979-86, CBI, London (1988).

<sup>2</sup>A separate 1986 survey of private service sector companies was also undertaken. However, as this was the first time the CBI had examined bargaining structure in this sector, no comparison with the situation in 1978 could be made. The results of the private services survey are not therefore included in this article.

<sup>3</sup>British workplace industrial relations 1980-84, pp 65-9, by N Millward and M Stevens, Gower, Aldershot (1986).

random from the 1977 Census of Production, with a lower threshold of 20 employees. Usable responses were received from 33 per cent of the sample: 1,319 establishments.

In the years following 1979, due to the attraction of respondents to the pay survey, new participants were added where necessary to maintain both the size and the industrial composition of the sample. As with the original sample, new participants were not confined to CBI members. Although, as a result of these replacements, by 1986 the composition of the sample was significantly different from 1979, it nevertheless remained broadly illustrative of the situation in manufacturing plants of 20 or more employees.

The sample was therefore thought to provide a suitable basis for the 1986 survey and would encompass many of the original (1979) survey participants. The 1986 survey recorded a response rate of 50 per cent, giving a sample of 544 establishments covering more than 338,000 employees. Tables 1 and 2 set out details of the size and industrial stratification of the two complete cross-sectional samples from 1979 and 1986.

As with the Workplace Industrial Relations Surveys (WIRS), the unit of data collection is the establishment or plant and its constituent bargaining groups. Depending on establishment size, CBI survey respondents were asked to supply details of up to three bargaining or settlement groups within the plant. The data contain changes in the number of bargaining units per plant as well as the range of items determined by collective bargaining and the level at which they were determined.

### Changes in bargaining structure manufacturing 1979-86

An important feature of the research for assessing the nature of change over the period was a panel of 381 establishments common to both surveys. A similar panel of establishments was included in the 1984 Workplace Industrial Relations Survey. The WIRS survey report draws attention to some of the methodological problems associated with such samples.<sup>3</sup> A particular problem is that

**Table 3 Panel of manufacturing establishments 1979-86 by size and sector (1986 employment)**

Sector	No of establishments	Size distribution of establishments (per cent)				Total number of employees
		20-99 employees	100-499	500-999	Over 1,000 employees	
Food, drink and tobacco	39	17	37	18	28	28,955
Chemicals and allied industries	54	30	31	21	18	28,821
Metals manufacture	31	26	48	26	-	7,959
Mechanical engineering	122	36	38	13	12	68,604
Instrument and electrical engineering	49	28	54	10	8	40,942
Textiles, clothing and footwear	42	29	42	15	14	12,902
Bricks, glass and timber	19	37	48	-	15	5,381
Paper, printing and publishing	25	31	52	12	5	5,923
<b>All sectors</b>	<b>381</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>199,487</b>

such a panel is prone to bias through the inclusion of fewer smaller workplaces than the population of establishments as a whole.

Despite these reservations, the size and industrial stratification of the CBI matched sample, shown in table 3, shows only minor divergence in terms of the distribution of size of establishments between the matched sample and the two cross-sectional surveys. Thus the panel element facilitated an analysis of the amount of gross change within establishments, rather than net change between the two periods.

**Table 4 The extent of collective bargaining by plant size in manufacturing, 1979 and 1986 (whole sample)**

Number of employees at establishment	Per cent	
	1979	1986
20-99	47	38
100-499	82	78
500-999	90	89
More than 1,000	95	96
<b>All plants</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>70</b>

**Table 5 Changes in the extent of collective bargaining in manufacturing 1979-86 (matched sample)**

	With collective agreements in 1986	Without collective agreements in 1986	All
With collective agreements in 1979	239	10	249*
Without collective agreements in 1979	9	123	132
<b>All</b>	<b>248*</b>	<b>133</b>	<b>381</b>

\*Representing 65 per cent of establishments.

Comparing first the two cross-sectional surveys, table 4 shows the proportion of establishments with collective bargaining by plant size in 1979 and 1986. Establishments are defined as having collective bargaining if trade unions were recognised for determining some element of the pay and conditions of at least some of the workforce.

Overall the proportion of plants with collective bargaining arrangements remained almost the same (72 per cent in 1979 and 70 per cent in 1986). In establishments with fewer than 100 employees the proportion fell from 47 per cent to 38 per cent.

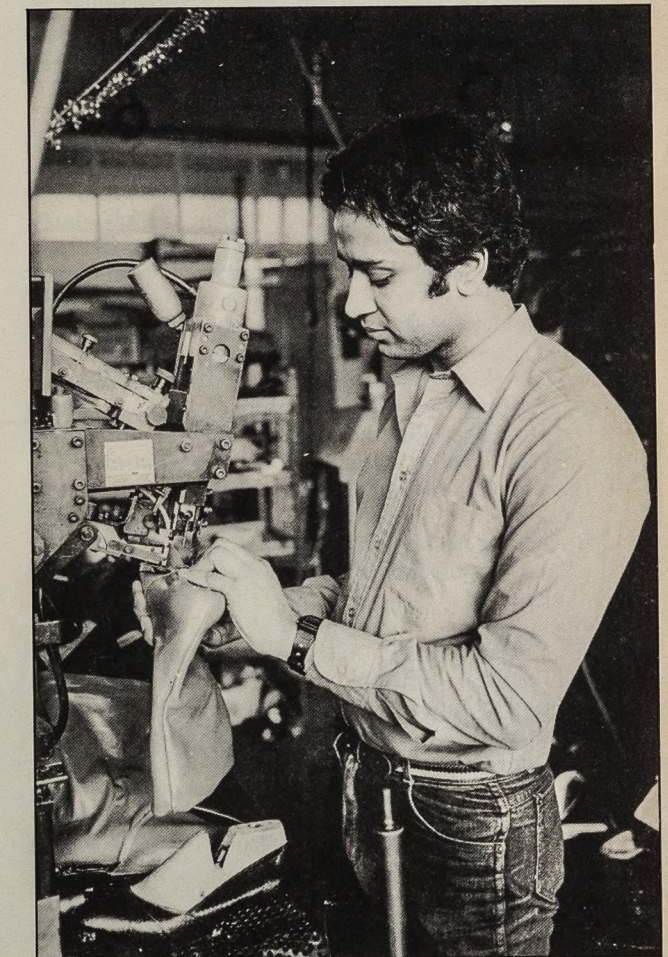
This impression of little overall change in trade union recognition in large-scale manufacturing is endorsed by results from the panel sample. Table 5 shows that of the 249 establishments with collective bargaining in 1979 only ten no longer had bargaining in 1986. On the other hand, by

<sup>1</sup>British workplace industrial relations 1980-84, pp 3-4, by N Millward and M Stevens, Gower, Aldershot (1986).

1986 nine of those establishments previously without collective bargaining reported that they had introduced it. The proportion of establishments recognising trade unions in the panel therefore remained unchanged at 65 per cent. The discrepancy between this and the extent of recognition in the cross-sectional samples is because the panel survey contains a higher proportion of non-bargainers within most size bands. These results are consistent with the findings of the 1984 WIRS survey which used a panel to address the same issue<sup>1</sup>.

### Multi-level bargaining

The 1986 survey attempted to identify the extent of multi-level bargaining or vertical fragmentation after the recession of the early 1980s. Among those establishments with collective bargaining in 1986, details were sought on the level of bargaining which was associated with seven



Shoe factory, Shoreditch, London.

Photo: Laurie Sparham/Network

**Table 6 Bargaining on individual items within bargaining groups in manufacturing, 1979 and 1986: level at which item bargained**

Items	Proportion of employees bargaining collectively which bargains on each item		Per cent of employees					
			Single employer only		Multi-employer only		Two-tier level	
	1979	1986	1979	1986	1979	1986	1979	1986
Basic pay	99	100	53	87	12	4	35	9
Bonuses	83	87	78	98	6	0	16	2
Overtime	98	100	48	73	32	18	20	9
Shift pay	92	98	51	76	27	13	22	11
Sick pay	92	98	81	95	8	1	11	3
Hours of work	99	100	47	64	35	25	19	11
Holidays	98	100	48	67	35	20	18	13
Any item	100	100	100	100	41	29	48	21

individual items of pay and conditions (table 6). The combinations of possible levels for each item were categorised as follows: determination at the level of the single employer, at either establishment or company level; determination by a multi-employer agreement; or determination in a two-tier process involving both a multi-employer agreement and a local establishment or company level modification. Table 6 contrasts the results obtained in 1986 with those of 1979.

The cross-sectional results in table 6 show a marked diminution in the number of employees covered by multi-employer, industry wide agreements. This was matched by a corresponding growth in single employer bargaining, that is negotiations within the individual workplace or company. This growth was most evident for basic rates of pay (from 53 per cent in 1979 to 87 per cent in 1986), overtime (48 per cent to 73 per cent) and shift pay (51 per cent to 76 per cent).

**Table 7 Change in settlement groups and the level of bargaining in manufacturing 1979-86**

Level at which item is determined	Change in number of groups 1979-86			Percent
	Pay	Hours	Holidays	
Establishment	+25	-7	-8	
Company	+26	+53	+49	
National	-4	-1	-6	
Two tier level	-56	-34	-28	

Table 7 addresses the issue of the shift in the locus of bargaining between 1979 and 1986 by means of the matched sample. Drawing information from 474 separate bargaining groups for which there were matched records in 1979 and 1986, the table shows the extent and direction of change in the level of bargaining for three major items: basic rates of pay, working hours and holiday entitlement.

Taking pay first, the number of individual settlement groups where determination of basic rates of pay were conducted at establishment level increased by 25 per cent over the period 1979-86, while their negotiation at company level was up by 26 per cent. The number of bargaining groups directly following a national agreement on rates of pay showed little change. The number of groups determining pay in a two-tier process fell by 56 per cent. The majority were likely to have switched to company bargaining only.

As for hours of work, the table shows these were determined predominantly at either establishment or national level. Little change is evident over the period in each of these categories. However, a noticeable shift appears to have occurred between two-tier and company level bargaining on hours of work, with company level bargaining appearing to increase at the cost of two-tier bargaining. The results could reflect the increasing

tendency towards standardisation of hours of work throughout the company.

Holiday entitlement, like hours of work, was determined predominantly at establishment or national level. Over the period 1979-86, however, the role of both of these contracted slightly. A more pronounced reduction occurred among groups where holiday entitlement was determined by a two-tier combination of national and single employer bargaining; the number of such bargainers contracted by 28 per cent over the period. The extent of company level determination of holiday entitlement increased substantially. Although the shift over the seven-year period followed a similar pattern to the determination of hours, company level negotiation on holidays was more widespread. The results suggest a movement away from the potential impact of national or multi-employer agreements through their influence in two-tier bargaining and towards company level standardisation.

The shift in the level of bargaining described above refers to those groups which had any form of two-tier bargaining arrangement. A more restricted set of bargaining groups was drawn from those plants which followed multi-employer agreements *entirely* in 1979. These were the subject of an additional data collection exercise designed to assess the effectiveness of those multi-employer agreements by 1986. Of the 160 original respondents who in 1979 indicated that they followed a multi-employer agreement entirely, just over 60 per cent replied. The results indicated that only 54 per cent of those companies following a multi-employer agreement in its entirety in 1979 continued to do so by 1986.

The evidence above, although by no means conclusive



Photo: Denis Doran/Network

**Table 8 The sample of "multi-employer agreement only" establishments by size of companies**

	Companies		No of employees in 1979 (per cent)				
	Nos	Per cent	20-99	100-499	500-999	More than 1,000	Average plant size
Total sample	97	100	56	40	4	0	135
Establishments still with multi-employer bargaining only, 1986	52	54	29	23	3	0	134

**Table 9 Changes in the average number of bargaining groups by establishment size: manufacturing (matched sample)**

Number of employees size (as of 1979 survey)	Average number of bargaining groups among those companies with collective bargaining	
	1979	1986
20-99	1.3	1.5
100-499	2.2	2.2
500-999	3.0	2.8
Over 1,000	4.4	3.8
All plants	2.7	2.5

indicates a pronounced reduction in the role of multi-employer agreements by 1986.

In 1979, the contribution of multi-employer agreements to pay bargaining, although extensive among smaller firms in particular sectors, clearly played a broad role within manufacturing in the control and determination of non-pay matters such as working time and holiday entitlement.

By 1986, single employer bargaining was dominant across the whole remuneration package, although in some areas of manufacturing, multi-employer agreements remained of importance with respect to hours and holidays. The level of bargaining in private manufacturing has shifted towards plant level and a more localised determination of pay and conditions.

#### Number of bargaining groups

One of the principal areas of interest in the 1979 survey was the number of separate bargaining groups within the establishment. The question was included in 1986 to see if there had been a change over the period.

The panel sample of establishments was considered the most appropriate vehicle for this purpose. The results are given in table 9. This shows the change in the number of bargaining groups within establishments between 1979 and

1986 by the number of employees in 1979. A similar analysis by 1986 employment size shows very similar results.

While the results show a clear relationship between establishment size and the number of bargaining groups in both years, in the intervening period the reduction in the number of bargaining groups has been more pronounced among larger establishments. For example, in plants employing more than 1,000 employees in 1979, the average number of bargaining groups fell from 4.4 per plant to 3.8 per plant over the period to 1986. In plants with under 500 employees, by contrast, the number of groups per plant remained the same and indeed increased in those plants with less than 100 employees.

This would suggest that against a background of a decline in numbers employed at many establishments and other changes in the industrial relations climate, managements in larger establishments have been particularly likely to take steps to rationalise their bargaining arrangements.

#### Conclusions

This article has looked at changes in bargaining structure in manufacturing plants (excluding the smallest) between 1979 and 1986. The picture appears to be one of both continuity and change.

The proportion of plants where trade unions are recognised for the purposes of determining an element of the pay and conditions package has remained largely unchanged. However, the locus of such bargaining appears to have shifted considerably towards company or establishment level. Larger establishments have also reduced the complexity of their bargaining arrangements by reducing the number of separate groups with which they negotiate within the plant.

The increased competitive pressures of the 1980s appear, therefore, to have led to a rationalisation of the structure of bargaining arrangements within firms. ■



Photo: Denis Doran/Network

# Special Feature



One way of becoming self-employed is to open your own restaurant.

Photo: Chris Davies/Network

## New recruits to self-employment in the 1980s

by Catherine Hakim<sup>1</sup>

Social Science Branch, Department of Employment

The rapid increase in self-employment in the 1980s has focused attention on the experiences of new recruits to business ownership. This article presents key findings from a 1987 survey of new entrants to self-employment, and shows that the difficulties encountered are less significant than anticipated.

The rapid increase in self-employment and new business start-ups in the 1980s has focused attention on the experience of new owner-managers—in particular the difficulties and impediments they must overcome to establish their new business on a firm footing.

This article sets out some key findings from a spring 1987 survey of the experiences of these new recruits to self-employment. The results will inform the development and review of policies to help small firms and business

<sup>1</sup> Since writing this article, Dr Hakim has become Professor of Sociology and Director of the Economic and Social Research Council Data Archive at the University of Essex.

start-ups, but they are also of wider interest to the numerous organisations—such as the Small Firms Service and local enterprise agencies—that provide information, advice and counselling to new and expanding small firms.

### The 1 million rise in self-employment

Self-employment grew rapidly in the 1980s in Britain. Labour Force Survey estimates indicate that between 1981 and 1988, the number of people who were self-employed in their main job grew from just above 2 million to more than

3 million<sup>1</sup>. In the 1980s, the number of self-employed have grown by 136,000 each year on average—and most of the growth has consisted of one-person businesses without employees (Hakim, 1988). Similarly in other industrialised countries, the proportion of one-person businesses has been increasing among the self-employed (OECD, 1986, p 58).

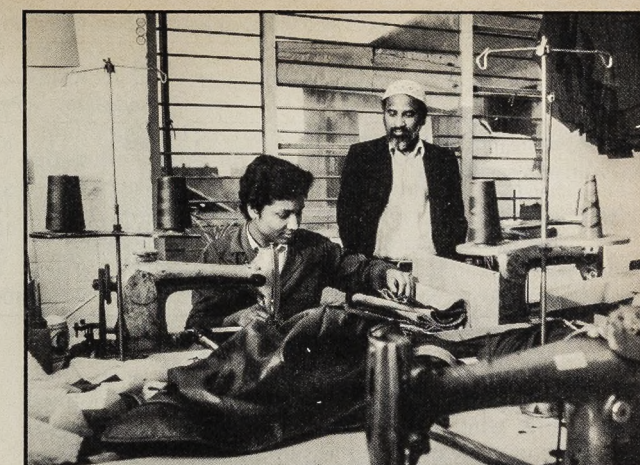
The growth in self-employment has been paralleled by an increase in all other alternatives to the 'conventional' continuous full-time employee job which in fact occupies no more than two-thirds of the workforce (Hakim, 1987b). Among women the most important alternative is part-time work, either in temporary or permanent employee jobs, or in self-employment. Among men self-employment constitutes the most common alternative to an employee job (Department of Employment, 1989). But the numbers of women entering self-employment have expanded very rapidly in the 1980s—testifying to an untapped potential for enterprise (Carter and Cannon, 1988a, b). Overall, the 1 million increase in self-employment has been by far the most important single element of the 2 million growth in 'flexible' forms of work in the 1980s (Hakim, 1987b) and it is the only element that has continued a strong upward trend throughout the 1980s.

The characteristics of the new self-employed are much the same as those of the established self-employed, but with a higher proportion of very small businesses. About two-thirds of self-employed men and women work alone, without even a part-time assistant. Among the new entrants to self-employment the proportion rises to four-fifths working alone in what can be called microbusinesses.

### Flows into and out of self-employment

Regular annual reports from the spring Labour Force Surveys have accustomed analysts to seeing the self-employed as a static group which increases gradually year by year—at least throughout the 1980s. But the full picture is more dynamic, with large numbers of people moving into and out of self-employment each year, so that the self-employed workforce is constantly being renewed and replenished even when there is no visible change in the overall total.

In effect, the 136,000 average net annual increase in



Asian community leather workers at Spitalfields, London.

self-employment understates the total number of new recruits, whose numbers are partially offset by those leaving self-employment.

The self-employment inflow and outflow are shown in table 1. Figures for the flows over the 12-month period 1986–87 are of interest for comparison with the 1987 special survey of the new self-employed reported in this article. Figures for the period 1987–88 are more up to date and show essentially the same picture of movement in and out of self-employment.

For example, the spring 1987 Labour Force Survey shows that some 440,000 people entered self-employment within the previous 12 months—half of them switching from employee jobs held one year earlier, the other half coming equally from among the unemployed and those outside the labour market (the 'economically inactive')—see table 1. The latter group includes school leavers, people completing higher education, married women returning to work after their children reach school age and people returning to work after a spell out of the labour force for any other reason<sup>2</sup>.

Over the same 12-month period, about 250,000 people left a self-employment job they held in spring 1986. By spring 1987, about half were back in employee jobs, the other half moved into unemployment (presumably because their business failed) or else left the workforce completely, in roughly equal numbers (table 1). The latter group includes people retiring from work as well as the permanently sick, full-time housewives and people returning to full-time education.

It is clear there are very similar patterns in the labour market origins and destinations of the self-employed. And the pattern of origins and destinations has changed hardly at all in the 1980s. But new recruits have consistently outnumbered people leaving self-employment throughout the 1980s—pushing up the total number of self-employed every year.

### Research on the new self-employed

Research on the self-employment inflow and outflow was carried out by the Department of Employment to identify the characteristics of the self-employed and any impediments encountered by the new businesses. In February and March 1987 interviews were carried out with

Table 1 Self-employment inflow and outflow

	1986–87		1987–88	
	Thous-ands	Per cent	Thous-ands	Per cent
<b>Inflow</b>				
Activity one year earlier				
Employee	231	53	280	58
Unemployed	96	22	101	21
Not in the labour market	101	23	99	20
<b>Total inflow</b>	<b>434</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>483</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Outflow</b>				
Current activity of people who were self-employed one year earlier				
Employee	115	46	132	50
Unemployed	73	29	60	23
Not in the labour market	61	24	70	27
<b>Total outflow</b>	<b>251</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Net inflow</b>	<b>183</b>		<b>218</b>	
Ratio between total inflow and net inflow	2.37		2.22	

Source: Spring 1987 and 1988 Labour Force Survey, data for Great Britain. Non-respondents to the question on activity one year earlier have been reallocated proportionately. Totals include those on government employment and training programmes. Figures for 1987–1988 are preliminary estimates.

<sup>1</sup> Labour Force Survey estimates relate to spring of each year; estimates for spring 1988 used in this article are preliminary.

<sup>2</sup> The Labour Force Survey data for changes of employment status over the 12-month period between spring of each year understate movement into and out of self-employment to some extent, as people who enter and leave self-employment within the period between the spring surveys are not counted in the flow statistics.



Table 2 Self-employed with and without employees, Great Britain, 1988

	Men		Women		All	
	Thousands	Per cent	Thousands	Per cent	Thousands	Per cent
Working alone (no employees)	1,585	67	553	70	2,138	68
Working with employees						
Fewer than 25*	734	31	229	29	963	31
of which 1-2	323	14	98	12	421	13
3-9	315	13	106	13	421	13
10-24	87	4	24	3	112	4
25 or more	47	2	8	1	55	2
All self-employed	2,366	100	790	100	3,156	100

\*Including those where exact number below 25 is not known.

Source: Spring 1988 Labour Force Survey data for people aged 16 and over.

a nationally representative sample<sup>1</sup> of such adults, defined as 'people who pay their own National Insurance contributions and are taxed as self-employed'. Interviews were focused on the past, present and future self-employed defined as follows:

- **Lapsed self-employed:** adults who had left self-employment within the previous three years, 1984-87, but excluding people who had simply retired from work (who constituted about 15 per cent of the outflow)—90 interviews, 19 per cent of them with women.
- **New self-employed:** adults who had become self-employed in the previous four years, 1983-87, were still self-employed and had fewer than six employees—243 interviews, 29 per cent of them with women.
- **Potential self-employed:** adults who said they were "seriously intending" to take up self-employment in the next 12 months—139 interviews, 36 per cent of them with women.

These 472 structured interviews were supplemented by another 33 interviews with new, lapsed and potential self-employed. The second group of interviews was designed to provide a more rounded picture of people in each of the three target groups, to flesh out the statistics obtained from the nationally representative survey with specific examples and illustrative quotes.

The results of the two studies are consistent. This summary draws mainly on the results of the national survey (which are reported more fully in Research Paper No 71 by Bevan and others). All tables are from the 1987 national survey unless otherwise specified. As noted elsewhere (Hakim, 1988, pp 422-426), there are difficulties and inconsistencies in the definition and classification of the self-employed, both within and between surveys, arising from the fact that some self-employed have incorporated their business and are therefore, strictly speaking, the employees of their own company. Thus there is no strict equivalence between the data on self-employment and small firms from different studies, for example between the spring 1987 Labour Force Survey data and the results of the Department of Employment's spring 1987 special survey.

The study focused on the self-employed (new and lapsed) with no more than five employees, if any. In practice, this definition encompasses almost all the self-employed identified by the regular household surveys—such as the Labour Force Survey, General Household Survey and Family Expenditure Survey—that provide information on the characteristics of the self-employed (see, for example, Curran and Burrows,

1988; Hakim, 1988; Curran and Burrows, 1989).

Two-thirds of the self-employed work alone, without employees. Among the one-third with employees, the great majority have between one and nine staff with tiny numbers of self-employed having between 10 and 24 and more than 25 employees (Hakim, 1989, table 3). Extrapolating from the results of the 1988 Labour Force Survey (table 2) one can estimate that roughly one-fifth of all self-employed have between one and five employees. In other words, the self-employed with six or more employees who were excluded from the 1987 special study constitute a small minority of only one in ten of all self-employed.

In other respects as well, the national survey sample was fairly representative of the self-employed generally, for example in terms of the proportion of women and home-based businesses.

The rising proportions of women in each of the three groups reflects the recent increase in women's share of self-employment. Women constituted one-fifth of the lapsed self-employed, one-quarter of the new self-employed and one-third of the potential self-employed group.

One-third of each group had continued with full-time education beyond school, and the same proportion had some experience of bookkeeping or accountancy before becoming self-employed.

Home-based work is far more common in Britain than is commonly thought, especially for the self-employed (Hakim, 1987a). The great majority of the businesses in the 1987 special survey (78 per cent or more) were home-based and only one-fifth had separate business premises. Women were far more likely than men to work mainly at home, while men typically worked away from the home but used it as a base and as a business address. The hours worked varied enormously, as is also found in other national surveys (Department of Employment, 1988).

The majority of the self-employed in the 1987 survey were in business as sole traders, with partnerships far less common and incorporated companies fairly rare. The majority had relatives or friends who were also self-employed, and this emerged as a factor contributing to success in running the business.

### Motivations for setting up in business

Both the national survey and the supplementary depth interviews show that self-employment has attractions of its own, quite separately from the desire to set up any particular kind of business, as noted also by previous research. Among both the lapsed and new self-employed the desire to be self-employed pre-dated any specific business idea in most cases. When asked about reasons for becoming self-employed, all three groups emphasised the attractions of independence and being one's own boss (38-65 per cent), the challenge of self-employment (9-18



Dreambirds, in Nuneaton, is a classic example of a good idea being turned into a thriving business. The company makes edible confetti, which can be eaten by wild birds once the wedding is over. The confetti is also biodegradable—a great boon to environmentally conscious brides and vicars alike.

per cent), the freedom to choose when to work (13-16 per cent), which was especially important among women, and the freedom to choose whom to work for (2-8 per cent).

Financial motivations were given less emphasis than the benefits of independence, flexibility, choice and freedom. Only a minority mentioned profit and reward for oneself instead of for an employer (11-25 per cent) and earning lots of money, or more money than in an employee job (23-27 per cent)—as shown in table 3.

Table 3 Reasons for transferring to self-employment\*

	New self-employed	Lapsed self-employed	Potential self-employed	Sex	
				Male	Female
1 Own boss/independent/not told what to do, etc	41 (20)	38 (23)	65 (32)	47 (23)	48 (25)
2 Earn lots of/more money	23 (13)	34 (20)	27 (14)	28 (14)	22 (15)
3 Unlikely to/could not find employment	18 (10)	19 (12)	31 (14)	25 (14)	15 (5)
4 Profit/reward for self not someone else	11 (5)	20 (6)	25 (9)	17 (6)	16 (7)
5 Choose when to work	16 (6)	13 (2)	16 (4)	13 (3)	23 (9)
6 Challenge	9 (4)	11 (6)	18 (6)	10 (4)	18 (8)
7 Redundancy	9 (5)	2 (1)	2 (—)	7 (4)	1 (—)
8 Choose whom to work for	8 (1)	8 (1)	2 (—)	7 (1)	4 (1)
9 Work with family/friends	5 (1)	7 (4)	2 (1)	3 (1)	7 (4)
10 Tradition in family	4 (2)	7 (2)	2 (1)	4 (2)	4 (1)
11 Escape from large company	4 (1)	—	3 (—)	2 (1)	4 (1)
12 Do job better than previous company	5 (2)	2 (—)	—	4 (1)	1 (—)
13 Lack of prospects in last job	* (—)	2 (1)	3 (1)	2 (1)	1 (—)
14 Work and have children	2 (1)	2 (—)	—	—	5 (1)
15 Other reason(s)	23 (14)	21 (10)	16 (8)	19 (10)	25 (14)
16 Don't know/can't remember	3 (15)	1 (11)	—	2 (14)	1 (9)
Independence (1, 5, 6, 8)	54 (31)	53 (32)	75 (42)	57 (31)	67 (42)
Financial rewards (2, 4)	31 (18)	43 (26)	44 (23)	38 (20)	35 (22)
Unemployment (3, 7)	26 (15)	21 (13)	31 (14)	31 (18)	17 (5)
Other push factors (11, 12, 13)	8 (3)	4 (1)	6 (1)	7 (3)	1 (1)
Family reasons (9, 10, 14)	10 (4)	14 (6)	4 (2)	7 (3)	14 (6)
Base = 100 per cent	243	90	139	334	138

\* Percentage mentioning each reason on a multi-choice question and (in brackets) percentage giving that reason as the main motivating factor. Percentages add to more than 100 per cent for first column, and to 100 per cent for figures in brackets.

As one respondent summed it up: "At the end of the day I suppose you hope for better money out of it. You hope. But the main thing for the time being is that it's mine. I do my business."

In the second part of table 3 the diverse reasons given by people for setting up their own business are grouped into five broad categories. 'Independence' and 'financial rewards' are the two main pull factors, and unemployment (or redundancy) is the principal push factor, although a variety of other push factors were important for some people. The results show clearly that the attractions of independence and autonomy far outweigh financial rewards as the main pull factor—more so among women than men, and particularly among the potential self-employed, a group that includes a lot of younger people.

Only among the lapsed self-employed do the two motivations begin to carry equal weight, with a hint that the get-rich-quick motivation may be less robust and persistent than the search for a degree of control over one's work life. Unemployment falls clearly into third place in all three groups, with other push factors playing a negligible role.

Needless to say, there was a host of other reasons quoted by some people as the main motivating factor in their particular case, with family traditions of entrepreneurship and other family related reasons being the largest identifiable other motivator. These other reasons were a mixed category including some purely personal factors, which could not be reliably classified into push or pull factors.

### Independence

It is notable that the ideology of self-employment, with its emphasis on being one's own boss, is an equally important motivating factor for both men and women. Despite the fact that self-employment has traditionally been concentrated among older age groups, the desire to be your own boss and the attractions of independence are greatest among the younger age groups. This hitherto untapped interest in and potential for entrepreneurship must help explain the strong growth in self-employment among women and young people—two groups that have always had a much lower propensity to enter self-employment than adult men.

<sup>1</sup> The sample was identified through the household omnibus survey run by Research Services of Great Britain (RSGB). This is a weekly survey among a new sample of 2,000 people aged 16 and over across the whole of Great Britain which is identified by a random location sampling method that produces nationally representative results.

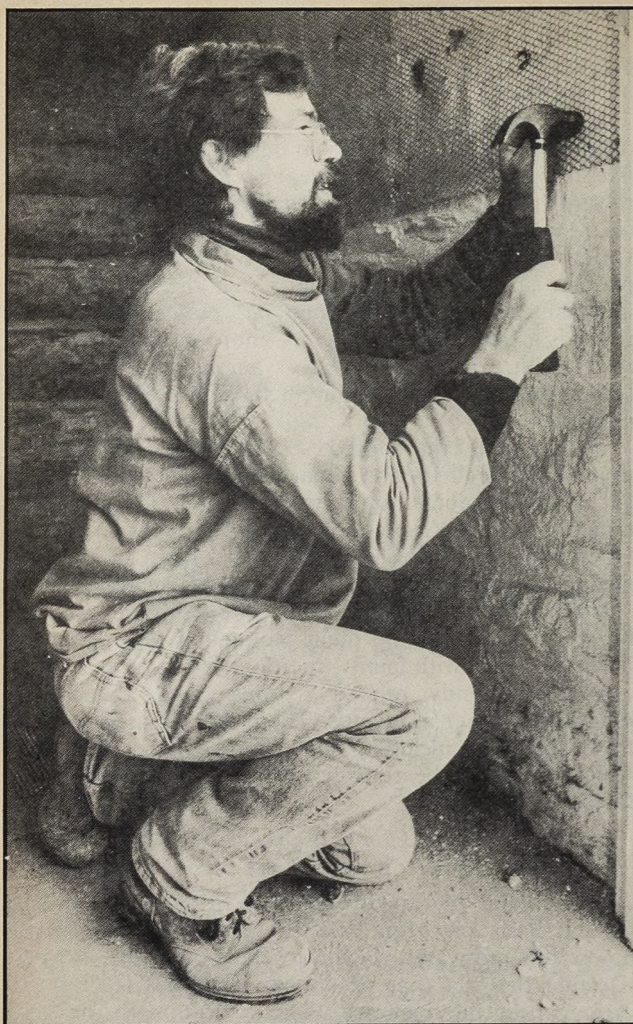


Photo: Sheila Gray/Format

A bricklayer involved in renovating an old house in Cornwall.

### Redundancy and unemployment

Pull factors clearly outweigh the push factors. Push factors include the desire to escape from working in a large company, but the most important were redundancy and the view that employee jobs were no longer plentiful. Overall, only around one-quarter (ranging from one-fifth to one-third) of the new, lapsed and potential self-employed could be classified as involuntary or, at the least, reluctant entrants to self-employment. Even within this minority, push factors were often complemented by other, more positive reasons for setting up in business.

The supplementary depth interviews showed clearly that those becoming self-employed after redundancy or a period of unemployment were not necessarily 'reluctant' entrants: some took advantage of the situation, or at least were prompted by it, to do what they had long thought of doing, and regarded themselves as voluntary entrants to self-employment. So, for some people, redundancy and a spell of unemployment are better regarded as catalysts which prompt a change of direction and a change of work style. For others, self-employment represents a

<sup>1</sup> A study of self-employment in the USA in the 1970s found that the returns from employee work experience in self-employment are smaller than the returns in employee jobs. In other words, the self-employed are effectively earning less than if they had stayed in an employee job. On the other hand, business experience has just about the same return in employee wage work as it does in self-employment for men under 40. This means that people who fail at self-employment can return to employee jobs with earnings at the level they would have had if they had not tried self-employment. So the loss of earnings while in self-employment is not irreversible (Evans and Leighton, 1987).

second-best alternative to an employee job—they are only looking for a means of generating a living wage, prefer to avoid responsibility and avoid risk as far as possible. Some have had a series of temporary or short-term jobs and become self-employed to avoid insecure employee jobs.

Two other studies carried out in 1987 also discovered that many people setting up their own business, including some very successful fast growth businesses, had been unemployed prior to start-up, but that unemployment was not necessarily the key motivating factor or direct cause of opting for self-employment as seen by the entrepreneurs themselves. Storey's study of fast growth businesses found that only a minority of the entrepreneurs who had in fact been unemployed prior to start-up quoted unemployment as a cause; most often there were other pull factors which they perceived as the real cause (Storey, 1988, pp 24–25).

Carter and Cannon's study of female entrepreneurs, many of them successful 'high achievers', also found that unemployment or redundancy were only catalysts, setting in motion, or reviving, aspirations for running their own business (and the autonomy and control that go with it) that might otherwise have remained dormant. They, too, distinguish between particular catalytic events, some of them traumatic, which prompted people to re-evaluate their working lives and the more long-standing ambitions and motivations which led to setting up their own business.

They conclude that the impetus actually to start in business was often a combination of circumstances coming together at a particular time; a combination of internal and external factors. They note also that most women saw proprietorship as a positive step after what had often been a negative experience (Carter and Cannon, 1988b, pp 10–13).

### Enterprise culture

One possibility is that a decade of government support for the enterprise culture and small firms has had a cumulative impact on people's aspirations and motivations—or at least on the motivations of those who become self-employed or set up their own business. This would lead us to expect sharp differences between studies carried out in the 1970s and early 1980s (which often found unemployment and other push factors to be important) and more recent studies which reflect the pro-active and positive approach to self-employment promoted by the enterprise culture.

Such changing patterns of perception and motivation would also explain contradictions between the results of macro-level studies at the national level and micro-level studies of individual entrepreneurs, as noted in the section below on the impact of the business cycle.

Another possibility is that the self-employed do not make as much money as they originally hoped, and they discover this early on, so that financial rewards then rank lower as an attraction<sup>1</sup>.

### Misleading picture

To date, much of our information on the characteristics and motivations of new entrants to self-employment has come from studies of large scale redundancies and from people setting up businesses through the Enterprise Allowance Scheme (EAS) or with help from government sponsored training courses (see, for example, Johnson and Rodger, 1983; Lee, 1985; Fevre, 1986, 1987). All of these entrants were previously unemployed benefit claimants and it is not surprising that most say they go into business, with or without help from the EAS, because they cannot find paid work.

The results of the present study demonstrate that surveys of unemployed entrants yield a misleading picture of the new self-employed—misleading because it is very partial and incomplete.

Unemployment is not the most common route into self-employment. As can be seen from *table 1*, national data from the Labour Force Survey show that people transferring from unemployment to self-employment are the smallest group and therefore cannot be typical of all new entrants to self-employment. The 1987 national survey and the supplementary interviews demonstrate further that pull factors outweigh push factors in the decision to set up one's own business and that even among those with recent unemployment experience this can be seen as a positive turning point as well as an entirely negative factor.

Unfortunately, a technical weakness in the main report on the 1987 survey of the self-employment inflow and outflow (Bevan *et al*, 1988) helps to perpetuate the notion that unemployment is the main spur to becoming self-employed. The survey asked whether people had previously been in full-time or part-time employment, or 'not working'. Regrettably no distinction was made between the unemployed and people out of the labour market (including students, for example)—both of whom would report themselves as 'not working'.

Because the main report equates 'not working' with unemployment, it wrongly concludes that the significance of unemployment as a catalyst is considerable and is increasing. For example, it states that 'the theory that self-employment is increasingly being used as an answer to unemployment is supported by the fact that over half (54 per cent) of the potential self-employed said that they were currently not working'—a statement which is later summarised as over half the potential self-employed sample were unemployed in comparison with only 28 per cent of the new self-employed having been unemployed prior to starting their business (Bevan and others, 1988).

A subsequent analysis of the more detailed, reliable and representative data from the Labour Force Survey has shown there has been virtually no change in the composition of self-employment inflow in recent years, with a fairly constant 22 per cent coming from the unemployed, as shown in *table 1*, for the 12-month period spring 1986 to spring 1987, and for the 12-month period spring 1987 to spring 1988.

The reason for the large difference between the new and potential self-employed groups in the proportions not working prior to start-up is simply that survival rates in self-employment are higher for those who were previously in work (albeit as employees) than for those who were previously not working (whether unemployed, sick, studying or otherwise out of the labour force). The 1987 survey only covers survivors in the sample of new self-employed, with non-survivors being covered by the sample of lapsed self-employed. As there are no clear logical links between the two groups, survival rates for the period 1983–87 cannot be computed. For example, those who dropped out of self-employment in the period 1984–87 (and bothered to report it in 1987) did not necessarily enter self-employment in the period 1983–87.

### Impact of the business cycle

There is no doubt that at the aggregate macro-level (national or regional) there is an association between the business cycle and small firm creation. Numerous studies attest to the fact that throughout the twentieth century in Britain, the United States and other industrialised countries, rising levels of unemployment are associated with a rising trend of new company registrations and rising

levels of self-employment (see Binks and Jennings, 1986; Bannock and Doran, 1987, pp 73–76; Bannock and Peacock, 1989, p 63; Blau, 1987; OECD, 1986; Mason, 1988, p 2). Self-employment in the construction industry is particularly noted for counter-cyclical movement over the business cycle (Linder, 1983).

The results of a preliminary exercise in modelling aggregate self-employment led the Institute of Employment Research to conclude that most of the changes in self-employment over the period 1961–86 were associated with changes in industrial composition, a cyclical factor (the net effect of which was difficult to predict) and the unemployment rate (which the authors interpreted as a labour supply side factor). All three factors were found to contribute positively and significantly to changes in self-employment in the last two decades (Johnson, Lindley and Bourlakis, 1989).

This does not necessarily translate into unemployed individuals moving into self-employment while employees and others stay put. Rather, in recessionary periods everyone gives all the options and alternatives more active consideration than is otherwise the case. Hence employees are also encouraged to try self-employment at times of high levels of unemployment, while the unemployed may well cite pull factors instead as the main motivation for setting up their own business.

There is no simple correspondence between the results of macro-level studies which identify the national unemployment rate as a significant factor and the results of micro-level case studies and personal interview surveys inquiring about the decision-making process that each new entrepreneur went through. In addition, interview surveys normally exclude people who decided not to make the change, and are in this sense focused rather than comprehensive.

### Business aspirations

The survey interviews revealed how people's views about the process leading to self-employment strongly colour their aspirations for the business.

Those who consider themselves to be involuntary entrants, forced into this option by the lack of alternatives, seek only to provide themselves with a job and adequate earnings, with no aspirations for growth and expansion. Although they may well refer to the bureaucratic complications of growth (in terms of employment law, VAT and income tax, for example) as well as the risk involved, it is clear these are primarily *post hoc* rationalisations for not expanding once their goal of getting themselves enough work for a living wage is achieved.

Those who consider themselves to be voluntary entrants to self-employment (including the small number who refer to unemployment and redundancy as the catalysts for their change of work) divide into those seeking only to 'own their own job' and those seeking to create a growing business. So even among those positively choosing self-employment in preference to an employee job, there are many who have no ambitions for building a business. The implication is that entrepreneurs with aspirations for building a business are in the minority—even among optimistic new entrants. Overall, half of the new self-employed plan to expand their business in the future and half have no plans for expanding beyond their current size.

This pattern is consistent with other studies of the self-employed and small firms with very few employees. For example, a study of small firms' growth aspirations found that three-quarters of one-person micro-businesses did not plan to take on any staff at all, and the majority of those with one or two employees similarly had no growth

**Table 4 Aspirations for growth and previous experience**  
Per cent

	Previous experience of running own business			
	None	Once	Twice or more	Total
No growth plans	53	40	35	49
Slow growth plans	38	46	48	40
Fast growth plans	9	14	17	11
Base = 100 per cent	660,000	153,500	66,500	880,000

Source: January 1989 Business Line Survey, data for single establishment firms with a business telephone line and fewer than 50 full-time employees (if any).

plans (Hakim, 1989, table 11). Only a tiny minority of small firms has plans for rapid expansion, with aspirations for slow growth being far more common. Overall, half of small firms with fewer than 50 employees (if any) have no intention of expanding their business.

A key factor in plans for business growth is whether the owner-managers have any previous experience of self-employment and running their own business. Few people do, so most are running their very first business on a suitably cautious basis. But among the minority who have some previous experience of working on their own account, aspirations for growth and building up the business are more prominent (table 4). The importance of previous work experience is readily recognised in relation to employees' achievements—in terms of increased earnings and promotion, for example. But the significance of previous experience for the self-employed as well is more easily overlooked. One interesting finding from the 1987 survey of new entrants is that family business experience can have the same helpful effects as previous personal business experience.

It also seems likely that the initial perception of self-employment as a second-best alternative to an employee job, or simply as an attractive alternative to working for a large company may linger on after the start-up phase, effectively blinding the self-employed person from perceiving the real growth potential of their new business. This may be an area where advice or business training can be specially influential and help widen horizons.

There is some indication of this among the lapsed self-employed, most of whom cited financial difficulties

and not making enough money as the reasons for giving up self-employment. A clear majority of two-thirds of those who have tried self-employment and failed said they would do it again. The experience was clearly not wholly negative. And those who do try again are more optimistic about expanding the business beyond just 'owning your own job'.

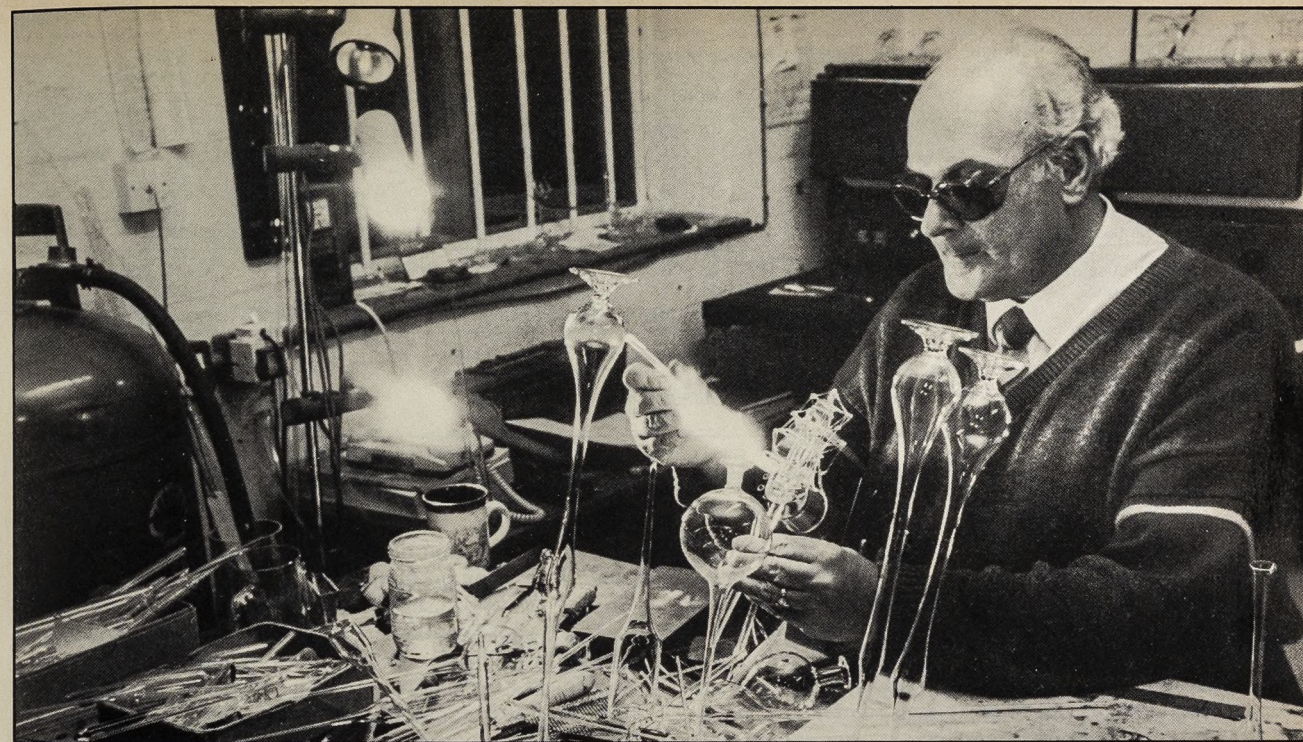
### Problems of setting up in business

Virtually all self-employed admit to having had anxieties and anticipating problems before setting up their business. People who have not yet started express more anxieties—in part because they are a younger group. But it also suggests that those who have been running their own business for a year or two have already forgotten their anxieties at the start.

This process is speeded up by the fact that most people actually encounter far fewer problems than they anticipated. Two-fifths (43 per cent) of the new self-employed said they had encountered no problems, or none they could remember. Not surprisingly the proportion was much lower at around one-fifth (22 per cent) among the lapsed self-employed. Becoming self-employed and running a business turns out to be a great deal easier than most people expect. In effect, lack of information about what is involved proves to be one of the biggest hurdles. The most common worries about business start-up are:

- Obtaining capital and financing the project, which was mentioned by about half but was the main concern of one-fifth.
- Tax, VAT, National Insurance and related bookkeeping, which was mentioned by over half and was the main concern of almost one-fifth.
- Not having a stable, guaranteed income, mentioned by two-fifths and of special concern to one in seven.
- Getting business and finding clients, mentioned by one-third and of most concern to one in ten of the self-employed.

People were also asked more specifically whether government regulations and red tape had caused them problems. Here again the main responses related to income tax, VAT and National Insurance, which were widely regarded as being difficult to understand, difficult to



Brittle existence or shaping a sound future? A Birmingham glassblower at work.

Photo: Brenda Prince/Format

complete and difficult to budget for, especially with late payment of invoices by customers (table 5). Here too, there was a clear pattern of the regulations being somewhat less of a problem in reality than they were generally anticipated to be, but in some cases feelings ran strong.

The interviews revealed much anger over VAT payments compounding problems of late payment by customers, with large companies being the latest payers. All respondents who were VAT registered<sup>5</sup> complained at having to pay VAT on the basis of invoicing rather than payment received, and one claimed that the practice of collecting VAT on bad debts had forced him to give up his business.

As one put it: "The worst thing was paying money for VAT before you received payment—and it was a lot of money. Then you've got to pay interest on that to the bank."

From October 1987, after the study was completed, Customs and Excise introduced a scheme which allows traders with an annual turnover of below £250,000 to account for VAT on the payments they receive and make, rather than the tax invoices they issue or receive.

Everyone in the second interview sample expressed anger over the volume and complexity of the records required for bookkeeping and accountancy purposes, especially when it was seen as a completely separate activity, unrelated to the central activities of the business, that had to be done in the evenings after a long hard day.

However, once the anger had subsided, virtually everyone admitted that bookkeeping was indispensable and, in some ways, quite satisfying. It was felt to be crucial to be able to monitor business development and know

<sup>5</sup> VAT is a tax on general consumer expenditure. Some businesses are exempt from VAT—the major ones being property investment, banking and insurance services. A business whose turnover is below the VAT threshold is not required to charge VAT on the goods and services it supplies, even if these are normally taxable. The business does, however, have to pay VAT on the supplies it purchases from VAT registered businesses and this cannot be recovered. It is possible for businesses whose turnover is below the VAT threshold to register for VAT voluntarily. This is useful for businesses that make mainly zero-rated supplies as it enables them to offset the VAT they have paid out on their purchases against that they charge on their supplies.

where you stood. And bookkeeping was an essential means of reconciling costs and income in order to maintain correct pricing levels. The interviews reveal clearly the ambivalence underlying general attitude statements obtained by national surveys: the necessity for paperwork is grudgingly accepted. The form of questioning can reveal the grudges or the reluctant acceptance.

It is worth emphasising that despite their initial anxieties, people starting up in business for their first time actually have fewer problems than people who are on their second or third attempt (table 6). A national survey of small firms with either no employees (apart from the owner-manager) or very few employees, also shows that the nature of the problems encountered by first-time businesses are not really different from those encountered by all small firms, with finance and interest rates widely seen as the biggest headache of all.

More interestingly, people who have already had two or more previous businesses give far more emphasis to government regulations and paperwork as a problem affecting small firms. Almost one-fifth (17 per cent) quoted this as the biggest problem, second only to finance and interest rates mentioned by one-quarter (28 per cent); whereas first-time businesses saw a range of problems as being almost equally significant as tax and VAT paperwork (table 6). This result was not due to second and third businesses being larger or more likely to be registered for VAT or in some way distinct different from the first-time businesses—so these business-owners appear simply to reflect their greater experience of the impact of compliance costs on the small firm, especially the new small firm.

On the other hand, the importance of government regulations and paperwork (most notably tax, VAT and National Insurance) as a problem for all small businesses as well as for new small businesses should not be underestimated. This point has not been picked up in recent years by the only regular survey of small business available so far in Britain—the Small Business Research Trust (SBRT) Quarterly Survey of small business which has been running for some five years. The results of this

**Table 5 Government regulations and paperwork affecting the new, lapsed and potential self-employed** Per cent

	New self-employed						Potential self-employed <sup>†</sup>
	All <sup>†</sup>		With 1-5 employees <sup>†</sup>		Lapsed self-employed <sup>†</sup>		
	a	b	a	b	a	b	
Not affected by any regulations listed, or not sure	36	60	25	48	33	44	11
Affected by at least one of the following, in particular:	64	40	75	52	67	56	89
Income tax	46	21	42	10	50	30	61
National Insurance	36	6	38	8	38	12	40
VAT	19	7	44	17	28	14	37
Health and safety regulations	11	2	29	8	16	7	27
Rates	12	2	31	6	10	—	22
Fire regulations	12	2	25	2	9	1	16
Licensing/registration of business	9	1	23	2	8	1	29
PAYE	8	1	15	—	10	3	12
Employment protection	8	2	23	8	7	—	14
Planning	9	3	21	8	3	1	13
Company law	4	1	8	2	4	1	12
Consumer law	4	*	4	—	3	—	15
Sunday trading	2	1	8	4	6	1	9
Providing statistics	3	*	6	—	1	—	2
Base = 100 per cent		243		52		90	139

Note: Percentages add up to more than 100 per cent due to multiple response.

\* Less than 0.5 per cent.

† Percentage (a) affected by the regulation, when prompted, and (b) who list it among the three most important sources of problems in practice.

**Table 6 Problems of small firms by previous experience\***

Problems	Previous experience of running own business				SBRT pressure group members†
	Total	None	Once	Twice or more	
	Per cent				
Inflation	45 (9)	43 (9)	51 (8)	57 (6)	55 (4)
Finance and interest rates	49 (22)	47 (21)	52 (23)	66 (28)	61 (21)
Lack of skilled/trained employees	28 (13)	27 (13)	28 (11)	42 (10)	39 (15)
Total tax burden	35 (7)	34 (8)	36 (4)	40 (3)	37 (4)
Low turnover/lack of business	23 (8)	22 (8)	24 (8)	35 (10)	10 (2)
Government regulations and paperwork	38 (12)	35 (10)	43 (15)	54 (17)	59 (25)
High rates of pay	16 (1)	15 (1)	17 (2)	24 (2)	20 (2)
Competition from big business	24 (11)	23 (11)	27 (11)	23 (7)	24 (13)
Shortage of materials, etc	12 (5)	11 (5)	15 (8)	12 (5)	22 (8)
Other problems	5 (5)	5 (4)	6 (5)	6 (6)	4 (4)
No problems	17 (8)	20 (8)	11 (5)	8 (5)	6 (2)
<i>Base = 100 per cent</i>					
National estimate	880,000	660,000	153,500	66,500	36,000
Number of respondents	1,240	939	208	93	51

Source: January 1989 Business Line Survey, data for single establishment firms with a business telephone line and fewer than 50 full-time employees.

\* Percentage mentioning each problem on a multiple-choice question and (in brackets) percentage giving that factor as the biggest problem facing the business.

† Those that are currently members of at least one of the three pressure groups that provide the sampling frame for the Small Business Research Trust Quarterly Survey of Small Business in Britain: National Federation of Self-Employed and Small Businesses; Forum of Private Businesses; and Association of Independent Businesses.

survey since 1987 consistently identify government regulations and paperwork as ranking only seventh out of a list of ten most important problems (SBRT, 1989, *table 2.1*) as shown also in *table 7* for the last quarter of 1988<sup>1</sup>. The national survey of small business demonstrates that this factor ranks third for *all* small business (*table 7*) and it is clearly important among new businesses (*table 5*).

A key reason for the discrepancy is that the SBRT quarterly survey under-represents very small and young businesses and sole proprietors; as SBRT reports themselves recognise, the 10 per cent achieved response rate means respondents are strongly self-selected (SBRT, 1989, p 12). There is evidence that a more representative cross-section of the members of the three small firms representative bodies providing the sampling frame for the SBRT survey yields a quite different picture of the biggest problems confronting small businesses. Government regulations and paperwork come top of the list of biggest problems, before finance and interest rates (*table 6*), and this factor comes within the top three problems among *all* small businesses (*table 7*). So the relatively low profile given to it by the SBRT Quarterly Survey results seems to be misleading.

### VAT threshold

There are two administrative hurdles that have to be addressed by new businesses. One is the change from paying income tax and social security contributions as an employee to the somewhat different arrangements and rates applied to the self-employed. The second is the process of becoming a tax collector oneself if the business has a turnover above the VAT threshold, which was set at £20,500 a year at the time of the 1987 special survey of new start-ups (Department of Employment, 1987, p 182), but is currently set at £23,600.

The first hurdle is unavoidable, as it is part and parcel of the switch to self-employment. The second hurdle can be, and is avoided by some businesses—by artificially keeping turnover below the threshold so as to avoid the detailed accounts required for VAT purposes. Thus the VAT threshold can act as a barrier to business expansion and growth among the smallest firms<sup>2</sup>.

In the survey of new start-ups, four-fifths stated they were *not* affected by VAT, so can be assumed to be below the threshold or operating a business that is exempt. But

<sup>1</sup> The earliest sweeps of the SBRT Quarterly Survey show government regulations and paperwork ranking higher as the most important problem facing small business; this item did not settle down to seventh place until 1987, and was ranked second in two surveys prior to 1987.

<sup>2</sup> But see footnote 1 on p 293.

half of those within the VAT system reported it as one of their three main problems, along with income tax (*table 5*). So the VAT threshold emerges as a specific barrier to business start-up and expansion that is potentially open to intervention by government—for example, by easing the transition around and over the threshold. Easy-to-read information packs, starter packs and guides were suggested by some respondents, as a way to smooth the path.

This is confirmed further by the fact that the national survey of very small businesses shows that four-fifths are registered for VAT, a few of them on a voluntary basis rather than because they are over the threshold (*table 7*). Small businesses that are not registered for VAT are typical of the start-up firms covered by the 1987 special survey: home-based sole traders employing only one or two full-time people (including the owner-manager). So the transition from being a start-up business (only one-fifth at the outside being VAT-registered) to an established business with a business telephone line (four-fifths being registered for VAT) broadly equates with being incorporated into the VAT system.

### Sources of advice

Overall, less than half of all new and lapsed self-employed sought advice around the time of business start-up, most commonly when they first thought of the idea but in some cases after start-up. This low level of advice-seeking may at first seem surprising. However a

**Table 7 Most important problem facing small businesses**

	January 1989 Business Line Survey		Oct-Dec 1988 SBRT Survey	
	Rank order	Per cent	Rank order	Per cent
Finance and interest rates	1	22	1	25
Lack of skilled/trained employees	2	13	2	17
Government regulations and paperwork	3	12	7	6
Competition from big business	4	11	5	10
Inflation	5	9	9	3
Low turnover/lack of business	6	8	6	9
Total tax burden	7	7	3	13
Shortage of materials, etc	8	5	8	3
Other problems	9	5	4	11
High rates of pay	10	1	10	1
No problems	—	8	—	2
<i>Base = 100 per cent</i>				
National estimate	880,000		na	
Number of respondents	1,240		950	

Source: January 1989 Business Line Survey, data for single establishment businesses with a business telephone line and fewer than 50 full-time employees; Small Business Research Trust Quarterly Survey, data for the fourth quarter of 1988.

\* Comparison of national survey data with views of pressure group members.

**Table 8 VAT registration among very small firms**

	Per cent			
	All	Home based	Separate workplace	With only one–two workers
Not registered for VAT	21	30	16	32
VAT registered (turnover above £22,100 threshold)	63	56	67	52
Registered voluntarily	16	14	17	16
<i>Base = 100 per cent</i>				
National estimate	880,000	321,500	558,000	476,750
Number of respondents	1,240	411	829	636

Source: January 1989 Business Line Survey, data for single establishment businesses with a business telephone line and fewer than 50 full-time employees (if any).

**Table 9 Influence of family business experience and informal networks**

	Lapsed self-employed	New self-employed			Potential self-employed
		Working alone	With 1–5 employees	All	
Has self-employed family members*	38	46	62	49	50
Has self-employed friends	33	51	50	51	54
Has one or both	61	75	87	77	79
Has neither	39	25	13	23	21
<i>Base = 100 per cent</i>					
	90	191	52	243	139

\* Excluding members of respondent's family who are involved in the respondent's self-employment business.

minority (one-quarter) of all small businesses claim *ever* to have sought advice and help in the past, and a similar proportion states they would consider seeking advice in the future (Hakim, 1989, *table 13*). So advice seeking is not in fact unusually low among new young businesses and appears even to be above average.

Sources of advice included both formal and informal contacts, public and private services. Among the new and lapsed self-employed who sought advice the most important sources they approached around the time of business start-up were accountants (47 per cent) and bank managers (27 per cent), friends (22 per cent), and family (18 per cent), the Small Firms Service (13 per cent) and local enterprise agencies (12 per cent), jobcentres (16 per cent and especially important among those out of work), solicitors (12 per cent) and the Department of Health and Social Security (as it then was), which was consulted at some point by 14 per cent.

### Informal support networks

One finding of the study of new entrants to self-employment was the all pervasive influence of the family in providing a body of experience of running a small business; a ready source of free information, advice and guidance; and a source of reliable and trusted employees, partners and subcontractors. The influence of this factor was not realised when the study of new entrants to self-employment was designed, although it is now becoming well established (Stanworth *et al.*, 1988).

A clear majority of four-fifths of the new and potential self-employed had family and/or friends who were themselves self-employed, and provided an information-sharing network and a ready source of support and help. The importance of this factor is indicated by the fact that the lapsed self-employed were less likely to have had such a network to call on, and those who had expanded their business to employ others were more likely to report having such a network (*table 9*). Employing family members offered one solution to the need for extra staff at a time when the business was too new and financially vulnerable to afford the long-term commitment of employees.

Subcontracting to other self-employed people was another solution. One-fifth of the new self-employed working alone gave work to subcontractors, and the

proportion rose to one-third of new self-employed with employees. In contrast, far fewer of the lapsed self-employed reported giving work to subcontractors—about one in ten. The use of subcontractors is clearly associated with the success and expansion of a business, but it is used to complement the hiring of employees rather than being a substitute for directly employed labour (*table 10*).

There are clear implications for policy here. The advice and information offered by friends and family is free, readily accessible, available on request in an informal and hence non-threatening context—all of them key features for a new and possibly insecure business person. The survey of new businesses demonstrates that ready access to information, advice and guidance is an important contribution to the creation, survival, success and expansion of young businesses, and hence confirms (albeit indirectly) the value of support services currently provided

**Table 10 Subcontracting among the self-employed**

	Percentage who subcontract work to other self-employed
<b>New self-employed</b>	22
Working alone	19
1–5 employees	31
<b>Lapsed self-employed</b>	11
<b>Men</b>	20
<b>Women</b>	16
<b>Sole traders</b>	18
<b>Partnerships</b>	26
<b>Limited companies</b>	45
<b>Age of business</b>	
Less than one year	11
1–2 years old	15
2–3 years old	18
3–4 years old	29
<b>Hours worked in business</b>	
Up to 35 a week	14
35–50 per week	18
51 and over	26
<b>Prior employment situation</b>	
Full-time job	23
Part-time job	16
Not working	12
<b>All new and lapsed self-employed</b>	19

at relatively low or no cost to start-ups. These advisory and support services must be doubly important for people who do not have any family traditions of self-employment and enterprise to draw upon—and in that sense help to establish equal opportunities across all social groups for people who are intending to set up their own businesses.

### Summary and conclusions

The 1 million increase in self-employment in the 1980s has been by far the most important single element of the 2 million growth in flexible forms of work. Each year, on average about 140,000 more people leave employee jobs or unemployment, or re-enter the labour market to become self-employed. This article provides new information about the characteristics of these new entrants to self-employment, and in the process dispels a few myths about the processes leading people to set up their own business.

Self-employment has attractions of its own, quite separate from any specific ideas for setting up a particular kind of business. And all the evidence points to the attractions of independence, flexibility, choice and freedom being more important for most people than the financial motivations. It is notable that the desire to be your own boss and the attractions of independence are greatest among younger age groups, and among women—testifying to untapped potential for entrepreneurship among two groups that have traditionally had the lowest propensity to become self-employed.

Unemployment is not the sole or main spur to becoming self-employed, as is so often argued. Clearly, unemployment is a trigger, forcing some to become self-employed for lack of any alternative. But for many other unemployed it is better seen as a catalyst which prompts them to do what they had long thought of doing, and they regard themselves as *voluntary* entrants to self-employment.

But transfers from unemployment to self-employment constitute the smallest and narrowest entry route of all. Many more become self-employed immediately on entering or re-entering the labour market—and this group includes housewives returning to work after their family has grown up as well as students and others looking for their first job. By far the largest group of all consists of people leaving employee jobs to set up their own business—every year about 200,000 do so.

The majority of those who tried self-employment and failed said they would do it again. Even those who dropped out considered the experience to have been a positive one, and did not wholly abandon the idea of running their own business. And those who do try again have far more optimistic views on the chances of moving beyond just owning their own job—working alone as self-employed without any employees—to expand the business. So the experience of early failures pays off later for those who go on to start a second or third business.

The study revealed the all-pervasive influence of family and friends for new entrants to self-employment. These informal networks provide a body of experience on running a small business, a ready source of information and advice, and a source of reliable and trusted employees, partners and subcontractors. Four-fifths of the new and potential self-employed mentioned family and friends who were themselves self-employed in quite separate businesses of their own. Those who have dropped out of self-employment are less likely to have such a supportive network.

Easy access to informal and free information and advice clearly makes an important contribution to the survival and



Former secretary Julia Maskell set up her own fashion model and photography agency with help from the Enterprise Allowance Scheme.

success of the new small business. So the study offers support for the provision of advisory organisations—such as the Small Firms Service and local enterprise agencies—that help new start-ups, in particular those without family traditions of enterprise to draw on.

However, the biggest hurdle for the new business to surmount is simply coping with the basic paperwork of Schedule D income tax, National Insurance contributions paid on a different basis, and the detailed accounts required for VAT-registered small businesses. As few new businesses had any employees, PAYE was rarely a problem, but even in those cases it was far less of a problem than the owner-manager's general accounts problems. Other types of regulation and paperwork dwindled into insignificance in comparison with these three all-pervasive problems. These bookkeeping and paperwork responsibilities were felt to be onerous and resented, even when they were recognised to be indispensable functions for running the business properly.

There is some evidence that the problems connected with income tax and VAT experienced by new businesses have so far been under-estimated. This is largely due to the fact that existing sources of information give greater prominence to the views of established businesses, which are also for the most part larger and longer running, and well past the initial hurdle of learning the intricacies of VAT and business tax. One hurdle on which further information is required is the 'VAT trap'—the extent which the existence of a specific VAT turnover threshold encourages or forces small firms to stay below this turnover threshold (recently raised to £23,600) in order to avoid the problems of VAT accounts, thus acting as a barrier to business expansion and growth. This is somewhat separate, but related to the compliance costs of VAT for the small firm, and more especially for the new small firm. ■

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## Special Feature



Mussel bottling in a Danish factory—a country with a high rate of part-time women workers.

Photo: Maggie Murray/Format

### Women at work in Europe

*The potential and pitfalls of using published statistics*

by **Angela Dale** and **Judith Glover**

City University

University of Surrey

In the run up to 1992, labour force comparisons across the European Community will be of increasing interest. This article identifies main sources of international statistics and highlights the pitfalls and the potential for international analysis within the context of women's employment patterns<sup>1</sup>.

International comparisons on employment-related topics have long been a prime concern of bodies such as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the European Community (EC), and statistics are regularly compiled and published in OECD *Labour Force Statistics* and by the Statistical

Office of the European Community (SOEC) to enable such comparisons to be drawn. While the value of this comparative data is irrefutable, there are nonetheless a number of difficulties in making such comparisons which are important to recognise. This article is concerned with exploring the possibilities and problems of making international comparisons based on some of these statistics. It does this within the context of women's employment patterns. Three kinds of problem may be immediately identified:

<sup>1</sup> More detailed analysis of this topic is reported in a forthcoming Employment Department research paper. The views expressed in this article are not necessarily those of the Department.

### Conceptual difficulties

These derive from the fact that countries have different historical and ideological backgrounds which affect the meaning of concepts concerned with employment. For example, in some countries 'unpaid family workers' are included as part of the labour force while in others they are not included in labour force statistics.

### Substantive differences

Differing social and economic arrangements cause variations which affect comparative employment statistics. Age of entering and leaving the labour market, and whether or not conscription exists are factors specific to an individual country but which affect standardised statistics based upon an age range of, for example, 15-64.

### Measurement difficulties

These are present in all social research, but may affect countries differently. For example, it is acknowledged that official surveys have difficulty in measuring employment that is undeclared or 'off the cards'. If the extent of such employment varies between countries, then this measurement error will vary in strength between countries.

### Statistical sources

A priority of the EC has been to produce comparable statistics on employment and unemployment at the Community level, and to this end the Statistical Office of the European Community (SOEC) organised the first Community labour force survey of the six original Member States in 1960. From 1973 to 1981 biennial surveys were carried out and then, in 1983, the design of the survey was revised with the aim of increasing comparability between member states. In furtherance of this aim a definition of the 'labour force' was adopted which followed a recommendation from the Conference of Labour Statisticians in October 1982. The effect of this is that the Community Labour Force Surveys are comparable over time from 1983 onwards, but the changes in definition preceding the 1983 survey makes comparisons between 1983 and earlier years unreliable.

The sampling procedures used in the member states are not uniform but are determined independently by each State. However, the Council regulates the sample size which, for the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy and the UK is set at between 60,000 and 100,000 households; 30-50,000 households for Belgium, Greece, the Netherlands and Ireland, 30-40,000 households in Denmark and 10,000 households in Luxembourg. Details of the sample design for each member country at the time are contained in the Eurostat publication *Labour Force Sample Survey: Methods and Definitions*, 1985. (Spain and Portugal did not join the Community until 1986 and will be included in later editions.)

Each member state is required to send to the Statistical Office of the European Community a data tape containing the agreed information for each Labour Force Survey. These 'harmonised' surveys are then used to produce a

<sup>2</sup> There is also a certain amount of variation in male rates of civilian labour force participation, with the UK having highest levels. By examining total labour force participation rates (which include all members of the Armed Forces) for ages 15-64 it is possible to check whether this high level for the UK may be explained by the fact that it has no policy of conscription. Figures drawn from the OECD's *Labour Force Statistics* (1987) show that the UK still has the highest level of total labour force participation for men, although there is a slight narrowing of the gap between the UK and the other European Community countries.

series of publications on employment and unemployment.

The OECD also publishes an annual volume of *Labour Force Statistics* which contains an historical time series of statistics on the population and the labour force for the 24 member countries. However, the introduction to the report points out that "The standardised presentation of the tables does not imply that the series for the various countries are comparable. Important differences exist between countries in the matter of general concepts, classification and the methods used for obtaining data" (OECD's *Labour Force Statistics*, 1985).

In this article comparative data on employment patterns are drawn from both statistics published by OECD and also from the EC Labour Force Survey. For both OECD and EC data the nature of these differences will be discussed as the data are presented.

**Table 1 Male and female civilian labour-force participation rates, 1985**

	Per cent	
	Male	Female
Italy	76	41
Greece	78	42
Ireland	84	37
Luxembourg	84	43
Belgium	73	50
France	73	55
Germany	77	50
UK	87	60
Netherlands	76	41
Denmark	86	74
Spain	76	34
Portugal	85	57

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics, 1987.

### Labour force participation rates

From *table 1*, showing civilian labour force participation rates for 1985 for EC member states, it is clear that, as expected, there are considerable differences in the overall level of labour market participation between men<sup>2</sup> and women, but also substantial differences between women's rates for different countries. Within this context, a recent feature of the labour markets of most Western European countries has been a rise in levels of women's labour force participation while levels for men have remained stable or fallen.

For illustration, *figure 1* presents time series data for the UK and France from 1973 to 1983. OECD data, rather than SOEC data have been used in these figures because the former are available as a standardised time series over a longer time period and, additionally, contain data on the newer EC members, Spain and Portugal.

If the OECD maxim is adhered to—that these figures represent an approximation only—they can provide a useful backdrop to more detailed exploration of international differences. It is evident from *table 1* that while men's participation rates are relatively constant, varying between 73 and 87 per cent, women's rates are not only lower but also show greater variation, between 34 and 74 per cent. *Figure 1* illustrates the way in which men's labour force participation has fallen over time in France and the UK while women's participation has increased. This is a feature of almost all countries listed in *table 1*.

The civilian labour force rate is defined as the total number in the labour force excluding the armed forces, expressed as a percentage of the population aged 15-64. Data for the UK are obtained from the Census of Employment, with self-employed estimates from the

population census and from the Labour Force Surveys; unpaid family workers are excluded.

By contrast, data for France, for example, come from official estimates based on the 1968, 1975 and 1982 Census, on special inquiries made by the Ministry of Labour, and on the Labour Force Surveys; unpaid family workers are included.

It is immediately apparent that data drawn from such a multiplicity of sources cannot give precise statistics but, as the OECD reports make clear, should be viewed as approximations. This is a particular problem when making comparisons for women because, despite the use of standard definitions for 'employment', and 'unemployment', women are more likely to be omitted from labour force statistics when unemployed and the variety of statistical sources used in the compilation of these figures makes this problem difficult to overcome. It is also important to recognise that the civilian labour force participation rate has been calculated, in line with standard OECD methods, by expressing the number in the civilian labour force as a percentage of the total population aged 15-64. Clearly, differences over time and between nations in the age of entering the labour force and the age of retirement, will influence the results obtained.

### Female part-timers

It has been well established in the UK that women's labour force participation has risen as a result of increased numbers of women taking part-time work and this leads on to the question of whether there is a more general relationship between labour force participation rates and part-time working. *Table 2* shows the extent of part-time working for 1979-85 for those countries listed in *table 1* (with the exception of Spain and Portugal, for which equivalent data are not available).

### Male part-timers

It has been well established in the UK that women's labour force participation has risen as a result of increased numbers of women taking part-time work and this leads on to the question of whether there is a more general relationship between labour force participation rates and part-time working. *Table 2* shows the extent of part-time working for 1979-85 for those countries listed in *table 1* (with the exception of Spain and Portugal, for which equivalent data are not available).

Such a detailed exploration is possible through the use of the harmonised EC Labour Force Surveys. As discussed above, these surveys, now carried out annually,

**Table 2 Women in part-time\* employment as a percentage of all women in employment**

	Per cent				
	1979	1981	1983	1984	1985
Italy	11	10	9	10	10
Greece	-	7	12	9	10
Ireland	13	-	16	14	16
Luxembourg	18	-	18	15	16
Belgium	17	16	20	20	21
France	17	17	20	21	22
Germany	28	29	30	29	30
UK	39	40	42	44	45
Netherlands	32	49	50	-	52
Denmark	46	47	45	37	44

Source: Labour Force Sample Surveys, 1979, 1981, 1983, 1984 and 1985 (Eurostat: 1981, 1983, 1985a, 1986, 1987).

\* Part-time working is based on self-definition except for the Netherlands, which is discussed in the text.



West German hospital worker testing enzymes.

are designed to provide comparative data between the member states of the EC and therefore data collection is carried out within an agreed framework of concepts and definitions. Before discussing these figures we outline the definitions used and consider the extent to which countries are in fact comparable.

### European Labour Force Survey definitions

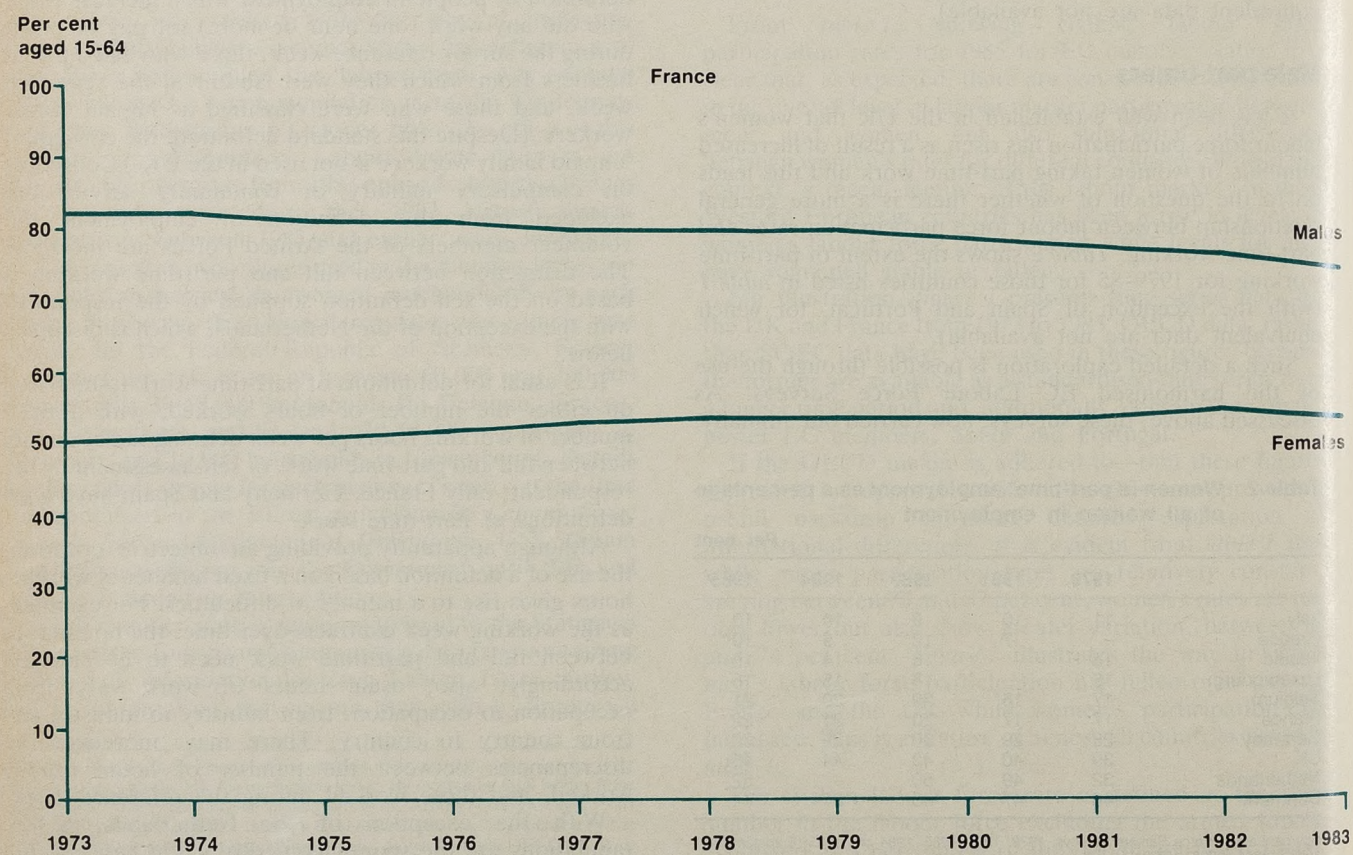
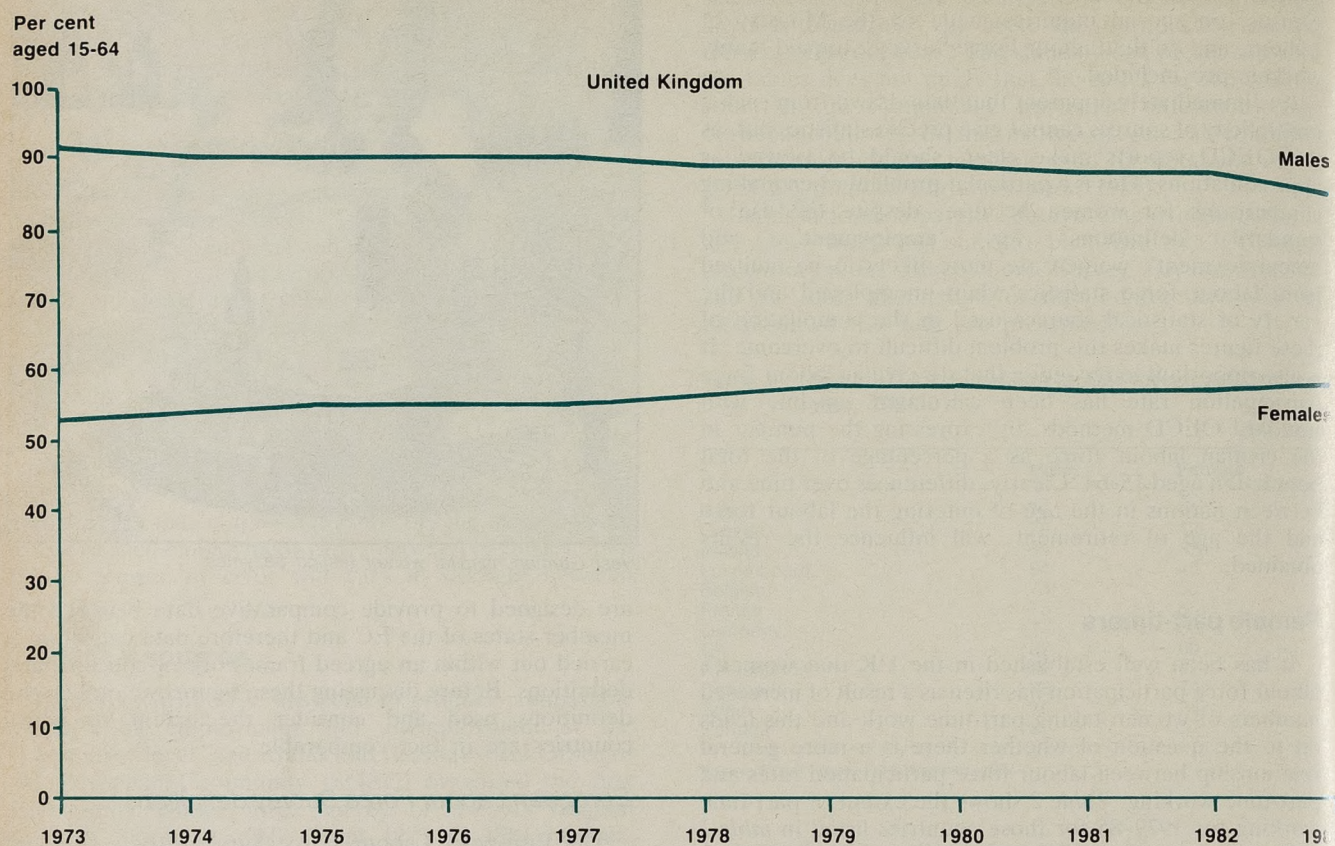
The European Labour Force Survey uses a standard definition of people in employment which includes those who did any work (one hour or more) for pay or profit during the survey reference week, those who had a job or business from which they were absent in the reference week, and those who were classified as unpaid family workers. (Despite this standard definition, the concept of 'unpaid family workers' is not used in the UK.) Conscripts on compulsory military or community service are excluded from this definition of employment but volunteer members of the Armed Forces are included. The distinction between full and part-time working is based on the self-definition supplied by the respondent with the exception of the Netherlands, which is discussed below.

It is usual for definitions of part-time work to be based on either the number of hours worked, with a fixed number of working hours per week defining the boundary between full and part-time work, or self-assessment by the respondent; only France, Germany and Spain have legal definitions of part-time work.

Although apparently providing an 'objective' criterion, the use of a definition based on a fixed number of working hours gives rise to a number of difficulties. For example, as the working week contracts over time, the boundaries between full and part-time work need to be changed accordingly; also, usual hours of work vary from occupation to occupation, from industry to industry and from country to country. There may, moreover, be discrepancies between the number of hours usually worked, and those worked during the reference week.

With the exception of the Netherlands, SOEC tabulations use the spontaneous distinction between full and part-time working given by the respondent. While this goes some way towards overcoming the problem of

Figure 1 Labour force participation: males and females, 1973-83



Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics



Cotton mill near Belfast. In the UK women have increased their labour force participation largely through part-time work.

Photo: John Sturrock/Format

comparisons between countries, there are difficulties.

Firstly, in the Netherlands, only pre-determined definitions are available, and these have the added problem of changing over time. In 1979 the criterion used was 'less than 40 work-hours a week and less than would be usual in a given job'. In 1981 this changed to simply 'less than 40 hours a week', a change which is likely to have been at least one factor explaining the considerable increase in part-time working between 1979 and 1981 (as apparent from table 2).

In the 1983 survey there was a further change to '35 hours or less for family workers and the self-employed, and contractual hours of less than 31 hours a week for employees, or between 31 and 34 hours if this is fewer than normal for the job'. This means there will be variation in the incidence of part-time working between 1979 and 1983 due solely to the definition change. However, the 1983 definition is similar in concept to that of 1979 (that is it precludes full-time workers) and, as 1983 figures show no drop in part-time working by comparison with 1981, it may be concluded that there has, in fact, been a real and substantial increase in part-time working in the Netherlands, over the period 1979-83, an increase that is not simply due to changes in the precision applied to the definition.

#### Part-time—definition danger

In the UK, only *employees* were categorised as full-time or part-time by the LFS until 1983. In 1979 and 1981 the self-employed were categorised by SOEC as full-time for tabulation purposes and this means that the percentage of part-timers is lower for these two time points than for later years. Data from the Department of Employment Historical Series, based upon employees only and defining

part-time work as not more than 30 hours a week, gives part-time figures of 41 per cent for 1979, 42 per cent for 1981 and 44 per cent for 1983; this compares with 39 per cent, 40 per cent and 41 per cent respectively using SOEC figures. Using self-definition, the Women and Employment Survey found that 44 per cent of women worked part-time in 1980. For 1984, Census of Employment figures relating to employees are 42 per cent, lower than the SOEC figures in table 2.

Even among those countries for which a self-definition of part-time working is available (all those shown in table 2, except the Netherlands), there are, nonetheless, national differences which will affect the way in which respondents apply this self-definition. For example, in Denmark a job is commonly defined as part-time if it has working hours lower than normal for that particular type of job, while in France a part-time job is usually one which occupies fewer than 30 hours a week. These differences are likely to colour a spontaneous response.

#### Compare with caution

Comparisons over time and between countries need, therefore, to be made with caution; for example, the reported figure of 37 per cent for Denmark in 1984 is more likely to be due to a change in reporting or definitions than in a real fluctuation in the percentage of employed women working part-time between 1983 and 1985. Nonetheless, it is possible to draw some general conclusions about the nature of part-time work, its growth over time, and its relative importance in different countries. Table 2 shows evidence of some increase in levels of female part-time working from 1979 to 1985 in Belgium, France, the UK and the Netherlands. However, in 1985, only the UK, the Netherlands and Denmark had



Figure 2 Total, full-time and part-time female employed workforce participation rates, 1984

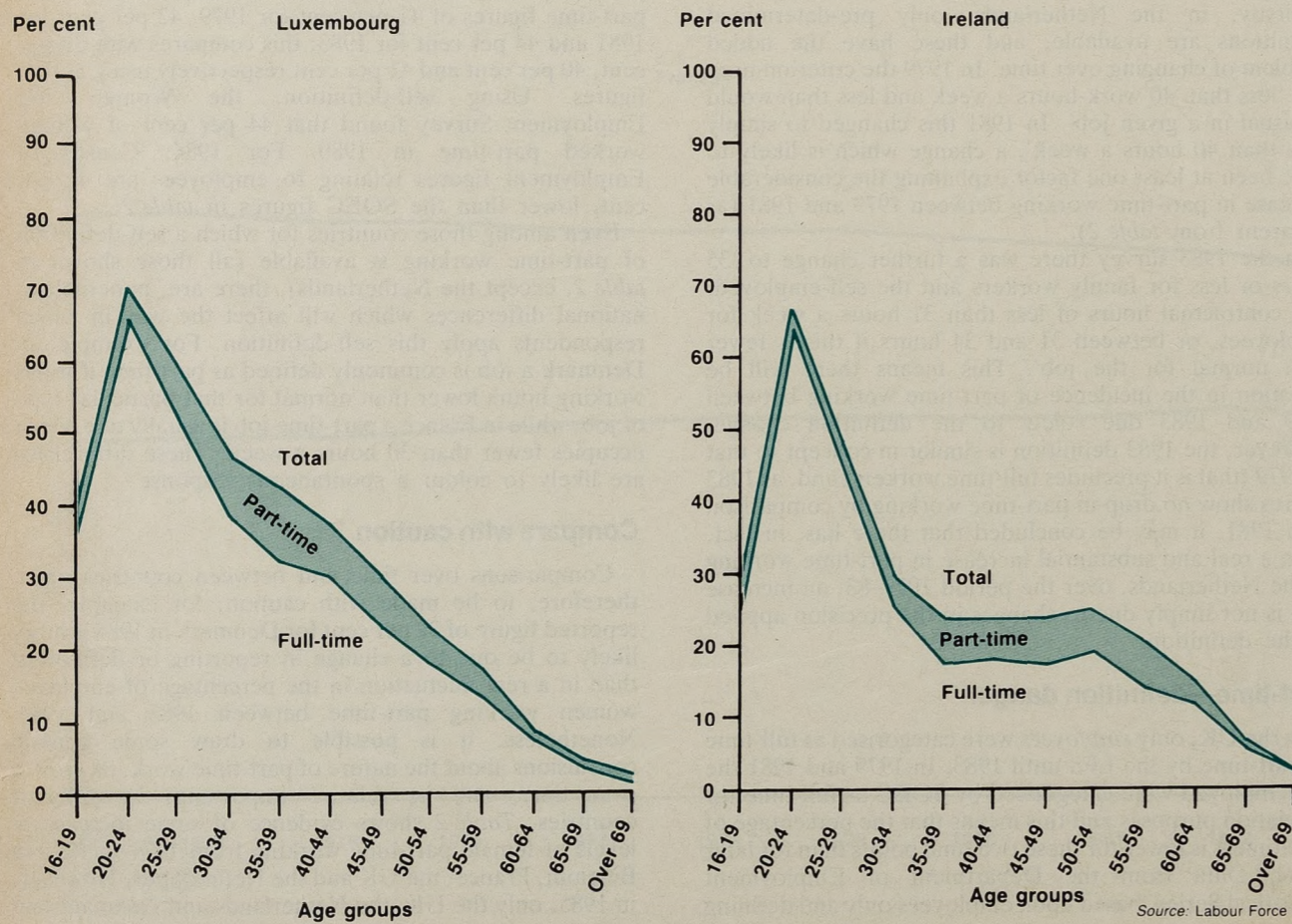
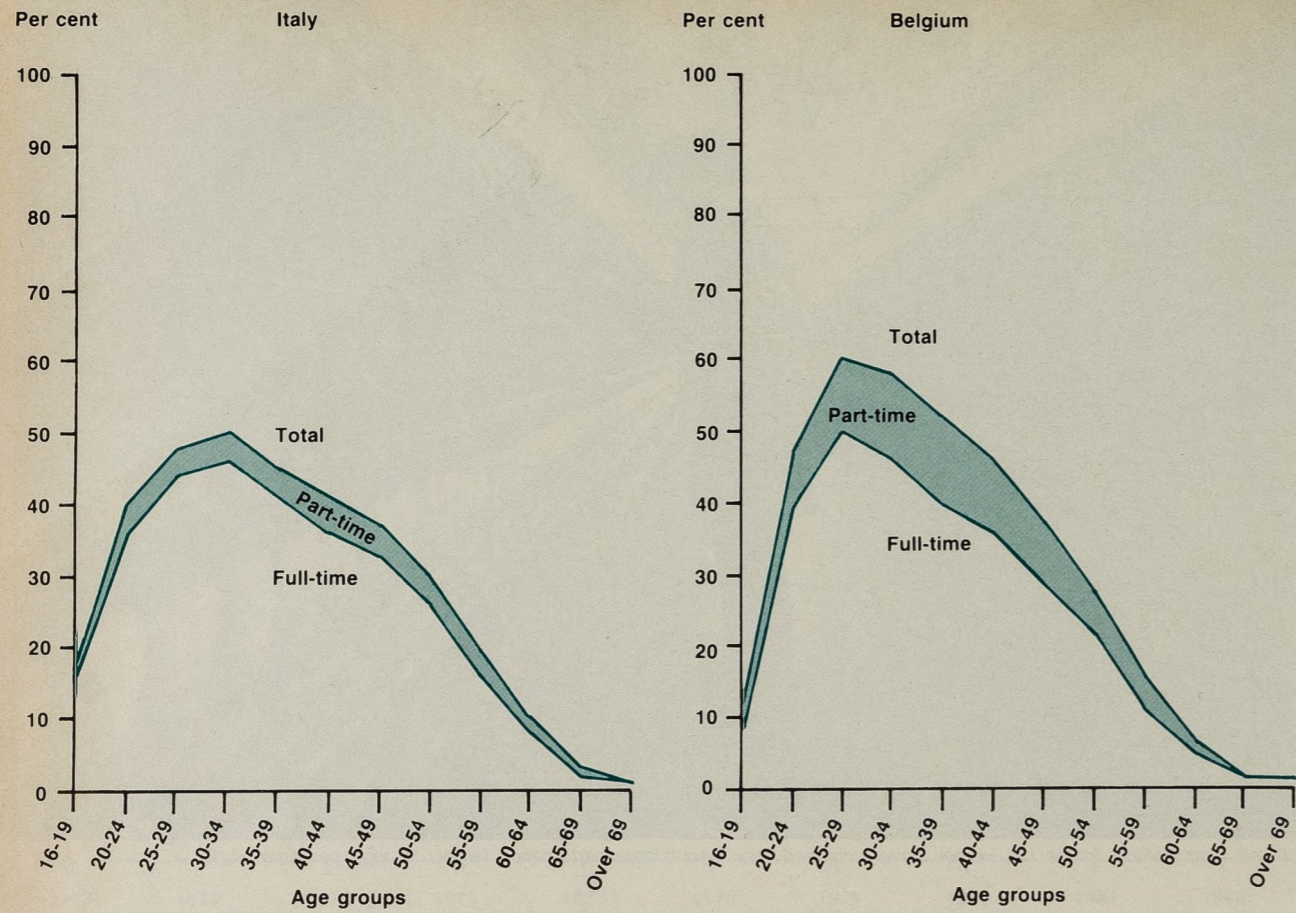
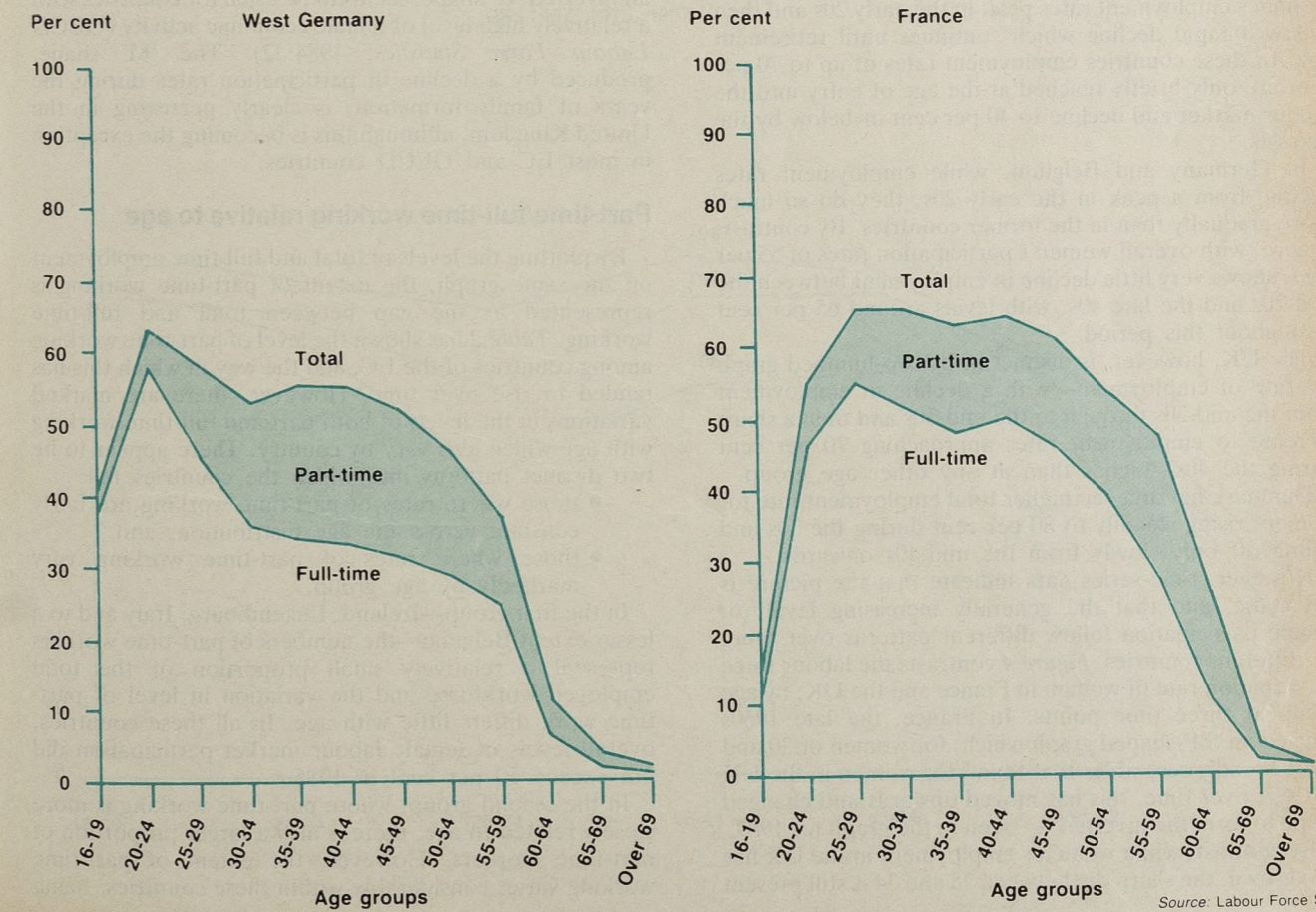
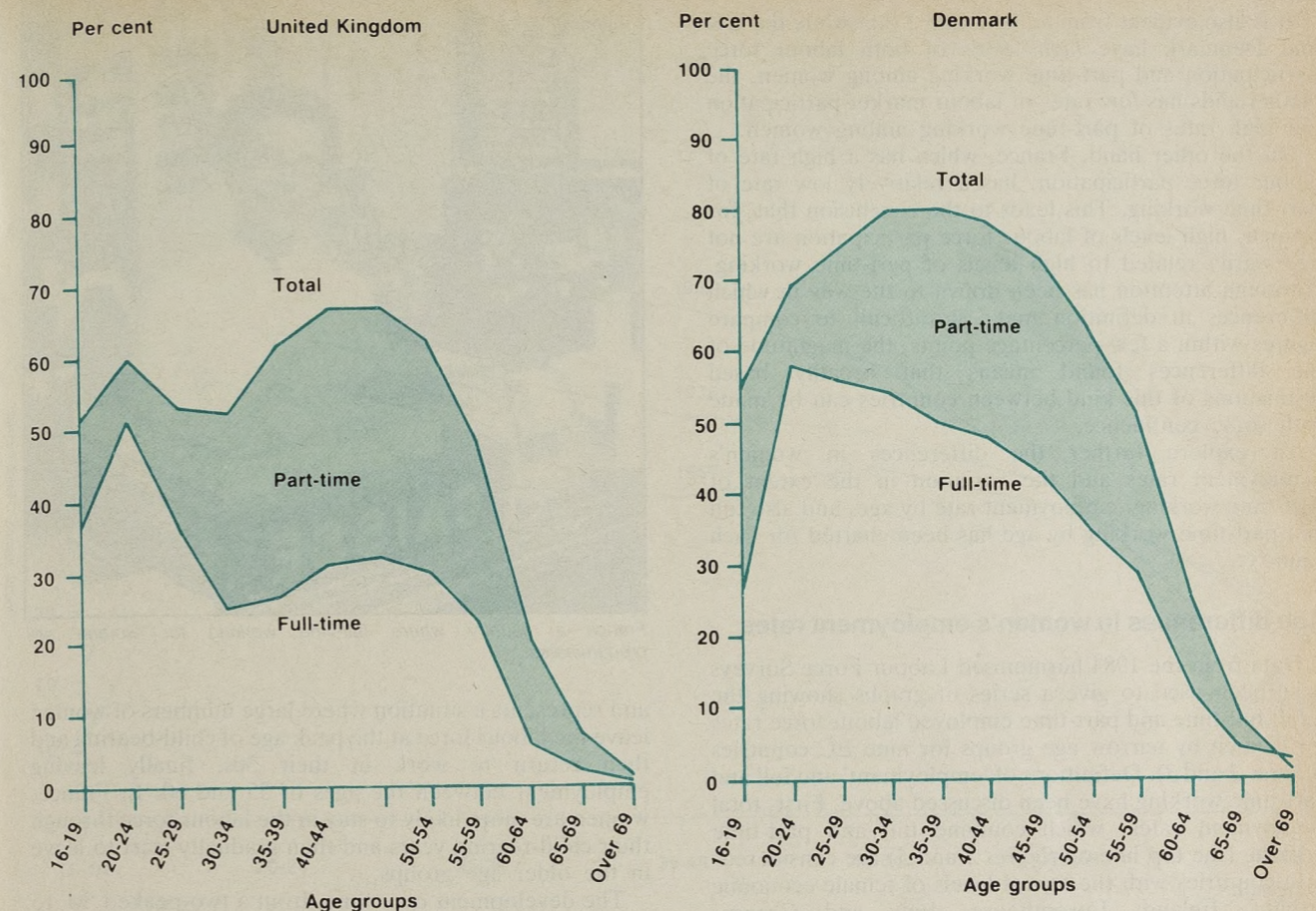


Figure 3 Total, full-time and part-time female employed workforce participation rates, 1984



more than 40 per cent of employed women in part-time work.

It is also evident from *tables 1* and *2* that while the UK and Denmark have *high* levels of both labour force participation and part-time working among women, the Netherlands has *low* rates of labour market participation but high rates of part-time working among women.

On the other hand, France, which has a high rate of labour force participation, has a relatively low rate of part-time working. This leads to the conclusion that, for women, high levels of labour force participation are not necessarily related to high levels of part-time working. Although attention has been drawn to the way in which differences in definition make it difficult to compare figures within a few percentage points, the magnitude of the differences found means that broadly based distinctions of this kind between countries can be made with some confidence.

To explore further the differences in women's employment rates and the variation in the extent of part-time working, employment rate by age, and also full and part-time working by age has been charted for each country.

#### Age differences in women's employment rates

Data from the 1984 harmonised Labour Force Surveys have been used to give a series of graphs showing the total, full-time and part-time employed labour force rates for women by narrow age groups for nine EC countries (*figures 2* and *3*). Definitions of 'employment' and full and part-time working have been discussed above. First, total employment rates, which combine full and part-time working (the top line on *figures 2* and *3*) are considered.

In countries with the lowest levels of female economic activity, Ireland, Luxembourg, Italy and Greece, women's employment rates peak in the early 20s and then follow a rapid decline which continues until retirement age. In these countries employment rates of up to 70 per cent are only briefly reached at the age of entry into the labour market and decline to 40 per cent or below by the mid-40s.

In Germany and Belgium, while employment rates decline from a peak in the early 20s, they do so much more gradually than in the former countries. By contrast, France, with overall women's participation rates of 55 per cent, shows very little decline in employment between the mid-20s and the late 40s, with levels around 65 per cent throughout this period.

The UK, however, is distinct in its two-humped graph for rate of employment—with a decline in employment from the mid-20s through to the mid-30s and then a sharp increase to employment rates approaching 70 per cent during the 40s—higher than at any other age group.

Denmark has an even higher total employment rate for women: rising steadily to 80 per cent during the 30s and falling off only slowly from the mid-40s onwards.

However, time-series data indicate that the picture is not static, and that the generally increasing levels of female participation follow different patterns over time, for different countries. *Figure 4* contrasts the labour force participation rate of women in France and the UK, by age group at three time points. In France, the late 1960s showed an 'M'-shaped graph which, for women of 20 and over, broadly resembles that found for women in the UK in 1987; over time, this has moved upwards and changed shape to form the inverted 'U' seen in the graph for 1987.

By contrast, while women's employment in the UK has also grown, the sharp dip between 25 and 34 is still present



France—a country where full-time working for women still predominates..

and represents a situation where large numbers of women leave the labour force at the peak age of child-bearing and then return to work in their 30s, finally leaving employment between the ages of 55 and 60. In France, women are more likely to stay in the labour force through their child-rearing years and then gradually start to leave in the older age groups.

The development over time, from a two-peaked 'M' to an inverted 'U' shape, seems to be usual for countries with a relatively high level of female economic activity (OECD *Labour Force Statistics*, 1984:22). The 'M' shape, produced by a decline in participation rates during the years of family formation, is clearly persisting in the United Kingdom, although this is becoming the exception in most EC and OECD countries.

#### Part-time/full-time working relative to age

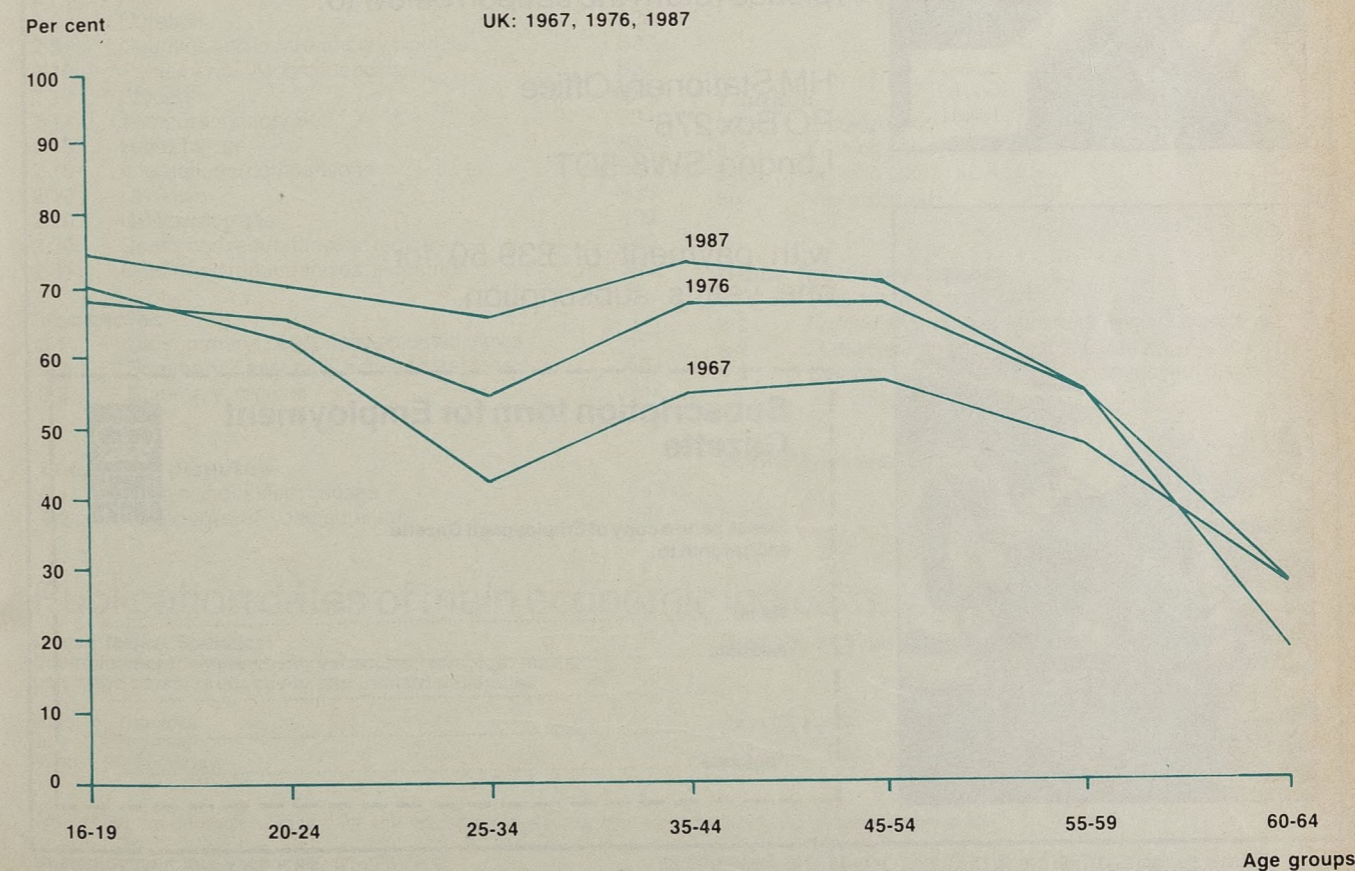
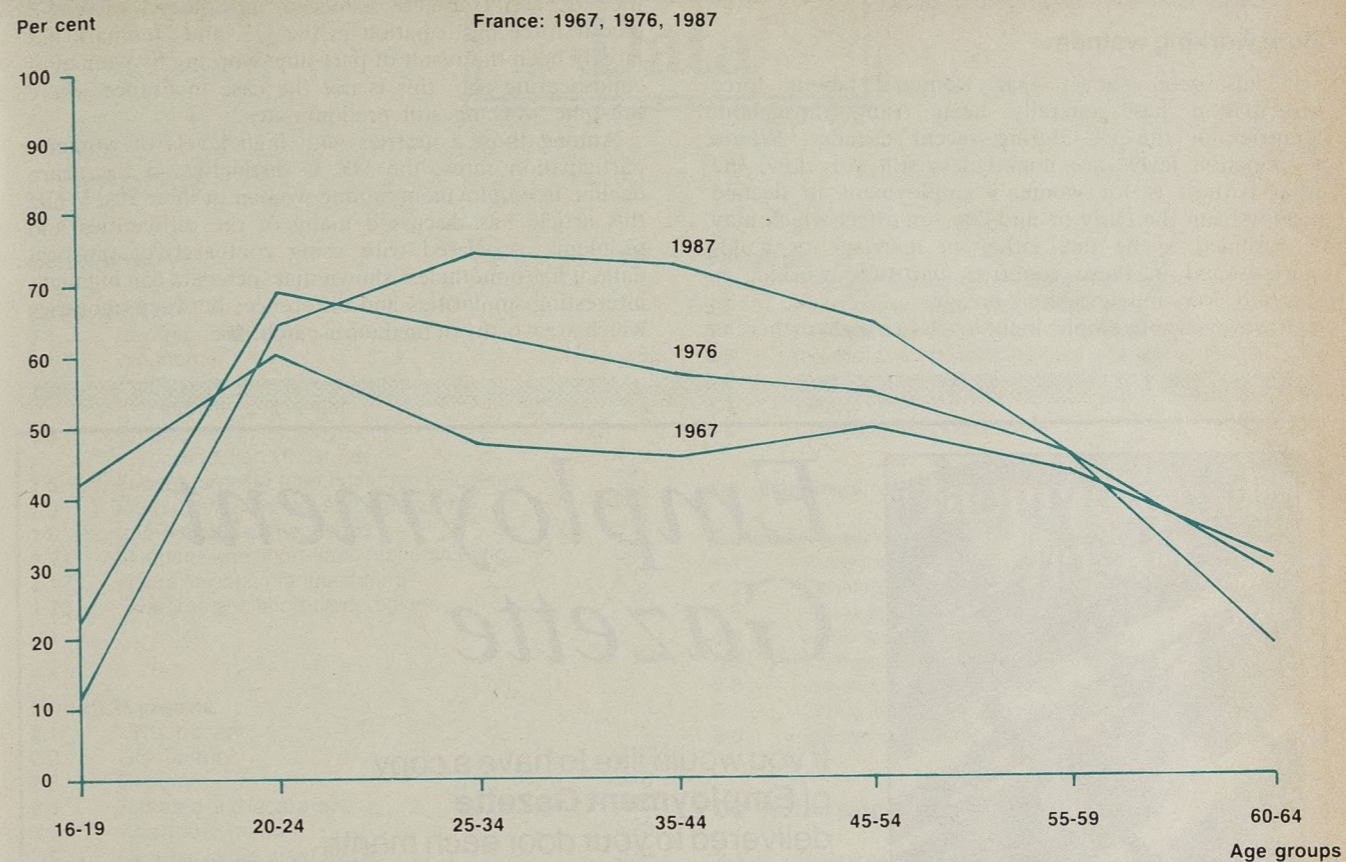
By plotting the levels of total and full-time employment on the same graph, the extent of part-time working is represented as the gap between total and full-time working. *Table 2* has shown the level of part-time working among countries of the EC, and the way in which this has tended to rise over time. However, there are marked variations in the levels of both part and full-time working with age which also vary by country. There appear to be two distinct patterns into which the countries fall:

- those where rates of part-time working are fairly constant across the age distribution; and
- those where rates of part-time working vary markedly by age group.

In the first group—Ireland, Luxembourg, Italy and to a lesser extent Belgium—the numbers of part-time workers represent a relatively small proportion of the total employed workforce and the variation in level of part-time work differs little with age. In all these countries, overall levels of female labour market participation did not exceed 50 per cent in 1985.

In the second group, where part-time working is more closely related to age, there is also a larger proportion of part-time workers. However, the extent of part-time working varies considerably within these countries, being

Figure 4 Female civilian labour force, by age



Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics 1965-85 and 1966-86  
JUNE 1989 EMPLOYMENT GAZETTE 307

particularly high in the United Kingdom and Denmark, somewhat lower in Germany, and considerably lower in France.

### More working women

It has been shown that women's labour force participation has generally been rising throughout countries of the EC during recent decades. Where participation levels are nonetheless still very low, the usual pattern is for women's employment to decline steadily from the early or mid-20s—an effect which may be assumed to be due either to marriage or child-bearing—and in these countries part-time working is generally low and unrelated to age.

However, where employment levels are higher, there is

also more likely to be a greater degree of part-time working, although considerable variation is found—as evident from the difference in patterns shown by France, the UK and Denmark. Thus while women's increased labour force participation in the UK and Denmark has largely been the result of part-time working by women of child-bearing age, this is not the case in France where full-time working still predominates.

Among those countries with high levels of women's participation rates, the UK is distinctive in the sharp decline in employment among women in their 20s. While this article has discussed many of the difficulties and problems associated with using comparative statistical data, it has nonetheless shown that such data can highlight interesting similarities and differences between countries which are worthy of further research. ■

# Labour Market Data

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Labour Market Statistics:  
Unemployment, employment, vacancies, earnings, hours,  
unit wage costs, productivity and industrial disputes

June 15, Thursday  
July 13, Thursday  
August 17, Thursday

Retail Prices Index

June 16, Friday  
July 14, Friday  
August 18, Friday

Tourism

July 5, Wednesday  
August 2, Wednesday  
August 30, Wednesday

After 11.30 am on each release date, the main figures are available from the following telephone numbers:

Unemployment and vacancies: 01-273 5532.  
Retail Prices Index: 0923 815281 (Ansafone Service).  
Tourism: 01-273 5507

Employment and hours: 0928 715151 ext. 2570 (Ansafone Service).  
Average Earnings Index: 0923 815208/815214

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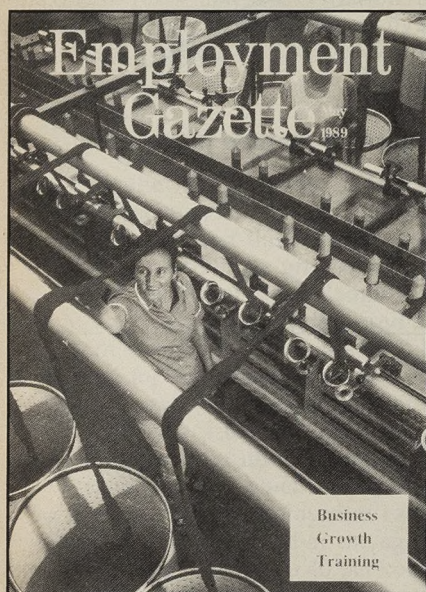


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Trends in labour statistics

Summary

Manufacturing employment (seasonally adjusted) is estimated to have fallen by 8,000 in March. This follows a fall of 7,000 in February and a rise of 10,000 in January. Over the year to March 1989 the estimated number in employment in manufacturing fell by 3,000.

The workforce in employment in the United Kingdom rose by an estimated 143,000 (seasonally adjusted) in the fourth quarter of 1988, and by 641,000 in the year to December 1988.

Unemployment in the UK (seasonally adjusted) fell sharply by more than 60,000 between March and April, to reach 1,856,400, the lowest level since December 1980. The unemployment rate fell to 6.5 per cent of the workforce. Unemployment has now fallen by 1.277 million over 33 consecutive

months since the peak in July 1986.

The underlying increase in average earnings in the year to March 1989 was 9 1/4 per cent (provisional estimate). This is the same as the rate for the year to February.

Latest productivity figures for the whole economy show that output per head in the fourth quarter of 1988 was 1/2 per cent higher than in the corresponding quarter of 1987. Within the manufacturing sector, productivity growth rates in recent months have been close to 6 per cent per annum.

The annual rate of price inflation was 8.0 per cent in April, compared with 7.9 per cent for March. The rate excluding mortgage interest payments rose from 5.7 per cent to 5.9 per cent.

It is provisionally estimated that 2.9 million working days were lost through stoppages of work due to industrial disputes in the 12 months to March 1989. This compares with 2.5 million days lost

in the previous 12-month period, and an annual average of 10.2 million days over the ten-year period ending March 1988.

Overseas residents made an estimated 890,000 visits to the United Kingdom in February 1989, while United Kingdom residents made about 1.57 million visits abroad.

Economic background

The latest estimates of *Gross Domestic Product* (GDP) suggest that the level of economic activity in 1988 was 4 per cent higher than in 1987. Between 1987 and 1988 the expenditure measure of GDP at constant factor cost rose 2 1/2 per cent while the income based measure and the output based measure both increased by 4 1/2 per cent. The average measure, which is the Central Statistical Office's preferred measure for comparisons of a year or more,

increased by 4 per cent between these two years. In the fourth quarter of 1988 the average measure of GDP at constant factor cost was 3 per cent higher than in the fourth quarter of 1987 and 1/2 per cent higher than in the third quarter of 1988. The estimates of the average measure were calculated in the usual way as the average of the three independent GDP measures, including the expenditure measure which, exceptionally, was excluded when the average measure for the third quarter of 1988 was first calculated last December.

*Output of the production industries* in the first quarter of 1989 is provisionally estimated to have fallen by 1 1/2 per cent compared with the previous quarter but was still 1 per cent higher than in the same period a year earlier. *Manufacturing output* in the first quarter was 1/2 per cent higher than in the previous quarter and 6 1/2 per cent higher than in the same period a year earlier. Within manufacturing, between the two latest quarters, there were increases of 3 per cent in the output of the chemicals and 'other manufacturing' industries, and 2 per cent in the output of the metals industry and of 'other minerals'. The output of the engineering and allied industries and of food, drink and tobacco fell by 1 per cent. The output of the textiles and clothing. Output of the energy sector in the first quarter, which was affected by the loss of production from Piper Alpha, its associated fields and other interruptions to oil extraction fell by 7 per cent compared with the previous quarter and was 12 per cent lower than in the corresponding period a year earlier.

Preliminary estimates suggest that in the first quarter of 1989 *consumers' expenditure* was 1/2 per cent above the level of the fourth quarter of 1988 and 4 1/2 per cent above the same period last year. The provisional estimate of the rebased seasonally adjusted index of the volume of *retail sales* in April 1989 was 120.9 (1985 = 100), below the levels in February and March. In the three months February to April the level of sales was more than 1 per cent above that in the previous three months (after seasonal adjustment) and 4 per cent higher than in the corresponding period a year earlier.

The provisional estimate of *capital expenditure* by the manufacturing, construction,

distribution and financial industries in the first quarter of 1989 was nearly 3 per cent higher than in the preceding quarter, and over 16 per cent higher than in the first quarter of 1988. (The series has been revised since the publication of figures for the fourth quarter of 1988.) Within the total, investment (including leased assets) by manufacturing industry rose by nearly 5 per cent between the latest two quarters, and was more than 8 1/2 per cent higher than in the first quarter of 1988. Investment by the construction, distribution and financial industries was 1 1/2 per cent higher than in the previous quarter, and over 20 per cent higher than in the first quarter of 1988.

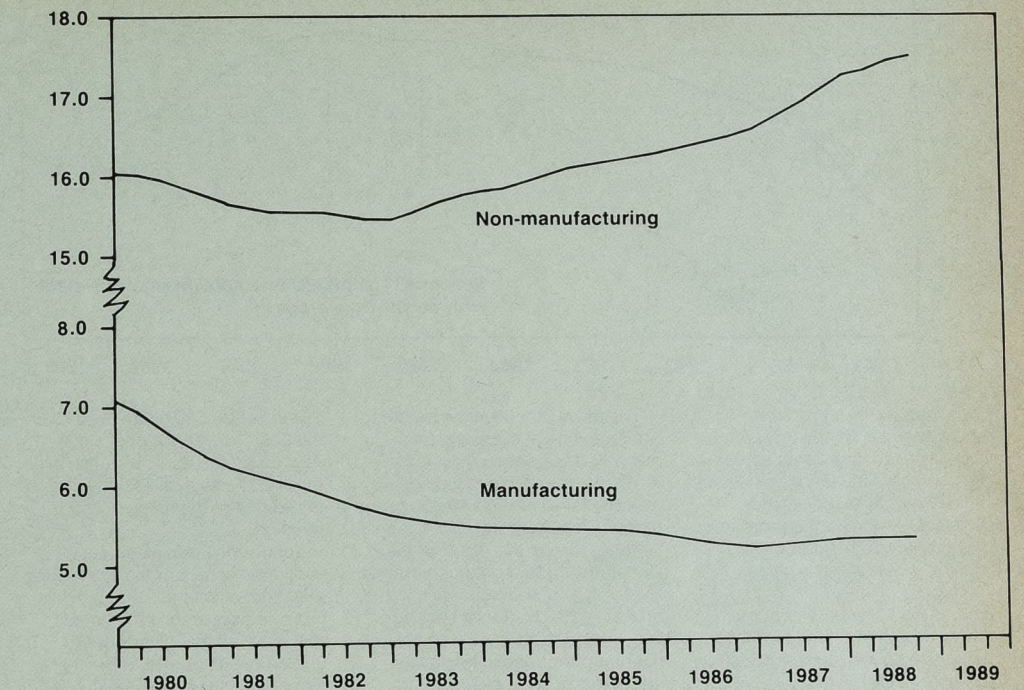
Provisional figures indicate that the level of *stocks held by manufacturers, wholesalers and retailers* fell by £108 million, at 1985 prices and seasonally adjusted, in the first quarter of 1989. Retailers and wholesalers reduced their stocks by £267 million and £46 million respectively, while the stock level of the manufacturing sector rose by £205 million.

First quarter figures for other industries are not yet available. During 1988 as a whole the level of stocks held by UK industry (all sectors) rose by £1,964 million at 1985 prices—over 2 per cent of the level at the start of the year.

The current account of the *balance of payments* in the first quarter of 1989 is estimated to have been in deficit by £4.5 billion, compared with a £5.5 billion deficit in the previous quarter. Visible trade in the same period was in deficit by £6.0 billion, following a £6.3 billion deficit in the previous period. In the latest quarter a surplus on trade in oil of £0.2 billion was offset by a deficit on non-oil trade of £6.2 billion. The volume of exports rose by 4 per cent in the

MANUFACTURING AND NON-MANUFACTURING EMPLOYEES IN EMPLOYMENT: United Kingdom

Million Seasonally adjusted



first quarter of 1989, to a level 4 1/2 per cent higher than the corresponding quarter a year earlier. The volume of imports rose by 4 1/2 per cent in the first quarter of 1989, and was 18 per cent higher than a year earlier.

The *Public Sector Borrowing Requirement* (PSBR), not seasonally adjusted, in April 1989 is provisionally estimated to have been minus £0.8 billion (that is, a net debt repayment). Privatisation proceeds were £1.7 billion, comprising the third instalment of the BP share sale and the 1989 British Gas debenture payment. PSBR excluding privatisation

proceeds is provisionally estimated to have been £1.0 billion. In April 1988 the PSBR was minus £1.1 billion, and £0.7 billion excluding privatisation proceeds.

Sterling's effective exchange rate index (ERI) for April 1989 fell by 1/2 per cent to 95.4 (1985 = 100). The currency fell by 1/2 per cent against both the \$US and the deutschemerk but rose by 1/2 per cent against the yen. ERI was 2 per cent lower than in the corresponding month a year ago; over the period, sterling rose by 1 1/2 per cent against the deutschemerk but fell by 9 1/2 per cent against the \$US and by 4 per cent against the yen.

The UK *base lending rate* increased by 1 percentage point to 14 per cent on May 24, 1989. It was 9 per cent on February 1, 1988, fell to a trough of 7 1/2 per cent by May 17, and then increased to reach 13 per cent on November 25, 1988 before moving to its present level.

Employment

In line with the new practice adopted in the monthly labour market statistics press notice, the presentation of employment statistics in this commentary will in future be on a United Kingdom basis where possible. However, the new figures available this month relate to employees in the production industries in Great Britain only for the first quarter of 1989.

The number of employees employed in manufacturing

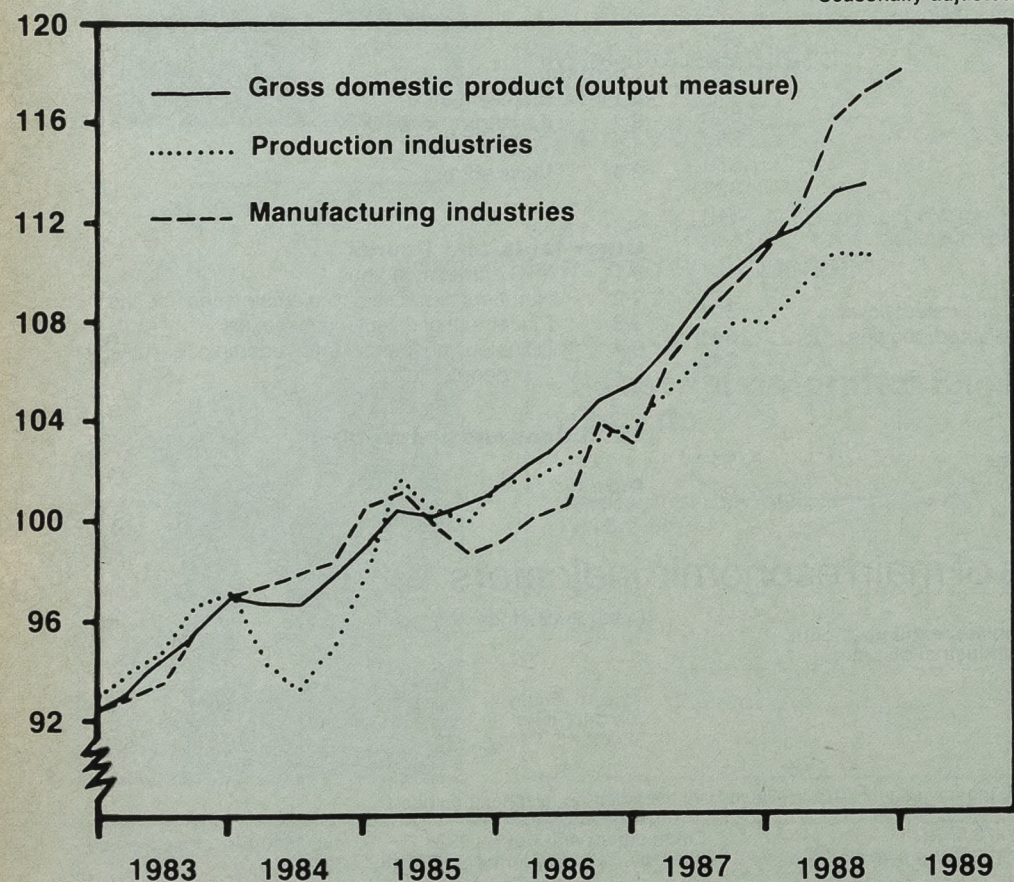
industry in Great Britain is estimated to have fallen by 8,000 in March. This follows a fall of 7,000 in February and a rise of 10,000 in January, giving a net fall of 5,000 over the quarter. Over the year to March 1989, the estimated number in employment in manufacturing industries fell by 3,000, compared with a rise of 97,000 in the previous 12 months and a fall of 151,000 in the year to March 1987.

Figures for *employees in the rest of the economy and the workforce in employment* (which comprises employees in employment, self-employed people, members of HM Forces and participants in work-related government training programmes) in the United Kingdom remain essentially as reported last month except for small revisions reflecting both some late data now available for employment in the service sector and recent changes in the seasonal pattern. The estimated increase in the workforce in employment was 143,000 in the fourth quarter of 1988, 641,000 in the year to December 1988 and 2,951,000 between March 1983 (when the upward trend began) and December 1988.

*Overtime working* in manufacturing industries in Great Britain fell a little, to an estimated 13.80 million hours per week in March, giving an average for the first quarter of 1989 of 14.22 million hours per week, compared with 14.66 million hours per week in the fourth quarter of 1988 and 13.69 million hours per week in the first quarter of 1988. The estimates of overtime working in January and February have been revised

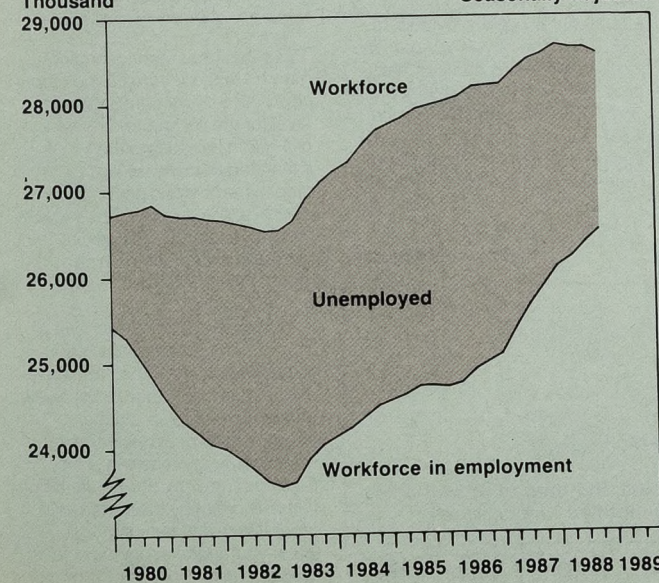
OUTPUT INDICES

1985 = 100

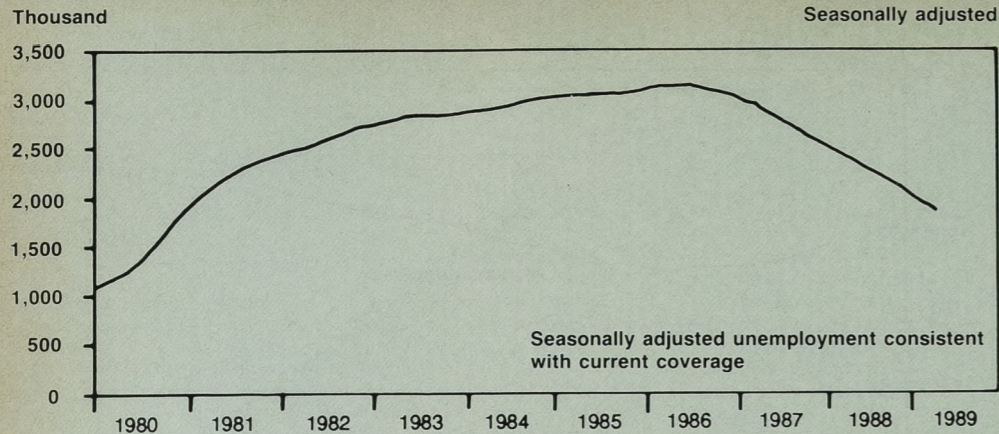


WORKFORCE AND WORKFORCE IN EMPLOYMENT: United Kingdom

Thousand Seasonally adjusted



## UNEMPLOYMENT: United Kingdom



downwards in the light of the results from the March survey, which is based on a larger sample. It now appears that overtime hours worked have fallen back to the levels seen in the third quarter of 1988 following the exceptionally high levels during the winter months.

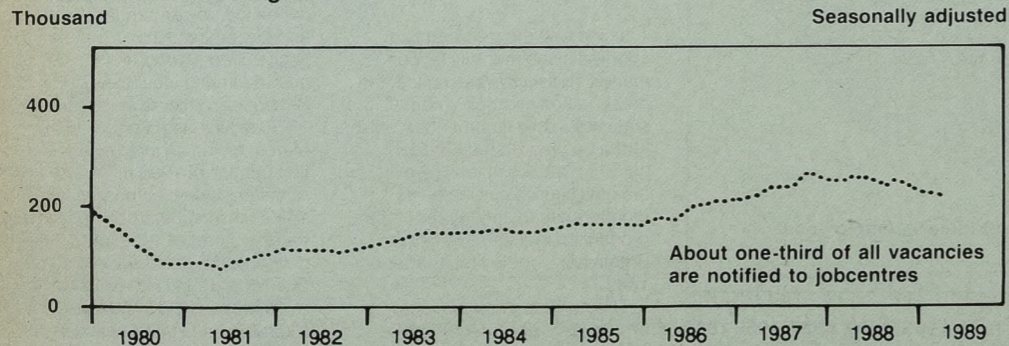
Hours lost through *short-time working* in manufacturing in Great Britain remain low, at 0.30 million hours per week in March.

The *index of average weekly hours* worked by operatives in manufacturing industries in Great Britain (which takes account of overtime and short-time working as well as normal basic hours) was estimated at 100.9 for March (1985 = 100), giving an average over the first quarter of 1989 of 101.3. This compares with an average of 101.5 in the fourth quarter of 1988 and 101.2 in the first quarter of 1988.

## Unemployment and vacancies

The *seasonally adjusted level of unemployment* in the United Kingdom fell sharply, by a further 60,200 between March and April to 1,856,400, 6.5 per cent of the total workforce. On a consistent basis, the continuous fall since July 1986 has now reached 1,277,000 over 33 consecutive months, the longest and largest sustained fall since the Second World War. Long-term unemployment has now fallen to its lowest level for over eight years.

## VACANCIES: United Kingdom



remain high relative to recent years and, at this level, some reduction in vacancies is not inconsistent with continuing falls in unemployment.

## Average earnings

The underlying rate of increase in *average earnings* in the year to March 1989 was 9¼ per cent (provisional estimate). This is the same as the rate for the year to February.

In the *production industries* the provisional underlying increase in average earnings in the year to March was 9¼ per cent, the same as the figure for the year to February (the provisional February figure has been revised down by ¼ percentage point in the light of later data). Within this sector the underlying annual increase for *manufacturing* was 9 per cent, the same as the (revised) February figure. Separate data on overtime working in manufacturing show that overtime has returned to the levels that prevailed before last winter's exceptionally high figures, but as overtime remains higher than a year earlier, it continues to be a small contributing factor to the increase in average manufacturing earnings.

The actual increases in average earnings for production and manufacturing were below the underlying rate because a number of annual settlements usually occurring in March had yet to be paid and because the actual index in March 1988 reflected a large amount of arrears of pay.

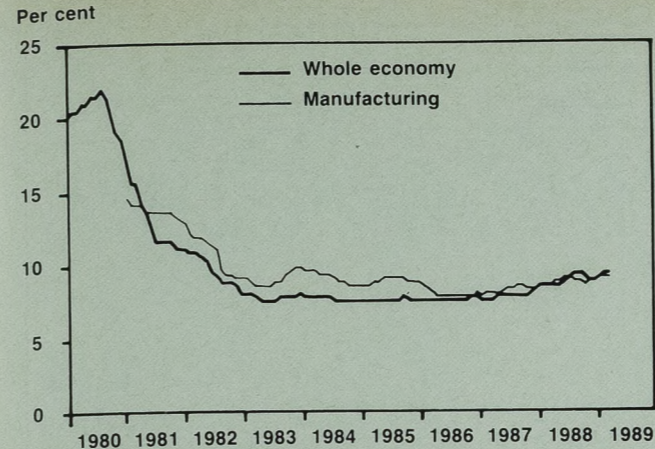
In the *service industries* the provisional estimate for the underlying increase in average earnings in the 12 months to March was 9 per cent, the same as for the years to February and January.

## Productivity and unit wage costs

For the three months ending March 1989, *manufacturing output* was over 6½ per cent above the level for the corresponding period of 1988, a little above the estimated trend level. With employment levels up by ½ per cent over the last year, *productivity* continues to grow less quickly than output, and over the past six months the annual rate of interest has been close to 6 per cent.

*Wages and salaries per unit of output in manufacturing* in the three months to March 1989 were about 3 per cent higher than a year earlier. Over this period the average level of actual earnings in manufacturing (seasonally adjusted) grew by 9¼ per cent but this was offset by the increase in productivity of 6 per cent. The latest figure for unit wage costs growth is in line with the current

## AVERAGE EARNINGS INDEX—UNDERLYING: Increases over previous year



trend rate of growth of 3 to 3½ per cent per annum.

Latest productivity figures for the *whole economy* are unchanged from those given last month and show that *output per head* in the fourth quarter of 1988 was ½ per cent higher than in the same quarter of 1987. Output rose by 3 per cent in the year to the fourth quarter of 1988, but this was accompanied by a 2½ per cent increase in the employed labour force. It is estimated that the growth in output and productivity would have been half a percentage point higher but for the loss of output due to the Piper Alpha disaster and other recent oil industry interruptions.

Whole economy productivity for the year 1988 was 1.1 per cent up on 1987. The average annual increase for the period 1980-88 was 2.5 per cent, and still compares favourably with that achieved in the 1960s and 1970s.

*Unit wage cost figures* for the whole economy, for the fourth quarter of 1988, show an increase of almost 8½ per cent over the fourth quarter of 1987, the highest rate of increase since the second quarter of 1981. Wages and

salaries per head rose by about 8¾ per cent in the year to the fourth quarter of 1988, and this was only slightly offset by the ½ per cent increase in whole economy productivity.

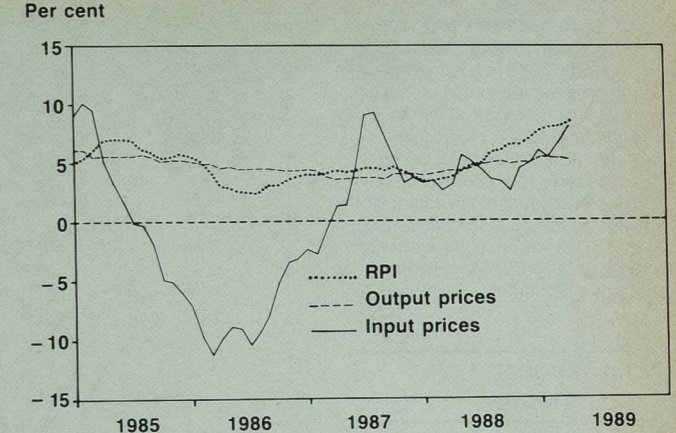
## Prices

The *annual rate of inflation*, as measured by the 12-month change in the Retail Prices Index, was 8.0 per cent for April, compared with the 7.9 per cent recorded for March. The rate excluding mortgage interest payments rose from 5.7 per cent to 5.9 per cent.

Between March and April the overall level of prices increased by around 1.8 per cent, compared with an increase of 1.6 per cent over the corresponding months last year. The annual increases in local authority rates, rent, and water charges were greater than last year. Petrol, food, and clothing prices also rose.

The annual increase in the price index for *home sales of manufactured products* is provisionally estimated at 5.0 per

## RETAIL PRICES INDEX AND MANUFACTURERS' SELLING AND INPUT PRICES: Increases over previous year



cent for April. The annual rate of increase in the index has been around 5 per cent since last summer.

Prices for *materials and fuels purchased by manufacturing industry* are provisionally estimated to have risen, on average, 7.8 per cent in the year to April after having risen 6.9 per cent in the year to March.

The *Tax and Price Index* increased 8.3 per cent in the year to April, compared with 6.1 per cent in the year to March.

## Industrial disputes

It is provisionally estimated that 73,000 *working days were lost through stoppages of work due to industrial disputes* in March 1989. This figure compares with 63,000 working days lost in February 1989, 259,000 lost in March 1988, and an average of 943,000 for March during the ten-year period 1979-88.

In the 12 months to March 1989 a provisional total of 2.9 million

working days were lost, compared to 2.5 million days in the previous 12 months and an annual average over the ten-year period ending March 1988 of 10.2 million days. Included in the figure for the latest 12-month period are 1.2 million days lost by postal workers, and 0.8 million days in the shipbuilding industry.

During the 12 months to March 1989 a provisional total of 681 *stoppages* has been recorded as being in progress; this figure is expected to be revised upwards because of late notifications. The figure compares with 976 stoppages over the 12 months to March 1988 and an annual average over the ten-year period ending March 1988 of 1,427 stoppages in progress.

## Overseas travel and tourism

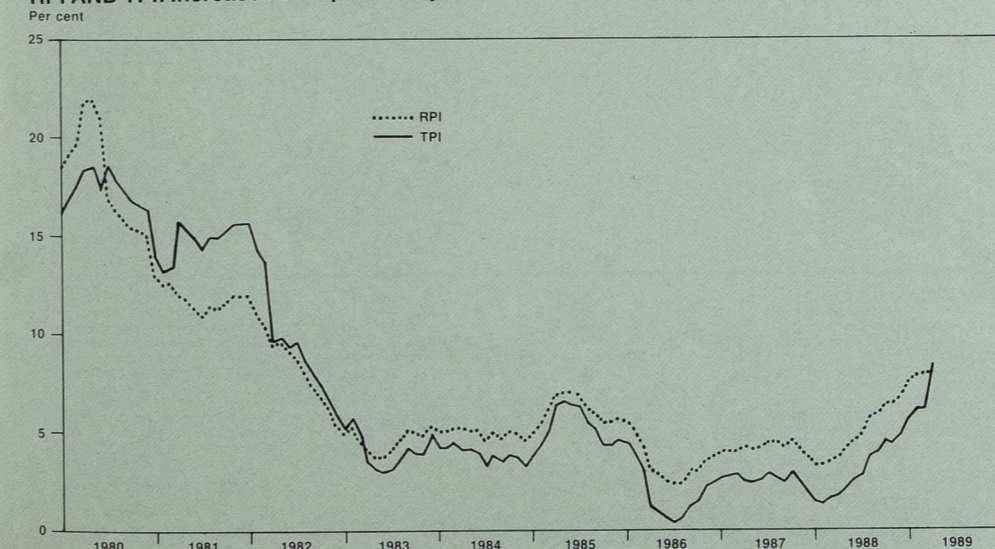
It is provisionally estimated that overseas residents made 890,000 *visits to the UK* in February 1989, of which 580,000 were by Western European residents, 140,000 by North American residents and 170,000 by residents of other areas.

In the same month an estimated 1.67 million *visits abroad* were made by UK residents. This total was made up of 1.21 million visits to Western Europe, 100,000 visits to North America and 260,000 visits to other parts of the world.

Overseas residents spent an estimated £300 million in the UK in February 1989, while UK residents spent £505 million abroad. This resulted in an estimated deficit of £205 million on the *travel account of the balance of payments* for the month.

Estimates for the 12-month period March 1988 to February 1989, indicate that overseas residents made 15.9 million visits to the UK, 2 per cent more than in the period March 1987 to February 1988. UK residents made an estimated 29.2 million visits abroad

## RPI AND TPI: Increases over previous year





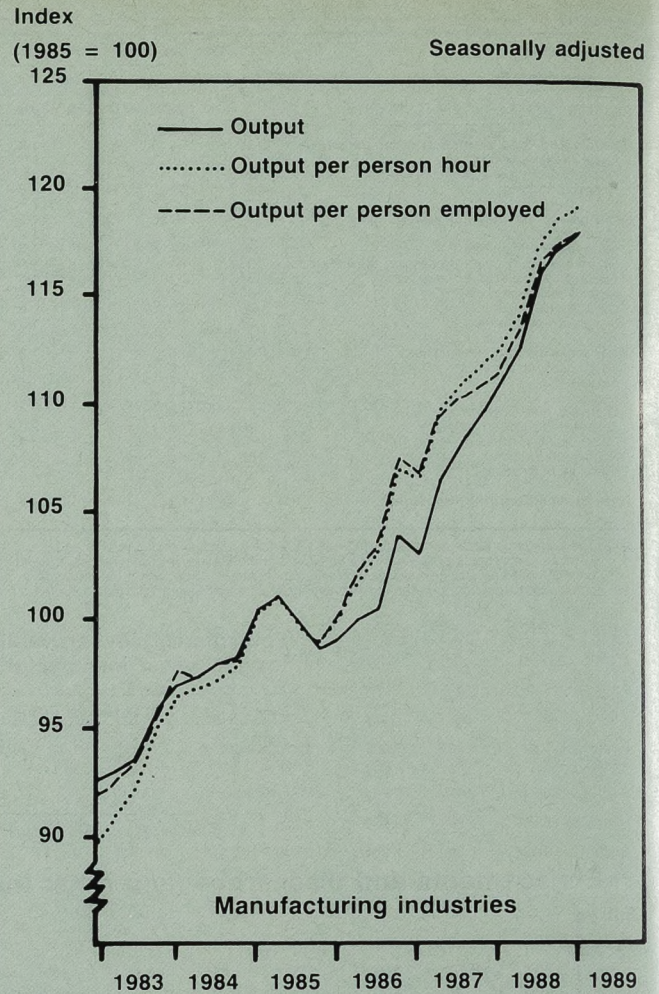
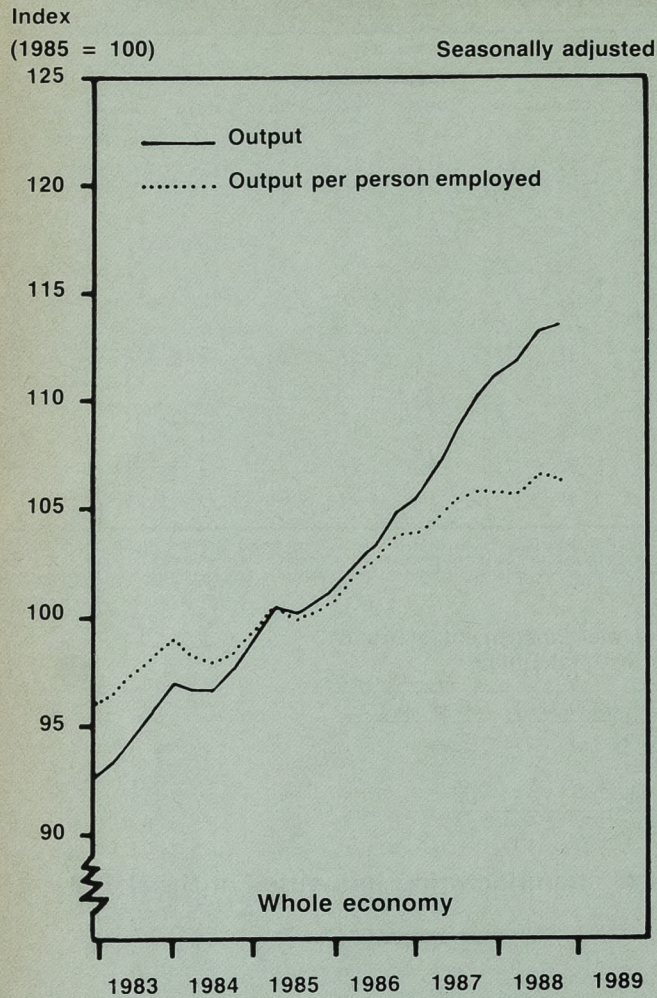






# 1.8 EMPLOYMENT

## Indices of output, employment and productivity



Source: Central Statistical Office

Seasonally adjusted (1985 = 100)

UNITED KINGDOM	Whole economy			Production industries Divisions 1 to 4			Manufacturing industries Divisions 2 to 4			
	Output <sup>‡</sup>	Employed labour force <sup>*</sup>	Output per person employed <sup>**</sup>	Output	Employed labour force <sup>*</sup>	Output per person employed <sup>**</sup>	Output	Employed labour force <sup>*</sup>	Output per person employed <sup>**</sup>	Output per person hour
1983	94.0	96.9	97.0	94.7	102.8	92.1	93.7	102.0	91.9	93.4
1984	97.0	98.6	98.0	94.9	100.8	94.1	97.6	100.5	97.2	97.7 R
1985	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1986	102.9	100.6	102.3	102.2	97.3	105.0	101.0	98.0	103.0	103.3
1987	107.8	102.8	104.9	105.8	96.1	110.1	106.6	97.2	109.7	109.3 R
1988	112.4	106.0	106.1	109.7 R	97.0	113.1 R	114.2 R	98.7	115.6 R	114.7 R
1983 Q1	92.6	96.5	96.0	93.0	104.2	89.2	92.5	103.3	89.5	91.9
1983 Q2	93.2	96.6	96.5	94.0	103.1	91.2	93.0	102.3	90.9	92.5
1983 Q3	94.5	97.0	97.4	94.9	102.2	92.9	93.6	101.5	92.3	93.5
1983 Q4	95.6	97.5	98.1	96.7	101.6	95.2	95.7	100.9	94.9	95.4
1984 Q1	97.0	98.0	99.0	97.2	101.1	96.1	97.0	100.5	96.5	97.7
1984 Q2	96.6	98.3	98.2	94.3	100.9	93.5	97.3	100.4	96.9	97.3
1984 Q3	96.6	98.7	97.9	93.2	100.6	92.6	97.9	100.6	97.3	97.9
1984 Q4	97.6	99.2	98.4	94.9	100.6	94.4 R	98.3	100.4	98.0 R	98.1
1985 Q1	98.9	99.6	99.3	97.9	100.4	97.5	100.5	100.2	100.3	100.4
1985 Q2	100.4	99.9	100.5	101.6	100.2	101.4	101.1	100.1	101.0	101.1
1985 Q3	100.1	100.2	99.9	100.5	99.9	100.6	99.8	100.0	99.8	99.8
1985 Q4	100.6	100.3	100.3	100.0	99.4	100.6	98.6	99.7	98.9	98.8
1986 Q1	101.3	100.3	100.9	101.4	98.7	102.8	99.1	99.1 R	100.0	100.0
1986 Q2	102.3	100.4	101.9	101.7	97.6	104.2	100.1	98.3	101.9	102.2
1986 Q3	103.3	100.6	102.7	102.4	96.8	105.8	100.6	97.4	103.3	103.6
1986 Q4	104.8	101.0	103.7	103.3	96.3	107.2	103.9	97.1	107.0	107.5
1987 Q1	105.4	101.5	103.9	103.8	95.8	108.4	103.0	96.7	106.6 R	106.7
1987 Q2	106.9	102.3	104.5	105.1	95.9	109.5 R	106.2	96.9	109.6	109.4
1987 Q3	108.7	103.1	105.4	106.4	96.2	110.6	107.9	97.4	110.8 R	110.3
1987 Q4	110.1	104.1	105.8	107.8 R	96.5	111.7 R	109.3 R	97.9	111.7 R	110.9 R
1988 Q1	111.2	105.1	105.8	107.9 R	96.9 R	111.3 R	110.8 R	98.5 R	112.5 R	111.5 R
1988 Q2	111.8	105.8	105.7	109.4 R	97.0	112.8 R	112.6 R	98.8 R	114.0 R	113.3 R
1988 Q3	113.2	106.3	106.5	110.7	97.0	114.1	116.0	98.9	117.3	116.5
1988 Q4	113.5	106.8	106.3	110.7 R	97.0 R	114.1 R	117.3 R	98.8	118.7 R	117.5 R
1989 Q1				109.2	97.0	112.6	118.1	99.1	119.3	118.2

The employed labour force comprises, employees in employment, the self-employed, and HM Forces. This series is used as a denominator for the productivity calculations for the reasons explained on page S6 of the August 1988 issue of *Employment Gazette*.

‡ Gross domestic product for whole economy.

















# 2.7 UNEMPLOYMENT Age

UNITED KINGDOM	All 18 and over	18 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 59	60 and over	All ages*
<b>MALE AND FEMALE</b>									
1988 Apr	2,430.0	202.0	495.7	372.5	474.6	371.5	461.4	52.2	2,536.0
July	2,245.3	183.3	480.0	339.3	428.4	337.5	429.7	47.1	2,326.7
Oct	2,110.7	177.9	428.4	320.4	399.9	317.1	421.0	45.9	2,118.9
1989 Jan	2,070.5	168.9	426.9	322.1	396.6	311.8	401.3	42.9	2,074.3
Apr	1,881.5	146.7	383.7	295.5	363.7	287.0	367.6	37.3	1,883.6
<b>MALE</b>									
1988 Apr	1,705.9	119.6	324.4	251.0	353.9	267.4	338.4	51.1	1,765.7
July	1,560.3	108.1	307.6	227.6	317.3	240.2	313.5	46.1	1,606.3
Oct	1,479.6	104.9	280.6	216.8	298.3	226.7	307.4	44.9	1,484.2
1989 Jan	1,470.9	102.4	286.2	222.2	298.9	224.1	295.0	42.1	1,473.2
Apr	1,349.6	90.3	261.5	207.4	276.6	206.7	270.6	36.5	1,350.8
<b>FEMALE</b>									
1988 Apr	724.1	82.4	171.3	121.5	120.7	104.1	123.0	1.1	770.3
July	685.0	75.3	172.4	111.7	111.0	97.3	116.2	1.0	720.4
Oct	631.1	73.0	147.8	103.6	101.6	90.4	113.6	1.0	634.6
1989 Jan	599.5	66.5	140.7	99.9	97.7	87.7	106.3	0.8	601.1
Apr	531.9	56.4	122.2	88.2	87.1	80.3	97.0	0.8	532.8

\* Including some aged under 18. These figures, from October 1988, are affected by new benefit regulations for under 18 year olds introduced in September. See also note \*\* to tables 2.1 and 2.2.

# 2.8 UNEMPLOYMENT Duration

UNITED KINGDOM	Up to 4 weeks	Over 4 and up to 26 weeks	Over 26 and up to 52 weeks	Over 52 and up to 104 weeks	Over 104 and up to 156 weeks	Over 156 weeks	All unemployed	Total over 52 weeks
<b>MALE AND FEMALE</b>								
1988 Apr	256.5	766.6	483.6	342.0	193.1	494.1	2,536.0	1,029.2
July	283.7	661.3	433.5	311.3	170.6	466.3	2,326.7	948.2
Oct**	241.0	632.0	360.4	290.6	151.9	443.0	2,118.9	885.5
1989 Jan	215.1	699.0	338.8	276.9	133.8	410.7	2,074.3	821.4
Apr	189.4	604.7	345.4	252.5	121.4	370.3	1,883.6	744.1
<b>Proportion of number unemployed</b>								
1988 Apr	10.1	30.2	19.1	13.5	7.6	19.5	100.0	40.6
July	12.2	28.4	18.6	13.4	7.3	20.0	100.0	40.8
Oct**	11.4	29.8	17.0	13.7	7.2	20.9	100.0	41.8
1989 Jan	10.4	33.7	16.3	13.3	6.5	19.8	100.0	39.6
Apr	10.1	32.1	18.3	13.4	6.4	19.7	100.0	39.5
<b>MALE</b>								
1988 Apr	167.3	495.6	310.6	247.8	146.4	398.0	1,765.7	792.2
July	173.3	425.7	278.0	224.8	129.3	375.2	1,606.3	729.3
Oct**	158.3	410.3	233.4	212.0	115.2	355.2	1,484.2	682.3
1989 Jan	140.0	475.9	221.7	202.7	102.1	330.8	1,473.2	635.6
Apr	127.7	415.3	230.8	184.9	93.5	298.7	1,350.8	577.1
<b>Proportion of number unemployed</b>								
1988 Apr	9.5	28.1	17.6	14.0	8.3	22.5	100.0	44.9
July	10.8	26.5	17.3	14.0	8.0	23.4	100.0	45.4
Oct**	10.7	27.6	15.7	14.3	7.8	23.9	100.0	46.0
1989 Jan	9.5	32.3	15.1	13.8	6.9	22.5	100.0	43.1
Apr	9.5	30.7	17.1	13.7	6.9	22.1	100.0	42.7
<b>FEMALE</b>								
1988 Apr	89.2	271.0	173.0	94.2	46.7	96.2	770.3	237.0
July	110.4	235.6	155.5	86.4	41.4	91.1	720.4	218.9
Oct**	82.8	221.7	127.0	78.6	36.7	87.8	634.6	203.2
1989 Jan	75.1	223.1	117.0	74.3	31.8	79.8	601.1	185.9
Apr	61.7	189.4	114.6	67.6	27.9	71.6	532.8	167.1
<b>Proportion of number unemployed</b>								
1988 Apr	11.6	35.2	22.5	12.2	6.1	12.5	100.0	30.8
July	15.3	32.7	21.6	12.0	5.7	12.6	100.0	30.4
Oct**	13.0	34.9	20.0	12.4	5.8	13.8	100.0	32.0
1989 Jan	12.5	37.1	19.5	12.4	5.3	13.3	100.0	30.9
Apr	11.6	35.5	21.5	12.7	5.2	13.4	100.0	31.4

\*\* See notes to tables 2.1 and 2.2.

# UNEMPLOYMENT Area statistics 2.9

## Unemployment in counties and local authority districts at April 13, 1989

	Male	Female	All	Rate † per cent employees and unemployed		Male	Female	All	Rate † per cent employees and unemployed
<b>SOUTH EAST</b>									
<b>Bedfordshire</b>	6,232	2,700	8,932	3.7	<b>Isle of Wight</b>	2,802	1,382	4,184	8.6
Luton	3,292	1,270	4,562		Medina	1,632	775	2,407	
Mid Bedfordshire	559	411	970		South Wight	1,170	607	1,777	
North Bedfordshire	1,519	589	2,108		<b>Kent</b>	20,124	8,917	29,041	5.1
South Bedfordshire	862	430	1,292		Ashford	925	409	1,334	
<b>Berkshire</b>	5,495	2,400	7,895	2.3	Canterbury	1,778	771	2,549	
Bracknell	648	346	994		Dartford	995	449	1,444	
Newbury	631	300	931		Dover	1,799	639	2,438	
Reading	1,614	527	2,141		Gillingham	1,345	654	1,999	
Slough	1,256	567	1,823		Gravesham	1,516	715	2,231	
Windsor and Maidenhead	791	325	1,116		Maidstone	1,054	528	1,582	
Wokingham	555	335	890		Rochester-upon-Medway	2,232	1,167	3,399	
<b>Buckinghamshire</b>	4,250	2,138	6,388	2.4	Sevenoaks	859	393	1,252	
Aylesbury Vale	831	438	1,269		Shepway	1,713	642	2,355	
Chiltern	385	200	585		Swale	1,798	900	2,698	
Milton Keynes	1,775	892	2,667		Thanet	2,865	1,124	3,989	
South Buckinghamshire	335	157	492		Tonbridge and Malling	707	299	1,006	
Wycombe	924	451	1,375		Tunbridge Wells	538	227	765	
<b>East Sussex</b>	9,349	4,007	13,356	4.9	<b>Oxfordshire</b>	4,006	1,846	5,852	2.5
Brighton	3,615	1,445	5,060		Cherwell	773	444	1,217	
Eastbourne	918	355	1,273		Oxford	1,527	526	2,053	
Hastings	1,283	513	1,796		South Oxfordshire	718	330	1,048	
Hove	1,567	701	2,268		Vale of White Horse	564	274	838	
Lewes	737	390	1,127		West Oxfordshire	424	272	696	
Rother	664	303	967		<b>Surrey</b>	5,248	2,238	7,486	
Wealden	565	300	865		Elmbridge	527	252	779	
<b>Essex</b>	17,735	8,814	26,549	4.9	Epsom and Ewell	457	159	616	
Basildon	2,529	1,253	3,782		Guildford	635	237	872	
Braintree	875	527	1,402		Mole Valley	357	145	502	
Brentwood	518	200	718		Reigate and Banstead	661	293	954	
Castle Point	929	491	1,420		Runnymede	366	189	555	
Chelmsford	1,144	653	1,797		Spelthorne	495	232	727	
Colchester	1,545	870	2,415		Surrey Heath	306	173	479	
Epping Forest	1,148	605	1,753		Tandridge	397	179	576	
Harlow	1,197	551	1,748		Waverley	485	181	666	
Maldon	410	255	665		Woking	562	198	760	
Rochford	579	325	904		<b>West Sussex</b>	4,301	1,775	6,076	2.2
Southend-on-Sea	2,629	1,077	3,706		Adur	326	135	461	
Tendring	1,810	804	2,614		Arun	954	355	1,309	
Thurrock	2,136	1,045	3,181		Chichester	600	257	857	
Uttlesford	286	158	444		Crawley	633	233	866	
<b>Greater London</b>	161,673	63,423	225,096	5.9	Horsham	439	183	622	
Barking and Dagenham	2,656	1,010	3,666		Mid Sussex	499	234	733	
Barnet	3,796	1,849	5,645		Worthing	850	378	1,228	
Bexley	2,675	1,422	4,097		<b>EAST ANGLIA</b>				
Brent	6,748	2,805	9,553		<b>Cambridgeshire</b>	6,956	3,251	10,207	3.5
Bromley	3,251	1,472	4,723		Cambridge	1,223	485	1,708	
Camden	6,065	2,431	8,496		East Cambridgeshire	301	153	454	
City of London	42	17	59		Fenland	1,102	512	1,614	
City of Westminster	4,627	1,822	6,449		Huntingdon	962	671	1,633	
Croydon	4,741	2,056	6,797		Peterborough	2,908	1,144	4,052	
Ealing	5,313	2,324	7,637		South Cambridgeshire	460	286	746	
Enfield	4,205	1,787	5,992		<b>Norfolk</b>	11,471	5,450	16,921	5.6
Greenwich	6,293	2,462	8,755		Breckland	1,013	612	1,625	
Hackney	10,141	3,454	13,595		Broadland	729	442	1,171	
Hammersmith and Fulham	5,220	1,902	7,122		Great Yarmouth	2,483	1,136	3,619	
Haringey	8,048	3,159	11,207		North Norfolk	1,019	465	1,484	
Harrow	2,034	990	3,024		Norwich	3,385	1,305	4,690	
Havering	2,591	1,237	3,828		South Norfolk	824	509	1,333	
Hillingdon	2,110	1,108	3,218		West Norfolk	2,018	981	2,999	
Hounslow	3,003	1,396	4,399		<b>Suffolk</b>	6,707	3,525	10,232	3.8
Islington	7,316	2,919	10,235		Babergh	614	357	971	
Kensington and Chelsea	3,332	1,389	4,721		Forest Heath	371	248	619	
Kingston-upon-Thames	1,128	491	1,619		Ipswich	1,802	698	2,500	
Lambeth	11,480	4,007	15,487		Mid Suffolk	517	303	820	
Lewisham	8,386	3,105	11,491		St Edmundsbury	750	495	1,245	
Merton	2,219	934	3,153		Suffolk Coastal	770	387	1,157	
Newham	7,775	2,680	10,455		Waveney	1,883	1,037	2,920	
Redbridge	3,172	1,474	4						

# 2.9 UNEMPLOYMENT Area statistics

Unemployment in counties and local authority districts at April 13, 1989

	Male	Female	All	Rate		Male	Female	All	Rate
<b>Dorset</b>	<b>7,092</b>	<b>3,129</b>	<b>10,221</b>	<b>4.5</b>	South Kesteven	1,359	716	2,075	
Bournemouth	2,748	982	3,730		West Lindsey	1,370	664	2,034	
Christchurch	332	149	481						
East Dorset	452	268	720		<b>Northamptonshire</b>	<b>6,021</b>	<b>3,333</b>	<b>9,354</b>	<b>3.9</b>
North Dorset	277	181	458		Corby	1,088	586	1,674	
Poole	1,400	578	1,978		Davertry	374	328	702	
Purbeck	287	179	466		East Northamptonshire	423	272	695	
West Dorset	644	361	1,005		Kettering	719	410	1,129	
Weymouth and Portland	952	431	1,383		Northampton	2,301	1,070	3,371	
					South Northamptonshire	312	209	521	
<b>Gloucestershire</b>	<b>6,292</b>	<b>3,139</b>	<b>9,431</b>	<b>4.4</b>	Wellingborough	804	458	1,262	
Cheltenham	1,387	564	1,951						
Cotswold	399	251	650		<b>Nottinghamshire</b>	<b>29,762</b>	<b>10,343</b>	<b>40,105</b>	<b>8.6</b>
Forest of Dean	964	556	1,520		Ashfield	3,425	976	4,401	
Gloucester	1,732	692	2,424		Bassetlaw	2,963	1,173	4,136	
Stroud	1,035	640	1,675		Broxtowe	1,790	820	2,610	
Tewkesbury	775	436	1,211		Gedling	1,922	891	2,813	
					Mansfield	3,775	1,204	4,979	
<b>Somerset</b>	<b>5,376</b>	<b>3,277</b>	<b>8,653</b>	<b>5.2</b>	Newark	2,334	899	3,233	
Mendip	958	644	1,602		Nottingham	12,232	3,723	15,955	
Sedgemoor	1,493	821	2,314		Rushcliffe	1,321	657	1,978	
Taunton Deane	1,241	691	1,932						
West Somerset	429	247	676		<b>YORKSHIRE AND HUMBERSIDE</b>				
Yeovil	1,255	974	2,229						
					<b>Humberside</b>	<b>25,535</b>	<b>9,421</b>	<b>34,956</b>	<b>9.9</b>
<b>Wiltshire</b>	<b>5,598</b>	<b>3,207</b>	<b>8,805</b>	<b>4.0</b>	Beverley	1,358	814	2,172	
Kennet	422	307	729		Boothferry	1,276	583	1,859	
North Wiltshire	896	658	1,554		Cleethorpes	1,885	704	2,589	
Salisbury	903	528	1,431		East Yorkshire	1,564	747	2,311	
Thamesdown	2,335	1,070	3,405		Glanford	1,258	596	1,854	
West Wiltshire	1,042	644	1,686		Great Grimsby	3,738	1,025	4,763	
					Holderness	780	472	1,252	
<b>WEST MIDLANDS</b>					Kingston-upon-Hull	11,446	3,793	15,239	
<b>Hereford and Worcester</b>	<b>8,643</b>	<b>4,528</b>	<b>13,171</b>	<b>5.2</b>	Scunthorpe	2,230	687	2,917	
Bromsgrove	1,226	641	1,867						
Hereford	856	508	1,364		<b>North Yorkshire</b>	<b>10,095</b>	<b>5,153</b>	<b>15,248</b>	<b>5.8</b>
Leominster	420	220	640		Craven	419	277	696	
Malvern Hills	918	439	1,357		Hambleton	863	521	1,384	
Redditch	1,111	586	1,697		Harrrogate	1,181	609	1,790	
South Herefordshire	579	293	872		Richmondshire	424	353	777	
Worcester	1,448	662	2,110		Ryedale	819	516	1,335	
Wychavon	814	502	1,316		Scarborough	2,511	1,001	3,512	
Wyre Forest	1,271	677	1,948		Selby	1,178	764	1,942	
					York	2,700	1,112	3,812	
<b>Shropshire</b>	<b>6,425</b>	<b>3,303</b>	<b>9,728</b>	<b>6.5</b>	<b>South Yorkshire</b>	<b>47,994</b>	<b>17,252</b>	<b>65,246</b>	<b>11.8</b>
Bridgnorth	527	305	832		Barnsley	6,587	2,575	9,162	
North Shropshire	611	411	1,022		Doncaster	11,231	4,140	15,371	
Oswestry	483	294	777		Rotherham	9,236	3,532	12,768	
Shrewsbury and Atcham	1,259	693	1,952		Sheffield	18,940	7,005	25,945	
South Shropshire	417	201	618						
The Wrekin	3,128	1,399	4,527		<b>West Yorkshire</b>	<b>51,849</b>	<b>19,806</b>	<b>71,655</b>	<b>7.8</b>
					Bradford	12,511	4,320	16,831	
<b>Staffordshire</b>	<b>17,046</b>	<b>8,479</b>	<b>25,525</b>	<b>6.0</b>	Calderdale	3,887	1,828	5,715	
Cannock Chase	1,875	933	2,808		Kirklees	7,581	3,284	10,865	
East Staffordshire	1,684	888	2,572		Leeds	18,408	6,895	25,303	
Lichfield	1,136	687	1,823		Wakefield	9,462	3,479	12,941	
Newcastle-under-Lyme	1,849	875	2,724						
South Staffordshire	1,698	942	2,640		<b>NORTH WEST</b>				
Stafford	1,370	705	2,075						
Staffordshire Moorlands	862	602	1,464		<b>Cheshire</b>	<b>19,408</b>	<b>8,571</b>	<b>27,979</b>	<b>7.4</b>
Stoke-on-Trent	5,089	2,077	7,166		Chester	2,627	1,043	3,670	
Tamworth	1,483	790	2,273		Congleton	849	589	1,438	
					Crewe and Nantwich	1,866	932	2,798	
<b>Warwickshire</b>	<b>6,229</b>	<b>3,678</b>	<b>9,907</b>	<b>4.9</b>	Ellesmere Port and Neston	2,187	873	3,060	
North Warwickshire	896	575	1,471		Halton	4,830	1,718	6,548	
Nuneaton and Bedworth	2,265	1,151	3,416		Macclesfield	1,745	812	2,557	
Rugby	1,013	662	1,675		Vale Royal	1,961	1,043	3,004	
Stratford-on-Avon	696	458	1,154		Warrington	3,543	1,561	5,104	
Warwick	1,359	832	2,191						
					<b>Greater Manchester</b>	<b>79,119</b>	<b>29,460</b>	<b>108,579</b>	<b>9.6</b>
<b>West Midlands</b>	<b>84,846</b>	<b>32,070</b>	<b>116,916</b>	<b>8.9</b>	Bolton	7,643	2,905	10,548	
Birmingham	39,523	13,628	53,151		Bury	3,233	1,518	4,751	
Coventry	9,074	3,939	13,013		Manchester	23,266	6,934	30,200	
Dudley	6,585	3,030	9,615		Oldham	5,741	2,572	8,313	
Sandwell	9,792	3,694	13,486		Rochdale	6,063	2,418	8,481	
Solihull	3,642	1,809	5,451		Salford	8,752	2,790	11,542	
Walsall	7,211	2,641	9,852		Stockport	4,952	2,214	7,166	
Wolverhampton	9,019	3,309	12,328		Tameside	5,386	2,236	7,622	
					Trafford	4,963	1,867	6,830	
					Wigan	9,120	4,006	13,126	
<b>EAST MIDLANDS</b>									
<b>Derbyshire</b>	<b>21,678</b>	<b>8,713</b>	<b>30,391</b>	<b>7.8</b>	<b>Lancashire</b>	<b>31,838</b>	<b>12,881</b>	<b>44,719</b>	<b>8.3</b>
Amber Valley	2,176	951	3,127		Blackburn	3,991	1,316	5,307	
Bolsover	2,184	796	2,980		Blackpool	5,251	1,894	7,145	
Chesterfield	3,229	1,184	4,413		Burnley	2,315	929	3,244	
Derby	6,536	2,284	8,820		Chorley	1,504	809	2,313	
Erewash	1,926	777	2,703		Fylde	852	371	1,223	
High Peak	1,284	751	2,035		Hyndburn	1,459	665	2,124	
North East Derbyshire	2,539	1,063	3,602		Lancaster	3,359	1,320	4,679	
South Derbyshire	1,056	484	1,540		Pendle	1,473	664	2,137	
West Derbyshire	748	423	1,171		Preston	4,132	1,296	5,428	
					Ribble Valley	327	251	578	
<b>Leicestershire</b>	<b>13,694</b>	<b>6,121</b>	<b>19,815</b>	<b>4.9</b>	Rossendale	1,045	514	1,559	
Blatby	652	383	1,035		South Ribble	1,560	824	2,384	
Charnwood	1,465	894	2,359		West Lancashire	2,929	1,357	4,286	
Harborough	374	213	587		Wyre	1,641	671	2,312	
Hinckley and Bosworth	775	476	1,251						
Leicester	7,898	2,983	10,881		<b>Merseyside</b>	<b>70,575</b>	<b>23,609</b>	<b>94,184</b>	<b>15.2</b>
Melton	412	246	658		Knowsley	10,025	2,993	13,018	
North West Leicestershire	1,470	516	1,986		Liverpool	30,733	10,004	40,737	
Oadby and Wigston	398	263	661		Sefton	10,115	3,742	13,857	
Rutland	250	147	397		St Helens	6,756	2,400	9,156	
					Wirral	12,946	4,470	17,416	
<b>Lincolnshire</b>	<b>11,538</b>	<b>5,172</b>	<b>16,710</b>	<b>7.7</b>					
Boston	1,142	482	1,624		<b>NORTH</b>				
East Lindsey	3,056	1,242	4,298						
Lincoln	2,892	1,036	3,928		<b>Cleveland</b>	<b>24,948</b>	<b>8,039</b>	<b>32,987</b>	<b>13.8</b>
North Kesteven	962	598	1,560		Hartlepool	4,424	1,307	5,731	
South Holland	757	434	1,191		Langbaugh	5,939	1,952	7,891	

# UNEMPLOYMENT Area statistics 2.9

Unemployment in counties and local authority districts at April 13, 1989

	Male	Female	All	Rate		Male	Female	All	Rate
Middlesbrough	7,861	2,237	10,098		<b>Central Region</b>	<b>8,353</b>	<b>3,736</b>	<b>12,089</b>	<b>11.5</b>
Stockton-on-Tees	6,724	2,543	9,267		Clackmannan	1,685	672	2,357	
					Falkirk	4,487	2,067	6,554	
<b>Cumbria</b>	<b>9,100</b>	<b>4,799</b>	<b>13,899</b>	<b>6.8</b>	Stirling	2,181	997	3,178	
Allerdale	2,362	1,303	3,665						
Barrow-in-Furness	1,588	835	2,423		<b>Dumfries and Galloway Region</b>	<b>3,446</b>	<b>1,886</b>	<b>5,332</b>	<b>9.4</b>
Carlisle	2,070	1,021	3,091		Annandale and Eskdale	441	397	1,038	
Copeland	1,936	918	2,854		Nithsdale	1,388	750	2,138	
Eden	359	258	617		Stewartry	469	276	745	
South Lakeland	785	464	1,249		Wigtown	948	463	1,411	
<b>Durham</b>	<b>19,068</b>	<b>6,844</b>	<b>25,912</b>	<b>11.5</b>	<b>Fife Region</b>	<b>10,782</b>	<b>4,748</b>	<b>15,530</b>	<b>11.6</b>
Chester-le-Street	1,554	603							

# 2.10 UNEMPLOYMENT Area statistics

Unemployment in Parliamentary constituencies at April 13, 1989

	Male	Female	All
<b>SOUTH EAST</b>			
<b>Bedfordshire</b>			
Luton South	2,245	809	3,054
Mid Bedfordshire	661	417	1,078
North Bedfordshire	1,308	484	1,792
North Luton	1,222	579	1,801
South West Bedfordshire	796	411	1,207
<b>Berkshire</b>			
East Berkshire	791	399	1,190
Newbury	546	252	798
Reading East	1,049	358	1,407
Reading West	753	272	1,025
Slough	1,256	567	1,823
Windsor and Maidenhead	648	272	920
Wokingham	452	280	732
<b>Buckinghamshire</b>			
Aylesbury	642	326	968
Beaconsfield	439	211	650
Buckingham	560	275	835
Chesham and Amersham	372	196	568
Milton Keynes	1,522	801	2,323
Wycombe	715	329	1,044
<b>East Sussex</b>			
Bexhill and Battle	609	261	870
Brighton Kemptown	1,926	660	2,586
Brighton Pavilion	1,689	785	2,474
Eastbourne	981	382	1,363
Hastings and Rye	1,404	580	1,984
Hove	1,567	701	2,268
Lewes	759	403	1,162
Wealden	414	235	649
<b>Essex</b>			
Basildon	1,966	912	2,878
Billericay	938	544	1,482
Braintree	773	483	1,256
Brentwood and Ongar	653	250	903
Castle Point	929	491	1,420
Chelmsford	906	498	1,404
Epping Forest	893	473	1,366
Harlow	1,317	633	1,950
Hertford	1,626	671	2,297
North Colchester	1,074	583	1,657
Rochford	715	408	1,123
Saffron Walden	490	274	764
South Colchester and Maldon	1,065	675	1,740
Southend East	1,575	596	2,171
Southend West	1,054	481	1,535
Thurrock	1,761	842	2,603
<b>Greater London</b>			
Barking	1,444	464	1,908
Battersea	2,655	1,005	3,660
Beckenham	1,067	445	1,512
Bethnal Green and Stepney	4,189	1,006	5,195
Bexleyheath	776	437	1,213
Bow and Poplar	3,999	1,109	5,108
Brent East	2,810	1,152	3,962
Brent North	1,227	585	1,812
Brent South	2,711	1,068	3,779
Brentford and Isleworth	1,500	670	2,170
Carshalton and Wallington	933	374	1,307
Chelsea	1,326	533	1,859
Chingford	1,114	545	1,659
Chipping Barnet	712	380	1,092
Chislehurst	796	361	1,157
City of London			
and Westminster South	1,685	658	2,343
Croydon Central	1,240	434	1,674
Croydon North East	1,412	672	2,084
Croydon North West	1,509	660	2,169
Croydon South	580	290	870
Dagenham	1,212	546	1,758
Dulwich	2,025	845	2,870
Ealing North	1,434	606	2,040
Ealing Acton	1,938	749	2,687
Ealing Southall	1,941	969	2,910
Edmonton	1,781	736	2,517
Eltham	1,457	587	2,044
Enfield North	1,270	584	1,854
Enfield Southgate	1,154	467	1,621
Erith and Crayford	1,348	632	1,980
Feltham and Heston	1,503	726	2,229
Finchley	962	517	1,479
Fulham	2,163	871	3,034
Greenwich	2,102	796	2,898
Hackney North and Stoke Newington	4,798	1,698	6,496
Hackney South and Shoreditch	5,343	1,756	7,099
Hammersmith	3,057	1,031	4,088
Hampstead and Highgate	2,368	1,057	3,425
Harrow East	1,220	622	1,842
Harrow West	814	368	1,182
Hayes and Harlington	836	471	1,307
Hendon North	1,101	527	1,628
Hendon South	1,021	425	1,446
Holborn and St Pancras	3,697	1,374	5,071
Hornchurch	756	376	1,132
Hornsey and Wood Green	3,237	1,416	4,653
Ilford North	881	502	1,383
Ilford South	1,518	607	2,125
Islington North	3,930	1,565	5,495
Islington South and Finsbury	3,386	1,354	4,740
Kensington	2,006	856	2,862
Kingston-upon-Thames	714	310	1,024
Lewisham East	2,005	757	2,762
Lewisham West	2,373	951	3,324
Leyton	4,008	1,397	5,405
Lewisham Deptford	2,605	966	3,571
Metcham and Morden	1,399	560	1,959
Newham North East	2,693	935	3,628
Newham North West	2,495	835	3,330
Newham South	2,587	910	3,497
Norwood	3,640	1,289	4,929
Old Bexley and Sidcup	551	353	904
Orpington	781	352	1,133
Peckham	4,150	1,413	5,563
Putney	1,310	572	1,882
Ravensbourne	607	314	921
Richmond-upon-Thames and Barnes	882	436	1,318
Romford	913	441	1,354
Ruislip-Northwood	468	234	702
Southwark and Bermondsey	3,901	1,081	4,982
Streatham	2,947	1,056	4,003
Surbiton	414	181	595
Sutton and Cheam	608	308	916
Tooting	2,304	999	3,303
Tottenham	4,811	1,743	6,554
Twickenham	717	355	1,072
Upminster	922	420	1,342
Uxbridge	806	403	1,209
Vauxhall	4,893	1,662	6,555
Walthamstow	1,914	707	2,621
Westend and Woodford	773	365	1,138
Westminster North	2,984	1,181	4,165
Wimbledon	820	374	1,194
Woolwich	2,734	1,079	3,813
<b>Hampshire</b>			
Aldershot	797	402	1,199
Basingstoke	864	313	1,177
East Hampshire	699	406	1,105
Eastleigh	1,134	577	1,711
Fareham	850	485	1,335
Gosport	1,107	761	1,868
Havant	1,721	732	2,453
New Forest	1,017	358	1,375
North West Hampshire	449	263	712
Portsmouth North	1,429	685	2,114
Portsmouth South	2,772	1,094	3,866
Romsey and Waterside	1,119	570	1,689
Southampton Itchen	2,485	871	3,356
Southampton Test	2,165	719	2,884
Winchester	593	255	848
<b>Hertfordshire</b>			
Broxbourne	934	582	1,516
Hertford and Stortford	527	296	823
Hertsmere	876	348	1,224
North Hertfordshire	911	531	1,442
South West Hertfordshire	640	299	939
St Albans	606	254	860
Stevenage	983	442	1,425
Watford	1,017	411	1,428
Welwyn Hatfield	779	423	1,202
West Hertfordshire	785	372	1,157
<b>Isle of Wight</b>			
Isle of Wight	2,802	1,382	4,184
<b>Kent</b>			
Ashford	925	409	1,334
Canterbury	1,348	581	1,929
Dartford	1,164	539	1,703
Dover	1,714	589	2,303
Faversham	1,729	851	2,580
Folkestone and Hythe	1,713	642	2,355
Gillingham	1,360	670	2,030
Gravesham	1,516	715	2,231
Maidstone	820	389	1,209
Medway	1,286	656	1,942
North Thanet	1,180	650	1,830
Sevenoaks	1,888	736	2,624
South Thanet	690	303	993
Tonbridge and Malling	1,546	661	2,207
Tunbridge Wells	707	299	1,006
	538	227	765
<b>Oxfordshire</b>			
Banbury	717	425	1,142
Henley	378	177	555
Oxford East	1,226	421	1,647
Oxford West and Abingdon	760	324	1,084
Wantage	445	208	653
Witney	480	291	771
<b>Surrey</b>			
Chertsey and Walton	448	226	674
East Surrey	397	179	576
Epsom and Ewell	575	210	785
Esher	361	164	525
Guildford	477	158	635
Mole Valley	376	154	530
North West Surrey	447	250	697
Reigate	543	242	785
South West Surrey	436	166	602
Spelthorne	495	232	727
Woking	693	257	950
<b>West Sussex</b>			
Arundel	820	296	1,116
Chichester	600	257	857
Crawley	730	269	999
Horsham	439	183	622
Mid Sussex	402	198	600
Shoreham	460	194	654
Worthing	850	378	1,228
<b>EAST ANGLIA</b>			
Burton	310	141	451
<b>Cambridgeshire</b>			
Cambridge	1,142	438	1,580
Huntingdon	839	534	1,373
North East Cambridgeshire	1,263	610	1,873
Peterborough	2,667	967	3,634

# UNEMPLOYMENT Area statistics 2.10

Unemployment in Parliamentary constituencies at April 13, 1989

	Male	Female	All
<b>Warwickshire</b>			
North Warwickshire	1,561	974	2,535
Nuneaton	1,683	805	2,488
Rugby and Kenilworth	1,098	739	1,837
Stratford-on-Avon	696	458	1,154
Warwick and Leamington	1,191	702	1,893
<b>West Midlands</b>			
Aldridge-Brownhills	1,380	632	2,012
Birmingham Edgbaston	2,366	946	3,314
Birmingham Erdington	3,487	1,219	4,706
Birmingham Hall Green	2,410	949	3,359
Birmingham Hodge Hill	3,465	1,145	4,610
Birmingham Ladywood	4,706	1,488	6,194
Birmingham Northfield	3,714	1,306	5,020
Birmingham Perry Barr	3,567	1,311	4,878
Birmingham Small Heath	5,362	1,525	6,887
Birmingham Sparkbrook	4,419	1,180	5,599
Birmingham Yardley	2,005	804	2,809
Birmingham Selly Oak	2,868	1,121	3,989
Coventry North East	3,235	1,306	4,541
Coventry North West	1,702	867	2,569
Coventry South East	2,557	999	3,556
Coventry South West	1,580	767	2,347
Dudley East	2,983	1,184	4,167
Dudley West	2,013	1,069	3,082
Halesowen and Stourbridge	1,589	797	2,386
Meriden	2,651	1,179	3,830
Solehill	991	630	1,621
Sutton Coldfield	1,154	632	1,786
Walsall North	1,717	792	2,509
Walsall South	2,869	1,011	3,880
Warley East	2,531	945	3,476
Warley West	2,130	858	2,988
West Bromwich East	2,378	840	3,218
West Bromwich West	2,753	951	3,704
Wolverhampton North East	3,578	1,143	4,721
Wolverhampton South East	2,898	1,003	3,901
Wolverhampton South West	2,543	1,163	3,

# 2.10 UNEMPLOYMENT Area statistics

Unemployment in Parliamentary constituencies at April 13, 1989

	Male	Female	All		Male	Female	All
<b>South Yorkshire</b>							
Barnsley Central	3,161	854	4,015	Liverpool Mossley Hill	4,106	1,578	5,684
Barnsley East	2,836	792	3,628	Liverpool Riverside	6,705	1,950	8,655
Barnsley West and Penistone	2,590	929	3,519	Liverpool Walton	5,895	1,941	7,836
Don Valley	3,415	1,286	4,701	Liverpool West Derby	5,135	1,574	6,709
Doncaster Central	3,928	1,438	5,366	Southport	1,952	941	2,893
Doncaster North	3,888	1,416	5,304	St Helens North	3,025	1,099	4,124
Rother Valley	2,724	1,263	3,987	St Helens South	3,731	1,301	5,032
Rotherham	3,358	1,139	4,497	Wallasey	3,881	1,313	5,194
Sheffield Central	5,071	1,520	6,591	Wirral South	1,741	739	2,480
Sheffield Attercliffe	2,600	990	3,590	Wirral West	2,000	876	2,876
Sheffield Brightside	3,791	1,156	4,947	<b>NORTH</b>			
Sheffield Hallam	1,856	936	2,792	<b>Cleveland</b>			
Sheffield Heeley	3,292	1,232	4,524	Hartlepool	4,424	1,307	5,731
Sheffield Hillsborough	2,330	1,171	3,501	Langbaugh	3,638	1,277	4,915
Wentworth	3,154	1,130	4,284	Middlesbrough	5,399	1,461	6,860
<b>West Yorkshire</b>							
Batley and Spen	2,029	792	2,821	Redcar	4,044	1,229	5,273
Bradford North	3,469	1,076	4,545	Stockton North	4,053	1,417	5,470
Bradford South	2,522	863	3,385	Stockton South	3,390	1,348	4,738
Bradford West	3,902	1,151	5,053	<b>Cumbria</b>			
Calder Valley	1,449	817	2,266	Barrow and Furness	1,756	943	2,699
Galne Valley	1,443	721	2,164	Carlisle	2,164	786	2,950
Dewsbury	1,928	792	2,720	Copeland	1,936	918	2,854
Elmet	1,233	634	1,927	Fenrith and the Border	1,030	711	1,741
Halifax	2,438	1,011	3,449	Westmorland	665	376	1,041
Hemsworth	2,733	879	3,612	Workington	1,992	1,065	3,057
Huddersfield	2,181	979	3,160	<b>Durham</b>			
Kelghley	1,515	751	2,266	Bishop Auckland	2,719	1,023	3,742
Leeds Central	4,061	1,197	5,258	City of Durham	2,291	900	3,191
Leeds East	3,492	1,108	4,600	Darlington	2,838	1,041	3,879
Leeds North East	2,046	834	2,880	Easington	2,246	884	3,130
Leeds North West	1,582	664	2,246	North Durham	3,304	1,116	4,420
Leeds West	2,573	993	3,566	North West Durham	2,654	921	3,575
Morley and Leeds South	2,017	747	2,764	Sedgefield	2,162	959	3,121
Normanton	1,602	818	2,420	<b>Northumberland</b>			
Pontefract and Castleford	2,959	991	3,950	Berwick-upon-Tweed	1,960	769	2,729
Pudsey	976	541	1,517	Blyth Valley	2,703	1,020	3,723
Shipley	1,103	479	1,582	Hexham	897	516	1,413
Wakefield	2,536	968	3,504	Wansbeck	3,197	964	4,161
<b>NORTH WEST</b>							
<b>Cheshire</b>							
City of Chester	2,254	802	3,056	<b>Tyne and Wear</b>			
Congleton	892	642	1,534	Blaydon	2,477	854	3,331
Crewe and Nantwich	1,823	879	2,702	Gateshead East	3,520	1,106	4,626
Eddisbury	1,656	888	2,544	Houghton and Washington	4,169	1,358	5,527
Ellesmere Port and Neston	2,349	990	3,339	Jarrow	3,947	1,072	5,019
Halton	3,345	1,358	4,703	Newcastle upon Tyne Central	2,970	1,095	4,065
Macclesfield	1,107	582	1,689	Newcastle upon Tyne East	3,895	1,208	5,103
Tatton	1,154	529	1,683	Newcastle upon Tyne North	3,172	1,073	4,245
Warrington North	2,437	997	3,434	South Shields	3,857	1,250	5,107
Warrington South	2,391	924	3,315	Sunderland North	6,255	1,532	7,787
<b>Greater Manchester</b>							
Altrincham and Sale	1,199	547	1,746	Sunderland South	4,593	1,418	6,011
Ashton-under-Lyne	2,092	791	2,883	Tyne Bridge	5,558	1,377	6,935
Bolton North East	2,625	871	3,496	Tynemouth	3,112	1,037	4,149
Bolton North West	3,011	1,138	4,149	Wallsend	3,785	1,262	5,047
Bolton South East	2,007	896	2,903	<b>WALES</b>			
Bury North	1,512	703	2,215	<b>Clwyd</b>			
Bury South	1,721	815	2,536	Alyn and Deeside	1,416	730	2,146
Cheadle	782	478	1,260	Clwyd North West	2,501	932	3,433
Davyhulme	1,852	714	2,566	Clwyd South West	1,494	744	2,238
Denton and Reddish	2,345	987	3,332	Delyn	1,648	663	2,311
Eccles	2,531	904	3,435	Wrexham	1,875	748	2,623
Hazel Grove	1,079	556	1,635	<b>Dyfed</b>			
Heywood and Middleton	2,519	1,051	3,570	Carmarthen	1,733	773	2,506
Leigh	2,675	1,058	3,733	Ceredigion and Pembroke North	1,771	719	2,490
Littleborough and Saddleworth	1,291	751	2,042	Llanelli	2,113	769	2,882
Makerfield	2,502	1,237	3,739	Pembroke	2,868	1,220	4,088
Manchester Central	6,420	1,646	8,066	<b>Gwent</b>			
Manchester Blackley	3,645	1,113	4,758	Blaenau Gwent	2,798	850	3,648
Manchester Gorton	3,804	1,208	5,012	Islwyn	1,683	697	2,380
Manchester Withington	3,430	1,227	4,657	Monmouth	1,157	550	1,707
Manchester Wythenshawe	3,409	844	4,253	Newport East	1,988	772	2,760
Oldham Central and Royton	2,908	1,138	4,046	Newport West	2,247	828	3,075
Oldham West	1,976	921	2,897	Torfaen	2,347	1,006	3,353
Rochdale	3,110	1,129	4,239	<b>Gwynedd</b>			
Salford East	4,304	1,127	5,431	Caernarfon	1,790	721	2,511
Stalybridge and Hyde	2,309	925	3,234	Conwy	1,734	720	2,454
Stockport	1,731	713	2,444	Meirionnydd Nant Conwy	771	383	1,154
Stretford	4,470	1,502	5,972	Ynys Mon	2,134	1,035	3,169
Wigan	3,322	1,396	4,718	<b>Mid Glamorgan</b>			
Worsley	2,538	1,074	3,612	Bridgend	1,554	666	2,220
<b>Lancashire</b>							
Blackburn	3,444	1,041	4,485	Caerphilly	2,553	724	3,277
Blackpool North	2,573	905	3,478	Cynon Valley	2,390	755	3,145
Blackpool South	2,678	989	3,667	Merthyr Tydfil and Rhymney	2,722	947	3,669
Burnley	2,315	929	3,244	Ogmore	2,136	647	2,783
Chorley	1,568	860	2,428	Pontypridd	2,150	659	2,809
Fylde	1,024	437	1,461	Rhondda	2,499	778	3,277
Hyndburn	1,459	665	2,124	<b>Powys</b>			
Lancaster	1,504	592	2,096	Brecon and Radnor	879	457	1,336
Morecambe and Lunesdale	1,962	796	2,758	Montgomery	608	344	952
Pendle	1,473	664	2,137	<b>South Glamorgan</b>			
Preston	3,699	1,042	4,741	Cardiff Central	2,696	946	3,642
Ribble Valley	588	439	1,027	Cardiff North	1,031	412	1,443
Rossendale and Darwen	1,592	789	2,381	Cardiff South and Penarth	2,536	682	3,218
South Ribble	1,560	824	2,384	Cardiff West	2,754	757	3,511
West Lancashire	2,865	1,306	4,171	Vale of Glamorgan	2,088	843	2,931
Wyre	1,534	603	2,137	<b>West Glamorgan</b>			
<b>Merseyside</b>							
Birkenhead 5,324 telec 6,866				Aberavon	1,630	523	2,153
Bootle	5,809	1,686	7,495	Gower	1,416	589	2,005
Crosby	2,354	1,115	3,469	Neath	1,792	691	2,483
Knowsley North	5,040	1,402	6,442	Swansea East	2,749	802	3,551
Knowsley South	4,985	1,591	6,576	Swansea West	2,905	950	3,855
Liverpool Broadgreen	4,744	1,637	6,381				
Liverpool Garston	4,148	1,324	5,472				

# UNEMPLOYMENT 2.10 Area statistics

Unemployment in Parliamentary constituencies at April 13, 1989

	Male	Female	All		Male	Female	All
<b>SCOTLAND</b>							
Dumbarton				Dumbarton	2,695	1,266	3,961
East Kilbride				East Kilbride	1,986	1,082	3,068
Eastwood				Glasgow Cathcart	1,455	687	2,142
Glasgow Central				Glasgow Central	2,283	780	3,063
Glasgow Garscadden	838	418	1,256	Glasgow Garscadden	4,420	1,350	5,770
Glasgow Govan	741	311	1,052	Glasgow Govan	3,849	915	4,764
Glasgow Hillhead				Glasgow Hillhead	3,674	1,060	4,734
Glasgow Maryhill				Glasgow Maryhill	3,042	1,243	4,285
Glasgow Pollock				Glasgow Pollock	4,809	1,466	6,275
Glasgow Provan				Glasgow Provan	4,464	1,113	5,577
Glasgow Rutherglen				Glasgow Provan	5,006	1,281	6,287
Glasgow Shettleston				Glasgow Rutherglen	3,730	1,080	4,810
Glasgow Springburn				Glasgow Shettleston	4,125	1,101	5,226
Greenock and Port Glasgow				Glasgow Springburn	5,086	1,530	6,616
Hamilton				Greenock and Port Glasgow	4,736	1,348	6,084
Kilmarnock and Loudoun				Hamilton	3,162	1,052	4,214
Monklands East				Kilmarnock and Loudoun	2,929	1,158	4,087
Monklands West				Monklands East	3,068	990	4,058
Motherwell North				Monklands West	2,443	842	3,285
Motherwell South				Motherwell North	3,136	1,081	4,217
Paisley North				Motherwell South	2,791	854	3,645
Paisley South				Paisley North	2,853	1,042	3,895
Renfrew West and Inverclyde				Paisley South	2,678	925	3,603
Strathkelvin and Bearsden				Renfrew West and Inverclyde	1,534	813	2,347
				Strathkelvin and Bearsden	1,576	736	2,312
<b>Tayside Region</b>							
Angus East				Angus East	1,758	1,090	2,848
Dundee East				Dundee East	3,931	1,486	5,417
Dundee West				Dundee West	3,173	1,251	4,424
North Tayside				North Tayside	1,165	663	1,828
Perth and Kinross				Perth and Kinross	1,754	770	2,524
<b>Orkney and Shetland Islands</b>							
					784	414	1,198
<b>Western Isles</b>							
					1,233	406	1,639
<b>NORTHERN IRELAND</b>							
<b>Lothian Region</b>							
East Lothian	2,166	832	2,998	Belfast East	3,073	1,312	4,385
Edinburgh Central	2,710	999	3,709	Belfast North	5,458	1,709	7,167
Edinburgh East	2,386	759	3,145	Belfast South	3,511	1,483	4,994
Edinburgh Leith	3,769	1,215	4,984	Belfast West	8,521	1,888	10,409
Edinburgh Pentlands	1,724	648	2,372	East Antrim	3,688	1,622	5,310
Edinburgh South	2,162	806	2,968	East Londonderry	5,821	1,936	7,757
Edinburgh West	1,125	421	1,546	Fermanagh and South Tyrone	5,516	1,807	7,323
Linlithgow	2,325	954	3,279	Foyles	8,525	1,882	10,407
Livingston	2,0						

## 2.13 UNEMPLOYMENT Students: regions

	South East	Greater London*	East Anglia	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	Yorkshire and Humber-side	North West	North	Wales	Scotland	Great Britain	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
<b>MALE AND FEMALE</b>														
1988														
Apr 14	637	473	47	128	189	118	145	260	113	94	492	2,223	—	2,223
May 12	582	444	32	91	182	99	128	229	107	82	454	1,986	—	1,986
June 9	900	676	65	136	364	199	343	523	260	171	2,826	5,787	2,099	7,886
July 14	16,519	8,233	1,989	5,625	9,886	5,927	11,116	14,284	6,564	7,672	16,433	96,015	6,580	102,595
Aug 11	17,885	9,633	1,775	5,487	9,700	5,980	10,737	14,853	6,224	7,321	16,323	96,285	6,959	103,244
Sept 8	20,634	10,629	2,112	6,421	11,253	7,106	12,600	17,351	7,333	8,501	16,698	110,009	7,647	117,656
Oct 13	2,436	1,677	119	462	874	446	745	1,314	396	586	1,398	8,776	—	8,776
Nov 10	724	592	36	92	185	147	119	248	51	95	283	1,980	—	1,980
Dec 8	450	375	11	57	134	71	66	135	26	55	156	1,161	—	1,161
1989														
Jan 12	358	284	14	42	118	53	49	122	33	60	113	962	—	962
Feb 9	342	274	10	41	112	56	46	117	32	55	94	905	—	905
Mar 9	321	264	14	39	106	61	51	128	35	56	90	901	—	901
Apr 13	349	268	13	41	107	68	76	158	50	75	216	1,153	—	1,153

Note: Students claiming benefit during a vacation are not included in the totals of the unemployed. From November 1986 most students have only been eligible for benefit in the summer vacation.  
\*Included in South East.

## UNEMPLOYMENT Rates by age 2.15

UNITED KINGDOM	18-19	20-24	25-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 and over	All ages*
<b>MALE AND FEMALE</b>								
1986								
Apr	21.6	17.2	13.9	9.4	7.8	11.8	5.4	11.9
July	20.9	17.8	13.6	9.2	7.6	11.7	5.4	11.7
Oct	20.8	16.6	13.4	9.1	7.6	11.8	5.5	11.6
1987								
Jan	20.3	16.8	13.6	9.5	7.7	12.3	5.6	11.7
Apr	18.4	15.7	13.0	9.1	7.4	12.0	5.3	11.0
July	16.9	15.3	11.9	8.4	6.9	11.3	4.8	10.3
Oct	16.3	13.6	11.2	7.8	6.6	11.0	4.4	9.7
1988								
Jan	15.4	13.4	11.2	7.8	6.5	10.7	4.0	9.5
Apr	13.6	12.2	10.5	7.3	6.2	10.3	3.7	8.9
July	12.3	11.8	9.5	6.6	5.6	9.6	3.3	8.1
Oct	12.0	10.6	9.0	6.2	5.3	9.4	3.2	7.4
1989								
Jan	11.4	10.5	9.0	6.1	5.2	8.9	3.0	7.3
Apr	9.9	9.5	8.3	5.6	4.8	8.2	2.6	6.6
<b>MALE</b>								
1986								
Apr	23.6	19.4	14.7	11.6	10.0	14.8	7.6	13.9
July	22.5	19.6	14.3	11.2	9.7	14.5	7.5	13.5
Oct	22.1	18.4	14.0	11.0	9.7	14.6	7.6	13.3
1987								
Jan	22.5	18.8	14.6	11.7	9.9	15.4	7.9	13.7
Apr	20.6	17.7	14.0	11.2	9.6	15.1	7.4	13.0
July	18.8	17.0	13.0	10.3	8.9	14.2	6.6	12.1
Oct	18.0	15.3	12.2	9.7	8.5	13.8	6.1	11.5
1988								
Jan	17.4	15.3	12.4	9.7	8.5	13.5	5.7	11.4
Apr	15.4	14.0	11.6	9.2	8.0	12.9	5.1	10.6
July	13.9	13.3	10.5	8.2	7.2	12.0	4.6	9.7
Oct	13.5	12.1	10.0	7.7	6.8	11.7	4.5	8.9
1989								
Jan	13.2	12.4	10.2	7.7	6.7	11.3	4.2	8.9
Apr	11.6	11.3	9.6	7.2	6.2	10.3	3.7	8.1
<b>FEMALE</b>								
1986								
Apr	19.3	14.3	12.5	6.2	4.8	7.6	0.2	9.0
July	19.0	15.3	12.5	6.3	4.9	7.6	0.3	9.1
Oct	19.2	14.2	12.5	6.2	4.9	7.8	0.3	9.0
1987								
Jan	17.8	14.1	12.1	6.2	4.8	7.8	0.3	8.8
Apr	15.9	13.0	11.2	5.9	4.6	7.6	0.3	8.1
July	14.7	13.0	10.3	5.4	4.4	7.2	0.3	7.7
Oct	14.4	11.3	9.6	5.0	4.2	7.0	0.3	7.2
1988								
Jan	13.3	10.9	9.3	4.9	4.1	6.8	0.2	7.0
Apr	11.6	9.9	8.7	4.6	3.9	6.6	0.3	6.5
July	10.6	9.9	8.0	4.3	3.7	6.2	0.2	6.0
Oct	10.3	8.5	7.4	3.9	3.4	6.1	0.2	5.3
1989								
Jan	9.4	8.1	7.2	3.7	3.3	5.7	0.2	5.0
Apr	8.0	7.0	6.3	3.3	3.0	5.2	0.2	4.5

\* Includes those aged under 18. These figures have been affected by the new benefit regulations for under 18 year olds introduced in September 1988. See also note \*\* to tables 2.1 and 2.2.  
Notes: 1 Unemployment rates by age are expressed as a percentage of the estimated workforce in the corresponding age groups at the relevant mid-year for 1986 and 1987 figures, and, this month have been updated to incorporate mid-1988 denominators for the 1988 and 1989 figures. These rates are thus consistent with the rates (not seasonally adjusted) shown in tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3.  
2 While the figures are presented to one decimal place, they should not be regarded as implying precision to that degree. The figures for those aged 18-19 are subject to the widest errors.

## 2.14 UNEMPLOYMENT Temporarily stopped: regions

	South East	Greater London*	East Anglia	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	Yorkshire and Humber-side	North West	North	Wales	Scotland	Great Britain	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
<b>MALE AND FEMALE</b>														
1988														
Apr 14	145	92	42	47	618	402	895	388	305	367	2,050	5,259	1,247	6,506
May 12	92	70	32	29	355	461	754	224	256	548	1,843	4,594	1,184	5,778
June 9	72	58	17	17	375	341	666	724	133	270	1,471	4,086	1,403	5,489
July 14	84	76	30	12	259	277	503	455	192	144	1,560	3,516	1,012	4,528
Aug 11	74	57	34	41	158	153	430	218	202	127	977	2,414	792	3,206
Sept 8	63	47	34	16	124	265	589	225	165	64	1,123	2,668	1,061	3,729
Oct 13	62	46	42	28	164	149	657	383	74	172	1,695	3,426	1,019	4,445
Nov 10	72	46	59	20	199	193	669	162	109	169	1,559	3,211	860	4,071
Dec 8	57	36	44	30	112	232	747	226	127	176	1,484	3,235	0	3,235
1989														
Jan 12	88	69	53	17	237	292	731	706	259	182	2,524	5,089	986	6,075
Feb 9	107	73	39	32	297	424	1,016	630	344	196	1,979	5,064	997	6,061
Mar 9	321	288	49	44	280	592	843	1,766	298	291	2,284	6,768	1,512	8,280
Apr 13	132	101	183	40	394	825	1,161	1,216	349	262	1,513	6,075	1,876	7,951

Note: Temporarily stopped workers are not included in the totals of the unemployed.  
\*Included in South East.

THOUSAND

	United Kingdom*	Australia §§	Austria †	Belgium †	Canada §§	Denmark †	Finland ††	France †	Germany † (FR)	Greece**
<b>NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) NOT SEASONALLY ADJUSTED</b>										
<b>Monthly</b>										
1988 Apr	2,536	643	163	407	1,085	250	118	2,478	2,262	111
May	2,427	592	137	395	1,035	230	121	2,432	2,149	92
June	2,341	569	119	386	973	219	117	2,401	2,131	90
July	2,327	519	118	402	1,052	213	111	2,470	2,199	86
Aug	2,291	539	119	395	1,040	229	100	2,552	2,167	84
Sept***	2,311	555	124	381	960	230	101	2,633	2,100	83
Oct	2,119	508	141	377	963	243	108	2,654	2,074	90
Nov	2,067	489	163	374	1,001	251	96	2,617	2,190	112
Dec	2,047	563	208	379	985	263	105	2,646	2,191	136
1989 Jan	2,074	592	208	390	1,112	..	121	2,661	2,335	145
Feb	2,018	..	199	384	1,100	..	..	2,597	2,305	150
Mar	1,960	..	..	..	1,147	..	..	2,547	2,178	..
Apr	1,884	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,035	..	..
Percentage rate: latest month	6.6	7.5	6.6	14.0	8.6	9.4	4.8	10.0	7.2	7.3
latest month: change on a year ago	-1.9	-0.7	-0.6	-1.7	-0.3	+1.4	-1.2	-0.3	-0.8	-0.2
<b>NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) SEASONALLY ADJUSTED</b>										
<b>Annual averages</b>										
1985	3,036	597	140	478	1,329	245	163	2,425	2,305	89
1986	3,107	611	152	443	1,236	214	161	2,517	2,223	110
1987	2,822	629	165	435	1,172	217	130	2,623	2,233	..
1988	2,295	574	159	395	1,046	..	115	2,570	2,237	..
<b>Monthly</b>										
1988 Apr	2,403	629	159	404	1,025	234	115	2,539	2,265	..
May	2,364	593	159	400	1,042	240	131	2,559	2,269	..
June	2,324	585	159	368	1,011	240	116	2,578	2,268	..
July	2,267	541	152	404	1,057	240	112	2,614	2,264	..
Aug	2,226	560	159	400	1,069	244	111	2,610	2,249	..
Sept	2,192	559	159	389	1,048	245	107	2,556	2,239	..
Oct	2,158	548	156	381	1,061	251	108	2,570	2,222	..
Nov	2,105	533	156	381	1,056	257	94	2,552	2,192	..
Dec	2,037	558	161	377	1,032	260	104	2,563	2,138	..
1989 Jan	1,988	566	149	374	1,017	..	109	2,548	2,076	..
Feb	1,949	..	143	371	1,022	..	..	2,527	2,050	..
Mar	1,917	..	..	..	1,010	..	..	2,522	2,010	..
Apr	1,856	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,023	..	..
Percentage rate: latest month	6.5	7.0	4.8	13.5	7.5	9.4	4.5	9.9	7.1	..
latest three months: change on previous three months	-0.5	-0.1	-0.2	-0.3	-0.2	+0.5	-0.2	-0.1	-0.4	..
<b>OECD STANDARDISED RATES: SEASONALLY ADJUSTED (2)</b>										
Latest month	7.0	6.9	..	9.5	7.6	..	4.1	10.2	5.7	..
Per cent	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Notes: 1 The figures on national definitions are not directly comparable due to differences in coverage and methods of compilation.  
 2 Unemployment as a percentage of the total labour force. The OECD standardised unemployment rates are based on national statistics but have been adjusted when necessary, and as far as the available data allow, to bring them as close as possible to the internationally agreed ILO definitions. The standardised rates are therefore more suitable than the national figures for comparing the levels of unemployment between countries.  
 3 OECD standardised rates for Italy are no longer being updated and are subject to revision in the light of new information from the EC Labour Force Survey.  
 4 The following symbols apply only to the figures on national definitions.  
 \* The seasonally adjusted series for the United Kingdom takes account of past discontinuities to be consistent with the current coverage (see notes to table 2.1).  
 \*\* Numbers registered at employment offices. Rates are calculated as percentages of civilian labour force, except Greece, which excludes civil servants, professional people, and farmers.  
 \*\*\* See notes \*\* and \*\*\* to tables 2.1 and 2.2.

THOUSAND

	Irish Republic**	Italy ††	Japan§	Luxembourg †	Netherlands †	Norway †	Portugal †	Spain**	Sweden §§	Switzerland †	United States §§
<b>NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) NOT SEASONALLY ADJUSTED</b>											
<b>Monthly</b>											
1988 Apr	242	3,966	1,660	2.5	664	43	313	2,940	70	21.1	6,359
May	236	3,817	1,560	2.3	647	38	306	2,878	66	19.8	6,553
June	238	3,749	1,440	2.2	674	42	297	2,824	58	18.6	6,819
July	242	3,770	1,480	2.3	686	45	294	2,776	77	18.3	6,823
Aug	243	3,801	1,570	2.2	692	53	291	2,745	80	17.5	6,659
Sept	236	3,869	1,510	2.4	688	53	291	2,745	78	16.8	6,368
Oct	233	3,870	1,460	2.4	678	57	295	2,756	74	16.8	6,182
Nov	234	3,866	1,410	2.4	679	62	305	2,762	65	17.5	6,325
Dec	243	3,847	1,340	2.4	690	70	313	2,769	51	18.4	6,142
1989 Jan	245	3,851	1,460	2.5	..	87	333	2,773	75	18.9	7,309
Feb	242	3,837	1,510	2.4	..	86	337	2,740	69	18.0	6,883
Mar	241	..	..	2.4	..	..	..	..	60	..	6,378
Apr	233	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,229
Percentage rate: latest month	18.0	16.5	2.4	1.6	14.1	5.3	7.8	18.7	1.3	0.7	5.0
latest month: change on a year ago	-0.6	+0.1	-0.4	-0.1	-0.1	+2.8	+0.3	-2.1	-0.5	-0.1	-0.2
<b>NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) SEASONALLY ADJUSTED</b>											
<b>Annual averages</b>											
1985	231	2,959	1,566	..	762	52	..	2,643	124	27.0	8,312
1986	236	3,173	1,667	..	712	36	..	2,759	98	22.8	8,237
1987	247	3,204	1,731	..	686	32	319	2,924	84	..	7,410
1988	242	3,848	1,552	..	..	50	304	2,869	..	19.6	6,692
1988 Apr	241	3,921	1,570	..	683	43	303	2,916	78	21.0	6,610
May	240	3,837	1,540	..	679	46	303	2,918	82	21.0	6,783
June	240	3,815	1,450	..	695	48	302	2,911	71	21.0	6,455
July	244	3,877	1,550	..	680	49	302	2,887	80	21.0	6,625
Aug	242	3,987	1,590	..	682	51	302	2,863	64	20.0	6,797
Sept	241	3,862	1,530	..	683	56	302	2,817	62	19.0	6,614
Oct	241	3,913	1,520	..	679	60	301	2,776	77	19.0	6,518
Nov	239	3,919	1,500	..	681	66	305	2,737	67	18.0	6,563
Dec	238	3,894	1,460	..	677	67	308	2,727	51	17.0	6,554
1989 Jan	237	3,809	1,430	..	..	73	317	2,683	..	15.0	6,716
Feb	235	3,748	..	..	..	75	321	2,651	..	..	6,328
Mar	236	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,128
Apr	233	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6,546
Percentage rate: latest month	17.9	16.1	2.3	..	13.9	4.7	7.5	18.1	1.2	.6	5.2
latest three months: change on previous three months	-0.2	-0.3	-0.1	..	-0.1	+0.6	+0.3	-0.6	-0.1	-0.1	-0.2
<b>OECD STANDARDISED RATES: SEASONALLY ADJUSTED (2)</b>											
Latest month	..	..	2.3	..	9.4	4.4	..	18.1	1.6	..	5.1
Per cent	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

† Numbers registered at employment offices. Rates are calculated as percentages of total employees.  
 † Insured unemployed. Rates are calculated as percentages of total insured population.  
 †† Labour force sample survey. Rates are calculated as percentages of total labour force.  
 †† Registered unemployed published by SOEC. The rates are calculated as percentages of the civilian labour force.  
 § Seasonally adjusted figures are available only for the first month each quarter and taken from OECD sources.  
 §§ Labour force sample survey. Rates are calculated as a percentage of the civilian labour force.  
 N/C no change.

THOUSAND

UNITED KINGDOM Month ending	INFLOW†							
	Male and Female		Male		Female			
	All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	Married	
1988	Apr 14	323.9	-33.2	210.3	-22.3	113.6	-10.7	47.9
	May 12	276.7	-44.1	180.4	-24.4	96.3	-19.7	39.8
	June 9	273.8	-41.7	178.2	-23.7	95.6	-18.1	39.2
	July 14	347.5	-81.6	214.9	-48.4	132.6	-33.2	43.4
	Aug 11	311.6	-72.8	194.4	-43.2	117.2	-29.6	44.4
	Sept 8**	327.4	-129.2	209.8	-71.5	117.6	-57.6	43.4
	Oct 13	319.6	-100.6	206.4	-58.5	113.2	-42.1	42.0
	Nov 10	297.8	-77.5	196.1	-45.0	101.6	-32.6	40.8
	Dec 8	269.9	-58.7	185.1	-32.5	84.8	-26.2	34.9
1989	Jan 12	269.4	-74.9	175.4	-39.3	94.0	-35.6	38.4
	Feb 9	290.0	-55.2	192.3	-28.3	97.7	-26.9	39.8
	Mar 9	264.0	-49.0	178.8	-23.7	85.2	-25.4	33.7
	Apr 13	247.5	-76.4	165.7	-44.6	81.8	-31.8	34.8
UNITED KINGDOM Month ending	OUTFLOW†							
	Male and Female		Male		Female			
	All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	Married	
1988	Apr 14	372.5	-23.9	242.7	-14.6	129.8	-9.3	53.5
	May 12	394.9	-30.5	260.2	-12.1	134.7	-18.5	55.5
	June 9	367.1	-36.3	243.2	-20.8	123.9	-15.5	49.8
	July 14	359.7	-68.2	237.2	-41.8	122.5	-26.4	46.9
	Aug 11	350.1	-69.5	226.6	-44.1	123.4	-25.5	45.3
	Sept 8**	305.9	-145.9	190.4	-87.2	115.5	-58.7	42.3
	Oct 13	486.1	-62.9	301.8	-39.0	184.3	-23.8	61.7
	Nov 10	354.0	-78.3	228.1	-45.8	126.0	-32.5	52.0
	Dec 8	292.0	-25.5	188.7	-15.0	103.4	-10.5	40.3
1989	Jan 12	245.4	-76.2	156.6	-45.9	88.7	-30.2	39.4
	Feb 9	350.8	-55.8	233.7	-30.7	117.1	-25.0	49.8
	Mar 9	326.8	-65.7	217.3	-38.3	109.5	-27.4	44.7
	Apr 13	313.9	-58.6	207.8	-35.0	106.1	-23.7	45.5

\* The unemployment flow statistics are described in *Employment Gazette*, August 1983, pp 351-358. A seasonally adjusted series cannot yet be estimated. Flow figures are collected for four or five-week periods between count dates; the figures in the table are converted to a standard 4½ week month.

† The flows in this table are not on quite the same basis as those in table 2.20. While table 2.20 relates to computerised records only for GB, this table gives estimates of total flows for the UK. It is assumed that computerised inflows are the best estimates of total inflows, while outflows are calculated by subtracting the changes in stocks from the inflows. While these assumptions are reasonable in most months, the inflows have tended to be understated a little in September and after Easter when many young people have joined the register and with consequent backlogs in feeding details of new claims into the benefit computers. This also leads to some overstatement of the inflow in the following month. Therefore the imputed outflows in this table are also affected.

\*\* See notes \*\* and \*\*\* to tables 2.1 and 2.2.

THOUSAND

INFLOW	Month ending	Age group										All ages
		Under 18	18-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-44	45-54	55-59	60 and over		
MALE												
1988	Oct 13	2.4	28.5	53.2	31.1	19.3	28.3	20.1	10.3	6.3	199.6	
	Nov 10	1.4	22.6	49.4	31.2	19.6	29.5	20.9	9.9	6.0	190.4	
	Dec 8	1.2	21.2	46.1	29.8	19.4	29.1	19.4	8.7	5.0	179.8	
1989	Jan 12	0.9	19.5	43.7	28.1	18.3	26.7	18.6	8.5	5.0	169.3	
	Feb 9	0.9	23.3	48.7	31.3	20.4	28.7	19.7	8.5	4.8	186.2	
	Mar 9	0.8	20.6	44.0	29.2	19.1	27.8	19.0	8.3	4.6	173.5	
	Apr 13	0.7	18.4	39.4	26.6	17.8	25.9	18.6	8.3	4.6	160.3	
FEMALE												
1988	Oct 13	1.9	21.7	31.3	17.4	9.2	13.7	9.6	3.3	—	108.1	
	Nov 10	1.1	15.6	28.4	16.7	8.8	13.7	10.2	3.3	—	97.8	
	Dec 8	0.9	12.9	23.1	14.3	7.9	11.8	8.3	2.7	—	81.9	
1989	Jan 12	0.6	14.2	25.8	15.2	8.6	13.5	9.2	2.7	—	89.9	
	Feb 9	0.8	15.9	26.6	16.2	9.0	13.2	9.2	2.8	—	93.7	
	Mar 9	0.6	13.1	22.5	13.8	7.9	12.4	8.9	2.7	—	81.9	
	Apr 13	0.6	11.6	20.8	13.4	7.8	12.4	8.9	2.7	—	78.1	
Changes on a year earlier												
MALE												
1988	Oct 13	-23.8	-4.4	-10.4	-4.3	-2.9	-4.7	-3.4	-1.3	-1.5	-56.9	
	Nov 10	-16.4	-3.4	-8.8	-3.2	-2.7	-4.6	-2.7	-1.1	-1.2	-44.2	
	Dec 8	-13.8	-1.1	-5.2	-2.3	-1.9	-3.1	-2.3	-1.2	-1.3	-32.1	
1989	Jan 12	-15.2	-2.1	-6.2	-2.9	-2.2	-4.1	-2.6	-1.8	-1.9	-39.1	
	Feb 9	-15.1	0.2	-3.8	-1.3	-1.1	-3.0	-1.7	-1.0	-1.3	-28.2	
	Mar 9	-12.6	-0.1	-3.4	-0.7	-0.8	-2.0	-1.6	-0.8	-1.2	-23.3	
	Apr 13	-15.7	-0.7	-6.6	-3.3	-2.4	-5.6	-1.6	-2.6	-2.3	-43.8	
FEMALE												
1988	Oct 13	-18.8	-3.6	-8.5	-3.8	-2.4	-2.8	-1.1	-0.4	—	-41.4	
	Nov 10	-12.6	-2.8	-6.9	-3.7	-2.3	-2.5	-0.9	-0.5	—	-32.1	
	Dec 8	-10.1	-1.4	-5.5	-3.1	-1.8	-2.3	-1.0	-0.4	—	-25.7	
1989	Jan 12	-12.2	-2.5	-7.5	-4.4	-2.7	-3.6	-1.6	-0.8	—	-35.3	
	Feb 9	-11.5	-0.5	-5.2	-3.5	-2.2	-2.3	-1.2	-0.4	—	-28.8	
	Mar 9	-9.2	-0.7	-5.1	-3.7	-2.2	-2.3	-1.1	-0.4	—	-24.7	
	Apr 13	-11.4	-1.0	-5.9	-4.0	-2.6	-3.4	-2.0	-0.9	—	-31.3	

## OUTFLOW

Month ending	Age group										All ages
	Under 18	18-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-44	45-54 †	55-59 †	60 and over †		
MALE											
1988	Oct 13	27.6	32.0	70.7	39.2	25.5	37.3	23.2	9.1	7.4	272.0
	Nov 10	1.9	21.6	52.6	33.0	22.3	33.7	21.8	8.7	6.9	202.6
	Dec 8	1.1	17.7	42.8	27.1	18.4	28.6	19.0	7.6	6.0	168.2
1989	Jan 12	0.8	13.0	33.7	22.3	14.9	22.9	15.2	7.4	5.3	135.4
	Feb 9	0.9	20.1	51.3	34.6	23.6	35.5	22.6	9.5	6.8	204.9
	Mar 9	0.7	19.4	49.2	33.0	22.2	33.3	21.8	8.7	6.2	194.6
	Apr 13	0.6	18.2	46.5	30.9	20.7	31.2	20.4	9.1	6.1	183.6
FEMALE											
1988	Oct 13	21.1	25.6	47.4	24.1	13.8	19.9	12.4	3.7	0.1	168.1
	Nov 10	1.6	17.2	33.6	19.5	10.8	16.1	10.9	3.4	0.1	113.2
	Dec 8	0.9	14.2	27.9	15.9	9.0	13.0	9.0	2.8	0.1	92.8
1989	Jan 12	0.7	10.2	21.6	14.5	8.3	11.7	8.0	2.7	0.1	77.8
	Feb 9	0.8	14.4	29.9	19.7	11.0	15.2	10.3	3.2	0.1	104.6
	Mar 9	0.6	13.8	28.4	17.8	10.3	14.6	10.2	3.0	0.1	98.7
	Apr 13	0.5	12.8	26.8	17.2	9.8	14.3	10.1	3.2	—	94.7
Changes on a year earlier											
MALE											
1988	Oct 13	0.3	-12.0	-10.8	-1.5	-1.5	-2.0	-1.0	-0.8	-2.0	-31.2
	Nov 10	-17.7	-5.4	-7.0	-2.2	-0.8	-1.5	-0.9	-0.5	-2.2	-38.4
	Dec 8	-11.2	-1.9	-1.5	0.5	0.9	0.9	0.4	-0.1	-1.3	-13.3
1989	Jan 12	-10.0	-4.1	-8.1	-4.2	-2.6	-3.2	-2.0	0.2	-2.0	-36.1
	Feb 9	-14.1	-3.6	-4.4	-1.6	-0.3	-0.3	-0.8	0.3	-2.3	-27.2
	Mar 9	-12.6	-3.7	-6.3	-2.4	-1.4	-2.5	-1.1	-0.5	-2.3	-32.6
	Apr 13	-10.6	-2.9	-5.0	-2.0	-1.7	-3.2	-2.0	-0.2	-2.0	-29.7
FEMALE											
1988	Oct 13	1.1	-9.3	-7.2	-2.1	-1.3	-1.0	0.5	0.1	—	-19.2
	Nov 10	-13.0	-4.3	-5.6	-3.0	-2.0	-1.6	0.1	—	—	-29.5
	Dec 8	-8.4	-0.8	-1.0	-0.7	-0.3	0.5	0.8	0.3	—	-9.7
1989	Jan 12	-7.5	-3.2	-6.0	-3.4	-2.2	-2.6	-0.8	-0.1	—	-25.9
	Feb 9	-10.8	-2.8	-4.3	-1.6	-1.0	-1.2	-0.2	-0.1	—	-22.0
	Mar 9	-9.4	-2.8	-5.1	-3.2	-1.6	-2.0	-0.4	-0.3	—	-24.9
	Apr 13	-8.1	-2.6	-4.8	-2.6	-1.7	-1.5	-0.3	-0.2	—	-21.8

\* Flow figures are collected for four or five-week periods between count dates; the figures in the table are converted to a standard 4½ week month.

† The outflows, for older age groups in particular, are affected by the exclusion of non-computerised records from this table. Those who attend benefit offices only quarterly, who are mainly aged 50 and over, cease to be part of the computerised records.

# 2.30 CONFIRMED REDUNDANCIES † Regions

	South East	Greater London**	East Anglia	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	Yorkshire and Humberside	North West	North	England	Wales	Scotland	Great Britain
1986	39,284	24,737	5,001	16,509	22,645	21,283	27,151	40,132	22,679	194,684	11,359	31,958	238,001
1987	19,850	12,246	2,168	13,553	12,648	14,974	15,866	23,244	13,910	116,213	5,089	22,833	144,135
1988 R	13,007	7,191	1,637	9,471	5,365	10,521	14,751	19,565	12,132	86,449	7,170	14,311	107,930
1987 Q4	3,773	2,343	609	3,347	2,370	2,254	2,595	4,994	2,851	22,793	1,373	5,254	29,420
1988 Q1 R	3,253	1,907	566	1,939	1,519	1,368	1,721	3,131	3,612	27,169	2,978	3,158	33,305
Q2 R	3,873	2,755	403	3,468	1,741	1,569	5,212	5,179	2,868	24,313	1,292	2,982	28,587
Q3 R	3,155	1,310	368	2,429	1,199	1,311	2,013	4,524	3,390	18,389	1,555	4,412	24,356
Q4 R	2,726	1,219	300	1,635	906	2,273	1,745	4,731	2,262	16,578	1,345	3,759	21,682
1988 Apr R	1,594	1,101	179	1,134	677	1,123	2,461	1,778	827	9,773	771	899	11,443
May R	1,067	771	143	1,556	436	243	1,705	1,396	1,131	7,677	864	864	8,744
June R	1,212	883	81	778	628	203	1,046	2,005	910	6,863	318	1,219	8,400
July R	1,035	450	160	1,128	402	245	750	2,073	982	6,775	485	1,740	9,000
Aug R	896	402	111	558	261	398	603	1,347	1,109	4,983	385	1,818	7,186
Sept R	1,224	458	150	990	536	668	660	1,104	1,299	6,631	685	854	8,170
Oct R	988	448	48	553	242	209	528	1,673	428	4,869	312	1,319	6,300
Nov R	809	430	89	541	167	899	661	1,044	631	4,841	415	1,135	6,391
Dec R	929	341	163	541	497	1,165	556	2,014	1,203	7,068	618	1,305	8,991
1989 Jan	637	242	74	434	704	444	391	1,264	370	4,318	430	1,061	5,809
Feb R	869	535	65	382	338	564	318	2,337	588	5,461	384	1,093	6,938
Mar*	982	551	9	594	436	2,024	229	1,325	593	6,192	648	2,651	9,491
Apr*	668	97	147	710	474	741	134	978	285	4,137	435	561	5,133

\*\* Included in South East.  
Other notes: see table 2.31.

# 2.31 CONFIRMED REDUNDANCIES † Industry

GREAT BRITAIN		Division or Group	1987	1988 R	1987 Q4	1988 Q1 R	Q2 R	Q3 R	Q4 R	1989 Feb R	Mar *	Apr *
SIC 1980												
	0	Agriculture, forestry and fishing	489	169	91	39	74	22	34	37	5	0
		Coal extraction and coke	13,498	10,933	1,765	8,508	1,518	213	694	553	2,366	839
		Mineral oil and natural gas	1,431	931	203	73	110	0	20	5	18	5
		Electricity, gas, other energy and water	15,119	11,663	2,200	8,735	1,774	346	808	589	2,518	848
	1	Energy and water supply industries	15,119	11,663	2,200	8,735	1,774	346	808	589	2,518	848
		Extraction of other minerals and ores	21,23	137	314	27	61	196	36	21	0	9
		Metal manufacture	22	2,983	1,649	505	313	690	265	381	161	108
		Manufacture of non-metallic products	24	1,934	1,501	145	314	862	131	194	17	39
		Chemicals and man-made fibres	25-26	3,518	1,941	760	394	495	710	342	50	295
	2	Extraction of minerals and ores other than fuels; manufacture of metals, mineral products and chemicals	8,572	5,405	1,437	1,082	2,243	1,142	938	228	451	183
		Manufacture of metal goods	31	4,918	2,043	1,256	684	604	314	441	203	191
		Mechanical engineering	32	16,726	16,127	5,302	4,010	5,077	2,767	347	770	529
		Manufacture of office machinery and data processing equipment	33	1,261	410	133	29	148	86	338	29	11
		Electrical and electronic engineering	34	13,222	6,800	2,743	1,933	2,526	993	1,348	460	464
		Manufacture of motor vehicles	35	3,842	1,517	668	564	527	68	358	34	7
		Manufacture of other transport equipment**	36	8,917	5,200	1,830	1,569	1,754	1,172	705	283	507
		Instrument engineering	37	717	505	102	105	212	64	124	4	155
	3	Metal goods, engineering and vehicles industries	49,603	32,602	12,034	9,157	9,781	7,835	5,829	1,976	1,957	1,346
		Food, drink and tobacco	41-42	10,922	10,639	2,164	2,939	3,330	1,961	2,409	451	419
		Textiles	43	4,382	4,859	825	895	843	2,333	473	565	489
		Leather, footwear and clothing	44-45	3,167	3,969	484	943	948	1,095	701	277	323
		Timber and furniture	46	1,800	1,610	425	391	332	617	270	57	118
		Paper, printing and publishing	47	4,354	3,983	638	754	1,441	352	836	214	151
		Other manufacturing	48-49	4,177	2,533	942	779	328	731	695	178	155
	4	Other manufacturing industries	28,802	27,593	5,478	6,701	7,067	6,187	7,638	2,074	1,685	1,283
	5	Construction	10,615	7,784	2,830	1,921	2,015	2,346	1,502	341	980	380
		Wholesale distribution	61-63	5,280	3,378	1,006	764	1,038	698	192	200	228
		Retail distribution	64-65	8,657	6,324	1,913	2,480	1,479	1,581	784	270	275
		Hotel and catering	66	2,342	1,234	207	199	328	530	29	129	19
		Repair of consumer goods and vehicles	67	834	84	42	25	15	30	14	25	0
	6	Distribution, hotels and catering, repairs	17,113	11,020	3,168	3,468	2,860	3,019	1,673	516	683	522
		Transport	71-77	4,256	4,841	826	718	1,299	1,334	577	479	181
		Telecommunications	79	648	197	10	114	0	27	56	5	0
	7	Transport and communication	4,904	5,038	836	832	1,490	1,326	1,390	582	483	181
	8	Insurance, banking, finance and business services	1,789	1,151	429	526	228	305	92	34	128	99
		Public administration and defence	91-94	3,569	3,782	554	460	767	1,201	1,354	369	135
		Medical and other health services	95	2,068	773	146	157	98	361	174	225	72
		Other services nes	96-99.00	1,092	950	217	227	131	529	63	18	84
	9	Other services	6,729	5,505	917	844	1,055	1,828	1,778	561	601	291
	1-4	All production industries	102,496	77,263	21,149	25,675	20,865	15,510	15,213	4,867	6,611	3,660
	2-4	All manufacturing industries	86,977	65,600	18,949	16,940	19,091	15,164	14,405	4,278	4,093	2,812
	6-9	All service industries	30,535	22,714	5,350	5,670	5,633	6,478	4,933	1,693	1,895	1,093
	0-9	ALL INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES	144,135	107,930	29,420	33,305	28,587	24,356	21,682	6,938	9,491	5,133

\* Provisional figures as at May 1, 1989; final figures are expected to be higher than this. The total for Great Britain is projected to be about 10,000 in March and 7,000 in April.  
† Figures are based on reports (ES955s) which follow up notifications of redundancies under Section 100 of the Employment Protection Act 1975 shortly before they are expected to take place. The figures are not comprehensive as employers are required to notify only impending redundancies involving ten or more workers. A full description of these Employment Service figures is given in an article on p 245 of the June 1983 issue of *Employment Gazette*.  
\*\* Now includes shipbuilding and repairs.

# VACANCIES 3.1 UK vacancies at jobcentres\*: seasonally adjusted THOUSAND

UNITED KINGDOM	UNFILLED VACANCIES			INFLOW		OUTFLOW		of which PLACINGS	
	Level	Change since previous month	Average change over 3 months ended	Level	Average change over 3 months ended	Level	Average change over 3 months ended	Level	Average change over 3 months ended
1984 )	150.2			193.9		193.7		149.8	
1985 )	162.1			201.6		200.4		154.6	
1986 )	188.8			212.2		208.3		157.4	
1987 )	235.4			226.4		222.3		159.5	
1988 )	248.5			231.1		232.7		159.0	
1987 Apr 3	219.6	2.5	2.2	222.4		214.7	-2.2	156.8	-2.0
May 8	231.6	12.1	6.4	223.1	5.1	215.5	1.4	156.8	-0.1
June 5	233.7	2.0	5.5	229.8	-0.4	227.0	0.4	163.3	-1.2
July 3	235.3	1.7	5.2	221.1	-0.4	217.9	1.1	155.3	-0.5
Aug 7	237.7	2.4	2.0	224.4	0.4	219.4	1.3	155.8	-0.3
Sept 4	244.4	6.7	3.6	229.3	-0.2	220.4	-2.2	156.7	-2.2
Oct 2	259.9	15.5	8.2	235.6	4.8	223.8	2.0	157.6	0.8
Nov 6	265.1	5.2	9.1	234.9	3.5	229.4	3.3	158.9	1.0
Dec 4	254.9	-10.1	3.5	234.7	1.8	241.1	6.9	165.6	3.0
1988 Jan 8	250.8	-4.2	-3.0	227.3	-2.8	233.4	3.2	165.7	2.7
Feb 5	249.6	-1.2	-5.2	234.7	-0.1	239.2	3.3	165.3	2.1
Mar 4	249.4	-0.2	-1.8	236.0	0.5	236.1	-1.7	163.0	-0.9
Apr 8	255.9	6.6	1.7	230.6	-1.1	227.3	-2.1	158.1	-2.5
May 6	254.5	-1.5	1.6	231.2	-1.2	228.0	-3.7	157.9	-2.5
June 3	255.1	0.6	1.9	230.8	-1.8	229.7	-2.1	156.3	-2.2
July 8	249.7	-5.4	-2.1	230.3	-0.4	231.8	1.5	156.4	0.6
Aug 5	242.7	-7.0	-3.9	227.0	-1.4	232.6	1.5	156.8	-0.4
Sept 2	240.3	-2.5	-4.9	227.7	-1.0	229.0	-0.2	155.4	-0.3
Oct 7	251.2	10.9	0.5	232.8	0.8	229.3	-0.9	153.4	-1.0
Nov 4	245.2	-6.0	0.8	234.0	2.3	242.5	3.3	162.3	1.8
Dec 2	238.3	-6.9	-0.7	230.8	1.0	233.4	1.5	157.6	0.8
1989 Jan 6	229.2	-9.1	-7.3	220.4					



## VACANCIES Regions: vacancies remaining unfilled at jobcentres and careers offices

		THOUSAND													
		South East	Greater London*	East Anglia	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	Yorkshire and Humber-side	North West	North	Wales	Scotland	Great Britain	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
<b>Vacancies at jobcentres: total †</b>															
1984	)	59.4	26.0	5.4	13.6	10.7	8.1	8.2	14.5	6.6	7.3	14.8	148.6	1.2	149.8
1985	)	62.3	26.6	5.8	16.1	12.2	9.0	8.7	16.0	7.8	8.0	14.6	160.5	1.2	161.7
1986	)	70.8	30.0	6.2	18.1	15.4	10.3	11.3	19.0	9.8	9.5	16.3	186.8	1.4	188.1
1987	)	90.7	37.7	8.0	19.7	21.1	12.2	15.6	24.2	12.0	11.0	18.8	233.2	1.6	234.9
1988	)	95.1	32.2	9.7	20.4	24.1	13.8	15.5	23.9	11.4	12.1	20.0	245.9	2.0	247.8
1988	Apr 8	98.3	33.8	9.3	21.6	23.3	13.9	15.2	23.6	11.6	11.7	20.6	249.1	2.1	251.3
	May 6	102.4	34.3	10.1	23.2	23.4	14.2	15.5	25.2	11.7	13.1	21.3	260.1	2.1	262.2
	June 3	106.0	35.1	10.5	23.8	24.2	14.8	16.0	25.6	12.1	13.5	21.0	267.4	2.1	269.5
	July 8	98.3	30.0	11.1	22.9	24.2	13.9	15.5	24.2	11.5	13.1	21.2	256.1	2.1	258.2
	Aug 5	92.1	27.8	10.5	20.3	22.6	13.6	15.1	23.3	11.3	12.6	20.7	242.1	1.9	244.0
	Sept 2	96.2	30.4	11.0	21.8	24.8	15.1	16.6	25.7	12.0	13.2	21.8	258.2	1.9	260.1
	Oct 7	100.6	34.2	11.0	21.8	27.7	15.9	17.8	27.4	12.6	12.8	22.0	269.8	2.0	271.8
	Nov 4	91.6	31.2	10.3	19.7	26.7	15.0	16.2	26.2	11.7	12.4	20.5	250.3	2.0	252.3
	Dec 2	79.4	27.5	8.9	17.5	24.1	13.2	14.2	23.0	11.0	11.4	18.8	221.4	1.9	223.3
1989	Jan 6	71.5	24.6	8.3	16.1	21.5	12.5	13.1	20.6	9.9	11.0	17.0	201.5	1.9	203.3
	Feb 3	70.0	24.1	7.9	16.5	20.9	12.0	13.0	21.1	9.6	11.6	17.2	200.0	2.1	202.0
	Mar 3	68.8	23.2	8.1	18.0	20.5	12.1	12.8	21.7	9.9	12.2	18.5	202.6	2.2	204.8
	Apr 7	72.4	24.0	8.5	19.6	21.2	12.8	12.9	23.1	10.6	13.0	20.2	214.3	2.5	216.8
<b>Vacancies at careers offices</b>															
1984	)	4.3	2.1	0.3	0.6	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	8.5	0.5	9.0
1985	)	6.0	3.2	0.4	0.7	1.2	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.3	10.8	0.7	11.5
1986	)	7.6	4.4	0.4	0.7	1.2	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.3	12.8	0.6	13.4
1987	)	11.8	7.0	0.5	1.2	1.4	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.4	18.7	0.8	19.5
1988	)	16.0	8.1	0.9	1.6	1.8	1.3	1.1	1.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	25.2	1.0	26.3
1988	Apr 8	13.3	6.7	0.8	1.2	1.5	1.0	1.0	1.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	21.1	1.0	22.1
	May 6	15.4	7.0	1.1	1.7	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.6	0.5	0.4	0.7	25.8	1.2	27.0
	June 3	17.6	8.2	1.1	2.2	2.3	1.8	1.3	1.8	0.6	0.3	0.7	29.6	1.1	30.7
	July 8	19.9	10.2	1.3	2.1	2.1	1.8	1.2	1.5	0.5	0.3	0.6	31.3	1.0	32.3
	Aug 5	19.8	9.9	1.1	2.1	1.9	1.5	1.3	1.4	0.6	0.4	0.6	30.6	1.0	31.6
	Sept 2	19.5	9.9	1.3	2.0	2.0	1.6	1.3	1.5	0.6	0.4	0.6	30.9	1.0	31.9
	Oct 7	18.5	9.5	1.0	1.9	2.5	1.5	1.3	1.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	29.3	1.2	30.6
	Nov 4	16.0	7.8	0.9	1.7	1.9	1.3	1.1	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.5	25.3	1.2	26.5
	Dec 2	14.3	7.4	0.8	1.5	1.7	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.4	22.2	1.1	23.4
1989	Jan 6	13.4	7.1	0.7	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.5	20.8	1.1	21.9
	Feb 3	12.9	7.1	0.7	1.3	1.6	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.4	0.2	0.5	20.7	1.2	21.8
	Mar 3	13.3	7.0	0.8	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.1	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.5	21.8	1.3	23.1
	Apr 7	13.7	6.9	1.1	1.5	2.1	1.5	1.3	1.3	0.4	0.3	0.6	23.7	1.4	25.1

Note: About one-third of all vacancies are notified to jobcentres. These could include some that are suitable for young people and similarly vacancies notified to careers offices could include some for adults. Because of possible duplication the two series should not be added together. The figures represent only the number of vacancies notified by employers and remaining unfilled on the day of the count.

\* Included in South East.

† Excluding vacancies on government programmes. See note to table 3.1. Previously, up to August 1988, unadjusted vacancy figures have additionally been provided including Community Programme vacancies. With the introduction of Employment Training from September 1988, there are no longer any C.P. vacancies. E.T. places are training opportunities determined according to the individual needs of unemployed people and therefore cannot be considered as vacancies or counted as such.

## Stoppages in progress: industry

SIC 1980	12 months to March 1988			12 months to March 1989		
	Stop-pages	Workers involved	Working days lost	Stop-pages	Workers involved	Working days lost
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	—	—	—	—	—	—
Coal extraction	233	148,200	356,000	150	28,900	44,000
Coke, mineral oil and natural gas	1	100	*	1	100	1,000
Electricity, gas, other energy and water	5	2,400	19,000	5	1,700	7,000
Metal processing and manufacture	8	2,200	11,000	11	1,900	12,000
Mineral processing and manufacture	11	1,600	5,000	8	1,200	6,000
Chemicals and man-made fibres	11	1,700	12,000	6	1,900	20,000
Metal goods nes	14	2,800	23,000	18	2,800	23,000
Engineering	75	17,900	113,000	63	25,400	86,000
Motor vehicles	97	114,500	643,000	47	2,600	40,000
Other transport equipment	32	19,800	44,000	29	46,100	804,000
Food, drink and tobacco	37	7,800	55,000	19	7,500	26,000
Textiles	5	1,600	7,000	13	13,200	69,000
Footwear and clothing	22	4,500	32,000	12	2,800	14,000
Timber and wooden furniture	3	300	*	7	800	4,000
Paper, printing and publishing	13	1,800	13,000	5	400	4,000
Other manufacturing industries	16	1,600	6,000	15	3,200	9,000
Construction	21	3,900	20,000	20	4,900	22,000
Distribution, hotels and catering, repairs	11	800	2,000	14	1,100	5,000
Transport services and communication	197	81,100	238,000	86	290,100	1,386,000
Supporting and misc. transport services	26	6,700	19,000	19	8,800	10,000
Banking, finance, insurance, business services and leasing	6	900	1,000	3	600	1,000
Public administration, education and health services	128	258,200	854,000	121	156,100	263,000
Other services	16	6,600	25,000	15	3,400	16,000
<b>All industries and services</b>	<b>976 **</b>	<b>686,900</b>	<b>2,499,000</b>	<b>681 **</b>	<b>629,000</b>	<b>2,857,000</b>

\* Less than 500 working days lost.

\*\* Some stoppages which affected more than one industry group have been counted under each of the industries but only once in the total for all industries and services.

Note: The order of the columns in this table has been reversed when compared with previous month's tables.

## Prominent stoppages in quarter ending March 31, 1989

Industry and location	Date when stoppage		Number of workers involved †		Number of working days lost in quarter	Cause or object
	Began	Ended	Directly	Indirectly		
<b>Electrical engineering</b> Greater London Staffordshire	08.03.89 13.03.89	contd 16.03.89	400 2,500	—	6,000 6,000	In support of pay claim. Introduction of new bonus system.
<b>Other transport equipment</b> Northern Ireland	15.03.89	contd	5,000	—	8,000	In support of pay claim.
<b>Food, drink, tobacco</b> Gwent	13.03.89	contd	600	—	6,000	For an increased pay offer.
<b>Construction</b> Suffolk Kent	07.02.89 21.03.89	28.02.89 contd	100 400	400 —	5,000 8,000	Bonus payments. Bonus payments.
<b>Other inland transport</b> Strathclyde	05.01.89	23.02.89	900	—	31,000	Over implementation of working practices agreed in 1987.
<b>Public administration, education</b> Merseyside West Midlands	27.02.89 22.03.89	09.03.89 contd	900 10	— 2,500	8,000 8,000	Over dismissal of worker. Back dating of pay award.

† The figures shown are the highest number of workers involved during the quarter.

## Stoppages: March 1989

United Kingdom	Number of stoppages	Workers involved	Working days lost
Stoppages in progress	69	26,100	73,000
of which, stoppages:			
Beginning in month	59	24,200*	62,000
Continuing from earlier months	10	1,900**	11,000

\* Includes 21,500 directly involved.

\*\* Includes 300 involved for the first time in the month.

The monthly figures are provisional and subject to revision, normally upwards, to take account of additional or revised information received after going to press. For notes on coverage, see 'Definitions' page at the end of the Labour Market Data section. The figures from 1988 are provisional.

## Stoppages in progress: cause

United Kingdom	12 months to March 1989		
	Stoppages	Workers involved	Working days lost
Pay—wage-rates and earnings levels	248	213,000	467,000
—extra-wage and fringe benefits	16	20,900	771,000
Duration and pattern of hours worked	11	3,900	17,000
Redundancy questions	32	58,000	159,000
Trade union matters	28	105,700	140,000
Working conditions and supervision	83	24,400	46,000
Manning and work allocation	196	181,300	1,206,000
Dismissal and other disciplinary measures	67	21,800	51,000
<b>All causes</b>	<b>681</b>	<b>629,000</b>	<b>2,857,000</b>

# 4.2 INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES †

## Stoppages of work: summary

United Kingdom	Number of stoppages		Number of workers (Thou)		Working days lost in all stoppages in progress in period (Thou)	
	Beginning in period	In progress in period	Beginning involvement in period in any dispute	All involved in period	All industries and services	All manufacturing industries
1979	2,080	2,125	4,586	4,608	29,474	22,552
1980	1,330	1,348	830	834	11,964	10,896
1981	1,338	1,512	1,512	1,513	4,266	2,292
1982	1,528	1,538	2,101	2,103	5,313	1,919
1983	1,352	1,364	573	574	3,754	1,776
1984	1,206	1,221	1,436	1,464	27,135	2,658
1985	887	903	643	791	6,402	912
1986	1,053	1,074	538	720	1,920	1,069
1987	1,004	1,016	884	887	3,546	595
1988	770	781	759	790	3,702	1,639
1987	Mar	104	120	209	251	71
1987	Apr	114	135	131	336	58
1987	May	78	95	88	222	34
1987	June	84	104	45	345	36
1987	July	72	93	40	214	37
1987	Aug	57	71	16	43	23
1987	Sept	63	84	16	56	39
1987	Oct	79	96	22	76	51
1987	Nov	97	108	79	127	74
1987	Dec	55	72	27	60	20
1988	Jan	82	93	33	106	29
1988	Feb	104	128	123	655	395
1988	Mar	70	99	32	259	167
1988	Apr	45	55	15	66	11
1988	May	65	78	36	140	54
1988	June	73	89	34	306	270
1988	July	51	71	18	349	307
1988	Aug	51	62	135	431	286
1988	Sept	53	63	161	1,115	45
1988	Oct	73	83	26	53	32
1988	Nov	70	85	134	183	34
1988	Dec	33	49	12	38	8
1989	Jan	37	45	11	39	11
1989	Feb	61	76	19	63	25
1989	Mar	59	69	25	73	44

### Working days lost in all stoppages in progress in period by industry

United Kingdom	Mining and quarrying	Metal manufacture and metal goods	Mechanical, instrument and electrical engineering	Shipbuilding and marine engineering	Vehicles	Textiles, clothing and footwear	All other manufacturing industries	Construction	Transport and communication	All other non-manufacturing industries
SIC 1968	(II)	(VI and XIII)	(VII, VIII and IX)	(X)	(XI)	(XIII-XV)	(III-V, XVI-XIX)	(XX)	(XXII)	(I, XXI, XXIII-XXVII)
1979	128	1,910	13,341	303	4,836	110	2,053	834	1,419	4,541
1980	166	8,884	586	195	490	44	698	281	253	367
1981	237	113	433	230	956	39	522	86	359	1,293
1982	374	199	486	116	656	66	395	44	1,675	1,301
SIC 1980	(11-14)	(21,22,31)	(32-34,37)	(35)	(36)	(43-45)	(23-26,41,42,44,46-49)	(50)	(71-79)	(01-03,15-17,61-67,81-85,91-99 and 00)
1982	380	197	538	551	172	61	400	41	1,675	1,299
1983	591	177	507	191	32	324	68	1	295	1,024
1984	22,484	90	422	1,046	497	66	537	334	666	992
1985	4,143	109	155	70	256	31	291	50	197	1,100
1986	143	152	225	108	411	38	136	33	486	486
1987	217	36	197	158	67	50	88	22	1,705	1,007
1988	222	47	76	530	803	90	93	17	1,490	335
1987	Mar	—	42	4	8	3	14	1	8	150
1987	Apr	28	35	11	3	4	10	1	10	239
1987	May	13	7	18	7	4	4	2	20	154
1987	June	14	7	8	4	4	10	1	9	285
1987	July	2	—	5	2	16	8	6	55	47
1987	Aug	2	4	10	4	2	1	1	11	6
1987	Sept	6	2	14	8	—	8	2	2	7
1987	Oct	7	3	5	33	1	9	2	3	13
1987	Nov	15	—	3	62	—	7	1	5	31
1987	Dec	10	3	—	11	—	4	1	17	11
1988	Jan	40	5	5	6	6	2	3	9	25
1988	Feb	146	7	365	3	1	13	1	59	54
1988	Mar	6	8	127	1	6	19	—	57	29
1988	Apr	1	—	6	—	—	2	4	42	7
1988	May	1	6	7	—	29	6	3	65	17
1988	June	3	6	8	—	216	34	2	20	10
1988	July	2	—	1	—	281	4	1	24	15
1988	Aug	2	1	8	1	269	1	1	134	8
1988	Sept	6	3	18	4	5	10	1	1,036	27
1988	Oct	1	1	9	7	—	5	—	6	14
1988	Nov	5	3	1	16	8	4	—	21	123
1988	Dec	9	2	3	1	—	1	—	15	5
1989	Jan	1	2	6	1	—	1	1	17	10
1989	Feb	6	1	7	5	—	5	6	15	10
1989	Mar	8	5	14	3	—	14	3	—	18

\* Figures exclude workers becoming involved after the end of the year in which the stoppages began.  
† See 'Definitions' page at end of Labour Market Data section for notes on coverage. The figures from 1988 are provisional.

# EARNINGS 5.1

## Average earnings index: all employees: main industrial sectors

GREAT BRITAIN	Whole economy (Divisions 0-9)		Manufacturing industries (Revised definition) (Divisions 2-4)		Production industries (Revised definition) (Divisions 1-4)		Service industries (Divisions 6-9)									
	Actual	Seasonally adjusted	Actual	Seasonally adjusted	Actual	Seasonally adjusted	Actual	Seasonally adjusted								
SIC 1980			% change over previous 12 months		% change over previous 12 months		% change over previous 12 months									
			Underlying*	Underlying*	Underlying*	Underlying*	Underlying*	Underlying*								
1984	92.2	92.2	91.7	91.7	89.8	89.8	94.0	94.0								
1985	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0								
1986	107.9	107.9	107.7	107.7	108.0	108.0	107.7	107.7								
1987	116.3	116.3	116.3	116.3	116.3	116.3	116.0	116.0								
1988	126.4	126.4	126.2	126.2	126.5	126.5	126.2	126.2								
1984	Jan	89.0	90.0	7.0	7 3/4	87.8	88.3	8.9	9 1/2	87.7	88.2	7.8	9	90.3	91.4	6.5
1984	Feb	89.6	90.6	5.8	7 3/4	88.7	89.3	9.6	9 1/2	88.7	89.4	8.8	9	90.4	91.4	3.4
1984	Mar	89.9	90.1	5.5	7 3/4	89.7	89.7	9.8	9 1/2	87.4	87.2	5.7	9	91.6	91.8	5.3
1984	Apr	90.1	90.7	5.7	7 3/4	89.0	89.4	7.7	9 1/4	86.9	87.0	4.1	8 3/4	92.3	92.6	7.2
1984	May	90.7	90.9	5.1	7 3/4	90.5	90.4	7.6	9 1/4	88.2	88.1	4.4	8 3/4	92.6	92.8	5.2
1984	June	91.8	91.2	5.2	7 3/4	92.2	91.0	9.0	9 1/4	89.7	88.6	5.4	8 3/4	92.9	92.9	5.0
1984	July	93.0	92.1	5.3	7 1/2	92.7	91.7	8.8	9	90.3	89.3	5.1	8 1/2	94.9	93.8	5.3
1984	Aug	92.8	92.6	5.8	7 1/2	91.7	92.5	8.6	8 3/4	89.3	89.9	4.8	8 1/4	95.2	94.5	6.5
1984	Sept	93.1	93.1	6.3	7 1/2	92.7	93.4	9.0	8 3/4	90.4	91.2	5.4	8 1/4	94.7	94.5	6.7
1984	Oct	95.6	95.7	8.1	7 1/2	94.2	94.8	9.3	8 1/2	91.9	92.4	5.4	8	98.4	98.9	10.5
1984	Nov	94.8	94.4	6.4	7 1/2	95.3	94.5	8.0	8 1/2	93.1	92.6	5.7	8	96.0	96.1	7.1
1984	Dec	96.2	95.1	6.4	7 1/2	95.7	95.2	8.1	8 1/2	93.4	93.1	5.7	8	98.3	98.6	6.8
1985	Jan	95.1	96.2	6.9	7 1/2	96.0	96.5	9.3	8 1/2	94.0	94.4	7.0	8 1/4	96.3	97.5	6.7
1985	Feb	95.8	96.9	7.0	7 1/2	96.1	96.8	8.4	8 1/2	94.2	95.0	6.3	8 1/4	97.0	98.2	7.4
1985	Mar	97.8	97.9	8.7	7 1/2	97.9	97.9	9.1	8 3/4	97.2	97.1	11.4	8 1/4	98.0	98.2	7.0
1985	Apr	98.6	99.0	9.2	7 1/2	99.1	99.5	11.3	8 3/4	98.7	98.9	13.7	8 1/4	98.5	98.8	6.7
1985	May	98.6	98.7	8.6	7 1/2	98.9	98.9	9.4	9	98.7	98.6	11.9	8 1/2	98.7	98.8	6.5
1985	June	100.0	99.4	9.0	7 1/2	100.8	99.5	9.3	9	100.8	99.6	12.4	8 1/2	99.1	99.1	6.7
1985	July	101.1	100.2	8.8	7 1/2	101.5	100.4	9.5	9	101.8	100.7	12.8	8 3/4	100.3	99.2	5.8
1985	Aug	100.9	100.7	8.7	7 1/2	99.7	100.5	8.6	9	100.0	100.7	12.0	8 3/4	101.5	100.7	6.6
1985	Sept	102.5	102.4	10.0	7 3/4	101.2	101.9	9.1	9	101.8	102.6	12.5	8 3/4	102.8	102.7	8.7
1985	Oct	101.2	101.4	6.0	7 1/2	101.1	102.0	7.6	8 3/4	101.5	102.1	10.5	8 3/4	100.6	101.1	2.2
1985	Nov	102.9	102.5	8.6	7 1/2	103.6	102.7	8.7	8 3/4	103.9	103.3	11.6	8 3/4	102.0	102.1	6.2
1985	Dec	104.8	103.5	8.8	7 1/2	104.3	103.6	8.8	8 3/4	104.4	103.9	11.6	8 3/4	105.1	103.4	6.8
1986	Jan	102.9	104.2	8.3	7 1/2	103.7	104.2	8.0	8 1/2	104.2	104.7	10.9	8 3/4	102.1	103.3	5.9
1986	Feb	103.5	104.9	8.3	7 1/2	103.9	104.6	8.1	8 1/4	104.4	105.2	10.7	8 1/2	103.0	104.2	6.1
1986	Mar	106.2	106.2	8.5	7 1/2	105.3	105.2	7.5	8	105.7	105.6	8.8	8 1/4	106.6	106.7	8.7
1986	Apr	107.1	107.4	8.5	7 1/2	106.6	107.0	7.5	7 3/4	106.7	106.9	8.1	8 1/4	107.6	107.9	9.2
1986	May	106.1	106.2	7.6	7 1/2	106.3	106.0	7.2	7 3/4	106.3	106.4	7.9	8 1/4	106.1	106.3	7.6
1986	June	108.1	107.4	8.0	7 1/2	108.6	107.2	7.7	7 3/4	108.4	107.1	7.5	8	107.7	107.8	8.8
1986	July	109.4	108.3	8.1	7 1/2	108.4	107.3	6.9	7 3/4	108.8	107.5	6.8	8	109.7	108.4	9.3
1986	Aug	109.0	108.8	8.0	7 1/2	107.4	108.3	7.8	7 3/4	108.0	108.8	8.0	7 3/4	109.7	108.9	8.1
1986	Sept	108.7	108.8	6.3	7 1/2	108.2	109.0	7.0	7 3/4	108.6	109.5	6.7	7 3/4	108.3	108.3	5.5
1986	Oct	109.6	109.9	8.4	7 1/2	109.2	110.0	7.8	7 3/4	109.6	110.3	8.0	7 3/4	109.3	109.9	8.7
1986	Nov	111.2	110.9	8.2	7 3/4	111.7	110.9	8.0	7 3/4	112.0	111.3	7.7	8	110.6	110.7	8.4
1986	Dec	112.5	111.2	7.4	7 3/4	113.0	112.1	8.2	8							

Table with 14 columns for SIC 1980 classes and rows for years 1985-1988, including monthly and annual average data for various industries like Agriculture, Coal and coke, Mineral oil and natural gas, etc.

England and Wales only. The index series for this group has been based on average 1985 excluding January and February figures which were seriously affected by a dispute in the coal mining industry. The annual average for the group including January and February is 91.9.

Table with 16 columns for SIC 1980 classes and rows for years 1985-1988, including monthly and annual average data for various industries like Leather, footwear and clothing, Timber and wooden furniture, Paper products, printing and publishing, etc.

Excluding sea transport. Excluding private domestic and personal services. On a basis exactly comparable with March 1988, the March 1987 index for distribution and repairs would be 116.1—see footnotes to table 5-1.

## 5.4 EARNINGS AND HOURS

### Average earnings and hours: manual employees: by industry†

UNITED KINGDOM	Metal processing and manufacturing (21-22)	Mineral extraction and manufacturing (23-24)	Chemicals and man-made fibres (25-26)	Mechanical engineering (32)	Electrical and electronic engineering, etc (33-34)	Motor vehicles and parts (35)	Other transport equipment (36)	Metal goods and instrument engineering (31,37)	Food, drink and tobacco (41-42)	Textiles (43)
<b>MALE (full-time on adult rates)</b>										
<b>Weekly earnings</b>										£
1983	156.30	152.57	162.13	139.45	137.78	146.96	146.82	137.93	148.17	120.66
1984	168.84	162.96	173.63	152.37	145.73	159.01	159.05	148.45	161.86	128.59
1985	180.15	172.96	187.19	167.86	160.26	170.94	174.76	156.56	173.18	140.50
1986	198.21	184.98	201.37	176.15	167.36	184.09	186.36	168.16	186.47	148.48
1987	219.89	198.94	215.84	192.92	179.27	210.58	197.89	184.19	197.82	162.93
1988	238.17	216.29	234.67	212.22	196.04	226.97	213.22	197.33	211.36	170.37
<b>Hours worked</b>										
1983	41.7	45.1	42.8	41.7	41.9	41.0	41.1	42.4	45.2	43.9
1984	42.2	45.1	43.0	42.4	41.9	41.3	41.6	42.8	45.3	44.0
1985	41.9	45.3	42.7	43.0	42.3	40.4	42.1	42.9	45.1	44.2
1986	41.8	45.1	42.9	42.3	41.8	40.2	41.8	42.8	44.9	43.7
1987	42.8	45.3	43.3	43.6	42.6	41.8	42.3	43.6	45.0	44.5
1988	42.8	45.4	43.4	44.2	42.7	42.3	43.3	43.6	45.1	43.4
<b>Hourly earnings</b>										pence
1983	374.7	338.6	379.1	334.3	328.5	358.0	357.6	325.3	327.5	274.7
1984	400.3	361.4	403.5	359.3	347.0	385.1	382.4	347.0	292.2	292.2
1985	429.6	382.2	438.5	390.6	379.2	422.8	414.8	364.9	383.7	317.9
1986	473.6	410.5	469.1	416.1	400.6	457.8	445.9	392.6	415.7	340.0
1987	513.7	439.3	498.3	442.1	420.8	503.5	467.9	422.8	439.2	366.3
1988	556.2	476.4	541.3	479.7	459.5	536.8	492.6	452.7	468.3	392.7
<b>FEMALE (full-time on adult rates)</b>										
<b>Weekly earnings</b>										£
1983	92.82	92.40	101.21	97.96	97.18	109.56	101.72	94.00	99.58	77.56
1984	103.02	99.79	110.09	106.16	102.51	117.14	110.70	99.41	106.35	82.97
1985	111.45	106.43	118.44	118.10	109.74	126.39	126.63	105.55	114.20	89.52
1986	113.84	112.92	130.58	125.38	117.27	140.86	127.86	115.19	123.21	94.47
1987	124.44	121.14	137.88	131.67	127.08	155.14	138.76	123.99	130.64	102.13
1988	137.36	131.60	147.87	147.78	139.18	174.17	151.51	133.24	144.28	110.05
<b>Hours worked</b>										
1983	38.5	38.4	38.2	38.7	38.1	38.5	37.7	38.3	39.1	38.1
1984	38.8	38.5	38.5	38.5	38.3	38.5	38.3	37.9	38.8	38.4
1985	38.5	38.4	38.5	39.0	38.6	38.1	38.2	38.1	38.7	37.9
1986	38.9	38.1	39.1	38.8	38.9	38.0	38.9	38.7	39.0	37.6
1987	39.0	38.8	39.1	39.4	39.0	39.0	39.4	39.3	38.7	37.8
1988	39.4	38.8	39.8	40.0	39.6	40.8	39.6	39.4	39.7	37.8
<b>Hourly earnings</b>										pence
1983	240.8	240.7	264.7	253.1	254.8	284.7	269.8	245.7	254.9	203.7
1984	265.4	259.0	286.1	275.6	267.9	304.6	288.9	262.4	274.2	215.8
1985	289.2	277.0	308.0	302.9	284.3	331.6	331.2	277.3	295.0	235.9
1986	293.0	296.1	333.9	323.0	301.5	370.9	328.3	297.3	316.1	251.4
1987	319.2	312.4	352.5	334.4	326.0	397.9	352.3	315.8	337.7	270.1
1988	348.8	339.0	371.5	369.6	351.5	427.4	383.0	338.5	363.5	291.0
<b>ALL (full-time on adult rates)</b>										
<b>Weekly earnings</b>										£
1983	154.05	145.59	149.79	136.85	122.74	144.12	144.76	128.18	134.32	102.01
1984	166.50	155.58	161.37	149.78	129.34	156.22	156.85	137.66	146.47	108.56
1985	177.90	165.23	174.30	165.16	142.68	167.87	172.71	145.58	156.17	118.15
1986	195.68	175.69	187.43	173.36	148.97	181.07	183.24	157.31	168.55	124.66
1987	216.75	189.58	201.11	189.24	159.36	206.97	195.23	172.10	178.69	135.89
1988	234.83	205.75	217.86	207.98	174.46	223.16	210.12	184.24	192.27	143.59
<b>Hours worked</b>										
1983	41.6	44.3	41.8	41.5	40.5	40.9	40.9	41.5	43.5	41.4
1984	42.1	44.3	42.2	42.2	40.5	41.1	41.4	41.7	43.5	41.6
1985	41.8	44.5	41.9	42.8	41.0	40.3	42.0	41.9	43.3	41.5
1986	41.8	44.2	42.2	42.1	40.7	40.1	41.6	42.0	43.2	41.0
1987	42.7	44.5	42.5	43.4	41.2	41.6	42.2	42.7	43.2	41.5
1988	42.7	44.6	42.7	44.0	41.5	42.2	43.1	42.7	43.6	40.9
<b>Hourly earnings</b>										pence
1983	370.3	328.8	357.9	329.6	302.8	352.8	353.9	309.0	308.9	246.4
1984	395.9	351.0	382.8	355.1	319.3	380.1	378.5	330.1	336.5	261.2
1985	425.4	371.6	416.0	386.2	348.1	416.9	411.6	347.8	360.8	285.0
1986	468.6	397.8	444.4	411.4	365.8	452.0	440.0	374.6	390.2	304.2
1987	507.8	426.0	473.0	436.2	386.5	497.1	463.1	403.1	413.3	327.4
1988	549.9	461.5	510.6	473.1	420.4	529.1	487.5	431.2	441.2	351.0

‡ More detailed results were published in an article in the April 1989 edition of *Employment Gazette*. Previous articles can be found in the April 1988 edition, March 1987 edition, and in February editions for earlier years.

## 5.5 EARNINGS

### Index of average earnings: non-manual workers

GREAT BRITAIN	Manufacturing industries								
April of each year	Weights								
April 1970-100	1981	1982	1983†	1984†	1985†	1986†	1987†	1988†	
<b>FULL-TIME ADULTS*</b>									
Men	689	451.4	506.2	547.3	604.5	657.5	724.7	776.8	854.3
Women	311	559.5	625.3	681.4	743.9	807.2	869.4	947.0	1,039.4
Men and women	1,000	469.1	525.6	569.3	627.3	682.0	748.4	804.6	883.7

\* Men aged 21 and over, and women aged 18 and over, whose pay was not affected by absence.

† Adjusted for change in Standard Industrial Classification.

## EARNINGS AND HOURS 5.4

### Average earnings and hours: manual employees: by industry†

Leather, footwear and clothing (44-45)	Timber and wooden furniture (46)	Paper products printing and publishing (47)	Rubber, plastics and other manufacturing (48-49)	All manufacturing industries (21-49)	Electricity, gas, other energy and water supply (15-17)	Construction (50)	Transport and communication* (71-72, 75-77, 79)	All industries covered (SIC 1980)
113.94	133.35	184.22	140.51	146.19	169.13	139.99	162.43	£ 148.63
119.69	139.92	198.43	151.41	157.50	179.77	147.80	173.32	159.30
129.72	154.00	214.42	162.57	170.58	193.34	160.37	...	...
134.81	163.40	235.17	177.70	182.25	208.70	171.25	...	...
142.55	174.76	253.77	190.88	197.92	222.22	180.62	...	...
153.01	186.54	269.67	207.04	213.59	237.16	200.01	...	...
42.0	43.0	42.1	43.1	42.5	40.8	43.6	46.5	43.3
41.8	42.9	42.5	43.3	42.8	40.7	43.3	46.7	43.4
42.0	44.1	42.4	43.4	43.0	41.1	44.0	...	...
41.7	43.6	42.1	43.4	42.7	41.3	44.0	...	...
42.0	44.4	43.0	43.7	43.5	41.1	44.1	...	...
41.5	43.8	42.9	43.7	43.6	41.7	44.6	...	...
271.6	309.8	437.7	325.9	343.6	415.0	321.2	349.5	pence 343.5
286.5	326.3	467.1	345.1	367.7	441.5	341.4	371.2	366.7
309.0	348.9	506.1	374.5	397.1	470.0	364.8	...	...
323.6	374.7	558.6	409.6	426.8	504.9	389.3	...	...
339.7	393.9	590.7	436.3	455.1	536.3	409.4	...	...
368.4	425.4	628.1	473.6	489.6	568.1	448.3	...	...
73.60	97.36	112.07	87.52	90.32	112.46	77.98	118.08	£ 91.26
78.58	102.63	119.71	92.48	96.30	126.00	87.81	126.69	97.34
85.22	113.18	129.16	98.23	103.21	124.17	95.86	...	...
89.55	121.09	139.81	107.39	110.48	157.49	98.55	...	...
96.51	128.43	152.00	113.63	118.79	163.79	104.68	...	...
102.63	137.79	163.55	123.37	128.82	183.91	107.21	...	...
37.1	38.4	38.6	38.6	38.1	36.1	39.2	40.8	38.2
37.0	38.4	38.8	38.6	38.1	37.5	38.8	41.5	38.2
37.1	38.7	38.5	38.6	38.1	36.9	37.8	...	...
36.8	38.4	38.7	38.5	38.1	37.8	38.3	...	...
37.2	39.1	39.2	38.7	38.4	38.6	38.0	...	...
37.0	39.2	39.5	39.3	38.7	39.4	38.4	...	...
198.6	253.7	290.6	226.6	237.2	311.4	199.0	289.4	pence 239.1
212.6	267.2	308.3	239.8	252.9	336.1	226.6	305.4	2



# Selected countries: wages per head: manufacturing (manual workers)

EARNINGS

5.9

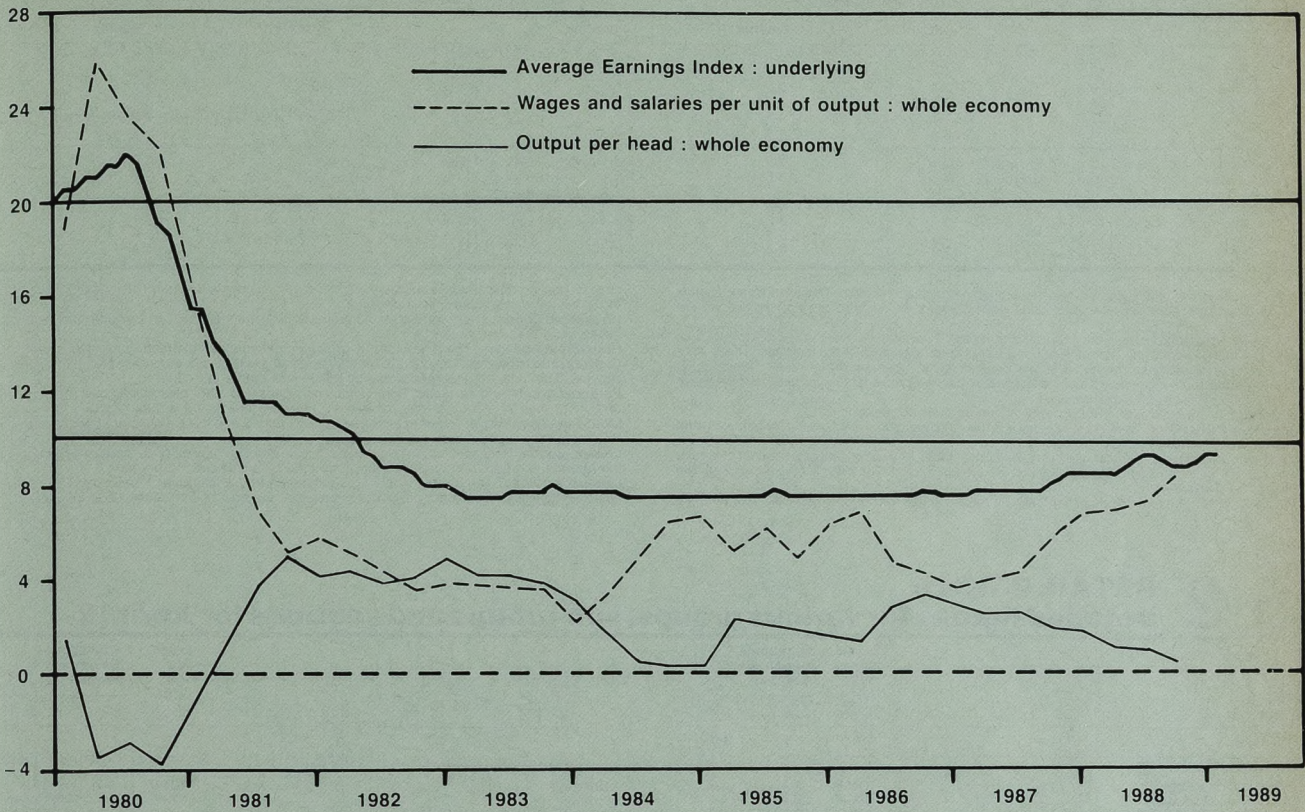
	Great Britain	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	France	Germany (FR)	Greece	Irish Republic	Italy	Japan	Netherlands	Norway	Spain	Sweden	Switzerland	United States
	(1) (2)	(2) (5) (6)	(7) (8)	(8)	(6) (8)	(4)	(8)	(8)	(8)	(4)	(2) (5)	(4)	(3) (8)	(2) (8) (9)	(6) (8)	(5)	(8) (10)
Indices 1980 = 100																	
<b>Annual averages</b>																	
1977	64.2	82.9	79	78	73.2	68.1	84	53	62	59.1	..	87	82	..	78.5	90.0	78
1978	73.4	87.6	85	83	80.7	76.9	89	65	71	68.6	..	92	89	..	85.3	93.1	85
1979	84.9	92.1	92	91	89.9	86.9	94	79	83	81.9	..	96	91	..	91.9	95.1	92
1980	100.0	100.0	100	100	100.0	100.0	100	100	100	100.0	..	100	100	..	100.0	100.0	100
1981	113.3	106.2	110	112	109.5	112.3	105	127	116	123.1	..	103	110	..	110.5	105.1	110
1982	126.0	112.7	117	125	120.4	131.9	110	170	133	144.1	..	110	121	..	119.2	111.6	117
1983	137.4	117.8	122	130	128.3	146.7	114	203	149	172.3	..	113	132	..	128.6	119.2	121
1984	149.3	123.7	128	136	134.4	158.0	117	256	165	192.0	118.1	114	143	185.6	140.9	..	126
1985	162.9	131.2	133	142	141.0	167.1	122	307	179	212.9	121.7	120	153	204.2	151.5	..	131
1986	175.4	137.0	136	146	147.7	174.0	126	346	193	223.1	123.5	122	169	226.5	162.7	..	134
1987	189.5	141.3	139	150	161.5	179.6	132	379	204	237.5	125.6	124	196	243.6	173.2	..	136
<b>Quarterly averages</b>																	
1987 Q3	191.1	142.0	137	149	162.7	179.6	133	377	205	238.8	125.7	124	197	240.8	172.4	..	136
Q4	196.2	144.0	142	152	166.2	181.0	133	392	209	243.7	127.4	124	204	253.2	175.8	..	138
1988 Q1	199.0	144.9	136 R	155	166.1	182.1	134	426	212	246.5	129.7	124	205	247.4	181.4	..	138
Q2	203.6	146.1	138 R	156	172.3	183.6	138	443 R	..	251.1	130.5	125	210	256.0	187.8	..	139
Q3	206.9	..	140	157	173.7	..	139	..	..	253.8	131.3	..	..	..	187.4	..	140
1988 Apr	205.1	142.0	..	156	172.6	183.6	138	..	..	247.8	130.4	125	..	..	187.6	..	139
May	202.0	144.4	..	156	172.7	..	138	..	..	252.6	129.5	125	..	..	189.9	..	139
June	203.7	152.0	138	157	171.6	..	138	..	..	253.0	131.7	126	..	..	185.9	..	140
July	206.3	142.9	..	156	176.5	..	139	..	..	253.5	128.5	125	..	..	189.8	..	140
Aug	206.4	146.1	..	156	170.5	..	..	..	..	253.9	133.2	..	..	..	184.9	..	139
Sept	207.9	..	140	159	174.0	..	..	..	..	253.9	132.1	..	..	..	187.4	..	141
Oct	210.5	..	..	160	175.1	..	..	..	..	253.9	133.2	..	..	..	..	..	141
Nov	212.1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	142
<b>Increases on a year earlier</b>																	
<b>Annual averages</b>																	
1977	10	9	9	11	10	13	7	21	15	28	..	7	10	..	7	2	Per cent
1978	14	6	7	7	10	13	5	24	15	16	..	5	8	..	9	3	9
1979	16	6	8	9	11	13	6	20	15	19	..	4	3	..	8	2	9
1980	18	8	9	10	11	15	6	27	21	22	..	4	10	..	9	5	9
1981	13	6	10	12	10	12	5	27	16	24	..	3	10	..	11	5	9
1982	11	6	11	12	10	7	11	3	19	17	..	7	10	..	8	6	7
1983	9	5	4	4	7	11	3	33	15	7	..	5	10	..	8	7	4
1984	9	5	5	5	5	8	3	26	12	20	..	3	9	..	8	7	4
1985	9	6	4	4	5	7	4	20	8	11	..	1	11	..	10	8	4
1986	8	4	2	3	5	4	3	13	8	5	3	5	7	10	8	..	4
1987	8	3	2	3	9	3	5	10	6	6	2	2	16	8	6	..	2
<b>Quarterly averages</b>																	
1987 Q3	8	3	2	3	10	3	4	9	6	7	3	1	14	6	6	..	1
Q4	8	4	2	2	10	3	3	9	6	7	4	1	15	9	6	..	2
1988 Q1	8	5	0	4	7	3	4	15 R	..	7	4	1	15	5	4	..	3
Q2	9	..	0	5	6	3	5	18 R	..	6	5	1	8	5	6	..	2
Q3	8	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	3
<b>Monthly</b>																	
1988 Apr	9	1	..	4	7	3	5	..	..	6	5	1	..	..	8	..	2
May	9	5	..	4	7	..	..	..	..	6	4	1	..	..	9	..	2
June	8	0	-1 R	5	5	..	..	..	..	6	6	2	..	..	7	..	3
July	9	..	..	5	7	..	4	..	..	6	3	1	..	..	10	..	3
Aug	9	7	..	5	6	..	..	..	..	6	6	..	..	..	8	..	2
Sept	8	..	2	5	6	..	..	..	..	6	4	..	..	..	8	..	3
Oct	8	..	..	6	6	..	..	..	..	5	4	..	..	..	..	..	3
Nov	9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3

Source: OECD—Main Economic Indicators.

Notes: 1 Wages and salaries on a weekly basis (all employees).  
2 Seasonally adjusted.3 Males only.  
4 Hourly wage rates.  
5 Monthly earnings.  
6 Including mining.7 Including mining and transport  
8 Hourly earnings.  
9 All industries.  
10 Production workers.

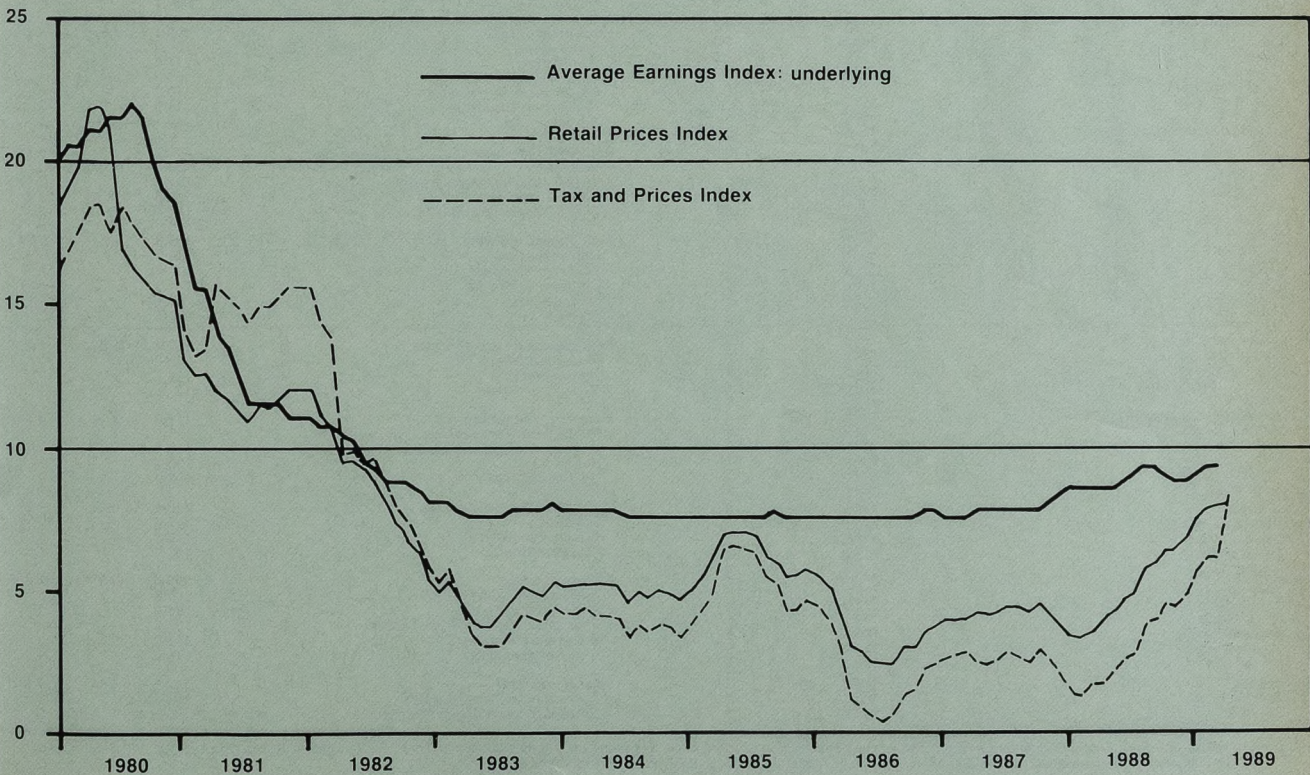
**Earnings and output per head: whole economy—increases over previous year**

Per cent



**Earnings and prices: whole economy—increases over previous year**

Per cent



**RETAIL PRICES**

**6.1 Recent movements in the all-items index and in the index excluding seasonal foods**

	All items				All items except seasonal foods			
	Index Jan 13, 1987 = 100	Percentage change over			Index Jan 13, 1987 = 100	Percentage change over		
		1 month	6 months	12 months		1 month	6 months	12 months
1988 Apr	105.8	1.6	2.8	3.9	105.7	1.6	2.5	
May	106.2	0.4	2.7	4.2	106.1	0.4	2.4	
June	106.6	0.4	3.2	4.6	106.6	0.5	3.2	
July	106.7	0.1	3.3	4.8	106.9	0.3	3.5	
Aug	107.9	1.1	4.1	5.7	108.1	1.1	4.3	
Sept	108.4	0.5	4.1	5.9	108.7	0.6	4.5	
Oct	109.5	1.0	3.5	6.4	109.8	1.0	3.9	
Nov	110.0	0.5	3.6	6.4	110.3	0.5	4.0	
Dec	110.3	0.3	3.5	6.8	110.5	0.2	3.7	
1989 Jan	111.0	0.6	4.0	7.5	111.2	0.6	4.0	
Feb	111.8	0.7	3.6	7.8	111.9	0.6	3.5	
Mar	112.3	0.4	3.6	7.9	112.4	0.4	3.4	
Apr	114.3	1.8	4.4	8.0	114.4	1.8	4.2	

The overall level of prices was 1.8 per cent higher in April than in March. There were annual price increases in local authority rates, rents, and water charges. Petrol, food and clothing prices were also higher.

**Food:** Seasonal foods rose in price by a little more than 3 per cent, but were still around 1/2 per cent cheaper than a year ago. The price of home-killed lamb showed a sharp increase. There were numerous price increases among non-seasonal products, most notably for meat. The index for non-seasonal food prices rose by a little less than 1 per cent, while for the group as a whole it was higher by a little less than 1 1/4 per cent.

**Catering:** The group index went up by a little more than 3/4 per cent.

**Alcoholic drink:** There were price increases throughout this group, particularly for off-sales, and the group index rose by around 1/2 per cent.

**Housing:** In addition to the annual increases in rates, rents, and water charges, the cost of repairs and maintenance, and the price of DIY materials also increased. The index for the group rose by a little under 5 per cent.

**Fuel and light:** The first effects of the latest increases in gas and electricity prices were felt. The price of heating oil also rose, but there were summer discounts for coal. The index for the group increased by a little more than 1 per cent.

**Household goods:** There were price increases throughout the group, and its index increased by a little more than 1/2 per cent.

**Household services:** The index for this group increased by a little more than 1/2 per cent.

**Clothing and footwear:** The arrival of new summer stocks led to price increases for many items of clothing. The index for this group rose by a little less than 2 per cent.

**Personal goods and services:** Some chemists' goods and other personal articles rose in price and there was a rise of a little more than 1 1/4 per cent in the group index.

**Motoring expenditure:** A further increase in petrol prices was the main factor behind a rise of a little more than 2 per cent in the index for this group.

**Leisure goods:** Prices for audio-visual equipment fell, but there were price increases throughout the rest of the group, and the index for group rose by a little over 1/4 per cent.

**Leisure services:** The index for this group increased by a little over 1 per cent. The cost of entertainment and leisure activities was higher, and the cost of TV licences also increased.

**6.2 RETAIL PRICES Detailed figures for various groups, sub-groups and sections for April 18**

	Index Jan 1987 = 100	Percentage change over (months)		Index Jan 1987 = 100	Percentage change over (months)		
		1	12		1	12	
		All items	114.3		1.8	8.0	
Food and catering	110.8	1.1	5.2	Housing	134.0	4.9	21.9
Alcohol and tobacco	109.6	0.4	4.2	Rent	122.5		9
Housing and household expenditure	120.7	2.8	13.4	Mortgage interest payments	156.7		54
Personal expenditure	111.0	1.9	6.6	Rates	128.0		10
Travel and leisure	112.3	1.4	5.5	Water and other charges	133.6		16
All items excluding seasonal food	114.4	1.8	8.2	Repairs and maintenance charges	113.1		7
All items excluding food	115.2	1.9	8.7	Do-it-yourself materials	111.5		5
Seasonal food	108.0	3.1	0.5				
Food excluding seasonal	109.9	0.9	5.9	<b>Fuel and light</b>	105.4	1.1	6.4
All items excluding housing	110.6	1.1	5.3	Coal and solid fuels	102.5		1
All items excluding mortgage interest	112.2	1.6	5.9	Electricity	110.0		8
Nationalised industries	114.2	3.0	8.9	Gas	101.8		5
Consumer durables	107.0	1.1	3.9	Oil and other fuel	96.3		8
Food	109.6	1.2	5.0	<b>Household goods</b>	109.5	0.6	4.3
Bread	113.9		7	Furniture	109.9		4
Cereals	115.6		7	Furnishings	111.6		5
Biscuits and cakes	110.8		7	Electrical appliances	105.0		1
Beef	119.1	12	1	Other household equipment	110.2		5
Lamb	108.3	6		Household consumables	114.8		8
of which, home-killed lamb	110.2	4		Pet care	104.1		3
Pork	108.0	8		<b>Household services</b>	111.7	0.7	5.7
Bacon	105.8	4		Postage	106.5		6
Poultry	101.8	1		Telephones, telemessages, etc	101.2		0
Other meat	102.3	3		Domestic services	115.3		7
Fish	105.4	1		Fees and subscriptions	121.0		10
of which, fresh fish	108.1	2		<b>Clothing and footwear</b>	109.8	1.9	6.5
Butter	114.9	11		Men's outerwear	109.9		5
Oil and fats	107.0	6		Women's outerwear	107.5		7
Cheese	111.3	4		Children's outerwear	114.0		11
Eggs	101.0	-9		Other clothing	111.4		7
Milk, fresh	112.6	8		Footwear	109.3		5
Milk products	114.6	7		<b>Personal goods and services</b>	113.1	1.8	6.7
Tea	109.0	7		Personal articles	103.8		3
Coffee and other hot drinks	95.5	3		Chemists' goods	114.1		7
Soft drinks	122.6	9		Personal services	121.6		11
Sugar and preserves	116.1	6		<b>Motoring expenditure</b>	114.2	2.1	6.7
Sweets and chocolates	103.4	2		Purchase of motor vehicles	115.1		5
Potatoes	105.3	6		Maintenance of motor vehicles	114.4		5
of which, unprocessed potatoes	104.9	7		Petrol and oil	108.7		9
Vegetables	114.2	0		Vehicles tax and insurance	122.9		9
of which, other fresh vegetables	113.3	-4		<b>Fares and other travel costs</b>	113.4	0.1	7.2
Fruit	106.5	1		Rail fares	117.4		10
of which, fresh fruit	107.5	1		Bus and coach fares	116.2		7
Other foods	109.3	5		Other travel costs	107.9		5
<b>Catering</b>	115.0	0.8	6.0	<b>Leisure goods</b>	106.0	0.3	2.0
Restaurant meals	115.9	7		Audio-visual equipment	90.7		-5
Canteen meals	114.2	5		Records and tapes	98.2		-1
Take-aways and snacks	113.9	5		Toys, photographic and sport goods	107.8		3
<b>Alcoholic drink</b>	111.5	0.5	5.1	Books and newspapers	117.0		6
Beer	113.1	6		Gardening products	114.7		9
— on sales	113.3	6		<b>Leisure services</b>	113.5	1.1	4.8
— off sales	111.3	4		Television licences and rentals	104.1		0
Wines and spirits	109.1	4		Entertainment and other recreation	120.2		8
— on sales	111.4	5					
— off sales	107.4	3					
<b>Tobacco</b>	105.8	0.0	2.5				
Cigarettes	106.1	3					
Tobacco	104.0	3					

Notes: 1 Indices are given to one decimal place to provide as much information as is available, but precision is greater at higher levels of aggregation, that is at sub-group and group levels.  
2 The structure of the published components of the index was recast in February 1987. (See general notes under table 6-7.)

**RETAIL PRICES**

**6.3**

**Average retail prices of selected items**

Average retail prices on April 18 for a number of important items derived from prices collected for the purposes of the General Index of Retail Prices in more than 180 areas in the United Kingdom, are given below.  
It is only possible to calculate a meaningful average price for

fairly standard items; that is, those which do not vary between retail outlets.

The averages given are subject to uncertainty, an indication of which is given in the ranges within which at least four-fifths of the recorded prices fell, given in the final column below.

**Average prices on April 18, 1989**

Item*	Number of quotations	Average price	Price range within which 80 per cent of quotations fell	Item*	Number of quotations	Average price	Price range within which 80 per cent of quotations fell
		p	p			p	p
<b>FOOD ITEMS</b>				<b>Butter</b>			
<b>Beef: home-killed</b>				Home-produced, per 250g	274	59	55-64
Best beef mince	318	149	119-199	New Zealand, per 250g	256	59	57-61
Topside	230	269	240-290	Danish, per 250g	264	63	60-69
Brisket (without bone)	232	186	150-215				
Rump steak †	317	341	298-388	<b>Margarine</b>			
Stewing steak	307	177	149-210	Soft 500g tub	270	38	26-66
				Low fat spread 250g	288	39	35-44
<b>Lamb: home-killed</b>				<b>Lard, per 250g</b>	298	16	15-22
Loin (with bone)	290	235	168-298	<b>Cheese</b>			
Shoulder (with bone)	260	123	89-168	Cheddar type	287	144	119-183
Leg (with bone)	264	206	165-244	<b>Eggs</b>			
<b>Lamb: imported</b>				Size 2 (65-70g), per dozen	255	106	84-132
Loin (with bone)	156	159	140-179	Size 4 (55-60g), per dozen	204	93	74-116
Shoulder (with bone)	155	87	79-109	<b>Milk</b>			
Leg (with bone)	160	155	139-178	Pasteurised, per pint	298	28	25-28
<b>Pork: home-killed</b>				Skimmed, per pint	287	27	24-29
Leg (foot off)	258	123	98-169	<b>Tea</b>			
Belly †	281	88	74-100	Loose, per 125g	298	44	36-57
Loin (with bone)	314	156	132-179	Tea bags, per 250g	306	101	79-116
Fillet (without bone)	235	219	150-298	<b>Coffee</b>			
<b>Bacon</b>				Pure, instant, per 100g	574	139	79-179
Streaky †	230	101	89-128	Ground (filter fine), per 1/2lb	256	133	115-149
Gammon †	218	192	150-228	<b>Sugar</b>			
Back, vacuum packed	205	179	145-224	Granulated, per kg	299	57	54-59
Back, not vacuum packed	237	168	142-188	<b>Fresh vegetables</b>			
<b>Ham (not shoulder), per 1/4lb</b>	295	62	49-80	Potatoes, old loose			
<b>Sausages</b>				White	244	13	8-19
Pork	308	90	72-109	Red	130	13	9-19
Beef	246	86	66-98	Potatoes, new loose	185	23	19-25
<b>Pork luncheon meat, 12oz can</b>	169	48	42-57	Tomatoes	320	85	60-99
<b>Corned beef, 12oz can</b>	196	72	61-82	Cabbage, greens	298	27	18-44
<b>Chicken: roasting, oven-ready</b>				Cabbage, hearted	280	24	15-32
Frozen, 4lb,	161	65	52-92	Cauliflower, each	309	55	40-74
Fresh or chilled 3lb,	176	83	66-98	Brussels sprouts	—	—	—
<b>Fresh and smoked fish</b>				Carrots	319	20	14-28
Cod fillets	237	215	175-246	Onions	318	22	15-32
Haddock fillets	236	227	188-275	Mushrooms, per 1/4lb	287	30	22-36
Mackerel, whole	191	87	63-109	Cucumber, each	309	54	42-70
Kippers, with bone	235	106	86-126	<b>Fresh fruit</b>			
<b>Canned (red) salmon, half-size can</b>	181	204	149-249	Apples, cooking	295	36	28-45
<b>Bread</b>				Apples, dessert	301	38	29-45
White loaf, sliced, 800g	315	49	44-60	Pears, dessert	286	46	39-50
White loaf, unwrapped, 800g	253	61	57-66	Oranges, each	286	16	11-22
White loaf, unsliced, 400g	284	40	36-43	Bananas	304	49	40-54
Brown loaf, sliced, small	240	41	38-44	Grapes	265	88	66-118
Brown loaf, unsliced, 800g	235	62	54-68	<b>Items other than food</b>			
<b>Flour</b>				Draught bitter, per pint	659	94	84-106
Self-raising, per 1.5kg	193	53	49-59	Draught lager, per pint	682	106	95-116
				Whisky, per nip	680	75	68-85

\* Per lb unless otherwise stated.  
† Or Scottish equivalent.



# 6.4 RETAIL PRICES

## General index of retail prices

UNITED KINGDOM January 15, 1974 = 100		ALL ITEMS	All items except food	All items except seasonal food	Nationalised industries	Food	Meals bought and consumed outside the home	Alcoholic drink					
						All	Seasonal food	Non-seasonal food					
Weights	1974	1,000	747	951.2-925.5	80	253	47.5-48.8	204.2-205.5	51	70			
	1975	1,000	768	961.9-966.3	77	232	33.7-38.1	193.9-198.3	48	82			
	1976	1,000	772	958.0-960.8	90	228	39.2-42.0	186.0-188.8	47	81			
	1977	1,000	753	953.3-955.8	91	247	44.2-46.7	200.3-202.8	45	83			
	1978	1,000	767	966.5-969.6	96	233	30.4-33.5	199.5-202.6	51	85			
	1979	1,000	768	964.0-966.6	93	232	33.4-36.0	196.0-198.6	51	77			
	1980	1,000	786	966.8-969.6	93	214	30.4-33.2	180.9-183.6	41	82			
	1981	1,000	793	969.2-971.9	104	207	28.1-30.8	176.2-178.9	42	79			
	1982	1,000	794	965.7-967.6	99	206	32.4-34.3	171.7-173.6	38	77			
	1983	1,000	797	971.5-974.1	109	203	25.9-28.5	174.5-177.1	39	78			
	1984	1,000	799	966.1-968.7	102 Feb-Nov	201	31.3-33.9	167.1-169.8	36	75			
					87 Dec-Jan								
	1985	1,000	810	970.3-973.2	86	190	26.8-29.7	160.3-163.2	45	75			
	1986	1,000	815	973.3-976.0	83 Feb-Nov	185	24.0-26.7	158.3-161.0	44	82			
					60 Dec-Jan								
1974	Annual averages	108.5	109.3	108.8	108.4	106.1	103.0	106.9	108.2	109.7			
1975		134.8	135.3	135.1	147.5	133.3	129.8	134.3	132.4	135.2			
1976		157.1	156.4	155.5	185.4	159.9	177.7	156.8	157.3	159.3			
1977		182.0	179.7	181.5	208.1	190.3	197.0	189.1	185.7	183.4			
1978		197.1	195.2	197.8	227.3	203.8	208.1	208.4	207.8	196.0			
1979		223.5	222.2	224.1	246.7	228.3	211.1	231.7	239.9	217.1			
1980		263.7	265.9	265.3	307.9	255.9	224.5	262.0	290.0	261.8			
1981		295.0	299.8	296.9	368.0	277.5	244.7	283.9	318.0	306.1			
1982		320.4	326.2	322.0	417.6	299.3	276.9	303.5	341.7	341.4			
1983		335.1	342.4	337.1	440.9	308.8	282.8	313.8	364.0	366.5			
1984		351.8	358.9	353.1	454.9	326.1	319.0	327.8	390.8	387.7			
1985	373.2	383.2	375.4	478.9	336.3	314.1	340.9	413.3	412.1				
1986	385.9	396.4	387.9	496.6	347.3	336.0	350.0	439.5	430.6				
1975 Jan 14		119.9	120.4	120.5	119.9	118.3	106.6	121.1	118.7	118.2			
1976 Jan 13		147.9	147.9	147.6	172.8	148.3	158.6	146.6	146.2	149.0			
1977 Jan 18		172.4	169.3	170.9	198.7	183.1	214.8	177.1	172.3	173.7			
1978 Jan 17		189.5	187.6	190.2	220.1	196.1	173.9	200.4	199.5	188.9			
1979 Jan 16		207.2	204.3	207.3	234.5	217.5	207.6	219.5	218.7	198.9			
1980 Jan 15		245.3	245.5	246.2	274.7	244.8	223.6	248.9	267.8	241.4			
1981 Jan 13		277.3	280.3	279.3	348.9	266.7	225.8	274.7	307.5	277.7			
1982 Jan 12		310.6	314.6	311.5	387.0	296.1	287.6	297.5	329.7	321.8			
1983 Jan 11		325.9	332.6	328.5	441.4	301.8	256.8	310.3	353.7	353.7			
1984 Jan 10		342.6	348.9	343.5	445.8	319.8	321.3	319.8	378.5	376.1			
1985 Jan 15		359.8	367.8	361.8	465.9	330.6	306.9	335.6	401.8	397.9			
1986 Jan 14		379.7	390.2	381.9	489.7	341.1	322.8	344.9	426.7	423.8			
1987 Jan 13		394.5	405.6	396.4	502.1	354.0	347.3	355.9	454.8	440.7			
<b>UNITED KINGDOM</b>													
January 13, 1987 = 100													
Weights	1987	1,000	833	974	843	956	57	139	167	26	141	46	76
	1988	1,000	837	975	840	958	54	141	163	25	138	50	78
	1989	1,000	846	977	825	940	46	135	154	23	131	49	83
1987 Annual averages		101.9	102.0	101.9	101.6	101.9	100.9	101.2	101.1	101.6	101.0	102.8	101.7
1988		106.9	107.3	107.0	105.8	106.6	106.7	103.7	104.6	102.4	105.0	109.6	106.9
1987 Jan 13		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Feb 10		100.4	100.4	100.3	100.4	100.4	100.0	100.3	100.7	103.2	100.2	100.4	100.3
Mar 10		100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.6	100.0	100.8	100.7	103.0	100.3	100.8	100.6
Apr 14		101.8	101.8	101.6	101.2	101.6	100.8	101.0	101.6	107.4	100.5	101.4	100.8
May 12		101.9	101.8	101.7	101.6	102.0	100.7	101.2	102.2	110.6	100.7	101.8	101.2
June 9		101.9	101.9	101.8	101.6	102.1	100.7	101.1	101.6	105.2	100.9	102.3	101.4
July 14		101.8	102.1	101.9	101.4	101.9	100.9	99.9	100.4	97.0	101.0	102.9	101.7
Aug 11		102.1	102.4	102.2	101.7	102.2	101.3	100.3	100.7	98.6	101.0	103.6	102.1
Sept 8		102.4	102.8	102.6	102.1	102.5	101.4	101.7	100.4	95.7	101.2	104.3	102.8
Oct 13		102.9	103.3	103.1	102.6	103.0	101.5	102.2	101.1	96.8	101.8	104.7	103.5
Nov 10		103.4	103.8	103.6	103.0	103.4	101.9	102.9	101.6	98.8	102.1	105.3	103.3
Dec 8		103.3	103.5	103.3	103.2	103.6	101.9	103.2	102.4	102.4	102.4	105.8	103.1
1988 Jan 12		103.3	103.4	103.3	103.2	103.7	102.8	101.2	102.9	103.7	102.7	106.4	103.7
Feb 16		103.7	103.8	103.6	103.6	104.0	101.9	103.6	103.6	106.9	103.0	107.1	104.2
Mar 15		104.1	104.2	104.0	104.0	104.4	103.0	102.6	103.9	107.1	103.4	107.5	104.6
Apr 19		105.8	106.0	105.7	105.0	105.9	104.9	103.0	104.4	108.5	103.8	108.5	106.1
May 17		106.2	106.4	106.1	105.5	106.5	106.0	104.1	104.7	106.9	104.3	108.9	106.6
June 14		106.6	106.9	106.6	105.9	106.9	107.3	104.2	104.8	105.3	104.7	109.5	106.8
July 19		106.7	107.2	106.9	106.0	107.0	108.2	103.1	104.0	97.9	105.0	109.7	107.1
Aug 16		107.9	108.5	108.1	106.4	107.3	108.3	103.4	104.4	97.5	105.7	110.4	107.7
Sept 13		108.4	109.1	108.7	106.9	108.4	109.0	104.3	104.8	97.2	106.1	107.8	108.4
Oct 18		109.5	110.4	109.8	107.4	108.3	109.2	105.3	104.9	97.1	106.4	111.7	109.1
Nov 15		110.0	110.9	110.3	107.8	108.7	109.3	105.7	105.7	98.8	107.0	112.1	109.1
Dec 13		110.3	111.0	110.5	108.0	108.9	109.3	105.9	106.5	101.5	107.4	112.4	108.9
1989 Jan 17		111.0	111.7	111.2	108.5	109.4	110.9	104.5	107.4	103.2	108.2	113.1	109.9
Feb 14		111.8	112.5	111.9	109.0	109.9	110.9	105.3	107.7	103.4	108.5	113.5	110.5
Mar 14		112.3	113.0	112.4	109.4	110.4	110.9	105.8	108.3	104.8	108.9	114.1	110.9
Apr 18		114.3	115.2	114.4	110.6	112.2	114.2	107.0	109.6	108.0	109.9	115.0	111.5

\* For the February, March and April 1988 indices the weights for seasonal and non-seasonal food were 24 and 139 respectively. Thereafter the weight for home-killed lamb (a seasonal item) was increased by 1 and that for imported lamb (a non-seasonal item) correspondingly reduced by 1, in the light of new information about their relative shares of household expenditure.

# 6.4 RETAIL PRICES

## General index of retail prices

Tobacco	Housing	Fuel and light	Durable household goods	Clothing and footwear	Miscellaneous goods	Transport and vehicles	Services
43	124	52	64	91	63	135	54
46	108	53	70	89	71	149	52
46	112	56	75	84	74	140	57
46	112	58	63	82	71	139	54
48	113	60	64	80	70	140	56
44	120	59	64	82	69	143	59
40	124	59	69	84	74	151	62
41	135	62	65	81	75	152	66
36	144	62	64	77	72	154	65
39	137	69	64	74	75	159	63
36	149	65	69	70	76	158	65
37	153	65	65	75	77	156	62
40	153	62	63	75	81	157	58
115.9	105.8	110.7	107.9	109.4	111.2	111.0	106.8
147.7	125.5	147.4	131.2	125.7	138.6	143.9	135.5
171.3	143.2	182.4	144.2	139.4	161.3	166.0	159.5
209.7	161.8	211.3	166.8	157.4	188.3	190.3	173.3
226.2	173.4	227.5	182.1	171.0	206.7	207.2	192.0
247.6	208.9	250.5	201.9	187.2	236.4	243.1	213.9
290.1	269.5	313.2	226.3	205.4	276.9	288.7	262.7
358.2	318.2	380.0	237.2	208.3	300.7	322.6	300.8
440.9	358.3	433.3	243.8	210.5	325.8	343.5	331.6
489.0	367.1	465.4	25				

## 6.5 RETAIL PRICES

### General index of retail prices: Percentage changes on a year earlier for main sub-groups

PERCENT

UNITED KINGDOM	All items	Food	Meals bought and consumed outside the home	Alcoholic drink	Tobacco	Housing	Fuel and light	Durable household goods	Clothing and footwear	Miscellaneous goods	Transport and vehicles	Services
1974 Jan 15	12.0	20.1	20.7	1.7	0.4	10.5	5.8	9.8	13.5	7.3	9.8	12.2
1975 Jan 14	19.9	18.3	18.7	18.2	24.0	10.3	24.9	18.3	18.6	25.2	30.3	15.8
1976 Jan 13	23.4	25.4	23.2	26.1	31.1	22.2	35.1	19.0	10.9	21.6	20.5	33.0
1977 Jan 18	16.6	23.5	17.9	16.6	18.8	14.3	17.8	11.5	12.9	15.7	13.9	8.3
1978 Jan 17	9.9	7.1	15.8	8.8	15.3	6.6	10.6	11.6	10.2	12.7	11.1	11.8
1979 Jan 16	9.3	10.9	9.6	5.3	3.9	15.8	6.0	6.9	7.6	9.0	10.0	8.3
1980 Jan 15	18.4	12.6	22.5	21.4	16.5	24.8	18.9	15.4	11.9	19.6	22.8	22.2
1981 Jan 13	13.0	8.9	14.8	15.0	10.0	20.1	28.4	6.9	5.3	13.4	11.6	17.1
1982 Jan 12	12.0	11.0	7.2	15.9	32.2	22.8	13.0	3.7	-0.2	6.5	10.4	12.6
1983 Jan 11	4.9	1.9	7.3	9.9	8.7	-0.5	16.2	2.6	1.8	8.0	7.1	3.7
1984 Jan 10	5.1	6.0	7.0	6.3	5.8	9.9	0.5	2.6	-0.3	4.7	4.8	3.9
1985 Jan 15	5.0	3.4	6.2	5.8	12.7	8.8	3.9	2.1	3.3	7.1	2.4	5.4
1986 Jan 14	5.5	3.2	6.2	6.5	7.4	11.4	4.0	2.9	3.6	6.5	3.6	6.3
1987 Jan 13	3.9	3.8	6.6	4.0	10.5	8.3	-0.2	0.2	2.5	2.5	1.7	4.0

	All items	Food	Catering	Alcoholic drink	Tobacco	Housing	Fuel and light	Household goods	Household services	Clothing and footwear	Personal goods and services	Motoring expenditure	Fares and other travel costs	Leisure goods	Leisure services
1988 Jan 12	3.3	2.9	6.4	3.7	1.4	3.9	-1.7	3.3	5.0	1.1	4.3	5.1	5.1	2.8	3.6
Feb 16	3.3	2.9	6.7	3.9	1.7	4.0	-2.0	3.5	5.2	1.6	4.4	4.0	5.9	3.1	3.6
Mar 15	3.5	3.2	6.6	4.0	1.7	4.0	-2.0	3.5	5.1	2.1	4.4	4.2	5.7	3.0	3.7
Apr 19	3.9	2.8	7.0	5.3	3.4	4.7	-0.8	3.4	4.8	2.1	4.6	4.8	5.6	3.0	6.7
May 17	4.2	2.4	7.0	5.3	3.9	5.6	1.3	3.4	4.5	3.8	4.8	4.4	5.3	2.7	7.2
June 14	4.6	3.1	7.0	5.3	3.8	6.2	3.0	3.6	4.5	4.5	4.6	4.8	5.3	2.2	7.0
July 19	4.8	3.6	6.6	5.3	3.7	6.2	4.5	4.2	5.0	4.1	5.1	4.6	5.6	2.8	6.8
Aug 16	5.7	3.7	6.6	5.5	4.1	11.2	4.4	4.5	4.9	3.5	5.0	4.5	6.2	2.9	7.0
Sept 13	5.9	4.4	6.5	5.4	4.0	11.6	5.2	4.4	4.8	2.9	5.8	4.4	6.4	2.6	8.5
Oct 18	6.4	3.8	6.7	5.4	3.7	15.1	5.8	4.2	4.8	4.5	5.4	4.6	6.4	2.3	7.0
Nov 15	6.4	4.0	6.5	5.6	4.0	15.6	5.7	3.6	4.7	4.6	4.7	4.5	6.2	1.7	7.6
Dec 13	6.8	4.0	6.2	5.6	4.0	17.9	6.0	3.5	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.6	6.2	1.7	7.8
1989 Jan 17	7.5	4.4	6.3	6.0	4.1	19.9	6.0	4.1	5.0	4.7	5.8	5.2	7.4	2.2	8.2
Feb 14	7.8	4.0	6.0	6.0	4.0	21.8	6.3	4.2	5.2	5.2	5.9	5.7	7.1	2.1	8.2
Mar 14	7.9	4.2	6.1	6.0	4.1	22.0	6.6	4.2	5.2	4.7	5.7	5.9	7.3	2.3	8.2
Apr 18	8.0	5.0	6.0	5.1	2.5	21.9	6.4	4.3	5.7	6.5	6.7	6.7	7.2	2.0	4.8

Notes: See notes under table 6.7.

## RETAIL PRICES 6.7

### Group indices: annual averages

UNITED KINGDOM	All items (excluding housing)	Food	Meals bought and consumed outside the home	Alcoholic drink	Tobacco	Fuel and light	Durable household goods	Clothing and footwear	Miscellaneous goods	Transport and vehicles	Services			
<b>INDEX FOR ONE-PERSON PENSIONER HOUSEHOLDS</b>														
1983	336.2	300.7	358.2	366.7	441.6	462.3	255.3	215.3	393.9	422.3	JAN 15, 1974 = 100			
1984	352.9	320.2	384.3	386.6	489.8	479.2	263.0	215.5	417.3	438.3	311.5			
1985	370.1	330.7	406.8	410.2	533.3	502.4	274.3	223.4	451.6	458.6	321.3			
1986	382.0	340.1	432.7	428.4	587.2	510.4	281.3	231.0	468.4	472.1	343.1			
1987 January	386.5	344.6	448.5	438.4	605.5	510.5	281.3	231.0	468.4	472.1	357.0			
<b>INDEX FOR TWO-PERSON PENSIONER HOUSEHOLDS</b>														
1983	333.3	296.7	358.2	377.3	440.6	461.2	257.4	223.8	383.9	393.1	320.6			
1984	350.4	315.6	384.3	399.9	488.5	479.2	264.3	225.9	405.9	407.0	331.1			
1985	367.6	325.1	406.7	425.5	531.6	503.1	275.8	232.4	438.1	429.9	353.8			
1986	379.2	334.6	432.9	445.3	584.4	511.3	281.2	239.5	456.0	428.5	368.4			
1987 January	384.2	338.8	448.8	456.0	602.3	512.2	281.2	239.5	456.0	428.5	368.4			
<b>GENERAL INDEX OF RETAIL PRICES</b>														
1983	329.8	308.8	364.0	366.5	440.9	465.4	250.4	214.8	345.6	366.3	342.9			
1984	343.9	326.1	390.8	387.7	489.0	478.8	256.7	214.6	364.7	374.7	357.3			
1985	360.7	336.3	413.3	412.1	532.5	499.3	263.9	222.9	392.2	392.5	381.3			
1986	371.5	347.3	439.5	430.6	584.9	506.0	266.7	229.2	409.2	390.1	400.5			
1987 January	377.8	354.0	454.8	440.7	602.9	506.1	266.7	229.2	409.2	390.1	400.5			
<b>INDEX FOR ONE-PERSON PENSIONER HOUSEHOLDS</b>														
1987	101.1	101.1	102.8	101.8	100.2	99.1	102.1	101.1	102.3	102.9	102.8	JAN 13, 1987 = 100		
1988	104.8	104.6	109.7	106.4	103.5	101.3	106.2	104.5	104.5	109.1	107.9	103.5		
1988	104.8	104.6	109.7	106.4	103.5	101.3	106.2	104.5	104.5	109.1	107.9	103.3		
<b>INDEX FOR TWO-PERSON PENSIONER HOUSEHOLDS</b>														
1987	101.2	101.1	102.8	101.8	100.1	99.1	102.2	100.9	101.2	102.8	103.4	100.5		
1988	105.0	104.7	109.6	106.7	103.4	101.4	106.1	103.8	104.5	108.8	107.4	103.7		
1988	105.0	104.7	109.6	106.7	103.4	101.4	106.1	103.8	104.5	108.8	107.4	103.7		
<b>GENERAL INDEX OF RETAIL PRICES</b>														
1987	101.6	101.1	102.8	101.7	100.1	99.1	102.1	101.9	101.1	101.9	103.4	101.5	101.6	101.6
1988	105.8	104.6	109.6	106.9	103.4	101.6	105.9	106.8	104.4	106.8	108.1	107.5	104.2	108.1

Notes: 1 The General Index covers the goods and services purchased by all households, apart from those in the top 4 per cent of the income distribution and pensioner households deriving at least three-quarters of their total income from state benefits.  
2 The structure of the published components of the index was recast in February 1987. The indices for January 1987 are given for those groups which are broadly comparable with the new groups to enable calculations to be made involving periods which span the new reference date. (See General Notes below.)

## 6.6 RETAIL PRICES

### Indices for pensioner households: all items (excluding housing)

UNITED KINGDOM	One-person pensioner households				Two-person pensioner households				General index of retail prices (excl. housing)			
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
<b>JAN 15, 1974 = 100</b>												
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	231.1	238.5	211.3	217.7	233.1	239.8
1980	250.7	262.1	268.9	275.0	248.9	260.5	266.4	271.8	249.6	261.6	267.1	271.8
1981	283.2	292.1	297.2	304.5	280.3	290.3	295.6	303.0	279.3	289.8	295.0	300.5
1982	314.2	322.4	323.0	327.4	311.8	319.4	319.8	324.1	305.9	314.7	316.3	320.2
1983	331.1	334.3	337.0	342.3	327.5	331.5	334.4	339.7	323.2	328.7	332.0	335.4
1984	346.7	353.6	353.8	357.5	343.8	351.4	351.3	355.1	337.5	344.3	345.3	348.5
1985	363.2	371.4	371.3	374.5	360.7	369.0	368.7	371.8	353.0	361.8	362.6	365.3
1986	378.4	382.8	382.6	384.3	375.4	379.6	379.9	382.0	367.4	371.0	372.2	375.3
1987 January	386.5				384.2				377.8			
<b>JAN 13, 1987 = 100</b>												
1987	100.3	101.2	100.9	102.0	100.3	101.3	101.1	102.3	100.3	101.5	101.7	102.9
1988	102.8	104.6	105.3	106.6	103.1	104.8	105.5	106.8	103.6	105.5	106.4	107.7
1989	108.0				108.2				109.0			

Note: The indices for January 1987 are shown to enable calculations to be made involving periods which span the new reference date—see General Notes below table 6.7.

## GENERAL NOTES—RETAIL PRICES

As reported by the Secretary of State for Employment on December 11, 1987, it has been discovered that from February 1986 to October 1987 a computer program error affected the monthly index. The official figures are always stated to one decimal place and the extent of the understatement of index levels will depend on rounding. The all items index figures for February 1986 to January 1987 will be understated by about 0.06 per cent; the index figure for January 1987 taking January 1974 as 100 was 394.5. The index figures for February to October 1987 were affected by an error of about 0.09 per cent. In most months this will have resulted, with rounding, to an understatement of 0.1 points in the published figures which take January 1987 as 100. However, because the January index link, 394.5, was understated the understatements relative to January 1986 may have rounded to 0.1 or 0.2 per cent.

Following the recommendations of the Retail Prices Index Advisory Committee, the index has been re-referenced to make January 13, 1987=100. Details of all changes following the Advisory Committee report can be found in the article on p 185 of the April 1987 edition of *Employment Gazette*.

### Calculations

Calculations of price changes which involve periods spanning the new reference date are made as follows:

$$\% \text{ change} = \frac{\text{Index for later month (Jan 1987=100)} \times \text{Index for Jan 1987 (Jan 1974=100)}}{\text{Index for earlier month (Jan 1974=100)}} - 100$$

For example, to find the percentage change in the index for all items between June 1986 and October 1987, take the index for October 1987 (102.9), multiply it by the January 1987 index on the 1974 base (394.5), then divide by the June 1986 index (385.8). Subtract 100 from the result and this will show that the index increased by 5.2 per cent between those months.

A complete set of indices for January 1987 can be found in table 6.2 on pp 120-121 of the March 1987 edition of *Employment Gazette*.

### Structure

With effect from February 1987 the structure of the published components has been recast. In some cases, therefore, no direct comparison of the new component with the old is possible. The relationship between the old and new index structure is shown in the September 1986 edition of *Employment Gazette* (p 379).

### Definitions

**Seasonal food:** Items of food the prices of which show significant seasonal variations. These are fresh fruit and vegetables, fresh fish, eggs and home-killed lamb.

**Nationalised industries:** Index for goods and services mainly produced by nationalised industries. These are coal and solid fuels, electricity, water, sewerage and environmental charges [from August 1976], rail fares and postage. Telephone charges were included until December 1984, gas until December 1986, and bus fares until January 1989.

**Consumer durables:** Furniture, furnishings, electrical appliances and other household equipment, men's, women's and children's outerwear and footwear, audio-visual equipment, records and tapes, toys, photographic and sports goods.

**RETAIL PRICES**  
Selected countries: consumer prices indices

	United Kingdom	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	France	Germany (FR)	Greece	Irish Republic	Italy	Japan	Netherlands	Norway	Spain	Sweden	Switzerland	United States	All OECD*		
<b>Annual averages</b>																				Indices 1985 = 100	
1976	42.1	46.1	65.4	57.4	49.4	45.4	42.2	70.6	20.8	34.2	28.8	69.6	66.3	47	28.2	44	73.5	52.9	52.9		
1977	48.8	51.8	69.0	61.5	53.4	50.4	46.1	73.2	23.4	38.9	33.7	75.2	70.5	52	35.1	49	74.4	56.3	56.3		
1978	52.8	55.9	71.5	64.2	58.1	55.5	50.3	75.2	26.3	41.8	37.8	78.1	73.4	56	42.0	53	75.3	60.6	60.6		
1979	59.9	60.9	74.1	67.1	63.4	60.8	55.7	78.3	31.3	47.4	43.4	80.9	76.5	59	48.6	57	78.0	67.5	67.5		
1980	70.7	67.1	78.8	71.5	69.9	68.3	63.3	82.6	39.1	56.0	52.5	87.4	81.5	65	56.2	65	81.1	76.6	76.6		
1981	79.1	73.6	84.2	77.0	76.6	76.3	71.8	87.9	48.7	67.5	61.9	91.7	87.0	74	64.3	73	86.4	84.5	84.5		
1982	85.9	81.8	88.8	83.3	87.1	84.0	80.3	92.5	58.9	79.0	72.1	94.1	92.1	82	73.6	79	91.2	89.7	89.7		
1983	89.8	90.1	91.7	89.7	92.2	89.8	88.0	95.5	70.8	87.3	82.7	95.8	94.7	89	82.6	86	93.9	92.6	92.6		
1984	94.3	93.6	96.9	95.4	96.2	95.5	94.5	97.9	83.8	94.8	91.6	98.0	97.8	95	91.9	93	96.7	96.6	96.6		
1985	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
1986	103.4	109.0	101.7	101.3	104.1	103.6	102.7	99.8	123.0	103.8	105.9	100.4	100.1	107	108.8	104	100.7	101.9	102.6		
1987	107.7	118.3	103.1	102.9	108.7	107.8	105.9	100.0	143.2	107.0	110.9	100.2	99.4	117	114.5	109	102.2	105.6	105.9		
1988	113.0	126.9	105.2	104.1	113.1	112.7	108.7	101.2	162.5	109.3	116.5	100.7	100.1	124	120.0	115	104.1	109.9	110.0		
<b>Quarterly averages</b>																				Percent	
1988 Q1	109.6	123.4	104.2	103.1	111.1	110.9	107.3	100.6	153.6	108.3	114.5	100.0	99.3	122	117.9	112	103.7	107.9	108.0		
Q2	112.3	125.5	104.6	103.9	112.6	112.5	108.3	101.2	160.6	108.8	115.7	100.6	99.9	124	118.3	114	104.1	109.3	109.4		
Q3	113.8	127.9	106.2	104.5	113.8	113.0	109.3	101.3	163.6	109.7	116.8	100.8	100.4	125	121.3	116	104.1	110.7	110.6		
Q4	116.2	130.6	105.5	104.8	114.8	114.4	110.0	101.7	172.5	110.4	118.9	101.6	100.8	126	122.8	117	104.7	111.9	111.9		
1989 Q1	118.1	131.9	106.6	105.8	116.1	116.0	110.9	103.2	174.3	111.9	...	100.8	100.1	128	125.1	120	106.0	113.1	113.2		
<b>Monthly</b>																				Percent	
1988 Oct	115.8	130.6	105.6	104.7	114.5	113.9	109.8	101.4	171.0	110.4	118.2	102.0	100.7	126	122.5	117	104.4	111.7	111.7		
Nov	116.3	130.6	105.5	104.6	114.9	114.7	109.9	101.7	172.2	110.4	119.0	101.5	100.9	126	122.5	117	104.7	111.8	111.9		
Dec	116.6	130.6	105.5	105.0	114.9	114.7	109.9	101.7	172.2	110.4	119.0	101.5	100.9	126	122.5	117	104.7	111.8	111.9		
1989 Jan	117.4	131.9	106.2	105.4	115.4	115.2	110.6	103.0	173.6	111.9	120.2	100.9	100.8	127	124.7	119	105.6	112.6	112.7		
Feb	118.2	131.9	106.7	105.9	116.2	116.0	110.9	103.3	172.8	111.9	122.2	100.5	100.1	128	125.0	120	106.1	113.0	113.1		
Mar	118.7	131.9	106.9	106.2	116.7	116.7	111.2	103.4	177.4	111.9	122.2	100.5	100.1	129	125.7	120	106.4	113.7	113.8		
Apr	120.8	131.9	106.9	106.2	116.7	116.7	111.2	103.4	177.4	111.9	122.2	100.5	100.1	129	125.7	120	106.4	113.7	113.8		
<b>Increases on a year earlier</b>																				Percent	
<b>Annual averages</b>																				Percent	
1976	16.5	13.6	7.3	9.2	7.4	9.0	9.7	4.5	13.3	18.0	16.8	9.3	8.8	9.1	17.7	10.3	1.8	5.8	8.7		
1977	15.8	12.3	5.5	7.1	8.1	11.1	9.4	3.7	12.1	13.6	17.0	8.1	6.5	9.1	24.5	11.4	1.3	6.5	8.9		
1978	8.3	7.9	3.6	4.5	8.9	10.0	9.1	2.7	12.6	7.6	12.1	3.8	4.1	8.1	19.8	10.0	1.1	7.7	8.0		
1979	13.4	9.1	3.7	4.5	9.1	9.6	10.8	4.1	19.0	13.3	14.8	3.6	4.2	4.8	15.7	7.2	3.6	11.3	9.8		
1980	18.0	10.2	6.4	6.6	10.1	12.3	13.6	5.5	24.9	18.2	21.2	8.0	6.5	10.9	15.5	13.7	4.0	13.5	12.9		
1981	11.9	9.6	6.8	7.6	12.5	11.7	13.4	6.3	24.5	20.4	17.8	4.9	6.7	13.6	14.6	12.1	6.5	10.4	10.5		
1982	8.6	11.1	5.5	8.7	10.8	10.1	11.8	5.3	20.9	17.1	16.6	2.7	6.0	11.2	14.4	8.6	5.6	6.1	7.8		
1983	4.6	10.1	3.3	7.7	5.9	6.9	9.6	3.3	20.5	10.5	14.6	1.9	2.7	8.6	12.1	8.9	3.0	3.2	5.3		
1984	5.0	4.0	5.7	6.3	4.3	6.3	7.3	2.4	18.1	8.7	10.8	2.2	3.3	6.6	11.3	7.5	2.8	4.3	5.1		
1985	6.1	6.7	3.3	4.9	4.0	4.7	5.8	2.2	19.3	5.4	9.2	2.1	2.3	5.5	8.8	7.4	3.4	3.5	4.5		
1986	3.4	9.1	1.7	1.3	4.2	3.6	2.7	0.2	23.0	3.8	5.8	0.4	0.1	7.1	8.8	4.3	0.7	1.9	2.6		
1987	4.2	8.4	1.5	1.5	4.4	4.0	4.0	3.1	16.4	3.2	4.8	0.3	-0.7	9.1	5.3	4.2	1.5	3.7	3.3		
1988	4.9	7.3	2.0	1.2	4.0	4.5	2.6	1.2	13.5	2.1	5.0	0.5	0.7	6.0	4.8	5.5	1.9	4.1	3.9		
<b>Quarterly averages</b>																				Percent	
1988 Q1	3.3	6.9	2.2	1.0	4.1	4.8	2.4	0.8	13.6	1.9	5.2	0.6	0.3	6.8	4.4	5.0	2.2	4.0	3.4		
Q2	4.3	7.1	1.7	1.0	4.0	4.6	2.5	1.1	12.4	1.8	5.1	0.0	0.7	7.3	4.1	6.5	2.1	3.9	3.5		
Q3	5.5	7.3	1.9	1.0	4.0	4.4	2.9	1.2	14.0	2.1	5.0	0.5	1.0	6.6	5.3	5.8	1.9	4.1	4.0		
Q4	6.5	7.7	1.4	1.6	4.1	4.4	3.0	1.5	14.1	2.7	5.1	1.0	1.0	6.0	5.5	5.9	1.8	4.3	4.3		
1989 Q1	7.7	6.9	2.3	2.6	4.5	4.6	3.6	2.6	13.5	3.3	...	0.8	0.1	4.8	6.1	6.4	2.2	4.8	4.8		
<b>Monthly</b>																				Percent	
1988 Oct	6.4	7.7	1.8	1.3	4.2	4.2	3.0	1.3	14.8	2.7	4.8	1.0	0.7	6.4	5.2	5.9	1.7	4.2	4.2		
Nov	6.4	7.7	2.0	1.6	4.1	4.6	3.0	1.6	14.1	2.7	5.1	1.1	1.1	6.2	5.4	5.8	1.7	4.2	4.3		
Dec	6.8	7.9	1.9	1.9	4.0	4.5	3.1	1.6	14.0	2.7	5.4	0.9	1.2	5.6	5.9	6.0	2.0	4.4	4.4		
1989 Jan	7.5	7.9	2.2	2.4	4.3	4.6	3.3	2.6	13.8	3.3	5.5	0.9	0.8	5.2	6.3	6.6	2.3	4.7	4.7		
Feb	7.8	6.9	2.4	2.6	4.6	4.4	3.4	2.6	13.8	3.3	6.4	0.7	0.9	4.9	6.2	6.4	2.2	4.8	4.8		
Mar	7.9	7.7	2.2	2.8	4.6	4.7	3.4	2.7	13.5	3.3	...	0.9	0.8	4.3	6.0	6.3	2.2	3.0	4.9		
Apr	8.0	7.7	2.2	2.8	4.6	4.7	3.4	2.7	13.5	3.3	...	0.9	0.8	4.3	6.0	6.3	2.2	3.0	4.9		

Sources: OECD—Main Economic Indicators.

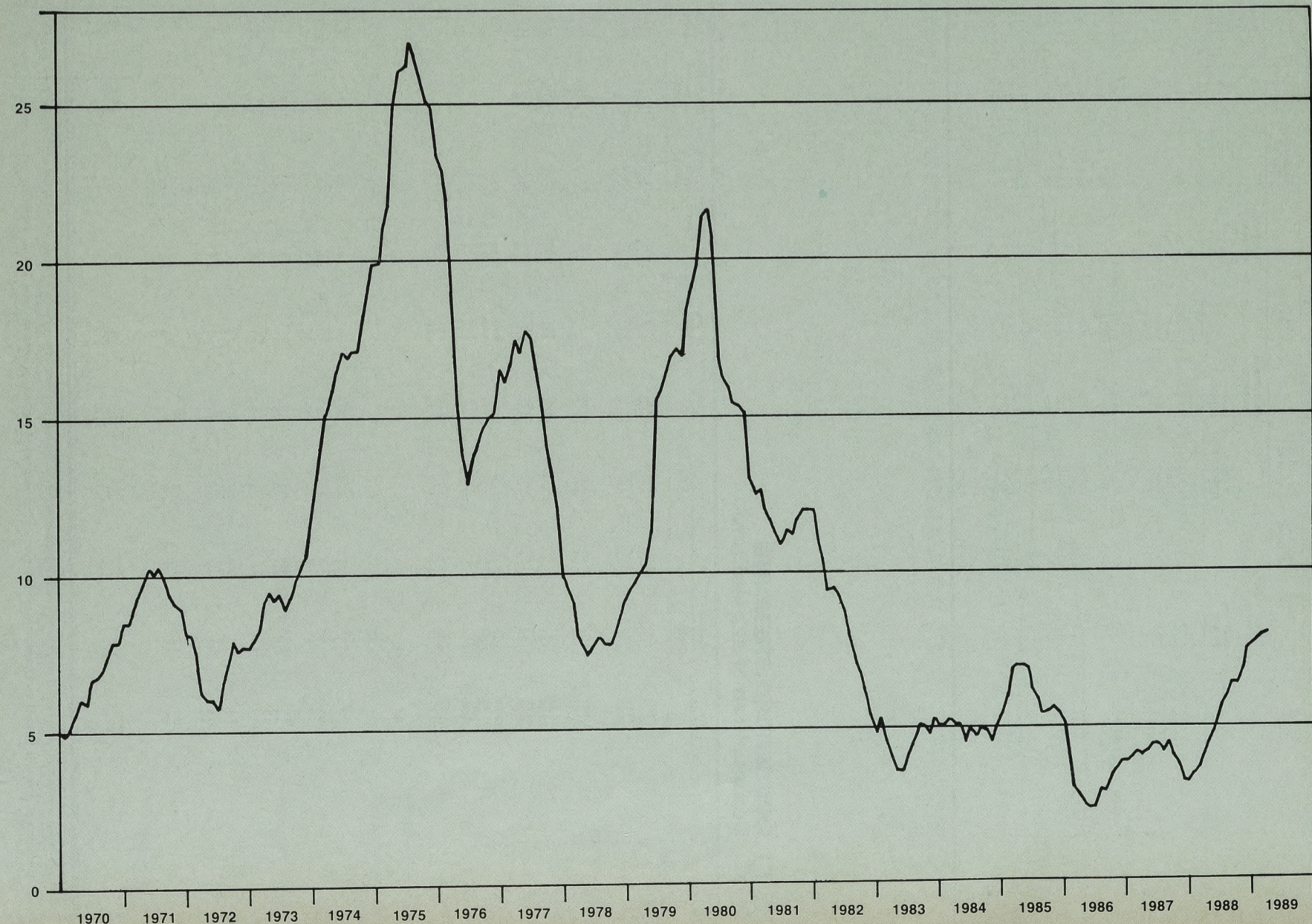
OECD—Consumer Prices Press Notice.

\* The index for the OECD as a whole is compiled using weights derived from private final consumption expenditure and exchange rates for previous year.

Notes: 1 Since percentage changes are calculated from rounded rebased series they may differ slightly from official national sources.

2 The construction of consumer prices indices varies across countries. In particular, the treatment of owner occupiers' shelter costs varies, reflecting both differences in housing markets and methodologies. Within the EC, only Ireland and the UK include mortgage interest payments directly. Of the other ten members there are six—France, Italy, Greece, Denmark, Luxembourg, Portugal—which include no direct measure of owner-occupiers' shelter costs. The other four members—Germany (FR), Netherlands, Belgium, Spain—take account of owner-occupiers' shelter costs using rental equivalents. Among other major developed nations, Canada, Australia and New Zealand include mortgage interest payments directly in their CPIs.

Per cent

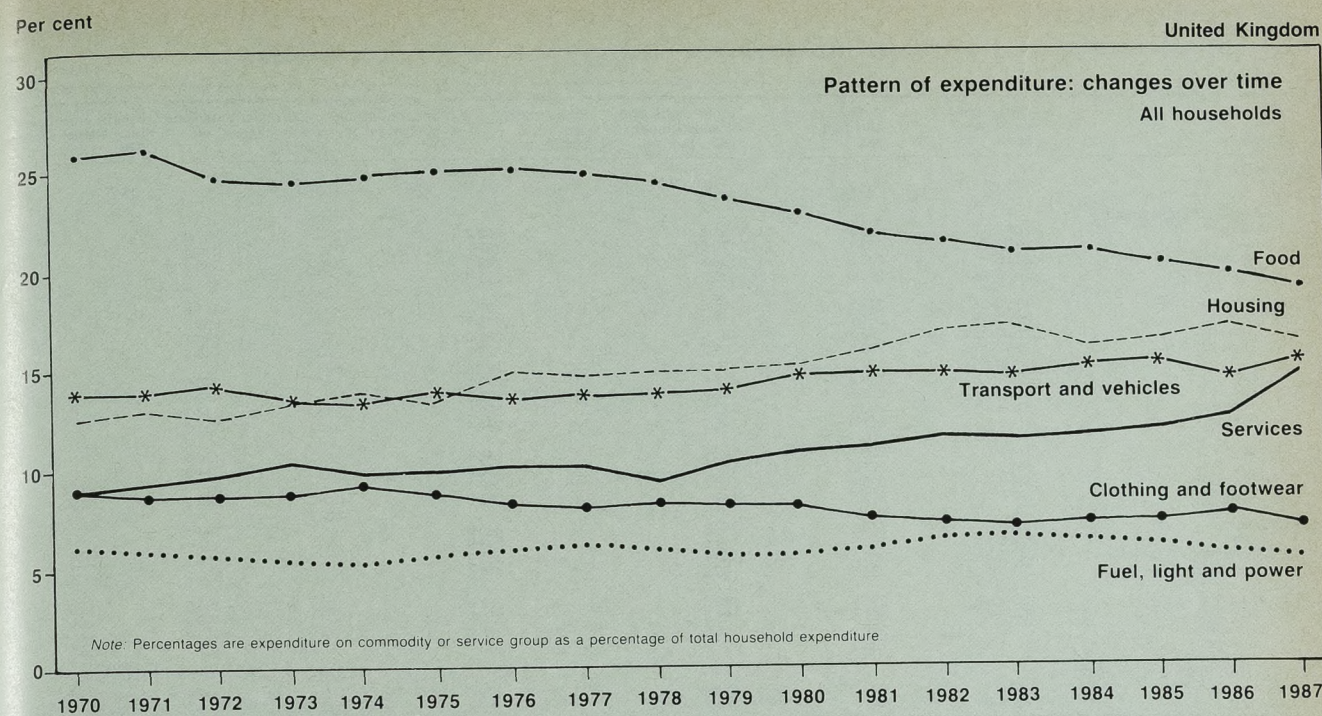


**RETAIL PRICES INDEX**  
Increases over previous year **C2**

## 7.1 HOUSEHOLD SPENDING All expenditure: per household and per person

UNITED KINGDOM	Average weekly expenditure per household					Average weekly expenditure per person				
	At current prices					At constant prices				
	Actual		Seasonally adjusted		Seasonally adjusted	Actual		Seasonally adjusted		Seasonally adjusted
	£	Percentage increase on a year earlier	£	Percentage increase on a year earlier		£	Percentage increase on a year earlier	£	Percentage increase on a year earlier	
		Index (1975=100)					Index (1975=100)			
<b>Annual averages</b>										
1984	151.92	7.7	101.4	3.0	57.96	9.2	105.1	4.5		
1985	162.50	6.5	103.2	1.7	62.60	8.0	107.9	2.7		
1986	178.10	9.6	108.8	5.5	69.74	11.4	115.7	7.3		
1987	188.62	5.9	111.1	2.0	74.47	6.8	119.1	2.9		
<b>Quarterly averages</b>										
1985 Q3	164.07	11.0	166.6	6.0	62.74	12.1	64.1	109.8	7.0	
Q4	172.01	4.8	165.4	103.3	-0.5	62.74	6.2	64.1	109.8	1.1
1986 Q1	166.44	9.0	173.0	107.1	4.2	65.95	12.4	68.6	115.3	7.4
Q2	175.20	8.4	172.8	106.4	4.8	70.40	11.9	68.7	114.9	8.0
Q3	180.15	9.8	183.6	111.8	6.5	68.97	9.9	70.8	117.1	6.6
Q4	190.18	10.6	182.2	110.0	6.4	73.45	11.0	70.5	115.6	7.0
1987 Q1	178.70	7.4	185.7	110.7	3.3	69.52	5.4	72.3	117.0	1.5
Q2	191.34	9.2	188.9	112.1	5.3	74.25	5.5	72.5	116.7	1.6
Q3	179.97	-0.1	183.5	107.7	-3.7	72.23	4.7	74.2	118.3	1.0
Q4	204.73	7.7	196.2	113.7	3.4	82.22	11.9	79.0	124.3	7.5
1988 Q1	188.32	5.4	195.4	112.2	1.3	73.03	5.1	75.9	118.2	1.0
Q2	202.70	5.9	200.4	113.6	1.3	82.10	10.6	80.3	123.4	5.8

Source: Family Expenditure Survey—For a brief note on the Survey, the availability of reports and discussion of response rates see the article on p 249 of this issue. A note in Topics in Employment Gazette, April 1989 (p 211) and the article on p ?? of this issue discuss the annual results for 1987 and those for Quarter 3 of 1987.



## 7.2 HOUSEHOLD SPENDING Composition of expenditure

UNITED KINGDOM	ALL ITEMS	£ per week per household								
		Housing*		Fuel, light and power	Food	Alcoholic drink	Tobacco	Clothing and footwear	Durable household goods	Other goods
		Gross	Net							
<b>Annual averages</b>										
1984	151.92	27.41	24.06	9.42	31.43	7.25	4.37	11.10	11.57	11.89
1985	162.50	30.18	26.63	9.95	32.70	7.95	4.42	11.92	11.61	12.59
1986	178.10	33.70	29.92	10.43	34.97	8.21	4.55	13.46	13.83	13.87
1987	188.62	34.35	30.42	10.55	35.79	8.70	4.67	13.32		
<b>Quarterly averages</b>										
1985 Q3	164.07	31.22	27.99	9.23	32.58	7.77	4.55	13.11	10.35	12.18
Q4	172.01	30.43	26.64	9.15	34.25	7.28	4.49	15.16	13.67	15.80
1986 Q1	166.44	31.93	28.34	11.11	33.20	6.97	4.09	10.29	14.25	12.28
Q2	175.20	32.31	28.61	11.63	34.17	7.75	4.58	12.60	12.64	12.77
Q3	180.15	35.75	31.89	9.61	35.36	8.52	4.65	13.49	13.47	12.87
Q4	190.18	34.79	30.83	9.41	37.09	9.57	4.89	17.32	14.92	17.44
1987 Q1	178.70	33.21	29.23	11.38	34.88	8.19	4.81	10.73		
Q2	191.34	35.48	31.59	12.04	36.40	8.83	4.72	12.84		
Q3	179.97	33.91	29.87	9.54	35.22	8.29	4.60	12.51		
Q4	204.73	34.81	31.01	9.15	36.70	9.52	4.55	17.33		
1988 Q1	188.32	36.93	33.29	11.21	37.49	8.53	4.38	11.88		
Q2	202.70	37.43	34.11	11.22	37.82	8.99	4.45	13.58		
<b>Standard error† per cent</b>										
1988 Q2	2.1	2.1	2.4	1.3	1.5	3.9	3.8	4.1		
<b>Percentage increase in expenditure on a year earlier</b>										
1984	7.7	8.2	7.3	2.2	6.3	4.9	3.8	10.9	12.7	10.0
1985	6.5	7.4	7.6	5.7	4.0	9.6	1.3	7.4	0.3	5.9
1986	9.6	11.7	12.4	4.8	6.9	3.3	2.9	12.9	19.1	10.2
1987	5.9	1.9	1.7	1.2	2.3	6.0	2.6	-1.0		
1986 Q1	9.0	12.4	13.5	4.2	4.0	0.7	-6.4	6.7	14.3	12.0
Q2	8.4	5.2	6.0	8.0	6.5	-1.5	7.0	7.7	18.0	11.0
Q3	9.8	14.5	13.9	4.1	8.5	9.7	2.2	19.3	30.1	5.7
Q4	10.6	14.3	15.7	2.8	8.3	3.1	8.9	14.3	9.1	10.4
1987 Q1	7.4	4.0	3.1	2.4	5.1	17.5	17.6	4.3		
Q2	9.2	9.8	10.5	3.4	6.5	14.1	3.1	1.9		
Q3	-0.1	-5.2	-0.7	-0.4	-2.7	-1.1	-7.3			
Q4	7.7	0.1	0.6	-2.8	-1.1	-0.5	-7.0	-0.6		
1988 Q1	5.4	11.2	13.9	-1.5	7.5	4.2	-8.9	10.7		
Q2	5.9	5.5	7.9	-6.8	3.9	1.8	-5.8	5.8		
<b>Percentage of total expenditure</b>										
1984	100	15.8	6.2	20.7	4.8	2.9	7.3	7.6	7.8	
1985	100	16.4	6.1	20.1	4.9	2.7	7.3	7.2	7.8	
1986†	100	16.8	5.9	19.6	4.6	2.5	7.6	7.8	7.8	
1987	100	16.1	5.6	19.0	4.6	2.5	7.1			

Source: Family Expenditure Survey.  
\* Housing figures are given in terms of gross expenditure (ie: before deducting all allowances, benefits and rebates) and net expenditure. The net figure is included in the "all items" figure of household expenditure.  
† For notes on standard errors see Employment Gazette, March 1983, p 122 or annex A of the FES Report 1986 (Revised) and the article on p ??? of this issue.  
‡ See † footnote to table 7.1.

## HOUSEHOLD SPENDING Composition of expenditure 7.2

UNITED KINGDOM	£ per week per household										
	Transport and vehicles	Services†	Household goods	Household services	Personal goods and services	Motoring expenditure	Fares† and other travel costs	Leisure goods	Leisure services	Miscellaneous	Annual averages
1984	22.77	17.41									0.64
1985	24.56	19.48									0.68
1986	25.43	22.67	13.67	8.50	6.48	21.22	4.21	8.54	13.18	0.74	0.88
1987			13.48	8.23	7.02	23.80	4.60	9.03	18.11	0.88	
<b>Quarterly averages</b>											
1985 Q3	26.13	21.17									0.92
Q4	25.40	17.39									0.80
1986 Q1	24.61	20.65	14.08	7.30	5.49	21.11	3.50	7.90	12.41	0.66	
Q2	24.60	25.30	12.57	10.54	6.23	20.00	4.60	7.70	13.67	0.56	
Q3	25.76	23.73	13.08	8.08	6.27	21.01	4.75	7.93	14.71	0.81	
Q4	26.70	21.08	14.90	8.10	7.88	22.71	3.99	10.56	12.00	0.93	
1987 Q1			14.15	7.81	6.02	23.05	4.46	8.49	14.59	0.91	
Q2			12.22	7.91	6.46	24.55	4.80	8.64	19.61	0.73	
Q3			12.61	7.85	6.38	22.93	4.63	7.91	16.97	0.66	
Q4			14.95	9.38	9.27	24.68	4.52	11.11	21.35	1.21	
1988 Q1			13.99	8.59	6.88	23.24	4.72	8.78	14.50	0.84	
Q2			15.06	9.35	6.85	28.19	4.51	8.83	19.07	0.67	
<b>Standard error† per cent</b>											
1988 Q2			6.7	7.2	3.6	8.0	11.1	5.4	7.3	11.9	
<b>Percentage increase in expenditure on a year earlier</b>											
1984	8.7	8.2									11.5
1985	7.9	11.9									6.1
1986	3.5	16.4									8.8
1987			-1.4	-3.2	8.3	12.2	9.3	5.7	37.4	18.9	
1986 Q1	8.4	13.0									26.9
Q2	2.4	19.7									14.3
Q3	-1.4	12.1									-12.0
Q4	5.1	21.2									16.3
1987 Q1			0.5	7.0	9.7	9.2	27.4	7.5	17.6	36.4	
Q2			-2.8	-24.9	3.7	22.8	4.6	12.2	43.5	30.4	
Q3			-3.6	-2.9	1.8	9.1	-2.5	-0.3	15.4	-18.5	
Q4			0.3	15.8	17.6	8.7	13.3	5.2	77.9	30.1	
1988 Q1			-1.1	10.0	14.3	0.8	5.8	3.4	-0.6	7.7	
Q2			23.2	18.2	6.0	14.8	-6.1	2.2	-2.8	-8.8	
<b>Percentage of total expenditure</b>											
1984	15.0	11.5									0.4
1985	15.1	12.0									0.4
1986†	14.3	12.7	7.7	4.8	3.6	11.9	2.4	4.8	7.4	0.4	
1987			7.1	4.4	3.7	12.6	2.4	4.8	9.6	0.5	

† The component/service groupings used to categorise FES expenditure have been revised to align with the categories recommended for the Retail Prices Index (RPI) by the RPI Advisory Committee. The 11 commodity groups have been extended to 14. The composition of the "housing", "fuel, light and power", "food", "alcoholic drink", "tobacco", "clothing and footwear" and "miscellaneous" groups are unchanged. The new "motoring expenditure" and "fares and other travel costs" groups together correspond to the old "transport and vehicles" group. The new groups of "household goods", "household services", "personal goods and services", "leisure goods" and "leisure services" involve extensive re-arrangement of some component items but this has no effect on the all expenditure group total. Figures on both the old and revised basis are available for 1986. The old basis figures are shown in italics.

## 8.1 TOURISM Employment in tourism-related industries in Great Britain

SIC group	THOUSAND						
	Restaurants, cafes, etc 661	Public houses and bars 662	Night clubs and licensed clubs 663	Hotel trade 665	Other tourist, etc accommodation 667	Libraries, museums art galleries, etc 977	Sports and other recreational services 979
<b>Self-employed *</b>							
1981	48.1	51.7	1.6	32.6	3.8	0.6	19.7
<b>Employees in employment †</b>							
1983 March	174.0	226.7	131.3	203.2		307.0	
June	197.7	237.1	133.0	262.2		312.8	
September	203.6	245.3	135.3	265.3		334.9	
December	200.3	243.8	138.3	211.0		314.1	
1984 March	200.5	239.5	136.6	202.1		311.2	
June	213.1	251.7	137.6	265.7		333.6	
September	216.2	259.8	137.0	262.0		330.1	
December	209.3	259.8	139.5	228.9		315.3	
1985 March	207.1	258.3	138.0	226.8		320.6	
June	222.2	271.5	142.4	276.3		379.0	
September	225.4	266.1	142.9	280.5		372.3	
December	219.9	267.0	145.7	244.4		335.8	
1986 March	214.2	260.1	142.5	242.1		334.0	
June	228.0	271.8	144.5	288.6		384.9	
September	226.3	278.0	145.7	289.1		378.0	
December	223.6	278.7	147.3	255.6		349.2	
1987 March	222.0	274.1	147.4	246.8		348.6	
June	238.5	281.9	146.8	293.9		397.1	
September	240.1	284.5	150.7	301.2		391.1	
December	231.8	286.6	155.5	273.8		359.2	
1988 March	235.7	280.9	152.6	273.9		365.5	
June	254.5	291.0	156.9	312.5		409.3	
September	250.8	298.9	155.4	318.0		410.4	
December	252.4	299.9	162.8	288.1		367.2	
Change Dec 1988 on Dec 1987							
Absolute (thousands)	+20.6	+13.3	+7.3	+14.3		+8.0	
Percentage	+8.9	+4.6	+4.7	+5.2		+2.2	

\* Based on Census of Population.  
 † In addition the Labour Force Survey showed the following estimates (thousands) of self-employment in Hotels and Catering (SIC Class 66): (1982 not available.)

1981	145	1986	185
1983	142	1987	180
1984	169	1988	183
1985	170		

† These are comparable with the estimates for all industries and services shown in table 1.4.

## 8.2 TOURISM Overseas travel and tourism: earnings and expenditure

	£ MILLION AT CURRENT PRICES					
	Overseas visitors to the UK (a)		UK residents abroad (b)		Balance (a) less (b)	
	Actual	Seasonally adjusted	Actual	Seasonally adjusted	Actual	Seasonally adjusted
1980	2,961		2,738		+223	
1981	2,970		3,272		-302	
1982	3,188		3,640		-452	
1983	4,003		4,090		-87	
1984	4,614		4,663		-49	
1985	5,442		4,871		+571	
1986	5,553		6,083		-530	
1987	6,260		7,280		-1,020	
1988 (e)	6,215		8,190		-1,975	
Percentage change 1988/1987	-1		+13			
	Overseas visitors to the UK		UK residents abroad		Balance	
	Actual	Seasonally adjusted	Actual	Seasonally adjusted	Actual	Seasonally adjusted
1987 Q1	1,015	1,497	1,086	1,680	-71	-183
Q2	1,497	1,578	1,797	1,867	-300	-289
Q3	2,371	1,596	2,991	1,906	-620	-310
Q4	1,377	1,589	1,406	1,827	-29	-238
1988 P Q1	1,061	1,541	1,342	2,034	-281	-493
Q2	1,488	1,563	1,966	2,005	-478	-442
Q3	2,257	1,509	3,207	2,025	-950	-516
Q4 (e)	1,410	1,605	1,675	2,130	-265	-525
1988 P January	407	511	416	651	-9	-140
February	288	499	416	695	-128	-196
March	366	531	510	698	-144	-157
April	459	537	547	677	-88	-140
May	453	498	582	615	-129	-117
June	576	528	837	713	-261	-185
July	744	514	922	661	-178	-147
August	856	508	1,178	689	-322	-181
September	657	487	1,107	675	-450	-188
October (e)	590	520	890	725	-300	-200
November (e)	395	500	450	725	-55	-230
December (e)	425	585	335	680	+90	-90
1989 P January (e)	410	525	455	735	-45	-210
February (e)	300	550	505	880	-205	-330

P Provisional (e) Rounded to the nearest £5 million.  
 For further details see Business Monitors MQ6 and MA6 Overseas Travel and Tourism, available from HMSO.  
 Source: International Passenger Survey.

## TOURISM 8.3 Overseas travel and tourism: visits to the UK by overseas residents THOUSAND

	All areas		North America	Western Europe	Other areas
	Actual	Seasonally adjusted			
1976	10,808		2,093	6,816	1,899
1977	12,281		2,377	7,770	2,134
1978	12,646		2,475	7,865	2,306
1979	12,486		2,196	7,873	2,417
1980	12,421		2,082	7,910	2,429
1981	11,452		2,105	7,055	2,291
1982	11,636		2,135	7,082	2,418
1983	12,464		3,330	7,164	2,464
1984	13,644		3,797	7,870	2,763
1985	14,449		3,943	8,355	2,699
1986	13,897		3,394	9,317	2,855
1987	15,566		3,280	9,540	2,850
1988 (e)	15,660				
1987 Q1	2,641	3,829	502	1,654	486
Q2	4,048	3,827	938	2,475	635
Q3	5,618	3,840	1,283	3,200	1,135
Q4	3,259	4,070	672	1,988	599
1988 P Q1	2,746	3,927	519	1,704	524
Q2	4,012	3,761	846	2,484	683
Q3	5,546	3,789	1,201	3,301	1,043
Q4 (e)	3,360	4,190	710	2,050	600
1988 P January	1,009	1,306	158	637	214
February	783	1,344	140	497	146
March	954	1,277	220	570	164
April	1,323	1,267	202	928	194
May	1,191	1,212	279	698	214
June	1,498	1,282	365	858	275
July	1,929	1,264	420	1,171	338
August	2,083	1,246	448	1,266	367
September	1,533	1,279	334	982	338
October (e)	1,330	1,320	330	730	270
November (e)	1,040	1,440	200	670	170
December (e)	990	1,430	180	650	160
1989 P January (e)	1,160	1,560	190	740	230
February (e)	890	1,570	140	580	170

Notes: See table 8.2.

## TOURISM 8.4 Visits abroad by UK residents THOUSAND

	All areas		North America	Western Europe	Other areas
	Actual R	Seasonally adjusted			
1976	11,560		579	9,954	1,027
1977	11,525		619	9,866	1,040
1978	13,443		782	11,517	1,144
1979	15,466		1,087	12,959	1,420
1980	17,507		1,382	14,455	1,670
1981	19,046		1,514	15,862	1,671
1982	20,611		1,299	17,625	1,687
1983	20,994		1,023	18,229	1,743
1984	22,072		919	19,371	1,781
1985	21,610		914	18,944	1,752
1986	24,949		1,167	21,877	1,905
1987	27,447		1,559	23,678	2,210
1988 (e)	28,700		1,835	24,350	2,520
1987 Q1	4,242	6,937	254	3,404	584
Q2	7,313	6,927	347	6,434	532
Q3	10,650	6,837	583	9,510	558
Q4	5,241	6,746	375	4,329	537
1988 P Q1	4,426	7,185	250	3,514	662
Q2	7,308	6,874	440	6,300	568
Q3	10,959	7,042	665	9,607	687
Q4 (e)	6,010	7,600	480	4,930	600
1988 P January	1,393	2,295	126	1,012	255
February	1,371	2,583	54	1,109	207
March	1,662	2,307	70	1,392	200
April	2,070	2,254	144	1,665	262
May	2,123	2,138	135	1,844	144
June	3,115	2,482	162	2,791	162
July	3,306	2,336	171	2,957	179
August	3,944	2,342	273	3,403	269
September	3,708	2,364	222	3,247	239
October (e)	3,080	2,650	230	2,610	240
November (e)	1,700	2,550	130	1,380	190
December (e)	1,230	2,410	120	940	170
1989 P January (e)	1,650	2,800	130	1,230	290
February (e)	1,570	3,040	100	1,210	260

Notes: See table 8.2.

## 9.1 OTHER FACTS AND FIGURES

### YTS entrants: regions

	South East	London	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands and Eastern	Yorkshire and Humber-side	North West	Northern	Wales	Scotland	Great Britain
Planned entrants April 1989-March 1990	29.7	18.8	20.8	33.2	33.5	31.0	40.0	20.6	17.4	40.5	285.5
Entrants to training April 1989	0.6	0.3	0.3	1.0	0.8	1.4	1.3	0.6	0.9	0.6	7.8
Total in training April 30 1989	39.7	20.8	29.9	43.2	46.0	45.1	59.2	30.0	23.9	48.5	386.3

Note: All figures include YTS and Initial Training.

## 9.2 OTHER FACTS AND FIGURES

### Numbers of people benefiting from Government employment measures

Measure	Great Britain		Scotland		Wales	
	April	March	April	March	April	March
Community Industry	7,000	9,000	1,869	1,723	788	917
Enterprise Allowance Scheme	88,000	89,000	7,526	7,716	6,262	6,278
Job Release Scheme	6,000	7,000	357	373	269	268
Jobshare	228	252	26	29	20	18
Jobstart Allowance	4,000*	4,000†	570*	550†	425*	405†
Restart interviews (cumulative total)	2,249,707**	2,042,102††	291,197**	258,397††	136,479**	123,719††

\* Live cases as at March 31, 1989.  
 † Live cases as at February 24, 1989.  
 \*\* March 28, 1988 to March 31, 1989.  
 †† March 28, 1988 to February 24, 1989.

## 9.3 OTHER FACTS AND FIGURES

### Jobseekers with disabilities: registrations and placement into employment

Employment registrations† taken at jobcentres, March 6 to April 7, 1989	8,374
Placed into employment by jobcentre advisory service, March 6 to April 7, 1989*	3,375
Placed into employment by jobcentre and local authority careers offices January 9 to April 7, 1989*	9,591
Of which into open employment	8,724
Of which into sheltered employment	867

† For people aged 18 and over there is no compulsory requirement to register for employment as a condition for the receipt of unemployment benefit. These figures relate to people with disabilities who have chosen to register for employment at jobcentres, including those seeking a change of job.  
 \* Not including placings through displayed vacancies.

## 9.4 OTHER FACTS AND FIGURES

### Jobseekers and unemployed people with disabilities registered\* for work at jobcentres and local authority careers offices

GREAT BRITAIN		Disabled people †				Unlikely to obtain employment except under sheltered conditions			
		Suitable for ordinary employment							
		Registered disabled	Of whom unemployed	Unregistered disabled	Of whom unemployed	Registered disabled	Of whom unemployed	Unregistered disabled	Of whom unemployed
1988	Apr	20.3	16.8	46.6	34.0	4.2	3.6	3.0	2.3
	July	20.3	17.1	45.6	33.5	4.0	3.5	2.7	1.9
	Oct	18.5	15.7	43.4	31.6	4.0	3.4	2.3	1.6
1989	Jan	18.0	15.2	41.9	30.0	3.9	3.3	2.2	1.6
	Apr	17.9	15.2	41.0	29.6	3.8	3.3	2.1	1.6

\* For people aged 18 and over there is no compulsory requirement to register for employment as a condition for the receipt of unemployment benefit. These figures relate to people with disabilities who have chosen to register for employment at jobcentres, including those seeking a change of job.  
 Note: Registration as a disabled person under the Disabled Persons (Employment) Acts 1944 and 1958 is voluntary. People eligible to register are those who, because of injury, disease or congenital deformity, are substantially handicapped in obtaining or keeping employment of a kind otherwise suited to their age, experience and qualifications. At April 18, 1988, the latest date for which figures are available, 374,236 people were registered under the Acts.  
 † Includes registered disabled people and those who, although eligible, choose not to register.

## DEFINITIONS

The terms used in the tables are defined more fully in periodic articles in Employment Gazette relating to particular statistical series.

### EARNINGS

Total gross remuneration which employees receive from their employers in the form of money. Income in kind and employers' contributions to national insurance and pension funds are excluded.

### EMPLOYEES IN EMPLOYMENT

A count of civilian jobs of employees paid by employers who run a PAYE scheme. Participants in Government employment and training schemes are included if they have a contract of employment. HM forces, homeworkers and private domestic servants are excluded. As the estimates of employees in employment are derived from employers' reports of the number of people they employ, individuals holding two jobs with different employers will be counted twice.

### FULL-TIME WORKERS

People normally working for more than 30 hours a week except where otherwise stated.

### GENERAL INDEX OF RETAIL PRICES

The general index covers almost all goods and services purchased by most households, excluding only those for which the income of the household is in the top 4 per cent and those one and two person pensioner households (covered by separate indices) who depend mainly on state benefits—that is, more than three-quarters of their income is from state benefits.

### HM FORCES

All UK service personnel of HM Regular Forces, wherever serving, including those on release leave.

### HOUSEHOLD SPENDING

Expenditure on housing (in the Family Expenditure Survey) includes, for owner-occupied and rent-free households, a notional (imputed) amount based on rateable values as an estimate of the rent which would have been payable if the dwelling had been rented: mortgage payments are therefore excluded.

### INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

Statistics of stoppages of work due to industrial disputes in the United Kingdom relate only 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 and working days lost relate to persons both directly and indirectly involved (thrown out of work although not parties to the disputes) at the establishments where the disputes occurred. People laid off and working days lost elsewhere, owing for example to resulting shortages of supplies, are not included.

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 particularly bear on those industries most affected by such stoppages, and would affect the total number of stoppages much more than the number of working days lost.

### MANUAL WORKERS (OPERATIVES)

Employees other than those in administrative, professional, technical and clerical occupations.

### MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

SIC 1980 Divisions 2 to 4.

### NORMAL WEEKLY HOURS

The time which the employee is expected to work in a normal week, excluding all overtime and main meal breaks. This may be specified in national collective agreements and statutory wages orders for manual workers.

### Conventions

The following standard symbols are used:

- .. not available
- nil or negligible (less than half the final digit shown)
- provisional
- break in series

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.

### OVERTIME

Work outside normal hours for which a premium rate is paid.

### PART-TIME WORKERS

People normally working for not more than 30 hours a week except where otherwise stated.

### PRODUCTION INDUSTRIES

SIC 1980, Divisions 1 to 4 inclusive.

### SEASONALLY ADJUSTED

Adjusted for regular seasonal variations.

### SELF-EMPLOYED PEOPLE

Those who in their main employment work on their own account, whether or not they have any employees. Second occupations classified as self-employed are not included.

### SERVICE INDUSTRIES

SIC 1980 Divisions 6 to 9.

### SHORT-TIME WORKING

Arrangements made by an employer for working less than regular hours. Therefore, time lost through sickness, holidays, absenteeism and the direct effects of industrial disputes is not counted as short-time.

### STANDARD INDUSTRIAL CLASSIFICATION (SIC)

The classification system used to provide a consistent industrial breakdown for UK official statistics. It was revised in 1968 and 1980.

### TAX AND PRICE INDEX.

Measures the increase in gross taxable income needed to compensate taxpayers for any increase in retail prices, taking account of changes to direct taxes (including employees' National Insurance contributions). Annual and quarterly figures are averages of monthly indices.

### TEMPORARILY STOPPED

People who at the date of the unemployment count are suspended by their employers on the understanding that they will shortly resume work and are claiming benefit. These people are not included in the unemployment figures.

### UNEMPLOYED

People claiming benefit—that is, Unemployment Benefit, Income Support (formerly Supplementary Benefit up to April 1988) or National Insurance credits—at Unemployment Benefit Offices on the day of the monthly count, who on that day were unemployed and able and willing to do any suitable work. (Students claiming benefit during a vacation and who intend to return to full-time education are excluded.)

### VACANCY

A job opportunity notified by an employer to a Jobcentre or Careers Office (including 'self employed' opportunities created by employers) which remained unfilled on the day of the count.

### WEEKLY HOURS WORKED

Actual hours worked during the reference week and hours not worked but paid for under guarantee agreements.

### WORKFORCE

Workforce in employment plus the unemployed as defined above.

### WORKFORCE IN EMPLOYMENT

Employees in employment, self-employed, HM Forces and participants on work-related government training programmes.

### WORK-RELATED GOVERNMENT TRAINING PROGRAMMES

Those participants on government programmes and schemes who in the course of their participation receive training in the context of a workplace but are not employees, self-employed or HM Forces.

- R revised
- e estimated
- nes not elsewhere specified
- SIC UK Standard Industrial Classification, 1980 edition
- EC European Community

# Regularly published statistics

Employment and workforce	Frequency	Latest issue	Table number or page	Earnings and hours (cont.)	Frequency	Latest issue	Table number or page
Workforce GB and UK	M (Q)	June 89:	1-1	Average weekly and hourly earnings and hours worked (manual workers)			
Quarterly series		Apr 89:	159	Manufacturing and certain other industries	B (A)	June 89:	5-4
Labour force estimates, projections				Summary (Oct)	A	Apr 89:	173
Employees in employment				Detailed results			
Industry: GB	Q	May 89:	1-4	Manufacturing	M	June 89:	5-9
All industries: by Division class or group	M	June 89:	1-2	International comparisons	A	Apr 89:	211
Time series: by order group	M	June 89:	1-3	Agriculture	A	Apr 89:	210
Manufacturing: by Division class or group				Coal-mining	M (A)	June 89:	5-5
Occupation	A	Dec 88:	1-10	Average earnings: non-manual employees			
Administrative, technical and clerical in manufacturing	Q	May 89:	1-5	Overtime and short-time: manufacturing	M	June 89:	1-11
Local authorities manpower	Q	Mar 88:	162	Latest figures: industry	Q	June 89:	1-13
Region: GB				Region: summary	M	June 89:	1-12
Sector: numbers and indices.	Q	May 89:	1-5	Hours of work: manufacturing	M	June 89:	1-12
Self-employed: by region				Output per head			
by industry				Output per head: quarterly and annual indices	M (Q)	June 89:	1-8
Census of Employment: Sept 1984				Wages and salaries per unit of output	M	June 89:	5-7
GB and regions by industry				Manufacturing index, time series	M	June 89:	5-7
UK by industry				Quarterly and annual indices			
International comparisons	M	June 89:	1-9	Labour costs			
Apprentices and trainees by industry:	A	July 88:	1-14	Survey results 1984	Quadrennial	June 86:	212
Manufacturing industries				Per unit of output	M	June 89:	5-7
Apprentices and trainees by region:	A	July 88:	1-15	Retail prices			
Manufacturing industries	M	June 89:	9-2	General index (RPI)			
Employment measures	A	Feb 88:	65	Latest figures: detailed indices	M	June 89:	6-2
Registered disabled in the public sector	Q	June 89:	2-6	percentage changes	M	June 89:	6-2
Labour turnover in manufacturing	Q	June 89:	1-6	Recent movements and the index excluding seasonal foods	M	June 89:	6-1
Trade union membership	A	May 89:	250	Main components: time series and weights	M	June 89:	6-4
				Changes on a year earlier: time series	M	June 89:	6-5
				Annual summary	A	May 89:	242
				Revision of weights	A	Apr 89:	197
				Pensioner household indices			
				All items excluding housing	M (Q)	June 89:	6-6
				Group indices: annual averages	M (A)	June 89:	6-7
				Revision of weights	A	June 89:	7-7
				Food prices	M	June 89:	6-3
				London weighting: cost indices	D	May 82:	267
				International comparisons	M	June 89:	6-8
				Household spending			
				All expenditure: per household	Q	June 89:	7-1
				: per person	Q	June 89:	7-1
				Composition of expenditure			
				: quarterly summary	Q	June 89:	7-2
				: in detail	Q (A)	May 89:	7-3
				Household characteristics	Q (A)	June 89:	7-3
				Industrial disputes: stoppages of work			
				Summary: latest figures	M	June 89:	4-1
				: time series	M	June 89:	4-2
				: latest year and annual series	A	July 88:	372
				Industry			
				Monthly: Broad sector: time series	M	June 89:	4-1
				Annual Detailed	A	July 88:	372
				Prominent stoppages	A	July 88:	380
				Main causes of stoppage			
				Cumulative	M	June 89:	4-1
				Latest year for main industries	A	July 88:	377
				Size of stoppages	A	July 88:	379
				Days lost per 1,000 employees in recent years by industry	A	July 88:	376
				International comparisons	A	June 89:	309
				Tourism			
				Employment in tourism: industries GB	M	June 89:	8-1
				Overseas travel: earnings and expenditure	M	June 89:	8-2
				Overseas travel: visits to the UK by overseas residents	M	June 89:	8-3
				Overseas travel and tourism	M	June 89:	8-4
				Visits to the UK by country of residence	Q	Apr 89:	8-5
				Visits abroad by country visited	Q	Apr 89:	8-6
				Visits to the UK by mode of travel and purpose of visit	Q	Apr 89:	8-7
				Visits abroad by mode of travel and purpose of visit	Q	Apr 89:	8-8
				Victor nights	Q	Apr 89:	8-9
				YTS			
				YTS entrants: regions	M	June 89:	9-1

Notes: Frequency of publication, frequency of compilation shown in brackets (if different). A Annual. S Six-monthly. Q Quarterly. M Monthly. B Bi-monthly. D Discontinued.

## Special Feature



Worker demonstration in Northern Italy

Photo: International Labour Office

## International comparisons of industrial stoppages for 1987

This annual article compares working days lost in the United Kingdom with corresponding data for other countries. Such comparisons are affected by differences in methods of compiling data and in the criteria used for inclusion of stoppages in the statistics. These are discussed.

□ The latest available annual data on industrial disputes statistics in OECD countries relate to 1987. These indicate that in 1987 the United Kingdom stood around the middle of the ranking of countries by incidence rates, that is working days lost per thousand employees.

Over the ten-year period 1978-87 the United Kingdom was a little above the middle-ranked position; the countries showing the highest incidence of working days

lost per employee were Spain, Italy, Greece, Canada and Ireland. Countries recording relatively few days lost per employee included Switzerland, Austria, Japan, the Netherlands and the Federal Republic of Germany. The statistics also show that in OECD countries during the period 1978-87 there was a general downward trend in the incidence of working days lost.

Considerable care must be taken when making detailed

international comparisons because of the different coverage of each country's statistics. The figures presented in this article, therefore, should not be seen as providing a precise comparison between countries; but they are useful in indicating in particular, recent trends. The differences in coverage, which may help explain why a particular country appears to have a better—or worse—record than another country, are discussed in the second half of this article.

More detailed estimates for the United Kingdom, covering the year 1987, were published in an article in the July 1988 issue of *Employment Gazette* (pp 372–382).

### Overall comparisons

Table 1 shows the number of working days lost per thousand employees in employment (wage-earners and salaried employees) recorded for each of 21 OECD countries for the years 1978 to 1987, the latest year for which information is available in most countries.

In the vast majority of countries there was considerable variation between years in the incidence of working days lost, with some years heavily influenced by a small number of large stoppages. To smooth the effect of extreme years, comparisons based on periods of years are more appropriate than annual comparisons although the former can mask any trends in the figures.

There was a general decrease in the incidence of working days lost in OECD countries between the first five-year period (1978–82) and the second five-year period (1983–87). Only five countries recorded a higher rate (Denmark, Finland, Germany, New Zealand, Norway).

During the more recent five-year period, 1983–87, the United Kingdom lost an annual average of 400 days per thousand employees in employment as a result of stoppages caused by industrial disputes. (This is about half a working day a year per employee.) This compares with 540 days per thousand employees in employment for the period 1978–82. The United Kingdom average was influenced by one large dispute in the coal mining industry

which occurred in 1984 and 1985.

While comparisons must be made with care, the United Kingdom 1983–87 average of 400 days lost a year per thousand employees was exceeded by Greece (an average of 590 days lost per thousand employees), Spain (560), New Zealand (550), Finland (520) and Italy (510). Countries recording the lowest incidence of days lost due to industrial disputes were Austria and Switzerland (less than five days lost per thousand employees), Japan (10), the Netherlands (10), France (50) and Germany (50).

### Selected industries

One feature of industrial disputes is the tendency for the incidence of strikes to vary between industrial sectors, with some industries consistently having higher rates in those countries in which they are present. These characteristics, taken together with the differing industrial structure of countries, may partly explain why a particular country has a worse, or better, record than another.

To help reduce this effect, a comparison of the four main sectors of industry which are especially prone to disputes—mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction, and transport and communication—is shown in table 2.

Very broadly, the incidence of working days lost in the selected industries was in most countries about twice as high as in all industries and services taken together, with Canada suffering the worst record over the ten-year period 1978–87. Other countries with high rates were Italy, Spain and New Zealand. As with the all industry incidence rates, there was a general decrease between the two five-year periods 1978–82 and 1983–87.

### Coverage and comparability

As with most international statistics, those on industrial stoppages need to be compared carefully; in particular, small differences among the rates shown in tables 1 and 2 may not be significant. Most countries do not require

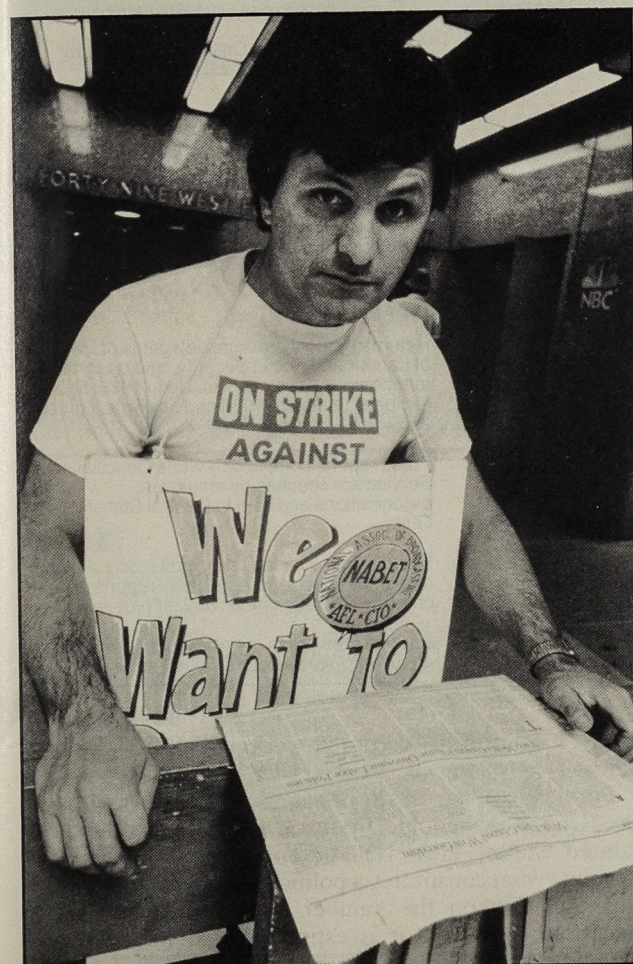
Table 2 Industrial disputes: working days lost per thousand employees\* in selected industries (mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction, and transport and communication) 1978–87

											Average†		
	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1978–82	1983–87	1978–87
United Kingdom	840	2,410	1,160	330	460	330	3,240	660	180	330	1,080	960	1,020
Australia	980	1,570	1,350	1,730	810	620	530	520	580	530	1,290	560	930
Austria	10	—	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	(360)	—	—
Belgium	560	360	140	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	(670)	820	1,250
Canada	1,920	1,650	1,510	1,870	1,410	600	930	580	1,170	780	1,670	820	1,250
Denmark	100	150	210	720	100	80	160	2,380	90	120	250	560	410
Finland	150	260	1,280	560	220	400	720	160	2,310	130	500	740	620
France**	200	350	170	160	260	160	160	90	70	70	230	110	170
Germany (FR)	360	40	10	—	—	—	520	—	—	—	80	110	90
Greece	—	850	1,280	720	920	—	—	—	—	—	(940)	—	(940)
Ireland	1,110	3,620	650	930	630	560	670	450	270	610	1,390	510	980
Italy	900	2,590	1,620	970	1,940	1,500	770	420	400	490	1,600	730	1,190
Japan	60	40	50	20	20	20	20	10	10	10	40	10	30
Netherlands	—	180	30	10	60	40	20	50	20	30	60	30	50
New Zealand**	790	770	720	760	670	830	900	1,370	2,660	540	740	1,240	990
Norway	90	10	140	40	410	10	60	100	940	—	140	230	180
Portugal	—	290	350	490	300	460	190	190	230	70	(360)	230	(260)
Spain	1,840	3,230	—	—	460	530	870	300	440	860	(1,850)	600	(1,150)
Sweden	10	20	2,240	60	—	10	20	10	—	10	470	10	240
Switzerland	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States**‡	—	—	540	470	300	590	160	140	370	100	(440)	270	(330)

See footnotes to table 1.

employers to provide details of strikes but instead rely on voluntary notifications of disputes to a national or local government department, backed up by news media reports.

None of the 21 OECD countries mentioned in this article aim to record the full effects of stoppages of work.



Striking TV worker, New York City.

Photo: International Labour Office

For example, none measures working hours lost at establishments where employees are not involved in a dispute but are unable to work because of shortages of materials supplied by establishments which are on strike. This is partly because of reporting problems and partly because of the difficulty in deciding to what extent a particular firm's experiences are due to the effects of a strike elsewhere.

Similarly, other forms of industrial action, such as a go-slow, a work-to-rule and an overtime ban, are not generally recorded, nor are their effects quantifiable with any degree of certainty.

There are significant differences between countries in the criteria which exist to determine whether a particular stoppage will be entered in the official records. Most countries exclude small stoppages from the statistics, the threshold being defined in terms of the number of workers involved, the length of the dispute, the number of days lost, or a combination of all or some of these. These are summarised in table 3; the United Kingdom, for example, excludes disputes involving fewer than ten workers or lasting less than one day, unless the aggregate number of days lost exceeds 100. The Federal Republic of Germany adopts the same criteria and a number of other countries' thresholds are similar—any differences in thresholds could significantly affect the number of disputes recorded but will not greatly influence the computed number of working days lost.

There are two countries which are exceptions to the generalisation about reporting thresholds—the United States and Denmark.

In 1981 the United States revised its series of industrial stoppage statistics to include only those disputes involving more than 1,000 workers, whereas previously the threshold had been six workers. It is estimated that this change has reduced the recorded number of working days lost by between 30 and 40 per cent. The United States figures presented in the tables have been adjusted to be consistent with current coverage.

Similarly, but not with such a marked effect on the level of working days lost, Danish statistics do not record disputes in which fewer than 100 working days are lost.

The incidence rates for these two countries are clearly

Table 1 Industrial disputes: working days lost per thousand employees\* in all industries and services 1978–87

											Average†		
	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1978–82	1983–87	1978–87
United Kingdom	410	1,270	520	190	250	180	1,280	300	90	160	540	400	470
Australia	420	780	630	780	370	310	240	230	240	220	600	250	420
Austria	—	—	10	—	—	—	—	10	—	—	—	—	—
Belgium	330	200	70	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	(200)	—	—
Canada	830	840	930	890	610	460	390	310	680	370	820	440	620
Denmark	70	80	90	320	50	40	60	1,060	40	60	120	250	190
Finland	70	130	840	340	100	360	750	80	1,350	60	300	520	420
France**	120	180	90	80	130	70	70	40	30	30	120	50	80
Germany (FR)	200	20	10	—	—	—	260	—	—	—	40	50	50
Greece	630	1,040	1,740	480	840	320	320	620	710	970	950	590	760
Ireland	770	1,750	480	500	500	380	470	520	380	320	800	400	600
Italy	720	1,920	1,140	730	1,280	980	610	270	390	320	1,160	510	840
Japan	40	20	30	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	20	10	10
Netherlands	—	70	10	10	50	30	10	20	10	10	30	10	20
New Zealand**	360	370	360	360	300	340	380	660	1,070	270	350	550	450
Norway	40	—	60	20	170	—	60	40	560	10	60	140	100
Portugal	—	200	200	280	170	230	100	100	140	40	(210)	120	(160)
Spain	1,370	2,290	770	670	360	580	870	440	300	630	1,110	560	850
Sweden	10	10	1,150	50	—	10	10	130	170	—	250	60	150
Switzerland	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States**‡	270	230	230	190	100	190	90	70	120	40	200	100	150

† Brackets indicate averages based on incomplete data.

.. Not available.

— Less than five days lost per thousand.

\* Employees in employment; some figures have been estimated.

† Annual averages for those years within each period for which data are available, weighted for employment.

\*\* Note the significant coverage differences mentioned in the text under the heading "coverage and comparability".

‡ Figures for all years reflect the threshold of more than 1,000 workers involved, which was introduced in 1981.

Sources: Working days lost: International Labour Office (ILO) Yearbook of Labour Statistics 1987 and 1988 (Geneva 1987, 1988). Employees in employment: ILO and OECD publications.



**Table 3 Industrial disputes: comparisons of coverage and methodology**

	Minimum criteria for inclusion in statistics	Are political stoppages included?	Are indirectly affected workers included?	Sources and notes
United Kingdom	More than ten workers involved and of more than one day's duration unless 100 or more working days lost	No	Yes	Local unemployment benefit offices make reports to Department of Employment HQ, which also checks press, unions and large employers
Australia	Ten or more days lost	Yes	Yes	Information gathered from arbitrators, employers, and unions
Austria	No restrictions on size	Yes	No	Trade unions provide information
Belgium	More than one working day's duration	Yes	No	Local police reports sent to National Conciliation Service. Follow-up questionnaires sent from National Statistical Institute
Canada	Ten or more days lost or of more than a half day's duration	Yes	No	Reports from Canada Manpower Centres, also Press and Provincial Labour Depts
Denmark	100 or more days lost	Yes	Yes	Voluntary reports from employers' organisations sent annually to Statistical Office
Finland	More than four hours' duration unless 100 or more working days lost	Yes	Yes	Returns from mail questionnaires to employers and employees
France	No restrictions on size. However, public sector and agricultural employees are excluded from statistics	No	No	Labour inspectors' reports
Germany (FR)	More than ten workers involved and more than one day's duration unless 100 or more working days lost	Yes	No	Compulsory notification by employers to Labour Offices
Ireland	Ten or more days lost or of more than one day's duration	Yes	Yes	Reports from local employment offices
Italy	No restrictions on size	Yes	No	Local police reports sent to Central Institute of Statistics
Japan	More than half a day's duration	No	No	Interviews by Prefectorial Labour Policy section or local Labour Policy Office of employers and employees
Netherlands	No restrictions on size	Yes	Yes	District Employment Offices inform Central Bureau of Statistics. Public servants are forbidden to strike
New Zealand	More than ten working days duration. Statistics exclude public sector strikes	No	Yes	Information gathered by district offices of Dept of Labour
Norway	More than one day's duration	Yes	No	Questions to employees' and employers' organisations
Portugal	Up to 1985: no restrictions on size 1986 and onwards: excludes firms with fewer than five employees. However, statistics exclude disputes which involve more than one company	Not known	No	1986 and onwards: figures exclude Madeira and the Azores
Spain	No restrictions on size	Yes	No	Returns by local province delegates of Ministry of Labour and Social Security, and by some autonomous Communities. Up to 1985: figures exclude Catalonia. 1986 and onwards: figures exclude Basque country
Sweden	More than one hour's duration	Yes	No	Press reports compiled by State Conciliation Service are checked by employers' organisations and sent to Central Statistical Office
Switzerland	More than one day's duration	Yes	Yes	Federal Office for Industry, crafts, occupations and employment, collects press reports and checks with trade unions and employers
United States	More than one day's or shift's duration and more than 1,000 workers involved	No	Yes	Reports from press, employers, unions and agencies, followed up by questionnaires

Note: Details for Greece not available.

not directly comparable with those for the UK, the Federal Republic of Germany and other countries with similar thresholds.

There are a number of other important differences which may be significant when making international comparisons. Some countries exclude the effects of disputes in certain industrial sectors. For example, New Zealand and France omit public sector strikes and France additionally excludes disputes by agricultural workers. The omission of such strikes may markedly reduce the

number of officially recorded working days lost in some years.

Political stoppages are not included in the figures for the United Kingdom, France, New Zealand and the United States. However, because of the difficulty in deciding what constitutes a political stoppage, the effect of this exclusion on the number of recorded days lost is uncertain; however, it is estimated that in the United Kingdom this is, in most years, insignificant.

The inclusion or omission of those workers indirectly



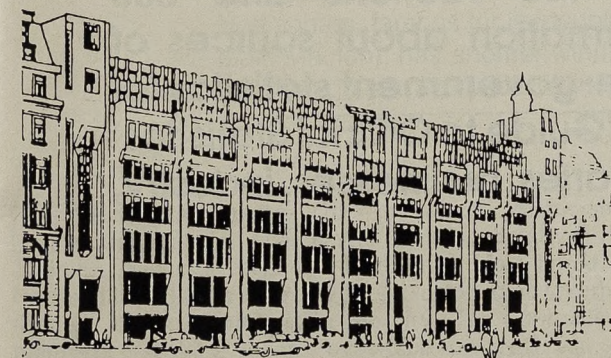
Photo: International Labour Office

Demonstration by public service workers in Switzerland: one of the rare occasions on which Swiss workers took industrial action—the country lost fewer days per thousand workers than any other OECD country.

involved in a stoppage (those who are unable to work because others at their workplace are on strike) varies between countries. Only about half the countries listed in table 3—including the UK, the Netherlands, New Zealand and the USA—attempt to include them.

Among countries which exclude indirectly involved workers at workplaces where others are on strike are Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany and Japan.

This could lead to serious under-recording of the amount of working time lost at establishments suffering industrial stoppages, depending on the extent to which stoppages are the result of the actions of a minority with an impact on the rest of the workforce or a general withdrawal of labour. No country includes in its industrial disputes statistics workers at workplaces not directly involved with a dispute (for example lay-offs and short-time working).



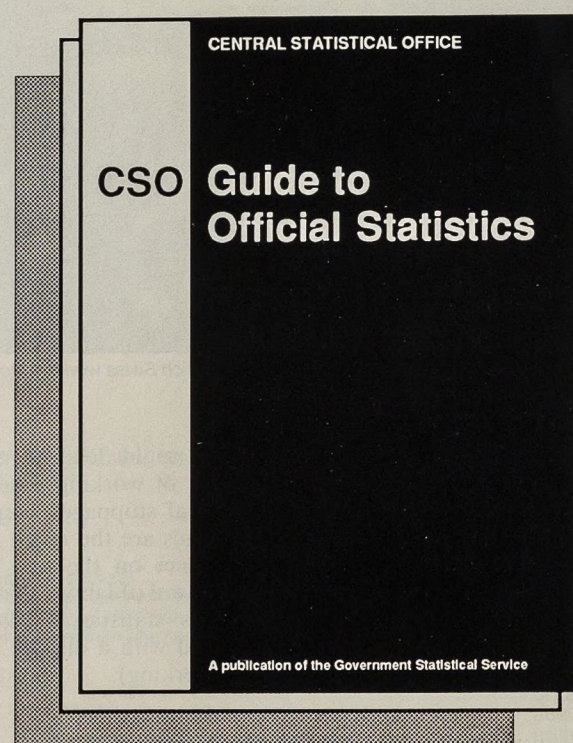
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## Special Feature



One of the exhibits at Nottingham's new Lace Hall.

### Partners in enterprise: a Nottingham foray

by Elizabeth Round

Nottingham, famous for its double acts (Torvill and Dean, Robin Hood and Maid Mairian), has another winning team. This time the lucrative liaison is between private and public sector, giving a new impact to local industry.

“Nottingham is a city in which partnership predominates,” says David Nelson, head of the Training Agency's Regional Enterprise Unit based in Nottingham. “The private and public sector come together through a mutual interest in the city. The approach is pragmatic, seeking means by which progress can be achieved rather than dwelling on reasons why co-operation should be avoided.”

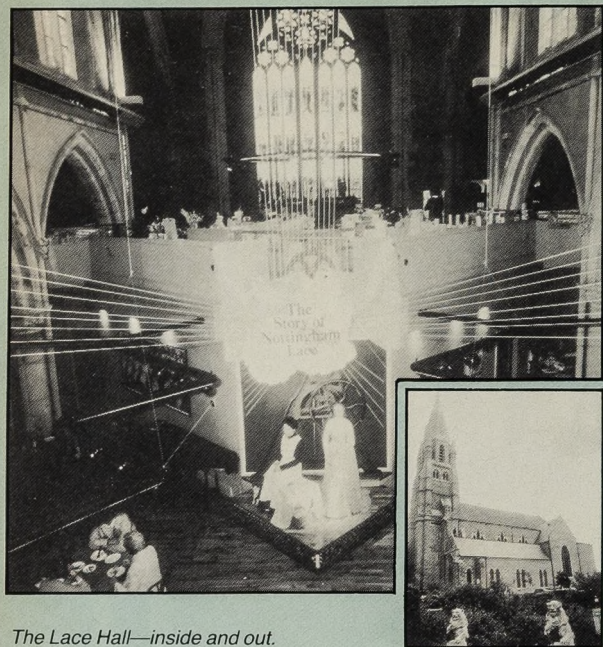
Mr Nelson's role is one of advocating partnership and fostering enterprise. “In few other places in my region, which extends from the High Peak to Felixstowe, have I

found a more supportive environment than that in Nottingham,” he says.

The City has half a million people and has responded to the decline of its traditional industries by spawning a wide range of economic development schemes. Various groups have been responsible for starting these schemes, particularly the city and county council's economic development agencies but also private organisations.

A typical example is the joint action on training set up and run by the Chamber of Commerce, trade unions, and the Department of Employment. Together they have set

## Lace—the fine attraction



The Lace Hall—inside and out.

The Lace Hall, situated in the centre of Nottingham's Lace Market area, opened in March 1988 almost by public demand—so many visitors asked where the market was and where they could buy lace. They were disappointed to find that, despite its name, there was no actual market in the Lace Market, they could not buy lace there and visitors were not always welcome in lace factories. The Lace Hall set out to change all that.

The Lace Hall is heavily funded by the public sector and has a highly geared loan burden. It received capital grants from a variety of sources, including Nottingham City Council, the Department of the Environment, and English Heritage, amounting in total to £200,000. A further £175,000 capital came from equities and loans from British Coal Enterprise Ltd, Nottinghamshire County Council and private investors, Sharespace Ltd.

Sharespace's property manager Andrew James is a director of the Lace Hall.

Based in a former church, the Lace Hall comprises a lace shop, a coffee shop, exhibition shop and the Story of Nottingham Lace Exhibition. Visitors receive a concise, accurate and entertaining account of the birth, development and continued progress of Nottingham machine-made lace. They are shown working examples of the lace machines which made Nottingham lace famous, and they can buy lace and souvenirs on the theme of the exhibition. The Lace Hall also aims to create a local history resource for schools, colleges and adult education organisations; to create new employment in tourism; and to provide exhibition space for temporary lace and textile shows.

Target customers are schools, colleges, adult education centres, women's and special interest groups, national and international tour operators, and overseas business people and their families.

The Lace Hall is able to attract additional revenue by accommodating evening events like dance and drama workshops, folk sessions, fashion shows and small instrumental and vocal concerts or rehearsals.

### Artefacts

At first it seemed the Lace Hall might be in direct competition with the city council's Industrial and Costume Museums, but the excellent working relationship between Hall and Museums ensures that each reinforces the other. An arrangement with the city council enables the Museum Service to accept donations and loans of exhibition artefacts and to loan them to the Lace Hall, while retaining long-term custody and curatorial care.

Since the conception of the Lace Hall, director Andrew James and his staff have been in close liaison with Nottingham City Council, particularly with its public relations department. Lace and other textile industries within Nottinghamshire are included in the Lace Hall's database for mailing.

- 'incubator units' for small and medium-sized businesses offering workshops for fashion and design; and
- machinist skills training for clothing workers, provided in association with the Clothing and Allied Products Industry Training Board.

### Business Bureau

Support agencies in Nottingham for the local small and medium-sized firms are centralised in Nottingham Business Bureau. This was established in 1985 in a modern office block in the city centre. The rest of the block is occupied by managed offices established in partnership with Plessey (now GPT).

Nottingham Business Bureau consists of Nottingham Business Venture (the local enterprise agency which has a broad base of support from local firms and the public sector), the Action Resource Centre, a Training Agency Small Firms Centre, a Training Access Point, and the Prince's Youth Business Trust. The Bureau provides an easily accessible focal point for a wide range of business services for both new and established enterprises.

Large local firms have been closely involved in

up a Centre for Professional Training with 730 places, various management training schemes and a postgraduate training programme on industrial management organised in conjunction with Trent Polytechnic.

### Textiles and clothing

Another example of local economic development has appeared in one of the most vulnerable sectors of the local economy—textiles and clothing. Strong competition from abroad meant that between 1979 and 1982 there was a 20 per cent fall in employment in the industry, which now employs 43,000 people. For the most part, they are employed in hundreds of small firms, 80 per cent of which have fewer than 50 staff.

Various programmes were set up by the city's Economic Development Agency with the active participation of clothing firms, the Chamber of Commerce, trade unions and Trent Polytechnic's Department of Textiles and Fashion. The programmes comprise:

- A Fashion Centre with support from the local authority and backing from commercial firms offering a range of services (see opposite page);

## Clothing industry restored

Nottingham Fashion Centre was the City Council's response to the problems facing local clothing firms. A Trent Polytechnic study had shown the industry to be fragmented and diverse in character, with many small producers dependent on a few large customers like Marks and Spencer and BHS. A lack of strategic marketing had also been identified.

### Fashion focus

The Fashion Centre was opened in 1984, and promoted as a way of enhancing the marketing capacity of local small and medium-sized manufacturers.



Models display a variety of styles on offer from Nottingham-based manufacturers.

Supported by the city council and the Department of the Environment's Urban Programme, the Centre aims to encourage new design talent, attracting new blood into the industry. Manufacturers are encouraged to improve standards and invest in new technology, liaising closely with schools, colleges and training organisations to produce more young and adult skilled labour. Profits and good working conditions are on the priority list too.

The initial focus of the Fashion Centre was a programme of exhibitions featuring locally designed and locally made garments. These were held in the Centre's showroom, and international clothing companies were invited to attend. However, this venture did not prove successful. Buyers from major UK firms were reluctant to travel to Nottingham to see the exhibitions.

"Quite understandably. Buyers are looking for a wide choice. If you had to choose between a modest exhibition in Nottingham and a large international one in Italy, which would you choose?" says Centre manager Brian Stanley.

### To market, to market

Local small producers were equally reluctant to exhibit their products or invite their existing customers to view their designs alongside those of other producers. The producers feared having their designs copied and losing customers to their local rivals.

"So now instead of bringing the market to Nottingham, we take Nottingham to the market," said Mr Stanley.

Displays of local products—all different to avoid competition between small firms—are put on display at national fairs on the Fashion Centre's stand. This shows the buyers what the Nottingham fashion industry as a whole can do.

The Fashion Centre recently moved to new, larger premises in Nottingham after nearly five years at its original base. It continues to provide business advice on financial and production matters; a reference library; and a register service (containing names of local firms and individuals offering sub-contract manufacturing and specialist services such as design, pattern cutting, outwork or manufacturing).

### Workshops

A parallel project, Fashion Enterprise Workshops, is now incorporated into the Centre. Taking up two floors of the new premises, there are some 30 workshops from which small and medium-sized firms can operate at a rent of between £70 and £160 per month, depending on their size.

Companies undergoing expansion may be eligible for rent relief from the city council.

There is also a communal workshop with sewing machines to which all designers have access and a communal refectory area where they can meet and relax.

### Team spirit

Co-operation is often to be found between the small firms based in the Fashion Centre. For example, Winifred Aldrich, who operates CAD (Computer-aided Design) Designer Services, allows the other designers and manufacturers to hire her equipment, and in return she is able to take her work to them.



Leisurewear on show at the Fashion Centre—all of it made by local firms.

"This arrangement means that if a big job comes in, we all have access to a number of people who can help us to deliver," she said.

"This means that because of the Nottingham Fashion Centre, small designers can take on major jobs they had previously never dreamed of."

## Living legend

Robin Hood is one of the world's most popular outlaw heroes. The swashbuckling adventurer, together with the other legendary characters like Little John, Maid Marian, Friar Tuck and the villainous Sheriff of Nottingham have captured the imagination of millions.

The initial intention of the directors of the Tales of Robin Hood, which opened to the public last month, was to use available technology to create an attraction similar to Jorvik Viking Centre in York, which opened in 1984 and attracted almost 887,000 visitors in 1987. They believed that the high level of public awareness of Robin Hood and the 700-year-old legend would soon establish the Tales exhibition in Nottingham as a major new tourist attraction.

### Priority

Nottingham City Council stated that the establishment of a first-rate Robin Hood Centre ranked high in the order of priorities in its tourism policy, so the directors—Hubert and Gilbert Nesbitt, Andrew James (also director of the Lace Hall), Jonathan Bean, Graham Black, Edmund Slicer, Christopher Cobb and Nicholas Forman Hardy—set about raising money to get the venture off the ground.

The Tales of Robin Hood was consequently funded mainly through private cash, through Business Expansion scheme share issues, with minority share holdings by local authorities, and with grant assistance by the English Tourist Board. Additional income is raised by allowing the catering facilities to be used for private functions outside normal exhibition hours.

### Authentic

The directors brought in history experts to make sure the settings were as authentic as possible, and so the exhibition is both entertaining and educational. It is now

open all year round, and the tableaux, animated figures, film, video, audio-visual techniques and laser discs make the legend come alive.

Visitors take part in a Robin Hood adventure, escaping from the Sheriff of Nottingham through the medieval streets of the city and out into the Greenwood to join the outlaws and listen to their tales. They travel in special cars suspended from a track system, eventually emerging into an auditorium, where there is an exhibition of the life and times of Robin Hood. On occasions this will be supplemented by demonstrations of traditional crafts.

Visitors can take a meal or snack in themed surroundings, and shop in a medieval market.

By 1991-92, the Tales of Robin Hood expects to be attracting 450,000 visitors a year.



Among the outlaws in 'Sherwood Forest'.

development projects—for example, Boots supports a variety of community development initiatives through its Charitable Trust; and John Player and Son provided premises and a director for Nottingham Business Venture.

The city's Employment and Economic Development Unit provides information on premises and finance and co-ordinates various initiatives, including sector-based programmes; it also has an important policy formation role.

The county council's Economic Development Unit also provides a range of services including a property register, export marketing assistance, sponsorship of business exhibitions, and finance and business counselling.

Has all this close co-operation between the public bodies and the private sector been worthwhile? Philip Goodman of Nottingham City Council's Economic Development

Department points to the about-turn in the city's industry which was declining in the late 1970s and early 1980s.

Large-scale redundancies are no longer part of the scene; we're now consolidating and developing the economy on Nottingham's traditional strengths.

Robin Hood and Maid Marian, and Torvill and Dean are not, it seems, the only successful partnerships to come out of Nottingham!

And, with the coming of Training and Enterprise Councils, there could soon be some new public/private sector partnership successes: "Judging by the level of pragmatism and co-operation this area has experienced in the past," commented David Nelson, "there is plenty of evidence to suggest that the new partnership opportunities presented by the TECs will be grasped very firmly here in Nottinghamshire." ■

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## Special Feature



Trimming cauliflowers at a Lincolnshire vegetable packers.

Photo: Sheila Gray/Format

## The labour market for young and older workers

by Bill Wells<sup>1</sup>

Employment Market Research Unit, Department of Employment

The labour market experiences of people near the beginning and end of their working lives have distinctive characteristics. This analysis, based on the 1984 and 1987 Labour Force Surveys, identifies those characteristics and shows also that changes in economic circumstances have greater impact on the two age groups at either end of the working spectrum.

- Young workers experienced unemployment much more frequently than other age groups. However, particularly for teenagers, unemployment spells tended to be relatively short: under a year.
- The opposite was true for older workers. They were less likely to experience a spell of unemployment but when they did it tended to be lengthy; unemployment was

concentrated upon a core of people with durations greater than a year.

- Between 1984 and 1987 total employment grew and the

<sup>1</sup> This article is based on research carried out by Jonathan Wadsworth of the Centre for Labour Economics, supported by the Department of Employment using LFS data supplied by its Statistics Division. The views expressed in the article are those of the author.

Table 1 Participation and employment rates

	1984			1987		
	Total (thousands)	Participation <sup>†</sup>	Employment	Total (thousands)	Participation	Employment
<b>All</b>						
16-19	3,548	69.3	54.0	3,350	72.2	59.3
Student	1,347	31.0	25.1	1,278	37.4	30.6
Non-student	2,201	92.7	71.8	2,072	93.6	76.9
20-24	4,401	81.1	66.7	4,542	81.7	70.1
Student	324	17.3	13.6	313	17.6	13.7
Non-student	4,077	86.2	71.0	4,229	86.4	74.3
25-49	17,710	81.6	73.6	18,504	82.8	75.0
50-54	2,966	79.5	73.8	2,919	78.3	72.4
55-59	2,995	67.0	60.7	2,926	66.1	60.1
60-64 (males)	1,499	57.2	51.3	1,378	55.2	49.0
<b>Males</b>						
16-19	1,807	71.9	55.4	1,705	73.0	58.7
Student	671	29.1	23.0	645	33.7	27.3
Non-student	1,136	97.2	74.6	1,060	97.1	77.9
20-24	2,225	90.2	73.1	2,303	90.5	77.3
Student	189	18.0	13.8	190	17.4	13.7
Non-student	2,035	97.1	78.6	2,113	97.1	83.0
25-49	8,894	96.0	86.8	9,277	95.6	86.7
50-54	1,472	92.6	85.5	1,453	89.5	82.2
55-59	1,464	83.0	74.1	1,433	79.8	71.0
60-64	1,499	57.2	51.3	1,378	55.2	49.0
<b>Female</b>						
16-19	1,740	66.6	52.6	1,646	71.4	60.0
Student	676	33.0	27.5	632	41.5	34.2
Non-student	1,064	87.8	68.6	1,014	90.0	75.8
20-24	2,177	17.7	60.2	2,239	72.6	62.8
Student	135	16.3	13.3	123	18.7	14.6
Non-student	2,042	75.3	63.3	2,116	75.7	65.6
25-49	8,822	67.0	60.2	9,227	70.0	63.3
50-54	1,494	66.6	62.2	1,466	67.2	62.6
55-59	1,531	51.8	48.0	1,493	53.0	49.6

<sup>†</sup> Total population refers to the respective total private household population. Numbers of economically active people are shown in table 2.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

overall unemployment rate fell. The young benefited most from this improvement.

- The experience of older age groups did not improve between 1984 and 1987. Their unemployment rates rose and participation rates fell. This was partly due to older workers leaving the labour force because they did not think there were jobs available to them.
- The introduction of the two-year YTS in 1986 and a falling teenage population were major factors in the improvement in the labour market experience of young workers. This group also tended to be more mobile and educated than other age groups and was concentrated in non-manual occupations and service industries. It was therefore, relatively well placed to take advantage of the improvement in the economy.
- Older workers tended to be less mobile, less educated and more likely to be found in older established industries and occupations. They were, therefore, less well placed to benefit from an economic upturn.

The youth labour market is defined here as those aged 16-24, comprising teenagers (aged 16-19) and young adults (aged 20-24). The older labour market incorporates those aged between 50 and state pension age (60 if female, 65 if male). No analysis of people above

<sup>1</sup> These figures include economically active people above state pension age. The equivalent figures for people between 16 and state pension age are employment growth of 940,000, unemployment falls of 200,000.

state pension age who are still economically active is presented in this article.

The information in this article is drawn from Labour Force Surveys (LFS) for two years: 1984 and 1987. LFS data are drawn from interviews with around 60,000 private households in the spring of the relevant year. The 1987 LFS was used here, as it is the latest survey for which final results are available. Preliminary results for the 1988 LFS are now available and were reported in the April 1989 issue of *Employment Gazette*.

### Labour market background

The period 1984-87 saw some improvement in the labour market as a whole. Employment grew by 860,000, the number unemployed on the ILO/OECD definition (see technical annex) fell by 210,000, and the unemployment rate fell from 11.8 per cent to 10.7 per cent<sup>1</sup>.

This article examines the labour market in the spring of 1984 and 1987. Although the labour economy has improved between these two dates, one cannot say from the point estimates here, whether such developments have been continuous or disjointed. The upturn in the economy gathered pace from 1986 onward and so this could be expected to be reflected in any analysis of changes on a year-to-year basis.

Since 1987 the labour market situation has continued to improve, with very rapid employment growth and substantial falls in unemployment. (For discussion of this see the article on the preliminary 1988 LFS results referred to above.)

### Participation and employment rates<sup>1</sup>

Table 1 presents, for various age groups, two measures of labour supply: the participation rate (employed plus unemployed divided by the population of that age) and the employment rate (just the employed divided by the population of that age). For the younger age groups there is a further sub-division into student (ie: participating in full-time education) and non-student.

The employment rate is used as well as the participation rate because, particularly for young and older people, there are cases where the line between being unemployed and being out of the labour force is very thin. Both measures indicate that people at either end of their working life are less active in the labour market. For example, aggregating the age from table 1 shows that in 1987 the participation rate for under 25s was 77.6 per cent and that of people aged 50 and over 69.0 per cent compared with 82.8 per cent for people aged 25-49.

However, the pattern differs slightly between the sexes. Participation rates for males rise gradually with age, peaking at 96 per cent during the prime working age years 25-49, and decline thereafter. On the other hand, female participation rates are highest, at around 73 per cent, in the age group 20-24.

The major reason young people do not participate in the labour market is because they are in full-time education. Almost all young males under 25 and around 80 per cent of all young females under 25 who are not in full-time education take part in the labour force. There is also a sizeable—and growing—minority of young people in full-time education who are also economically active; by 1987 around a third of students under 25 were either in or looking for employment. Most of the increase in labour market activity among students is due to the increased availability and/or demand for part-time work.

Among older people, participation rates of those within five years of state retirement age are actually lower than for teenagers. This may, in part, be due to early retirement but also some older workers may have withdrawn from the labour force because they did not believe jobs were available. Health factors, the availability of retirement income and adverse economic conditions are often cited as important influences in the decision to withdraw from the labour force.

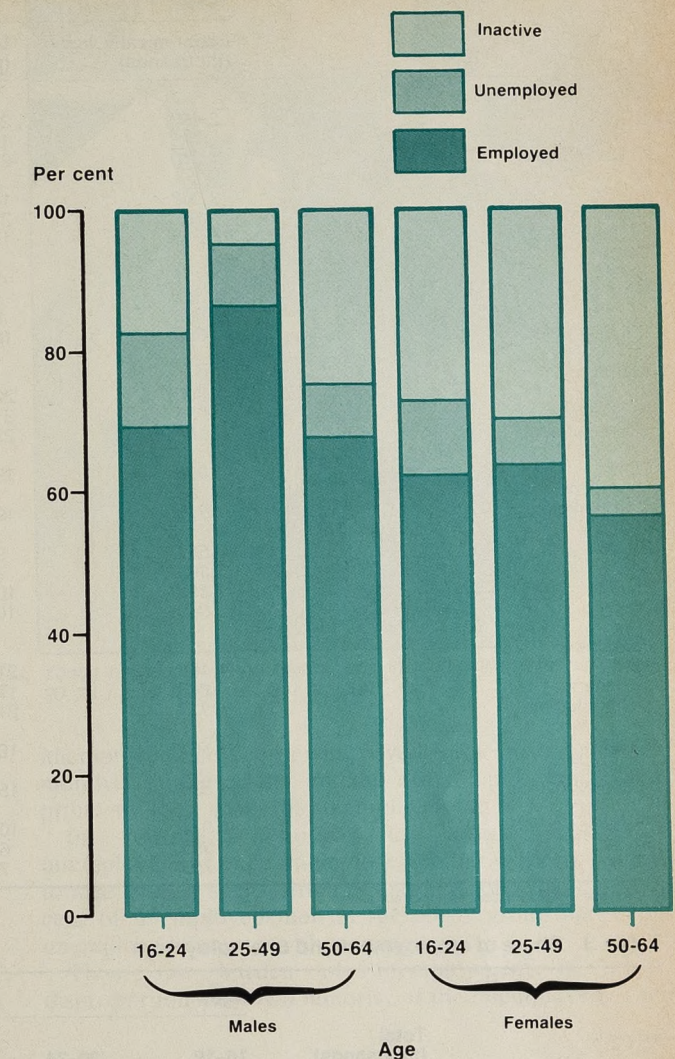
Between 1984 and 1987 labour force participation of females of all ages increased. This trend towards greater female participation in the labour force was already well established but during this period the greater availability of jobs (particularly part-time jobs which suit people with domestic responsibilities) may also have stimulated increased economic activity among women. Male participation, on the other hand, fell, except among the young.

The population of both young and older people declined over the period 1984-87. Of the individual age groups only young adults of both sexes—those aged 20-24—increased their numbers. Even with this population increase, employment growth of young adults was sufficiently quick to lead to an increase in participation rate.

Among the young and older age groups, where population declined, the picture was more mixed. As with young adults, employment among teenage females grew. This growth, together with a declining population caused participation rates to increase. Participation rates also grew for both male teenagers and older females despite little change in the levels of employment between 1984

<sup>1</sup> See Definitions of terms used.

Figure 1 Unemployment, employment and inactivity by age, 1987



and 1987. On the other hand, participation rates of older males fell.

Increases in the numbers on government training schemes were a major factor in the growth in employment of young people, particularly teenagers. Male teenage employment was little different, at just over 1 million, in 1987 than in 1984. Within that total, there was a fall of 30,000 employees offset by a similar rise in the numbers on government training schemes (predominantly the Youth Training Scheme). Government schemes also account for around half the increase in teenage female employment. By 1987 government training schemes accounted for 15 per cent of teenage employment.

### Unemployment and employment

To get a more complete picture of these labour market changes, movements in unemployment also have to be considered. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the unemployed, employed and economically inactive by age and sex. The unemployment position of young and older workers (using the ILO/OECD definition of unemployment) is set out in table 2.

In 1984 the unemployment rates of teenagers and young adults were at 22 per cent and 17.7 per cent, far higher than those of prime age adults. In contrast, the

**Table 2 Unemployment rates**

	1984		1987	
	Economically active (thousands)	Unemployment (per cent)	Economically active (thousands)	Unemployment (per cent)
<b>All</b>				
16-19	2,458	22.0	2,419	17.9
Student	418	19.1	479	18.3
Non-student	2,040	22.6	1,940	17.8
20-24	3,569	17.7	3,709	14.1
Student	56	21.4	55	21.8
Non-student	3,513	17.6	3,654	14.0
25-49	14,451	9.8	15,328	9.4
50-54	2,357	7.2	2,286	7.6
55-59	2,008	8.5	1,935	9.1
60-64 (males)	859	10.4	760	11.2
<b>Males</b>				
16-19	1,300	22.9	1,244	19.5
Student	195	21.0	217	19.4
Non-student	1,104	23.2	1,027	19.7
20-24	2,009	19.1	2,084	14.6
Student	33	*	32	*
Non-student	1,975	19.0	2,052	14.5
25-49	8,537	9.5	8,872	9.4
50-54	1,363	7.7	1,301	8.2
55-59	1,215	10.7	1,143	10.9
60-64	859	10.4	760	11.2
<b>Females</b>				
16-19	1,158	21.0	1,175	16.3
Student	223	17.5	263	17.9
Non-student	935	21.8	912	15.8
20-24	1,561	16.0	1,625	13.5
Student	23	*	23	*
Non-student	1,538	15.9	1,602	13.4
25-49	5,914	10.2	6,455	9.5
50-54	995	6.5	985	6.8
55-59	793	7.3	792	6.6

\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

**Table 3 Share of employment and unemployment**

	Total (thousands)	Age						60-64 (males)
		16-19	20-24	25-49	50-54	55-59		
<b>Employed*</b>								
1984								
All	22,665	8.5	13.0	57.5	9.7	8.0	4.9	
Males	13,463	7.4	12.1	57.4	9.3	8.1	5.7	
Females	9,201	9.9	14.2	57.7	10.1	8.0	-	
1987								
All	23,603	8.4	13.5	58.8	8.9	7.4	4.0	
Males	13,710	7.3	13.0	58.7	8.7	7.4	4.9	
Females	9,892	9.9	14.2	59.1	9.3	7.5	-	
<b>Unemployed</b>								
1984								
All	3,036	17.8	20.8	43.2	5.6	6.2	3.8	
Males	1,817	16.4	21.0	44.7	5.8	7.2	4.9	
Females	1,219	19.9	20.5	49.5	5.3	4.8	-	
1987								
All	2,836	15.3	18.4	50.8	6.1	6.2	3.6	
Males	1,696	14.3	17.9	48.9	6.3	7.3	5.0	
Females	1,141	16.7	19.2	53.6	5.9	4.6	-	

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

\* Employment totals incorporate the 315,000 (195,000 male, 120,000 female) and 488,000 (313,000 male, 175,000 female) individuals engaged on government training programmes in 1984 and 1987 respectively.

unemployment rate of older people was generally below the rate for prime age adults. Between 1984 and 1987 when the labour market as a whole improved, unemployment rates of young people fell markedly, albeit from an unfavourable initial position, while those of older workers rose. Future demographic trends will probably ensure the youth labour market continues to improve as the youth population declines.

Table 3, which sets out the shares of employment and unemployment by age, illustrates the changing position of the young and older age groups. Between 1984 and 1987 the share of young workers in employment changed little, as employment for these groups increased at about the same rate as for the economy as a whole. Among older workers the share of employment declined.

These different rates of employment growth were

reflected in changes in the shares of unemployment of the young and older workers. Because levels of unemployment fell faster for teenagers and young adults than for workers as a whole, their share of unemployment declined. Unemployment falls among older workers as a whole, on the other hand, were slower than for other age groups (in fact, for age groups 50-54 unemployment rose) so their share of total unemployment grew.

However, even in 1987, youths featured disproportionately in the unemployed stock; over a third of the unemployed were aged between 16 and 24. In contrast, the share of older workers in unemployment remained low, at 15.9 per cent, despite the deterioration since 1984.

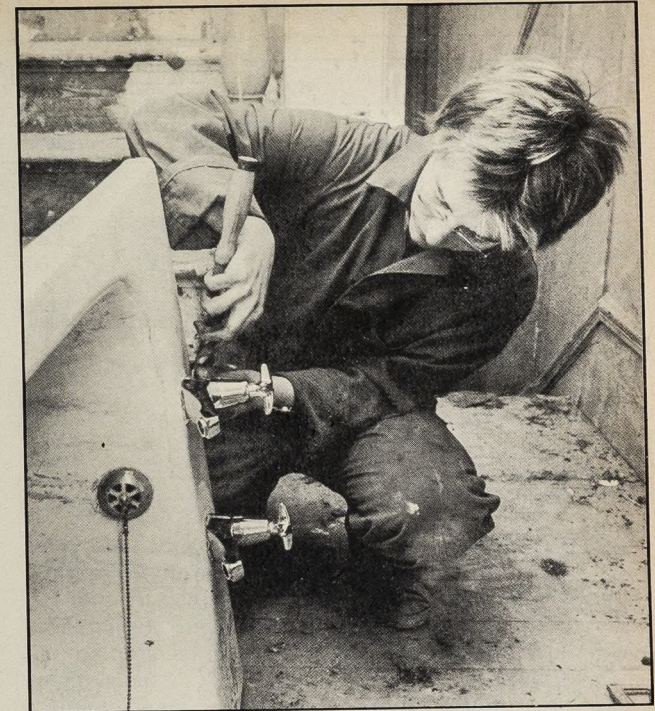
In sum, the youth labour market showed signs of an upturn between 1984 and 1987, with declining unemployment rates and rising activity rates. The introduction of the two-year YTS in 1986, combined with improved employment prospects and a declining teenage population, all contributed to this improvement. The older labour market, in contrast, had rising unemployment rates despite falling participation rates. And, these falling participation rates may, to some extent, have reflected a lack of employment opportunities for these age groups.

### Characteristics of unemployment

#### Duration

Table 4 shows the share of unemployment by duration. Duration as calculated here from the LFS, is the minimum of two responses: either length of time seeking work or length of time since last employment.

The table shows the very different activity of the young and old in the labour market. Although young people were subject to more frequent spells of unemployment, the length of these spells for teenagers and, to a lesser extent, young adults was generally less than a year in duration. In 1987 almost 80 per cent of the teenage



Young plumber at work. Around one in four employed people aged 20-24 had a trade/craft qualification.

unemployed had been unemployed for a maximum of 12 months. Young adults, on the other hand, were more prone to long spells of unemployment.

In contrast, although less prone to enter unemployment, once unemployed, older workers tended to face lengthy spells, often in excess of two years; 60 per cent of unemployed men in the 55-59 group had been unemployed for more than one year.

Thus, the burden of unemployment is borne disproportionately by a minority of the unemployed. This

**Table 4 Share of unemployment by duration**

	Duration of current unemployment spell									
	Total (thousands=100%)		Up to three months		Three months up to one year		One year and up to two years		Two years or more	
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987
<b>All</b>										
16-19	541	434	30.9	35.5	37.9	43.3	17.9	13.8	13.1	7.4
20-24	632	524	20.4	24.8	33.2	37.2	16.6	12.6	29.7	25.2
25-49	1,416	1,442	22.0	24.6	30.9	29.2	15.4	14.0	31.7	32.2
50-54	170	174	15.3	16.6	30.0	27.0	14.1	15.5	40.6	41.4
55-59	188	177	11.1	13.6	25.0	23.2	20.2	16.4	43.6	46.9
60-64 (males)	89	85	10.2	12.8	22.2	21.1	16.4	21.5	41.3	44.6
<b>Males</b>										
16-19	298	243	28.8	32.5	8.0	43.6	18.5	15.7	14.4	8.2
20-24	382	305	18.0	22.0	28.6	36.5	16.3	13.1	35.9	28.3
25-49	813	830	16.0	17.4	26.8	24.9	16.7	13.4	40.5	44.3
50-54	105	107	13.4	14.4	30.3	23.0	16.1	16.4	39.9	46.2
55-59	130	125	9.5	13.2	23.0	23.2	23.0	14.7	44.1	48.9
60-64	89	85	10.2	12.8	22.2	21.1	16.4	21.5	41.3	44.6
<b>Females</b>										
16-19	243	191	33.3	39.2	37.8	42.9	17.2	11.5	11.5	6.3
20-24	250	219	24.0	29.2	40.4	38.4	15.6	14.9	20.0	21.0
25-49	603	612	30.1	34.3	36.5	34.9	13.0	14.9	19.5	15.9
50-54	65	67	18.2	19.7	28.8	33.7	*	*	41.8	32.9
55-59	58	52	*	*	28.7	22.5	*	20.1	42.6	42.7

\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimates not shown.

Sources: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

Table 5 Reasons for unemployment

Age and status	Per cent of each age group reporting cause of unemployment as indicated						Per cent
	All		Males		Females		
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	
<b>16-19</b>							
Job losers	29.4	30.2	30.1	33.1	28.5	26.4	
Job quits	19.0	24.6	18.6	23.3	19.5	26.4	
New entrants	50.8	44.4	50.4	43.1	51.4	46.1	
Re-entrant	*	*	*	*	*	*	
<b>20-24</b>							
Job losers	36.2	35.8	44.0	45.3	24.2	22.6	
Job quits	30.4	30.3	22.9	23.3	42.0	44.7	
New entrants	14.0	16.2	12.9	16.8	15.6	15.2	
Re-entrants	19.4	17.7	20.2	14.6	18.2	17.5	
<b>25-49</b>							
Job losers	35.7	30.8	46.3	39.1	21.3	19.5	
Job quits	26.9	27.8	21.5	21.5	34.0	36.5	
New entrants	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.5	2.4	2.5	
Re-entrants	35.4	39.5	30.5	37.9	42.3	41.5	
<b>50-54</b>							
Job losers	39.3	36.0	47.6	38.6	26.1	31.8	
Job quits	21.0	24.0	18.4	20.1	25.1	30.3	
New entrants	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Re-entrants	38.3	39.6	33.6	41.0	45.9	37.4	
<b>55-59</b>							
Job losers	39.7	34.2	45.9	37.1	25.7	27.3	
Job quits	24.2	22.7	19.9	21.9	33.7	24.6	
New entrants	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Re-entrants	35.1	41.3	33.9	40.4	38.0	43.7	
<b>60-64 (males)</b>							
Job losers	50.4	39.4	50.4	39.4	—	—	
Job quits	20.2	22.0	20.2	22.0	—	—	
New entrants	*	*	*	*	—	—	
Re-entrants	29.4	38.6	29.4	38.6	—	—	

Note: Corresponding cell numbers are given in table 4. See Definitions of terms used for detailed explanation of causes of unemployment.  
\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.

has increased between the two survey periods; the proportion of unemployed men who have been unemployed for more than two years has increased in each of the three age categories over 50.

### Causes

Table 5 presents information on the causes of (routes into) unemployment. The unemployed were classified as either job losers, job quitters, new entrants or re-entrants<sup>1</sup>.

Unemployed teenagers were more likely to be new entrants; over 50 per cent were in this category in 1984. The percentage of young adults who were job quitters is also quite high. Young people at the start of their careers may have some difficulty entering the world of work. They may also change their jobs more frequently as they choose their preferred occupation or firm.

The main routes into unemployment were difficult for the older unemployed. Looking first at 1984 shows that not surprisingly, there were virtually no new entrants. Older workers were also less likely to enter unemployment voluntarily because at their age they have generally made their career decisions and the benefits of leaving their job to find another are not as great.

The routes also differed between sexes, with job losses dominating for older males while for older females job quits and re-entrants were more important. The large proportion of older females who were re-entrants is unsurprising. Domestic responsibilities, particularly child rearing, are still primarily taken up by females and a common pattern is for females to come back into the labour force after a period spent looking after children.

Between 1984 and 1987, as economic conditions

<sup>1</sup> See Definitions of terms used.

improved, one would expect the incidence of job quits to have risen with the increased opportunities for employment. When jobs are plentiful, people may leave their current job in the expectation of finding another job fairly early. Conversely, the proportion of new entrants and also involuntary job losses would be expected to have declined as the number of job opportunities increased. At the same time, people who had been economically inactive may have re-entered the labour market and started looking for work.

Table 5 offers some evidence in favour of this. The results for teenagers and older males are as would be expected; for example, for all the male age groups aged 50 and over; the percentage of job losers fell and the percentages of job quitters and re-entrants rose. For young adults and older women, the picture was not as clear; for example, in the female 55 to 59 age group, although the percentage of re-entrants increased, the percentage of job quits fell from 1984 to 1987 and the percentage of job losers rose.

### Discouragement

As mentioned above, not all people who would like work and are available for work are classified as unemployed. Some are classified as economically inactive because they are not looking for work as they do not think any jobs are available (to them). This group is called 'discouraged workers' and can be considered to have involuntarily withdrawn from the labour force.

Table 6 shows that discouragement was experienced predominantly by older workers. They tend to have longer spells of unemployment than the young, indicating that they have greater difficulty regaining employment. This may lead to disillusionment and premature

retirement from the labour force. Discouragement among older workers was generally associated with long-term unemployment. Although not covered in detail here, more than 60 per cent of the discouraged men aged 50-54 had not worked for more than three years.

Among the young, discouragement is most keenly felt by new entrants. More than half the male teenagers who were discouraged reported no work experience and the situation is similar for young adults. This suggests that many young people withdraw from the labour force after an unsuccessful period trying to start work.

Between 1984 and 1987 the number of discouraged workers fell by 62,000—around a third. The fall was principally among the young and is consistent with the improvement in the youth labour market over the period. Among older people there was only a small fall.

### Characteristics of employment

The economic circumstances of young and older workers are affected both by the jobs they tend to do and the methods by which they obtain them. This section considers the differences in industrial and occupational distribution between young and older workers and also how the two groups search for work.

#### Industrial distribution

Table 7 describes the industrial distribution of employment by age and sex. The most striking feature is the difference in structure between teenage and adult employment. Teenagers are largely concentrated in service industries particularly distribution, hotels, catering and repairs (division 6), and under-represented in all the other divisions except construction (division 5) for males

<sup>1</sup> See Definitions of terms used.

Table 7 The industrial distribution of employment

Industry Division (SIC 1980)	Age										All <sup>1</sup>		Per cent	
	16-19		20-24		50-54		55-59		60-64 (males)					
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987		
<b>Males</b>														
0 Agriculture	4.4	3.0	3.6	2.8	3.6	3.7	4.0	3.4	4.6	5.2	3.2	2.9		
1 Energy	1.8	1.4	4.1	3.0	5.0	4.0	4.7	3.2	3.1	2.4	4.4	3.6		
2 Mineral extraction	3.1	2.2	3.5	3.7	5.4	5.1	5.6	5.0	4.7	3.9	4.7	4.1		
3 Metal, engineering	12.4	12.5	14.5	13.7	14.9	15.6	17.5	14.9	16.9	17.0	15.0	14.3		
4 Other manufacturing	12.6	11.9	11.2	11.1	11.1	11.4	10.3	10.8	10.9	10.7	10.5	10.4		
5 Construction	14.6	13.6	12.8	13.7	12.5	11.4	10.2	11.1	9.0	8.1	12.0	12.0		
6 Trade, retail, hotels	31.5	33.9	20.3	20.2	11.9	14.6	11.2	13.9	14.8	14.3	15.7	16.4		
7 Transport, communication	4.0	3.6	6.3	6.6	9.1	9.7	10.6	9.8	9.9	8.9	8.6	8.5		
8 Financial services	4.9	7.5	8.3	9.2	7.3	8.0	6.9	8.0	5.6	7.0	7.6	8.8		
9 Public administration, etc	10.6	10.3	15.1	15.6	18.7	19.9	18.6	19.4	20.1	22.2	18.0	18.5		
Structural Difference Index	43.2	41.0	14.6	13.1	8.2	10.3	14.7	9.4	14.3	18.6				
<b>Females</b>														
0 Agriculture	*	*	0.8	0.8	1.6	1.2	1.4	1.9	—	—	1.1	1.1		
1 Energy	*	*	1.1	1.0	*	*	*	*	—	—	1.1	0.8		
2 Mineral extraction	1.8	1.3	2.2	2.4	2.3	1.5	1.9	1.9	—	—	2.0	1.7		
3 Metal, engineering	5.7	4.8	6.8	6.8	6.2	5.2	6.6	6.1	—	—	5.7	5.1		
4 Other manufacturing	11.6	11.2	13.0	9.6	8.4	8.2	9.9	8.0	—	—	9.7	8.6		
5 Construction	1.3	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.0	1.9	—	—	1.6	1.6		
6 Trade, retail, hotels	39.7	39.9	23.4	23.3	25.8	24.4	26.7	24.6	—	—	26.4	25.7		
7 Transport, communication	3.0	3.6	3.1	4.1	2.8	2.9	3.1	2.7	—	—	3.0	3.1		
8 Financial services	10.8	14.0	16.6	16.8	5.4	6.6	6.4	6.4	—	—	9.8	11.3		
9 Public administration etc.	24.4	22.1	31.2	33.1	44.8	43.7	41.8	45.5	—	—	39.3	40.4		
Structural Difference Index	37.4	39.0	22.7	19.6	12.8	10.3	8.1	13.6	—	—				

Notes: Structural Difference Index calculated across industries excluding missing values (see Definitions of terms used). Age specific employment totals given in table 3.  
\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.  
<sup>1</sup> Totals include 25-49 year olds.

Table 6 Demographic composition of discouraged workers

	Total (thousands = 100 per cent)	Age				Per cent
		16-24	25-49	50-59	60-64 (males)	
<b>All</b>						
1984	194	10.3	37.1	33.0	35.4	
1987	132	7.5	33.3	37.1	33.7	
<b>Males</b>						
1984	109	9.2	28.4	26.6	35.4	
1987	83	*	31.3	27.5	33.7	
<b>Females</b>						
1984	85	11.8	48.2	42.1	—	
1987	49	*	37.8	53.7	—	

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984 and 1987.  
\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.

and other manufacturing (division 4) and financial services (division 8), for females.

There is a similar pattern for young adults but it is not as pronounced. Employment is concentrated in services but the pattern is more like the overall distribution of employment.

Employment among older workers also resembles the overall distribution. However, they are marginally more likely to be found in the older or cyclically sensitive energy (division 1) and manufacturing (divisions 2-4) industries.

Differences from the overall distribution can be summarised using a *Structural Difference Index (SDI)*<sup>1</sup>. This index measures differences in the distribution of employment between age and sex groups by comparing the industrial/occupational distribution of a particular group with that of the total population. The index, which appears at the bottom of the table, takes values ranging

Table 8a Distribution of employment by occupation (males)

Per cent

Occupation (CODOT major groups)	Age										All†	
	16-19		20-24		50-54		55-59		60-64		1984	1987
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987		
I-IV Professional	4.9	5.8	12.6	14.3	20.6	22.4	19.4	20.5	15.7	17.8	20.0	21.1
V Managerial	2.4	1.8	6.6	5.8	15.7	17.1	15.8	15.6	16.0	15.5	12.6	12.5
VI Clerical	10.2	13.3	10.0	9.7	5.3	5.8	7.5	7.2	7.5	7.0	6.5	6.7
VII Selling	11.4	12.6	6.0	5.8	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.8	3.4	3.0	4.5	4.7
VIII Protective services	*	*	3.3	2.9	1.7	2.0	1.5	2.2	2.5	2.8	2.6	2.7
IX Personal services	6.9	8.4	4.6	4.8	4.1	3.2	4.1	4.6	6.1	5.7	3.7	3.8
X Farming	5.6	5.1	3.8	3.7	2.5	2.4	2.6	2.2	3.3	3.4	2.5	2.5
XI Materials processing	12.9	11.4	10.8	10.2	7.6	7.7	6.9	7.0	6.9	7.1	8.2	8.1
XII Metal, electrical production	20.3	18.6	19.9	17.7	14.9	14.5	15.9	14.1	14.7	14.7	17.1	16.2
XIII Repetitive assembly	4.8	5.8	4.2	4.8	4.3	4.2	3.5	3.7	3.4	3.4	3.7	3.7
XIV Mining, construction	8.1	6.4	7.0	8.0	6.5	4.6	5.9	5.0	5.3	4.7	6.2	6.0
XV Transportation	7.1	7.3	7.3	10.1	10.4	11.0	10.9	11.5	11.6	12.1	9.3	10.0
XVI Miscellaneous	5.0	1.9	3.4	2.1	2.4	1.3	2.7	1.9	3.0	2.4	2.4	1.4
Structural Difference Index	57.1	59.1	30.3	27.3	11.5	14.0	11.5	12.4	21.4	18.3		

Note: Structural Difference Index calculated across occupations excluding missing values only.  
 \* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.  
 † Totals include 25-49 year olds.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

Table 8b Distribution of employment by occupation (females)

Per cent

Occupation (CODOT major groups)	Age								All†	
	16-19		20-24		50-54		55-59		1984	1987
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987		
I-IV Professional	5.2	4.8	16.7	17.8	17.6	19.4	13.7	16.4	19.1	20.1
V Managerial	*	1.7	3.4	5.4	6.3	7.6	7.6	6.8	5.6	6.1
VI Clerical	34.6	37.4	41.6	40.0	25.3	27.3	27.9	27.8	30.2	30.7
VII Selling	21.5	19.4	9.6	8.7	9.4	8.7	7.3	7.6	10.0	9.8
VIII Protective services	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	0.4	0.4
IX Personal services	20.3	21.6	12.3	13.2	28.8	24.5	30.1	29.2	22.5	21.6
X Farming	1.2	1.3	0.8	0.9	*	*	*	*	0.7	0.8
XI Materials processing	6.3	7.3	7.3	5.1	4.7	4.8	5.3	4.1	5.2	4.6
XII Metal, electrical production	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.0	1.1	1.0
XIII Repetitive assembly	4.9	3.9	3.8	5.2	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.1	3.7	3.6
XIV Mining, construction	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
XV Transportation	*	*	*	*	0.8	1.0	0.7	1.1	0.7	0.7
XVI Miscellaneous	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	0.3	0.2
Structural Difference Index	34.7	34.7	25.8	22.6	14.7	9.4	19.1	17.4		

\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.  
 † Totals include 25-49 year olds.

Source: Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987. Notes: Structural Difference Index calculated across occupations without missing values only.

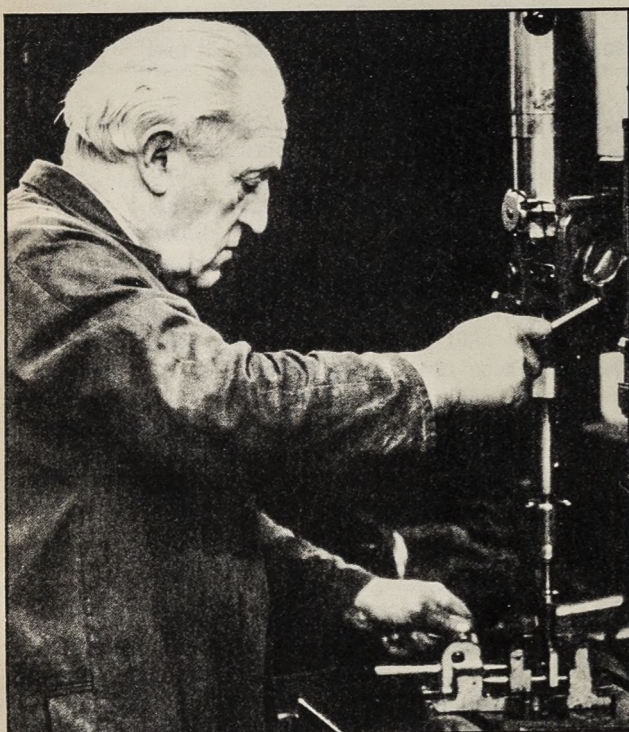


Photo: Martin Mayer/Network

About 17 per cent of 60 to 64-year-old men work in the metals and engineering industries.

from zero to 100. The closer the index is to zero, the smaller the difference from the overall distribution (in other words the more the industrial/occupational structure of a group resembles the national picture).

The measure confirms that teenagers, and to a lesser extent young adults, had a different industrial distribution from the population as a whole, while employment of older workers more closely resembled the overall industrial distribution. This picture was the same in both 1984 and 1987. Thus, over the period, young people were concentrated in the service industries, which were the areas of the economy that enjoyed the fastest rate of employment growth. On the other hand, older workers, if concentrated anywhere, were concentrated in industries where the recent employment record had not been as good.

#### Occupational distribution

The occupational distribution of employment is set out in tables 8a and 8b. Again, young people, particularly teenagers, tended to have a different employment structure from the population as a whole—the SDI has a value of over 50 per cent for teenage males. Teenagers, both male and female, were concentrated in the relatively unskilled non-manual occupations, clerical and selling.

The employment distribution of older workers tended to resemble the overall employment distribution except for people within five years of state pension age. These

Table 9 On the job search

Per cent

Per cent of employees looking for new or additional jobs	Age					
	16-19	20-24	25-49	50-54	55-59	60-64 (males)
All 1984						
Per cent	11.1	8.7	5.7	2.5	1.5	*
Total employees (thousands)†	1,643	2,731	11,325	1,912	1,611	645
All 1987						
Per cent	9.8	9.2	6.5	2.3	1.6	*
Total employees (thousands)	1,643	2,898	11,489	1,801	1,491	544
Males 1984						
Per cent	9.5	8.5	5.9	3.1	1.8	*
Total employees (thousands)	831	1,466	6,451	1,047	930	645
Males 1987						
Per cent	8.9	10.2	6.9	2.3	2.1	*
Total employees (thousands)	798	1,553	6,329	963	818	544
Females 1984						
Per cent	12.7	9.0	5.4	1.8	*	—
Total employees (thousands)	812	1,265	4,874	865	681	—
Females 1987						
Per cent	10.7	8.1	5.9	2.2	*	—
Total employees (thousands)	845	1,345	5,160	838	673	—

\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimates not shown.  
 † Base line numbers exclude missing value responses.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984 and 1987.

age groups tended to be concentrated in managerial and personal service occupations (such as catering, cleaning and hairdressing) if they were non-manual workers, and transportation if they were manual workers.

Finally, on the occupational distribution of employment, the distribution of female jobs was very different from that of males. Male employment was spread across most occupations while female employment was concentrated in clerical, personal service and professional jobs.

Once again young people, particularly females, seem to be concentrated in areas (primarily non-manual jobs) where the largest employment growth occurred.

#### Job search

Table 9 outlines the degree of job search undertaken by employees as one possible measure of labour mobility. At any particular time most people are not actively considering changing their job and this is especially true of older workers. In both the 1984 and 1987 surveys, less than 7 per cent of employees said they were looking for new or additional employment, with teenagers and young adults four to five times more likely to search for alternative employment than older workers.

The figures suggest that young people are more likely to sample a variety of jobs before settling on the one they like. They are also consistent with the fact that the young employed were more likely to quit jobs than older workers. Older workers, on the other hand, were more likely to be in the job they are happy in. It is probable that the length of time a person stays in a job, reflects their satisfaction with that job.

Table 10 gives information on industrial and occupational mobility. The entries were derived on the basis of employees' responses to two questions, which determine whether the individual is currently doing the same job with the same firm as compared to one year earlier. The table therefore only includes those employees who were also in work one year previously. In both survey years the vast majority, even among the young, were with the same employer and in the same occupation as one year earlier. Among older workers there was virtually no movement; more than 96 per cent of those aged 55 and

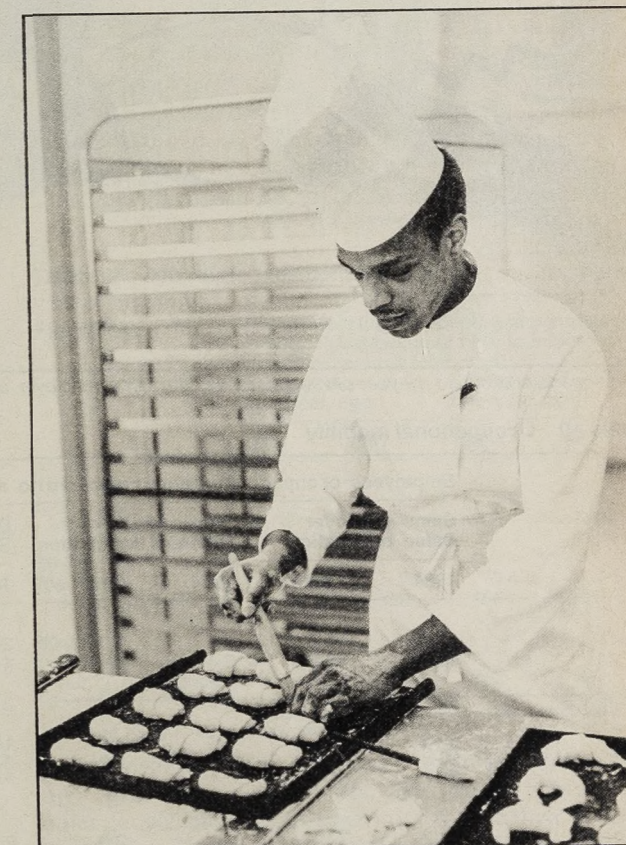


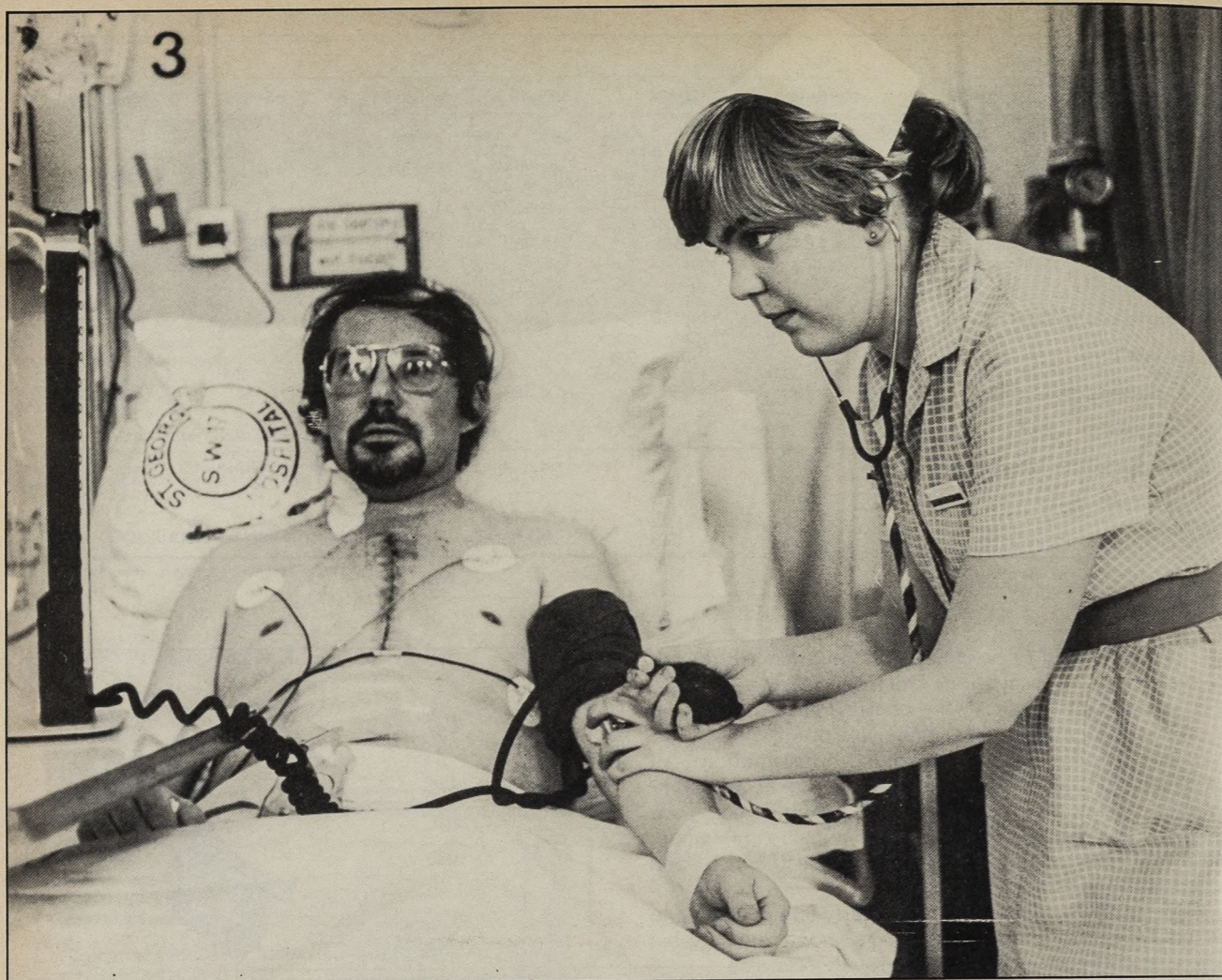
Photo: Martin Mayer/Network

The young benefited most from the growth in employment between 1984 and 1987.

over remained with the same employer in the same occupation.

If there was a move, it was most likely to be both a change of occupation and employer. This was particularly common among the young, for whom career changes might not be so costly because they had not accrued as many benefits (such as pension entitlements, holidays and other fringe benefits) that accrue with seniority. It also fits in with the idea that young people may try several jobs and occupations before choosing one that suits them.





Three-quarters of 16 to 19-year-old females had the same employer and same occupation as the previous year. Photo: Martin Mayer/Network

Table 10 Occupational mobility Per cent

	Employees occupational status compared to a year earlier (per cent of employees in each category)									
	Same employer Same occupation		Same employer Different occupation		Different employer Same occupation		Different employer Different occupation		All (thousands)	
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987
<b>All</b>										
16-19	81.6	75.4	2.6	3.7	2.9	3.7	12.9	17.2	1,166	1,307
20-24	83.2	78.6	3.4	5.0	4.2	4.0	9.2	12.4	2,355	3,041
25-49	89.7	87.1	2.7	3.3	2.7	2.9	4.9	6.7	12,739	13,656
50-54	94.9	93.6	1.4	1.5	1.0	1.3	2.7	3.6	2,191	2,155
55-59	96.8	96.0	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.6	2.1	1,899	1,845
60-64	97.6	96.5	*	*	*	*	1.1	1.8		
<b>Males</b>										
16-19	83.7	77.1	2.6	2.9	2.7	3.2	11.0	1.7	627	686
20-24	82.8	79.1	3.4	5.1	4.6	4.1	9.2	11.7	1,562	1,666
25-49	89.6	87.4	2.8	3.5	3.0	3.2	4.6	5.9	7,705	8,043
50-54	94.8	93.8	1.4	1.5	1.0	1.4	2.8	3.3	1,260	1,218
55-59	96.3	95.4	1.0	1.2	0.9	1.2	1.8	2.2	1,124	1,076
60-64	97.4	96.4	*	*	*	*	2.0		880	756
<b>Females</b>										
16-19	79.2	73.6	2.6	4.7	3.1	4.3	15.1	17.4	539	821
20-24	83.9	77.9	3.4	5.0	3.6	4.0	9.1	13.1	1,293	1,383
25-49	89.8	86.7	2.7	3.1	2.2	2.4	5.3	7.8	5,084	5,607
50-54	95.1	93.3	1.4	1.5	*	*	2.5	4.2	931	937
55-59	97.8	97.0	*	*	*	*	1.8		775	769

Notes: See table 9 for cell numbers.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

Table 11 Share of part-time work during employees and job search Per cent

	Employees				Unemployed			
	1984		1987		1984		1987	
	All (thousands)	In part-time workers	All (thousands)	In part-time workers	All (thousands)	Seeking part-time work	All (thousands)	Seeking part-time work
<b>All</b>								
16-19	1,643	23.3	1,644	27.8	541	6.3	434	14.5
Student	317	95.9	383	96.3	80	28.0	88	54.5
Non-student	1,326	6.1	1,259	6.9	461	2.5	346	4.3
20-24	2,731	7.1	2,898	7.9	632	8.5	523	12.0
Student	41	41.1	42	45.2	12	*	12	*
Non-student	2,690	6.6	2,856	7.4	620	8.5	511	11.1
25-49	11,327	22.0	11,899	23.3	1,416	17.2	1,442	21.3
30-54	1,912	24.7	1,801	24.9	170	15.3	174	19.2
35-59	1,766	21.0	1,490	26.2	188	11.7	177	21.5
60-64	645	5.4	543	7.2	89	*	85	16.4
<b>Males</b>								
16-19	831	18.4	798	23.1	298	4.7	243	9.1
Student	141	92.9	170	93.5	41	26.8	42	45.2
Non-student	690	3.3	628	3.8	257	*	201	*
20-24	1,466	2.1	1,553	3.3	382	*	304	*
Student	25	*	26	*	*	*	*	*
Non-student	1,441	1.6	1,527	2.7	375	*	298	*
25-49	6,451	0.9	6,586	1.2	813	*	830	1.2
30-54	1,047	1.1	963	1.5	105	*	107	*
35-59	1,085	1.7	818	3.4	130	*	125	10.8
60-64	645	5.4	543	7.2	89	*	85	16.4
<b>Females</b>								
16-19	812	28.4	845	32.3	243	8.0	191	21.5
Student	176	98.3	214	98.1	39	28.2	47	61.7
Non-student	636	9.1	631	10.0	204	*	144	8.7
20-24	1,265	12.9	1,346	13.4	250	20.4	219	26.5
Student	16	*	16	61.8	*	*	*	*
Non-student	1,249	12.3	1,329	12.8	244	20.0	214	25.5
25-49	4,876	49.9	5,313	50.7	603	39.6	612	48.5
30-54	865	53.3	838	51.8	65	36.9	67	43.2
35-59	681	51.8	672	53.9	58	34.5	52	47.1

\* Less than 10,000 in cell estimate not shown.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

Between 1984 and 1987, in line with the increased job search that occurred, the incidence of employee mobility also rose, especially in the youth labour market. This may reflect the tendency for mobility to increase as economic conditions improve.

### Other aspects of the labour market

#### Part-time work

Table 11 sets out by age and sex the proportion of employees in part-time work and also the proportion of the unemployed who are seeking part-time work. Part-time work is defined as work that usually involved fewer than 30 hours a week.

Among prime age employees (aged 25-49) part-time work was almost entirely female. Only around 1 per cent of male prime age employees worked part-time as against around half of all prime age female employees. The numbers of prime age unemployed seeking part-time work are almost exclusively female. Among young and older people, however, the differences between males and females were less marked because male part-time work is concentrated at both ends of the age spectrum.

Around a quarter of all teenage employees worked part-time but it was largely confined to students (people in full-time education). In 1984 only 6 per cent of non-student teenage employees worked part-time, compared with virtually all (96 per cent) of those teenage students who were also employees. Among 20 to 24 year olds, student employees were much more likely to work part-time than their non-student contemporaries; with more than 40 per cent of student employees working part-time compared with 7 per cent of non students.

The proportion of older workers (especially those aged

Table 12 Job related residential mobility Per cent

Age group	Those reporting residential movement over previous year because of or to look for work			
	Employed one year ago		Unemployed one year ago	
	1984	1987	1984	1987
<b>16-24</b> (per cent) out of (thousands)	2.4 4,021	2.7 4,356	2.5 906	3.3 780
<b>25-49</b> (per cent) out of (thousands)	2.2 12,789	2.3 13,650	3.4 1,166	2.5 1,282
<b>50-64</b> (per cent) out of (thousands)	0.5 4,970	0.5 4,755	*	*

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring, 1984, 1987.  
\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.

55 and over) working part-time was greater than among their prime age counterparts. This might indicate that older people choose part-time work to ease their path into retirement. The proportion of the older male unemployed who were seeking part-time work, was also higher than for their prime age equivalents; very few unemployed men aged between 20 and 55 desire part-time work. However, the proportion of older unemployed females seeking part-time work resembles the proportion of female employment that is part-time.

Over the period 1984-87 the share of part-time work in total employment grew, and it is probable that it will continue to grow into the future. If so, it is likely that more females will be attracted into the labour force and it is also likely that the demand for both young and older workers willing to work part-time will increase. Also, as

Table 13 Educational attainment of economically active people of working age

Per cent

Age group	Highest qualification									
	All (thousands =100 per cent)		Degree/Professional		Trade/Craft		Other		None	
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987
<b>16-19</b>										
Employed	1,893	1,962	*	*	8.5	10.5	68.3	68.2	22.8	20.7
Unemployed	540	427	*	*	5.0	7.2	50.0	47.5	43.7	45.1
<b>20-24</b>										
Employed	2,901	3,151	8.3	9.5	24.5	23.2	50.8	51.9	16.5	15.2
Unemployed	626	517	3.4	4.4	13.3	13.1	43.2	46.8	39.8	35.7
<b>25-49</b>										
Employed	12,817	13,716	16.4	17.0	23.6	23.0	25.4	30.8	34.6	29.2
Unemployed	1,393	1,418	6.8	5.8	17.3	17.6	22.6	28.4	53.2	48.0
<b>50-54</b>										
Employed	2,136	2,079	12.0	13.6	20.9	19.8	16.0	21.7	51.0	45.0
Unemployed	168	172	6.0	*	19.0	18.3	14.3	14.0	60.1	61.9
<b>55-59</b>										
Employed	1,772	1,724	9.1	10.9	18.3	18.2	13.8	19.0	57.8	51.9
Unemployed	186	175	*	7.3	16.1	16.6	11.3	15.5	68.3	60.4
<b>60-64 (males)</b>										
Employed	770	658	9.2	12.6	25.4	24.9	11.2	13.2	54.2	49.3
Unemployed	88	86	*	*	28.8	30.5	8.0	10.9	60.2	50.9

Note: See Definition of terms used for detailed explanation of highest qualification categories.  
\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

the number of young people is set to drop sharply in the next few years, older workers and women may benefit most from the increased demand for part-time work.

'Residential mobility' and 'Educational attainment' sections should be after 'Part time work' with 'Definitions of Terms used' as a technical section at the end of the article.

### Residential mobility

Table 12 outlines the extent of labour mobility by age. It sets out the percentage of both the employed and the unemployed who moved over the previous year because of/to look for work. Each year around 2-3 per cent of the employed and unemployed moved for job related reasons. The moves were predominantly among young and prime age people. The older employed and unemployed were much less likely to move.

The fact that older workers are less likely to move is unsurprising. With fewer years to work before retirement, the benefits of moving (extra income and so on) may not be worth the cost and disruption. These costs need not just be monetary, people become attached to an area because of friends, relations and local amenities. However, the immobility of the older people does mean they are less likely to take advantage of improved job opportunities elsewhere.

### Educational attainment

Finally, tables 13 and 14 examine the educational attainment of the economically active people in the various age groups. In general, young people were more qualified than older people, and older males more so than older females. This is partly attributable to the social and educational conditions prevailing when those over 50 were in their teens. Again this puts the older workers at a relative disadvantage since individuals, both young and old, without any formal qualifications are more likely to suffer unemployment. It is also likely that the demand for skilled labour will grow faster than other types of labour. ■

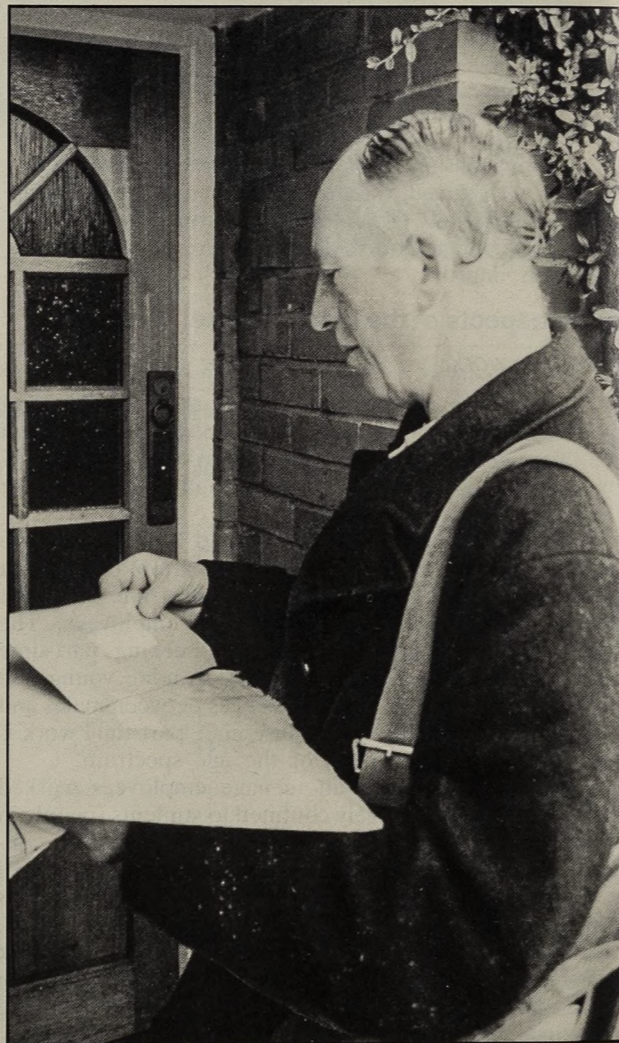


Photo: Roger Hutchings/Network

Half the employed 60 to 64-year-old men have no formal qualifications.

Table 14 Educational attainment of economically active people of working age, by sex

Per cent

Age group	Highest qualification									
	All (thousands)		Degree/Professional		Trade/Craft		Other		None	
	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987	1984	1987
<b>16-19</b>										
Male										
Employed	986	988	*	*	10.2	12.6	63.8	63.8	25.3	23.3
Unemployed	298	240	*	*	5.2	7.5	46.1	44.3	47.4	47.9
Female										
Employed	907	974	*	*	6.7	8.4	73.2	72.7	20.0	18.0
Unemployed	242	187	*	*	4.7	6.8	54.8	51.7	39.1	41.5
<b>20-24</b>										
Male										
Employed	1,604	1,758	9.1	10.4	32.4	27.9	39.5	43.5	19.0	17.9
Unemployed	377	300	3.4	5.0	15.9	14.7	35.8	40.0	44.8	40.4
Female										
Employed	1,297	1,393	7.2	8.3	14.8	17.4	64.7	62.6	13.3	11.7
Unemployed	249	217	4.4	*	9.2	7.8	54.2	40.6	32.1	21.1
<b>50-54</b>										
Male										
Employed	1,230	1,173	14.5	17.2	28.6	27.5	13.7	18.7	43.1	36.6
Unemployed	104	107	*	*	24.0	23.8	12.5	12.9	57.7	57.6
Female										
Employed	906	906	8.5	8.9	10.5	9.9	19.2	25.5	61.7	55.8
Unemployed	64	65	*	*	*	*	*	18.1	64.1	69.0
<b>55-59</b>										
Male										
Employed	1,053	995	12.3	13.7	25.5	25.6	11.8	17.5	50.3	43.2
Unemployed	128	123	*	8.3	19.5	21.4	7.8	15.7	66.4	54.7
Female										
Employed	719	729	4.5	7.1	7.8	8.0	16.8	21.1	68.9	63.9
Unemployed	58	52	*	*	*	*	*	*	72.4	73.9
<b>60-64</b>										
Male										
Employed	770	658	9.2	12.6	25.4	24.9	11.2	13.2	54.2	49.3
Unemployed	88	86	*	*	28.8	30.5	8.0	10.9	60.2	50.9

Note: See Definitions of terms used for detailed explanation of highest qualification categories.  
\* Less than 10,000 in cell, estimate not shown.

Source: LFS estimates, Great Britain, spring 1984, 1987.

## Definition of terms used<sup>1</sup>

• **Economic activity.** Two measures of economic activity have been used in this article. The *participation rate*, which is the more commonly used measure, is the percentage of the relevant population who are economically active, either employed or unemployed.

The *employment rate* is those in employment divided by the population. People in employment comprise those aged 16 or over who did some paid work in the reference week (whether employed or self-employed); those who had a job that they were temporarily absent from (on holiday, for example); and those on work related government employment and training programmes.

The *unemployment rate* relates to the standardised ILO/OECD definition of unemployment which comprises those people who are without a job and available for work and had either looked for work at some time within the last four weeks or were waiting to start a job they had already obtained.

• **Causes of unemployment.** Unemployed job losers have been made redundant, dismissed or had a temporary job terminated. *Job quits* have left their previous job voluntarily. Reasons include early retirement and health

factors. new *entrants* report never having worked previously and *re-entrants* left their last job three years ago.

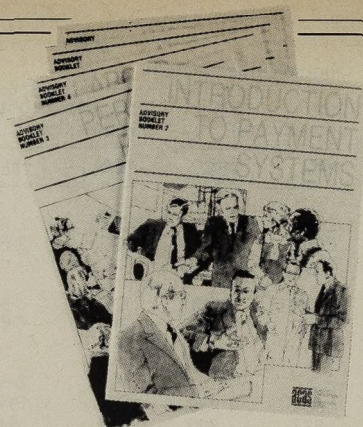
• **Structural Difference Index.** The occupational and industrial Structural Difference Indices are calculated as  $\sum [aij - aj]$ , where  $aij$  is the percentage of workers from the  $i$ th age group engaged in the  $j$ th category and  $aj$  is the percentage of all workers in this category.

• **Educational qualifications.** Those with a professional qualification comprise those with a degree or equivalent and members of professional institutes. Trade and craft include those with technical, City and Guilds, completed apprenticeships, and or other vocational qualifications. Other qualifications encompass all other academic qualifications up to and including GCE A-level or equivalent. None includes all those without any of the formal qualifications listed above. For a more detailed analysis of qualifications and economic activity see the article "Economic activity and qualifications" in the October 1988 issue of *Employment Gazette*, pp 549-563.

• **Missing values.** Many of the tables in the article have distributions that include missing values; non-response of one kind or another by individuals. Unless otherwise indicated, these missing values have been re-allocated on a pro-rata basis across the responding categories.

<sup>1</sup> For detailed information on the survey design used in the LFS, see the Technical note to "1987 Labour Force Survey—preliminary results", *Employment Gazette*, March 1988.

# acas ADVISORY CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION SERVICE



- This is ACAS
- Using ACAS in Industrial Disputes
- The ACAS Role in Conciliation, Arbitration and Mediation
- Advice and Help
- Individual Employment Rights — ACAS conciliation between Individuals and Employers
- Conciliation between Individuals and Employers
- Improving Industrial Relations — A Joint Responsibility
- WRU Information Leaflet
- Summary of publications (a listing of WRU and other titles regularly updated)
- Meeting the challenge of change (WRU guidelines for the successful implementation of change in organisations)
- Meeting the challenge of change (Summaries of WRU case-studies)
- Industrial Relations Handbook (HMSO £5)

## ADVISORY HANDBOOKS

- Employing People — a handbook for small firms
- Discipline at work

## ADVISORY BOOKLETS

- 1 Job evaluation
- 2 Introduction to payment systems
- 3 Personnel records
- 4 Labour turnover
- 5 Absence
- 6 Recruitment and selection
- 7 Induction of new employees
- 8 Workplace communications
- 9 The company handbook
- 10 Employment policies
- 11 Employee appraisal
- 12 Redundancy handling

## DISCUSSION PAPERS

- 1 Developments in harmonisation
- 2 Collective bargaining in Britain: its extent and level

## OCCASIONAL PAPERS

- 24 Quality circles in perspective
- 27 Effective and satisfactory work systems
- 31 Managing stress in organisational change
- 36 Job evaluation in transition
- 37 Redundancy arrangements
- 38 Employee commitment
- 40 Performance appraisal
- 41 Labour flexibility in Britain
- 42 Quality at work
- 44 The changing role of the secretary

## WRU BIBLIOGRAPHIES

- 5 Group working
- 15 Work Stress
- 27 New Technology: Robotics and automated manufacture
- 50 Management of change

## CODES OF PRACTICE

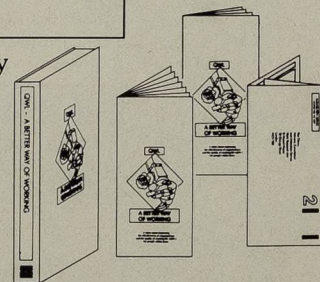
- 1 Disciplinary practice and procedures in employment
- 2 Disclosure of information to trade unions for collective bargaining purposes
- 3 Time off for trade union duties and activities (Codes of Practice are available from HMSO)

## ANNUAL REPORTS

Available on request

## VIDEO

QWL — A Better Way of Working



Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service — 27 Wilton Street London SW1X 7AZ Telephone: 01-210 3000

## Questions in

# QA

## Parliament

A selection of Parliamentary questions put to Department of Employment Ministers on matters of interest to readers of *Employment Gazette* 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.



### Department of Employment Ministers

Secretary of State: **Norman Fowler**  
Minister of State: **John Cope**  
Parliamentary Under Secretaries of State:  
**John Lee and Patrick Nicholls**



Norman Fowler

### Strikes

*Tim Yeo (South Suffolk) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement on the workdays lost through strikes in February 1979 and February 1989.*

Norman Fowler: Nearly two and a half million days were lost through strikes in February 1989 3 million working days provisionally estimated that 58,000 working days were lost. In the year to February 1989 3 million working days were lost. In the year to February 1979, 13.3 million working days were lost. It is in everyone's interest that this improvement should be maintained.

(May 16)

### TECs

*David Nicholson (Taunton) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many representations he has received from chambers of commerce on his proposals to introduce Training and Enterprise Councils.*

Norman Fowler: Since the White Paper *Employment for the 1990s* was published on December 5 last year, almost 4,000 individuals and organisations have expressed an interest in TECs. Of these, 87 approaches have been from chambers of commerce.

(April 18)

### Small firms service

*Timothy Kirhope (Leeds North East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what proposals he has for the future of the Small Firms Service following the creation of Training and Enterprise Councils; and if he will make a statement.*

John Cope: The Small Firms Service (SFS) now forms part of the Training

Agency. This brings together the closely linked services of counselling and training, and will lead to a more coherent and effective approach to small businesses support.

The Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) will become responsible for the counselling activity of the SFS. This will help ensure that TECs become the natural focus for the local small business support network.

The SFS will maintain its counselling service in each area covered now until a TEC is established. The SFS information service will remain as a national service.

(April 18)

### Skill shortages

*Maureen Hicks (Wolverhampton North East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment to what extent a lack of trained personnel is threatening the ability of the United Kingdom industry to meet the surge in demand.*

John Cope: Previous figures cannot express completely the extent of the threat. The most recent quarterly survey of industrial trends, conducted in January 1989 by the Confederation of British Industry, reported that 25 per cent of manufacturing firms in the United Kingdom anticipated that a shortage of skilled labour would limit output over the coming four months.

(April 19)

*Robert Adley (Christchurch) asked the Secretary of State for Employment which areas he now considers to have a labour shortage.*

John Cope: Thanks to the very strong growth in employment, unemployment rates have been falling since July 1986. By March 1989 there were 48 travel-to-work areas with unemployment rates below 4 per cent and 16 travel-to-work areas below

3 per cent. As unemployment has fallen, some shortages of labour have appeared. Occupations most in demand are in high level skills such as professional engineers, computer specialists and managers and in craft skills.

(April 14)

### European Council

*Dr Charles Goodson-Wickes (Wimbledon) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement on the European Community Labour and Social Affairs Council held in Luxembourg on April 5.*

John Cope: It was a very constructive meeting. The Council reached agreement on a common position on three draft directives concerning the minimum safety and health requirements in the workplace. These cover the workplace; the use by workers of machines, equipment and installations; and the use by workers of personal protective equipment. There was some discussion of a proposal for social measures to assist workers in the shipbuilding industry who are made redundant or threatened with redundancy; and family benefits for migrant workers.

The Commissioner gave an oral presentation on a possible community charter of fundamental Social rights. Finally, the council reached agreement on a text of a Resolution on continuing vocational training.

(April 12)

## Earnings

Clare Short (Birmingham, Ladywood) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what is his best available estimate of the proportion of the workforce earning less than £3.80 per hour.

John Lee: It is estimated from the New Earnings Survey that about 40 per cent of the adult workforce in Great Britain, including both full-time and part-time employees, earned less than £3.80 per hour in April 1988.

(May 16)

## Local labour information

Tony Baldry (Banbury) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what information is available to employers on Computer Assisted Local Labour Information, developed by the Training Agency; what is the extent of the use of the system by employers; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: The key information, in the main collected from employers, held on the Computer Assisted Local Labour Market Information system (CALLMI), includes workforce characteristics, recruitment practices and difficulties, use of new technology, and training related data. The system itself is not directly accessible by employers, but summary analyses and reports by the Training Agency are readily available to employers and employer organisations. It is not possible to say how many employers have received copies of these reports nor to what use they have been put.

My Department, through the Training Agency and the establishment of Training and Enterprise Councils, is committed to ensuring that all concerned with training, vocational education and enterprise have access to relevant and readily available information. CALLMI is a key tool in this process. We shall continue to seek ways of developing effective means of co-operation with other collectors and users of local labour market information, at the same time respecting the need for confidentiality concerning individual employers' data.

(April 12)

## Restart

Clare Short (Birmingham, Ladywood) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many claimants called for Restart interview have failed to attend their interview; how many of those failing to attend are believed to have found work; how many of those failing to attend have their benefit stopped and how many of these have successfully appealed against the benefit decision; and how many failing to attend have subsequently re-registered as unemployed in the most recent 12-month period.

John Lee: Between April 1988 and March 1989, 3,066,000 were called for Restart interview of which 326,000 were referred to Unemployment Benefit Officers for failing to attend that interview. 25,387 (7.8 per cent) of these had their benefit or credits disallowed. The other information requested is not available.

(May 16)



John Cope

## Benefit fraud

Nicholas Brown (Newcastle upon Tyne, East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will publish in the Official Report the total number of prosecutions for employment benefit fraud for each of the years from 1979 to the most recent year for which figures are available.

Patrick Nicholls: My Department's fraud investigation work was reorganised in 1984 and comparable figures for earlier years are not available. The number of prosecutions for benefit fraud for each year since 1984 is as follows:

1984-85	2,250
1985-86	2,800
1986-87	3,650
1987-88	3,960
1988-89	4,045

(May 8)

Nicholas Brown (Newcastle upon Tyne, East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will publish in the Official Report an estimate of the total amount of money lost through benefit fraud in 1988.

Patrick Nicholls: No reliable figure is available of the money lost through benefit fraud in 1988 because the full extent of the fraud that is occurring is not known. As a result of investigations during 1988, however, the estimated net savings to public funds were £65 million.

(May 8)

## Hazardous substances

Terry Fields (Liverpool, Broadgreen) asked the Secretary of State for Employment whether he will make a statement on the implementation of the control of substances hazardous to health regulations in harbour areas.

Patrick Nicholls: The control of Substances Hazardous to Health Regulations (COSHH), which come into force on October 1, will apply to any store-based work activities in harbour areas where substances hazardous to health are used or given off. The only exceptions will be asbestos, lead and ionising radiations which are covered by other regulations.

The regulations will also apply to certain activities on board ships in dock. COSHH will not impose duties on the master or crew of a sea-going ship of their employer in relation to the normal shipboard activities of a ship crew under the direction of a master.

(April 18)

## Career Development Loans

Matthew Carrington (Fulham) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many people have taken up career development loans since the launch of the scheme in April 1986; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: Since April 1986 2,740 Career Development Loans (CDLs) have been approved, 655 during the pilot phase and 2,085 since the scheme was launched nationally in July 1988. The total approved loan value is currently some £6.5 million.

The growth in the number of Career Development Loans since they became available nationally last year has been very encouraging. It has shown that many people both employed and unemployed, are willing to invest in their own future by paying for vocational training of their own choice to improve their job prospects.

(April 12)

## Disallowed claims

Clare Short (Birmingham, Ladywood) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many claims of unemployment benefit have been disallowed on the grounds of refusal or premature termination of training in each month since September 1988.

John Lee: information is not collected in the form requested. However, in the six month period ending December 31 1988, the total number of claims for unemployment benefit disallowed for adjudication officers on the grounds of refusal or premature termination of training, was 1,110.

(May 4)

## Literacy and numeracy

Alastair Burt (Bury North) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what special help is given to the unemployed who need training in literacy and numeracy; and if he will make a statement.

Patrick Nicholls: Considerable help is available to enable unemployed people to receive literacy and numeracy training through YTS and ET. Additional support in YTS became available at the beginning of April through improved levels of funding. In ET, almost one in five trainees is receiving literacy and numeracy training. Further initiatives to improve the quality of provision are in hand.

(April 18)

## New business

Steve Norris (Epping Forest) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many businesses were started during the last 12 months; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: In 1987, the latest year for which figures have been published, the estimated number of new registrations for value-added tax was 205,000. The net increase in the number of VAT-registered businesses in 1987 was 45,000, or nearly 900 a week on average. The indications are that the rate of increase during 1988 has been faster.

(April 18)

## Tourist accommodation

John Butterfill (Bournemouth West) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what progress he is making towards agreement on a common classification scheme for hotels, boarding houses and self-catering accommodation throughout the United Kingdom.

John Lee: The tourist boards for England, Scotland and Wales have now agreed common criteria for their classification and grading scheme for serviced accommodation. The English and Scottish boards have reached agreement on uniform criteria for self-catering accommodation. The English Tourist Board plans to begin inspections using the new criteria in September this year, and to include the new classifications in accommodation guides for the 1991 season.

(May 16)

## Access to tourist sites

John Bowis (Battersea) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what steps he is taking to improve access for disabled people to tourist attractions.

John Lee: The English Tourist Board's Advisory Committee on Visitor

(April 18)



John Lee

Attractions has drawn up a voluntary code of practice for operators, which includes recommendations on access for disabled people. This code of practice is to be piloted in the West Country in the near future, with the aim, following further consultations, of issuing the code in early 1990.

(April 19)

## Factory Inspectorate

Andrew Bennett (Denton and Reddish) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what percentage of reported accidents were investigated by the factory Inspectorate in 1988.

Patrick Nicholls: In 1987-88, 4.9 per cent of reportable accidents reported to the Factory Inspectorate were investigated. All accidents involving fatal injuries were investigated. Reported accidents are selected for investigation after considering the gravity of the apparent breach, the need to give advice and the value of any information that would be obtained to prevent similar accidents.

(April 12)

## VDUs

Peter Snape (West Bromwich East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what work is currently being undertaken by the Health and Safety Executive's medical division on the health risk of visual display units.

Patrick Nicholls: The Health and Safety Executive has published a guidance note and a free booklet on VDUs and is participating in the development of national and international standards. VDUs, including discussions within the European Community on a proposed VDU directive. The Executive is also supporting four research projects in universities and research institutes on, or directly related to working with VDUs.

(April 18)

## Compacts

Dr Charles Goodson-Wickes (Wimbledon) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many schools are currently taking part in the Compact Initiative; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: The Training Agency has received proposals for operational Compacts in 28 inner city areas to date. These plans indicate that once the proposals are approved and begin operation in September, a total of 260 schools in these areas will be covered. All Compacts have plans to expand in subsequent years.

The quality of applications has been impressive and shows what can be achieved when education and business work together to meet the needs of their locality.

(April 18)

## Manufacturing employment

Nicholas Bennett (Pembroke) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what information he has as to the percentage of the workforce of the United Kingdom, United States of America, France, Germany and Japan employed in manufacturing industry.

John Lee: The latest available information on common international definitions is as follows.

## Manufacturing employment, per cent of total civilian employment, 1986

United Kingdom	22.5
United States	19.1
France	22.6
Germany	32.2
Japan	24.7

Source: OECD Labour Force Statistics 1966-86.

(May 5)

## Enterprise training

Andrew Hunter (Basingstoke) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many people are currently obtaining skills on enterprise training; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: Over the last financial year about 53,000 people have taken up this type of training. This represents an increase of 9,000 upon the previous year's total.

(May 16)

## Local enterprise agencies

Irvine Patnick (Sheffield, Hallam) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what amount of Government funding was made available in 1988-89 to local enterprise agencies.

John Cope: Government support to local enterprise agencies in the United Kingdom in 1988-89 exceeded £8.3 million.

(May 16)

## Unreported accidents

Harry Barnes (Derbyshire North East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment, pursuant to his answer to the hon member for Derbyshire North East on April 19, if he will list those industries in which he estimates there is a significant number of accidents which are unreported; and if he will make a statement.

Patrick Nicholls: All cases of fatal injury in the course of work activity are reported to the enforcement authorities. It is not known what proportion of other reportable injuries go unreported, nor is there any firm evidence to suggest that the problem is more acute in certain industries. There are some indications, however, that the agricultural, construction and service sector are subject to significantly more under-reporting than the best estimate of 50 per cent for employees in all industries and services.

(April 26)

## Labour costs

Alan Beith (Berwick upon Tweed) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how much unit labour costs in the United Kingdom have increased over the last 12 months; and what information he has as to how much labour costs have increased over the same period in France, West Germany, Japan and the United States of America.

John Lee: International comparisons of unit labour costs for the whole economy are not available. However, the latest available information for manufacturing industries is provided in the table:

### Unit labour costs in manufacturing

#### Percentage changes in the year to the fourth quarter of 1988

United Kingdom	0.4
France	-1.5
West Germany	0.7
Japan	-2.0
United States	1.1

Notes: 1 The percentages are calculated from index series produced by the International Monetary Fund; the latest available figures for the five countries on a consistent basis are for the fourth quarter of 1988.  
2 The source index series are in local currency and are not adjusted for exchange rate changes.

(May 16)

## Jobstart

Tony Lloyd (Stretford) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will give details of the average wage of Jobstart allowance workers for each year since the start of the initiative; and if this includes the allowance.

John Lee: The information requested is not readily available. However an evaluation survey of the Jobstart programme is currently being undertaken. Preliminary information from the study indicates that the average starting wage of Jobstart workers in April and May 1988 was £67. This figure excludes the allowance.

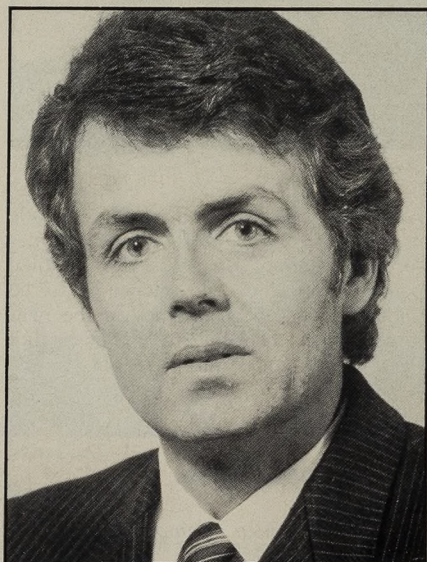
(May 4)

## Wage inspectors

Marjorie Mowlam (Redcar) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many wages inspectors there are nationally; and how many there were in 1979.

Patrick Nicholls: Currently there are 66 wages inspectors in post nationally. Arrangements are in hand to bring the number of inspectors up to the full complement of 71. In 1979 there were 158 inspectors.

(May 16)



Patrick Nicholls

## Employment Training

Harry Greenway (Ealing, North) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many people have so far been accepted for training under the Employment Training programme; at what cost; and if he will make a statement.

Patrick Nicholls: By April 28, 275,000 people had started on Employment Training. The cost of each trainee will be about £2,300. It is a remarkable achievement that so many people have been helped by the most successful training programme for adults ever run by the Government.

(May 9)

Jacques Arnold (Gravesham) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many people currently in training on the Employment Training programme had previously been unemployed for two years or more; and if he will make a statement.

Patrick Nicholls: Figures for those currently in training on Employment Training who were previously unemployed for two years or more are not available. However, of the 239,000 entrants to the programme by March 31, it is estimated that some 38 per cent or 91,000 had been unemployed for two years or more. This is an outstanding achievement as the programme is specially aimed at the longer-term unemployed.

(April 18)

John Evans (St Helens North) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a further statement on the progress of Employment Training.

Patrick Nicholls: Employment Training continues to grow faster than any other previous adult training programme. By April 28, there were over 184,000 people in training. They clearly recognise the benefits the programme has to offer and the opportunity it provides to help them get a job.

(May 11)

## Sheltered Placement Scheme

Barry Field (Isle of Wight) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many disabled people have been placed in employment through the Sheltered Placement Scheme; and if he will make a statement.

John Lee: As at February 28 1989, 4,821 people with severe disabilities were being supported in employment through the Sheltered Placement Scheme. I am pleased to say that the number of jobs supported in this way is set to rise to 6,900 by the end of March 1990. Since the Scheme was introduced in April 1985, it is estimated that around 5,870 people with severe disabilities have been placed in sheltered placements. The Scheme succeeded the Sheltered Industrial Groups Scheme which was already supporting 1,049 jobs.

(April 13)

## Jobclubs

Allen Adams (Paisley North) asked the secretary of State for Employment what conclusions he draws from his Department's statistical information on whether assistance to the long-term unemployed in finding paid employment is better provided by Employment Service Jobclubs or private Jobclubs.

John Lee: At the end of February 1989, the job entry rate, or percentage of people leaving Jobclubs to go into jobs, was 56 per cent for Employment Service Jobclubs against 52 per cent from external Jobclubs. However, the gap in performance is closing; at the end of March 1988 Employment Service Jobclubs had a job entry rate of 57 per cent and external Jobclubs 50 per cent. In some Employment Service areas, external Jobclubs are now performing as well or better than their Employment Service counterparts. A number of initiatives, such as improved Jobclub leader training, are in progress which should further improve performance.

External Jobclubs already provide valuable help to long-term unemployed people and statistics suggest they are capable of performing as well as those directly run by the Employment Service.

(April 19)

# Topics

## Performance pay spreading to public sector

A report by Incomes Data Services shows that performance-related pay is more widespread in the public sector than previously realised. However, it is still largely confined to managerial grades and where it has been introduced, has been seen primarily as part of a wider process of organisational change.

The study found that performance-related pay is now operating in a wide range of public sector organisations. For example, just under a quarter of local councils have introduced a scheme, or are shortly to do so, and around 400,000 civil servants now have a part of their remuneration determined by performance.

A major conclusion is that performance pay has been introduced largely as a result of wider organisational change in the public sector, with an emphasis on

devolved management. The majority of organisations studied had devised target-based appraisal schemes with the emphasis on the mutual setting of targets between appraiser and appraisee.

However, the report warns that performance pay is no easy panacea and is unlikely to work unless the scheme is designed to match the particular organisational circumstances of the specific employer.

The report includes details from 15 case studies, including the Civil Service, NHS, local authorities, public corporations and quasi-autonomous public sector bodies, such as the Audit Commission. It also has a chapter on how such schemes operate in the public sector in the USA.

Paying for Performance in the Public Sector: A Progress Report is available, from IDS Public Sector Unit, 193 St John Street, London EC1V 4LS. Price £20.

## Shops stewards master new management techniques

A report published jointly by Northern College and the Transport and General Workers Union, based on interviews with shop stewards in nine Humber-side companies, claims unions are successfully coming to terms with new management techniques.

The report examines the state of workplace organisation, traditional bargaining on pay, and health and safety issues. It goes on to examine union and workplace responses to management techniques such as team briefings, quality circles, total quality management, performance

and temporary workers.

Stressing that everyday issues like health and safety still form the bedrock of shop steward activity and workplace bargaining, the report concludes that employers are deploying a variety of new techniques with which to probe workplace union organisation, but the outcome of these initiatives is by no means certain.

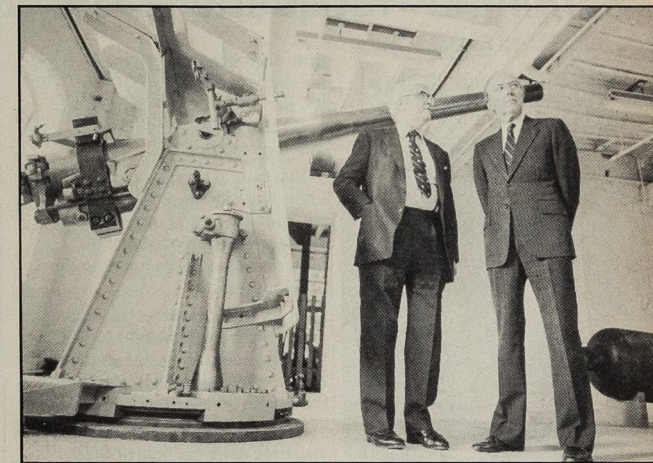
Fighting Back: A report on the shop steward response to new management techniques in TGWU Region 10 by Norman Heaton and Ian Linn is available from Northern College, Wentworth Castle, Stainborough, Barnsley S75 3ET. Price £1.50.

## New management degree

Manchester Business School has introduced the Master of Business Management (MBM)—a new part-time degree available from Manchester Business School for company-nominated senior managers. An open day, for, personnel directors and other

managers involved in management development, to learn more about the programme is being held at MBS on July 12.

Further details are available from Caroline Ball at the Manchester Business School (tel 061-275 6333). □



Duncan Bluck (right) chairman of the British Tourist Authority and Sir Stuart Pringle inspecting Chatham Dockyard's new tourist attraction—the Ordnance Gallery. The dock is being refurbished with help from the BTA.

## Health and safety vision

A forward programme of research planned by the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) has been released in a 300-page programme-book.

Much of the work will be carried out in-house by the Research and Laboratory Services Division but a significant proportion will be pursued through outside contracts or agency agreements.

Details are given of some 250 projects forming the main programme and a further 172 subsidiary projects.

A number of areas of work are to assume growing importance in 1989-90. For instance, investigations relating to the fire at King's Cross underground station revealed that little was known about the spread of flame on inclined surfaces. In addition, an

effect was observed in which hot combustion products and flames were confined within the escalator channel, thereby producing conditions that prompted rapid flame spread up the escalator. An investigation is in progress to determine the full extent of the hazard.

Also under scrutiny will be the part played by human factors in industrial accidents, which has received a lot of attention recently. The HSE believes it is important such factors are taken into account in quantitative risk assessment and research is being carried out with this in mind.

Copies of Programme of Research and Related Services 1989/90 are available free from HSE's three Public Enquiry Points: London (tel 01-221 0870); Merseyside (tel 051-951 4381); Sheffield (tel 0742 752539).

## YTS report

A total of 342,000 young people, nearly 60 per cent of 16-17 year olds entering the labour market, joined the YTS in 1986-87. This was the first year in which a two-year programme was available for 16-year-old school leavers and a one-year programme for 17-year-old leavers.

These findings come from the YTS Progress Report 1986-87.

The report shows that of the 57 per cent of trainees who responded to the questionnaire, 75 per cent of 1986-87 YTS leavers were in a job, further education or training three months after leaving their scheme.

One-third of YTS completers in 1986-87 gained a vocational

qualification during their time on the YTS. Other main findings show that:

- The YTS has continued to attract more middle and higher qualified young people.
- More private sector organisations became involved in YTS, accounting for 90 per cent of work experience providers and 50 per cent of schemes.

The unit cost to the Exchequer fell to £2,720 a year for each filled place, a saving in real terms of 8.2 per cent compared with 1985-86.

The report is available from the Training Agency, Room E825, Moorfoot, Sheffield S1 4PQ. □

## Changes in average earnings—1st quarter 1989

This note describes the factors affecting average earnings in the first quarter of 1989.

The table sets out the adjustments made to the actual earnings indices for temporary influences such as arrears of pay, variations in the timing of settlements, industrial disputes, and the influence of public holidays in relation to the survey period.

The derived underlying index was described in the April 1981 edition of *Employment Gazette* p193.

These notes now appear quarterly.

For the first quarter of 1989, average earnings, as measured by the average earnings index, showed an increase of 9.4 per cent over the same period a year earlier. This is a

little above the underlying increase for the quarter of 9 1/4 per cent. The 9 1/4 per cent rate is 1/2 percentage point above the rate for the previous quarter.

In manufacturing industries the underlying increase was about 9 per cent in the first quarter. This is 1/4 percentage point above the underlying rate of increase in the previous quarter.

In service industries the increase was also about 9 per cent, which was 1/4 percentage point above the increase in the underlying rate in the fourth quarter of 1988.

It is estimated that changes in overtime earnings contributed about 1/4 per cent to the increase in average earnings in the whole economy during the first quarter of 1989, the contribution to the manufacturing earnings increase being almost 1/2 per cent. □

### Whole economy average earnings index: 'underlying' series (1985=100)

	Seasonally adjusted	Further adjustments (index points)		Underlying index	Underlying increase (per cent) over last 12 months
		Arrears	Timing* etc		
1986 Apr	107.4	-1.5	0.2	106.1	7 1/2
May	106.2	-0.4	1.3	107.1	7 1/2
June	107.4	-1.0	0.1	106.5	7 1/2
July	108.3	-0.4	-0.2	107.7	7 1/2
Aug	108.8	-0.8	0.4	108.4	7 1/2
Sept	108.8	-0.8	0.7	109.1	7 1/2
Oct	109.9	-0.5	0.4	109.8	7 1/2
Nov	110.9	-0.3	-0.2	110.4	7 3/4
Dec	111.2	-0.2	0.7	111.7	7 3/4
1987 Jan	112.1	-0.2	-0.1	111.8	7 1/2
Feb	112.8	-0.3	0.4	112.8	7 1/2
Mar	113.2	-0.4	0.4	113.2	7 1/2
Apr	114.2	-0.5	0.7	114.4	7 3/4
May	115.4	-1.3	1.4	115.5	7 3/4
June	115.7	-0.5	-0.3	114.8	7 3/4
July	117.0	-1.3	0.3	116.0	7 3/4
Aug	117.1	-0.8	0.3	116.6	7 3/4
Sept	117.4	-0.3	0.5	117.6	7 3/4
Oct	118.8	-0.4	0.2	118.6	8
Nov	120.2	-0.3	-0.3	119.6	8 1/4
Dec	121.0	-0.6	0.8	121.1	8 1/2
1988 Jan	121.8	-0.3	-0.3	121.2	8 1/2
Feb	122.0	-0.3	0.6	122.3	8 1/2
Mar	124.0	-1.0	-0.2	122.8	8 1/2
Apr	124.4	-0.4	0.2	124.2	8 1/2
May	124.2	-0.3	1.6	125.4	8 1/2
June	125.1	-0.6	0.4	124.9	8 3/4
July	126.9	-1.2	0.8	126.5	9
Aug	126.6	-0.6	1.4	127.4	9 1/4
Sept	127.6	-0.4	1.2	128.4	9 1/4
Oct	129.5	-0.8	0.5	129.2	9
Nov	130.7	-0.7	0.1	130.1	8 3/4
Dec	134.3	-3.2	0.7	131.8	8 3/4
1989 Jan	133.3	-0.3	-0.8	132.2	9
Feb	133.8	-0.4	0.3	133.7	9 1/4
(Mar)	135.0	-0.6	-0.2	134.2	9 1/4

\* Includes the effect of industrial action. (i) Provisional.  
Note: The adjustments are expressed here to the nearest tenth of an index point in order to avoid the abrupt changes in level which would be introduced by further rounding, but they are not necessarily accurate to this degree of precision.



Grand Canyon rapids—Alton Towers Leisure Park.

### Safe thrills

Safety on popular water chute rides at amusement parks should improve following the publication of a new guidance note by the Health and Safety Executive.

The guidance, aimed principally at controllers, operators and ride attendants, describes various

factors which can contribute to accidents on water chute rides and the precautions that can be taken to avoid them. □

Guidance Note PM71 *Safe operation of passenger carrying amusement devices—Water Chutes*, available from HMSO or booksellers. Price £2.25. ISBN 0 11 885415 1

### Special exemption orders

Changes in the legislation which restrict the hours worked by women and young people aged under 18 employed in factories, introduced by the Sex Discrimination Act 1986, took effect on February 27, 1987, although the prohibition on women working at night remained in force until February 26, 1988. The provisions in the Factories Act 1961 and related legislation now apply only to young people.

Section 117 of the Factories Act 1961 remains, thereby enabling the Health and Safety Executive (HSE), subject to certain

conditions, to grant exemptions from these restrictions for young people aged 16 and 17 by making special exemption orders in respect of employment in particular factories.

Orders are valid for a maximum of one year, although exemptions may be continued in response to renewed applications.

During the quarter ended March 1989 the HSE granted or renewed special exemption orders relating to the employment of 3,437 young people. On the day of the count a total of 10,990 young people were covered by 1,515 orders. □

### Industrial tribunals—presenting the company's case

According to the Institute of Personnel Management many personnel practitioners are reluctant to prepare and present their cases to industrial tribunals. Their main criticism is that industrial tribunals have become excessively legalistic. As a result the parties concerned have in many cases preferred to appoint members of the legal profession to represent them.

Tribunals were never intended to be the sole preserve of lawyers and

were set up for the purpose of operating cheaply, quickly and informally.

To encourage personnel practitioners to present their company cases, the IPM is holding a workshop entitled *Industrial Tribunals—Presenting Your Company's Case* at the Norfolk Hotel, Harrington Road, London SW7 on June 29-30 and November 13-14, 1989. Further details are available from the IPM (tel 01-946 9100). □

## The professions—breaking down the barriers

Much has been said over the past year about the opportunities presented by 1992 and the completion of the single European market.

Now the view that British professional services are insulated from events elsewhere is being challenged.

Already the European Community countries have signed a directive recognising each other's professional qualifications for courses three years and over and negotiations are now in progress on two-year courses.

In parallel, work on recognising the comparability of vocational qualifications in member countries is being co-ordinated by the Development Centre for Vocational Training in Berlin (CEDEFOP).

At a seminar in London last month, the Centre for Business Strategy looked at ways in which three major professional services with apparently very different experiences—advertising, accountancy and law—are, and could become, more international in their outlook.

In opening the session Evan Davis, from the Centre for Business Strategy, observed that in practice, many professions operated a national closed shop.

For example, foreign firms would usually hire British lawyers for a British problem.

However, David Miln from Saatchi and Saatchi plc, maintained that the advertising industry is already internationalised—and becoming more so. Gillette now operates a central production unit in London to cover all its European campaigns and this arrangement was by no means unusual. In his experience, consumers were becoming more similar across boundaries, and more diverse within boundaries.

Miln continued by saying companies like Benetton had successfully established a trans-national image in Europe and with the coming of 1992, the field could open up much further. In particular, he cited the possibility of major supermarket chains crossing borders, and challenging suppliers to provide top value in an expanded buyers market.

Chris Swinson, from the accountancy profession, argued that the system of controls and restricted entry to the accountancy profession in Germany, for instance, meant that fees charged are high in comparison to the UK. He also noted that French 'auditors' (accountants) could not move to another country and stay

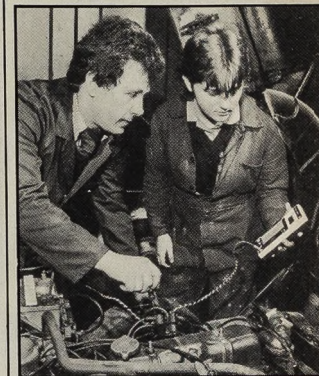
in their professional body.

Under the Mutual Recognition Directive, these outmoded practices will change—and Swinson, who is national director of professional standards at BDO Binder Hamlyn, added that despite slow movement by some countries' professional institutes in reaching agreement, the political will in member countries was sufficient to overcome the problems.

Finally, Malcolm Palmer of Baker McKenzie spoke about the problems of developing an international law firm where quality control of 'professional prima donnas' made it difficult to implant a corporate culture. This led to 'fragmentation'.

He believed that lawyers needed local knowledge and cultural identity to work successfully in an international environment and the best way to 'internationalise' was by taking on board partners from different countries. An informal agreement between firms working in other countries was another possibility. Palmer's experience in expanding his own practice abroad led him to conclude that larger firms were happier combined with other large firms and smaller practices also worked better together in international partnerships. □

## Training partnership in motor industry for jobs gap



Motor industry skills in need.

The Normand Group and Shell Oils have combined in a Youth Development Programme which hopes to create 240 jobs over the next three years.

The shortage of skilled and technically trained workers is one of the biggest problems facing the motor industry today. To meet this challenge, the Normand Group, one of Britain's largest dealerships, is establishing a YTS managing agency with help from Shell Oils.

The two companies have got together to produce a special video, and supporting literature, which will be used in schools, colleges, youth clubs and careers events to promote the programme. Ambitious trainees might then progress to higher education, sponsored by Shell. □

### Diary events

- *Recruitment in the 90s* at the Chelsea Hotel, Sloane Street, London on June 28. A seminar for senior managers on recruitment strategies, organised by the Institute of Personnel Management (tel 01-946 9100).

- *Education, Training and Development Exhibition* at the NEC, Birmingham on July 4-6. (Computer training in business). Further details are available from Ivy Software plc (tel 01-252 7042).

- *CIP 89 Conference* and exhibition on computers in personnel, from June 27 to 29, at the Barbican Centre, London.
- *The Labour Market Crisis*. A seminar on key trends affecting the UK labour market, June 20, the New Connaught Rooms, London. Inquiries to IRS Training (tel 01-354 5858).

- *Human Resource Development—18th Annual World Conference* at the Barbican Centre, London, July 4-6. Details from Blenheim-Queensdale Ltd (tel 01-727 1929).



Tourist spending set to rise dramatically.

### Tourists to spend double

Spending by overseas visitors to the UK will more than double in the next seven years, according to the British Tourist Authority.

The latest edition of the BTA's *Tourism Intelligence Quarterly* forecasts that in 1995 over £13,000 million will be spent by 22 million foreign visitors to the UK—compared to £6,200 million spent by 15.7 million visitors in 1988.

It also carries reports on current

legislation affecting tourism, facts and figures on attractions, and the latest results of the British Tourist Authority's Yearly Survey, giving information on British residents travelling abroad.

*Tourism Intelligence Quarterly* is available on annual subscription—in the UK £70, Europe £75, other countries £80—from the BTA/ETB research services, Thames Tower, Black's Rd, London, W6 9EL. □

### Family credit

Thousands more mothers are claiming Family Credit, the new tax-free benefit for working families with children, since the beginning of an advertising campaign in April this year.

The Government's campaign has achieved a huge response—more than 65,000 claims being received in the first two weeks after the launch. John Moore, Social Security Secretary, is now asking employers to play their part in making the campaign a complete success. He is urging them to reply to his department's requests for earnings information as quickly as they can and to help ensure all employees know about Family Credit. □

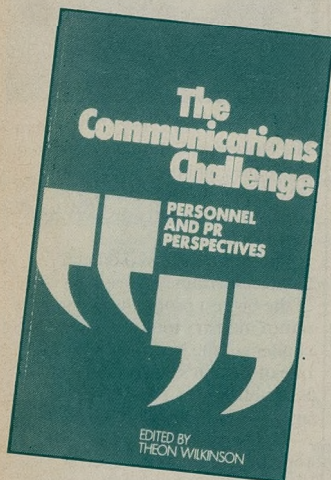
## REVIEWS

### The right message

"Good communications makes plain, hard-nosed commercial sense," according to *The Communications Challenge: Personnel and PR perspectives*. The book asks why there are so many communication disasters—and seeks to provide the answers by examining topical case histories.

This latest publication from the Institute of Personnel Management edited by Theon Wilkinson shows how communication disasters can be avoided when public relations and personnel departments work together. □

*The Communications Challenge* is priced £9.95. ISBN 0 85292 413 5.



### The cost of working abroad

The latest guide to executive relocation abroad contains a 1992 planning guide with statistics on EEC countries and comparative data for USA and Japan.

*International Transfers 1989-90* provides the means of establishing the real cost of employing and transferring executives in key locations worldwide.

The information and data are based on detailed surveys of more than 100 prices in each foreign location.

Quarterly reports on worldwide inflation statistics and exchange rates are free to purchasers of the guide. □

*International Transfers 1989-90* costs £395 from Business and Professional Publishing, McGraw-Hill (UK) Ltd, Freepost SL1 351, Maidenhead, Berks, SL6 2QL.

### Employment law Selwyn's guide

An accurate, up-to-date and readable guide to employment law is the stated aim of *Selwyn's Law of Employment*.

Targeted at students, lecturers, trade union officials and personnel officers, this sixth edition examines a whole crop of new legislation on employment matters, including the Wages Act 1986, the Sex

Discrimination Act 1986, the Social Security Act of the same year, the Consumer Protection Act 1987 and the Employment Act 1988.

Case law arising from both the UK and the European Court is also studied. □

*Selwyn's Law of Employment (sixth edition)* is published by Butterworths. Price £16.95. ISBN 0 406 65346 1.

### Business statistics: the low-down

Key Note has used its market research experience to put together a series of 'Guides' on finding business information.

The *Guide to Official Business Statistics* aims to identify what kinds of statistics are available to help business and industry and how, when and where to find the statistics you want.

It also explains how the statistics are compiled and tells the user how to evaluate them effectively, and what to look out for in using them.

Each of the main chapters gives the key data available, with main sources and contacts. The statistics and sources are then discussed in more detail, using a clear and easy to read layout.

Readers of *Employment Gazette* should already be familiar with the statistics covered in the Guide's chapter on labour market statistics.

Other chapters in the Guide take users through the official statistics on products and markets, industry, imports and exports, economic and financial matters, and social-economic statistics.

There are also chapters dealing with the overview; the reliability of official statistics; government contact points; and trade association statistics. Three appendices give details of relevant publications, including the Business Monitor series.

This is the first edition of a Guide which will need to be updated—the Employment Department's statistics sections at Watford now has a different address, for example. Users should note the Guide does not attempt to provide a comprehensive coverage of all official statistics. (For this it refers the user to the HMSO publication, *The Guide to Official Statistics*.)

In short, the Key Note Guide will be another useful reference book, especially for anyone starting out in search of key business statistics. □

Key Note's *Guide to Official Business Statistics* is available from Key Note Publications Ltd, Field House, 72 Oldfield Road, Hampton, Middlesex TW12 THQ (tel 01-783 0755). Price £58 (postage paid).

### Enterprise training at home

People thinking about starting out in business can now see exactly what is involved by watching a 20-minute video produced by The Royal Bank of Scotland, called *Planning for Profit*.

The importance of all aspects of planning—for example, markets, production and finance—is illustrated through case studies, the video's light-hearted treatment, likens the exercise to tackling an

assault course, but helps get the message across.

It is designed for use in conjunction with four booklets which deal with: Starting a Business, Cash Flow Control and Liquidity, Putting Your Case to a Bank Manager and Information and finance for the Small Business.

The video is available from any of the 850 branches in the bank's UK network. □

### Financial pointers

Budding entrepreneurs confused by the rush of information available at financial advice interviews can, instead, plot their own course with the help of a fully revised edition of *Raising Finance*. The book, by Clive Woodcock, shows independent business owners how to make the best use of the wide range of sources of finance available today. It indicates how much each type of finance is likely to cost, and explains the advantages and disadvantages of each. Areas covered include: short, medium and long-term finance; money from the EEC; finance for technology and innovation; government sources; venture capital and export finance.

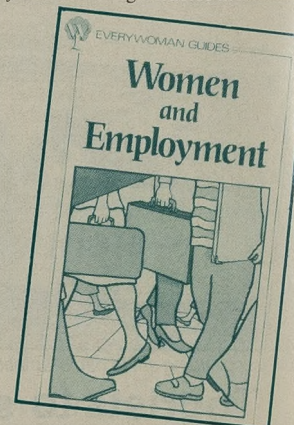
Case studies illustrate the relevance of various sources of funding to different situations, and the questions a potential source of finance will want to ask about a business. □

*Raising Finance* by Clive Woodcock is published by Kogan Page. Price £16.95 (hardback), £8.95 (paperback). ISBN 1 85091 516 4.

### Working women

From the former industrial editor of the *Guardian* comes *Women and Employment*.

Jane McLoughlin, whose first job was driving a tractor in a



slaughterhouse at age 14, has written a guide to employment possibilities for women today.

One of the Everywoman Guides series, the book covers flexi-time, job-sharing, temping, part-time and freelance work, employing others (at home and in the workplace) and the role of women in management. □

*Women and Employment* is published by Unwin. Price £3.50. ISBN 0 04 440379 8.