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Editor

JOHN ROBERTS

Deputy Editor

DAVID MATTES

Assistant Editors

EVELYN SMITH

BRIAN McGAVIN

Studio

CHRISTINE HOLDFORTH

Editorial office

ROSE SPITTLES

01-273 5001

Copy for publication should be addressed to the Editor, *Employment Gazette*, Department of Employment, Caxton House, Tothill Street, London SW1H 9NF

Statistical and factual inquiries 01-273 6969

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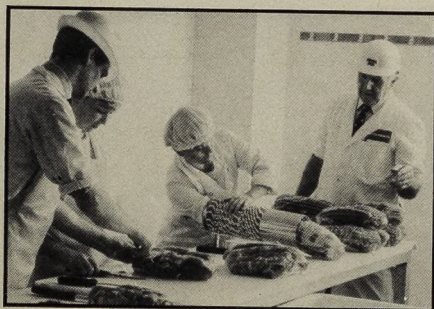


COVER PICTURE

Small firms will be a key element in providing employment for the 1990s. See News Brief (p 3) and special feature (p 29). Photo: Pictor International.



Progress made on Human Resource Development within the Employment Department Group is discussed in a special feature on p 42.



What qualities enable a company to win a National Training Award? See p 7.

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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 Small Firms Service, the Training Commission or its associated divisions 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)
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Gujerati	PL843 (Gujerati)
Hindi	PL843 (Hindi)
Punjabi	PL843 (Punjabi)
Urdu	PL843 (Urdu)
Vietnamese	PL843 (Vietnamese)

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

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A series of leaflets giving guidance on current employment legislation.

- 1 **Written statement of main terms and conditions of employment** PL700 (1st rev)
- 2 **Redundancy consultation and notification** PL833 (3rd rev)
- 3 **Employee's rights on insolvency of employer** PL718 (4th rev)
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- 7 **Union membership rights and the closed shop including the union labour only provisions of the Employment Act 1982** PL754 (1st rev)
- 8 **Itemized pay statement** PL704 (1st rev)
- 9 **Guarantee payments** PL724 (3rd rev)
- 10 **Employment rights on the transfer of an undertaking** PL699 (2nd rev)
- 11 **Rules governing continuous employment and a week's pay** PL711
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- 13 **Unfairly dismissed?** PL712 (5th rev)
- 14 **Rights of notice and reasons for dismissal** PL707 (2nd rev)
- 15 **Union secret ballots** PL701 (1st rev)
- 16 **Redundancy payments** PL808
- 17 **Limits on payments** PL827

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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 brief guide taking account of the Employment Acts 1980 and 1982 and the Trade Union Act 1984 PL753

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

RPL1 (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

Facing an unfair dismissal claim?

A leaflet describing an audio visual programme available on video cassette PL734

Employment form (in packs of five)

A form to assist employers to provide a written statement of an employee's main terms and conditions

Race relations

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

PL748

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

Information on the work permit scheme—not applicable to nationals of EC member states or Gibraltarians OW5

Employment of overseas workers in the UK

Training and work experience schemes 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

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)

Prompt payment please

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

A.I.D.S. and employment

This booklet attempts to answer the major questions which have been asked about employment aspects of A.I.D.S. but it is also a contribution to a wider public information campaign PL811

Career development loans

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

News Brief

Training—'an agenda for action'

The most radical reform of Britain's training system for over 20 years has been announced in a White Paper *Employment for the 1990s*.

"It sets an agenda for action, starting now and developing through the next decade, to break down barriers which inhibit employment growth," said Employment Secretary Norman Fowler.

Lack of skills is identified as the most significant barrier to job growth in the 1990s.

"What is needed," Mr Fowler said, "is a new approach to the whole question of training, to give us a training and enterprise framework to meet our employment needs and increase our international competitiveness."

He stressed that the new framework provided a major role for employers, not just nationally, but, more importantly, at the local level, and he urged employers to assume active leadership in preparing and maintaining a skilled workforce.

"It is at the local level that skills needs can best be identified and met," he added.

The White Paper sets out key training objectives to be met over the next three years; the immediate priorities being:

- to set up a National Training Task Force to develop new local training arrangements and to promote greater investment by employers in the skills of the workforce;
 - to invite local employer-led groups to establish a national network of Training and Enterprise Councils to plan and deliver training and promote the development of small businesses at the local level;
 - to launch the Business Growth through Training Programme to help companies develop a training strategy to meet their business objectives;
 - to consult with the remaining statutory industrial training boards and organisations representing employers to draw up a programme and timetable for becoming independent non-statutory bodies;
 - to take professional advice on the feasibility of moving the Skills Training Agency into the private sector.
- Other steps announced in the White Paper include:
- examining the operation of the pre-entry closed shop;
 - publication of a consultation document inviting views on the future of the Wages Council system;
 - continuing government efforts to ensure that unemployment benefits are



A new approach to training is the aim of the White Paper "Employment for the 1990s" launched by Employment Secretary Norman Fowler.

only available to those genuinely seeking work.

"This White Paper," said Mr Fowler, "is about enterprise and competitiveness in an increasingly competitive world marketplace. It is about providing a framework which can facilitate employment growth. It is about opportunity and access to opportunity. But above all it is about people as our key resource."

Training and Enterprise Councils

Employer-led groups are being invited to form Training and Enterprise Councils.

They will examine the local labour market, assessing key skill needs, prospects for expanded job growth and the adequacy of existing training opportunities.

TECs will manage training programmes for young people, for unemployed people and for adults requiring new knowledge and technical retraining, and they will be responsible for the provision of training for small businesses.

At least two-thirds of TEC members should be employers at top management level drawn from the private sector, others being senior figures from local education, training and economic development activities, and from voluntary bodies and trade unions which support the aims of the council.

Under the new system, TECs would sub-contract training and enterprise activities to local providers in the same way as the Training Agency does with training managers and managing agents. TECs would evolve gradually over three to four years with the first councils established before the end of 1989.

The Training Agency

At national level the main authority concerned with training promotion and development will be the Government's Training Agency. The Training Agency will continue to operate as did its predecessor, the Training Commission, working with employers, the education service, voluntary organisations, training providers and trade unions, to improve the training system. It will also take on some of the small firms and enterprise functions of the Employment Department.

The Training Agency's tasks are:

- to encourage employers to develop the skills and experience of their employees of all ages;
- to provide and encourage appropriate training for young people when they have full-time education;

continued on page 4

continued from page 3

- to help the long-term unemployed acquire the skills and experience that will help them find regular employment;
- to help the education system become more relevant to working life and more responsive to changing demands and opportunities in the labour market;
- to ensure that the distinctive needs of the self-employed and small firms for training, counselling and other support are met.

National Training Task Force

The National Training Task Force will help with the establishment and development of the new Training and Enterprise Councils.

It will have up to 12 members, two-thirds of whom will be drawn from leading figures in industry and commerce. Its chairman is Brian Wolfson, former chairman of the Training Commission.

Industrial Training Boards

The seven remaining training boards are to put forward plans and proposals for moving as quickly as possible to become independent non-statutory training organisations, fully supported by employers in their sectors. Such organisations would not have the power to impose levies by statute but will be free to generate income from subscriptions and charges for services or products, as several boards have already successfully done.

Skills Training Agency

The White Paper also considers the future of the Skills Training Agency (STA), stating that the Skills Training Agency would be in a better position to seize opportunities if it were removed from the straitjacket of operating a trading account in the public sector. If it were to move into the private sector, it could adopt the best commercial practices. The Government is taking professional advice on the feasibility of such a move.

PROGRAMMES Employment Training

The Training and Enterprise Councils will be responsible for Employment Training which provides up to 12 months training for unemployed adults. The Government will look to the TECs to involve employers in the programme to the maximum extent possible so that appropriate training of the right quality is available and so that what is on offer is relevant to the jobs into which trainees might move.

YTS

The Youth Training Scheme (YTS) was introduced in 1983 and has trained over two

million young people.

Latest figures show that 74 per cent of young people leaving YTS go into jobs, or take up further education or training. The numbers of trainees securing recognised qualifications are rising each year.

The changing circumstances of the youth labour market however, require the precise scope and role of YTS to be kept under review with more emphasis on qualifications, and the assumption of employers of a fuller share of the costs of YTS.

Business Growth through Training

The Government, through the Training Agency, is planning the introduction from next spring of a £1,400 million programme, Business Growth through Training to unify the help available to companies. Services include help to people who are self-employed or who own their own firms, with relevant, flexible and accessible training for busy owner-managers; help for small businesses to plan and implement the training and development of their employees; and targeted help to industrial training organisations and local bodies such as Training and Enterprise Councils to tackle acute skills shortages in particular areas.

Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI)

The Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI) prepares young people better for working life by making sure what they learn at school, and the way in which they learn it, is more relevant to the world of work. Every British education authority is now taking part in TVEI.

Work Related Further Education Programme (WRFE)

The Government is to press ahead with its Work Related Further Education Programme in England and Wales. It provides incentives and help to the public sector of further education to respond more rapidly to the changing needs of employers.

Other barriers to employment

The White Paper also identifies as barriers to employment growth and economic success in the 1990s: poor industrial relations, excessive pay settlements, inflexible pay arrangements and attitudes to work.

Industrial relations

Employers are now free to decide for themselves whether or not to recognise and negotiate with trade unions. They can, in general, settle pay rates with trade unions or employees free from external interference. They can seek legal redress against unacceptable forms of industrial action.

Trade union members too, can make use

of the rights which legislation has given them, to ensure that their trade unions are run in accordance with their wishes.

Pay

Many approaches to pay bargaining will have to change if flexibility essential to employment growth is to be maintained. National agreements which affect the pay of half the workforce, "often given scant regard to differences in individual circumstances or performance."

Attachment to an automatic annual round of pay settlements adds more inflexibility and upward pressure.

Wages Councils

The White Paper gives a strong case for abolition of the Wages Councils system established in 1909. The Government questions whether the councils have been giving sufficient weight to the impact of settlements on jobs, and more broadly whether a statutory system of this kind is relevant to pay determination in the 1990s.

It feels it is time to reconsider the Wages Councils' future and a consultation document inviting views has been published. Copies are available from Mr V Patterson, Department of Employment, 93 Ebury Bridge Road, London SW1W 8RE.

Attitudes to employment

Employers report that they cannot find the workers needed to expand businesses and take advantage of new markets, yet some seem reluctant to recruit people who have been out of work for more than a few months, whatever their qualifications and previous experience.

Employers will have to recruit and, where necessary, train unemployed people to meet their requirements as traditional sources, such as school leavers, dry up.

A significant minority of claimants are not actively looking for work and some are claiming benefit fraudulently while working at least part-time in the black economy. A recent London survey indicated that many of those who had been unemployed for more than six months were well-suited to the jobs available. Some need training to brush up their skills or to learn new skills which Employment Training provides. But that does not explain why those with qualifications fail to take up skilled vacancies and why others fail to take up unskilled vacancies.

The Government has decided that the law should be amended to require those who claim unemployment benefit to take more positive steps to find employment. Following a joint review between the Secretaries of State for Social Security and Employment, the Government will be introducing a bill to amend the law so that unemployed benefit claimants, in addition to being capable of work and available for employment, must actively seek work.

Take a break through the bank

Two British banks have revised their career break schemes with an eye on the projected shortfall in school leavers.

Lloyds have made all staff eligible for a five year career break to enable them to care for pre-school children. At the end of the break the bank guarantees re-employment at the same grade as that held at the beginning of the break.

Jean McIntosh, manager, Equal Opportunities, said: "We are aware of the demographic trends which indicate that there will be a fall in the number of school leavers, and this has led us to consider the best possible use of our staff resources."

Lloyds scheme is open to satisfactory employees with five or more years continuous service. During any break staff are required to return to work for two weeks each year and regular contact will be made with them by personnel managers.

Participants will also be encouraged to continue to study for the Chartered Institute of Bankers' examinations.

Barclays, through its revision, has almost doubled the number of eligible staff.

It has extended the scheme originally set up for women with management potential to return to work after having children, to both men and women. The scheme offers them employment on return to work at the grade held on leaving the bank. Contact is maintained through a monthly information pack and staff who take the full break have to work at least two weeks each year. Those who take the part-time option have to work a minimum of 14 hours a week.

Alastair Robinson, personnel director said: "For employees it offers the opportunity to combine career development with raising a family. And, for the bank, its flexibility has helped to keep Barclays competitive."

Matching millions

The Government is to match pound for pound the funds raised by the Prince's Youth Business Trust (PYBT) in its £40 million appeal launched by the Prince of Wales.

The PYBT helps young people to develop their own ideas and set themselves up in business.

The government's contribution will enable the Trust to establish a loan fund to help young people to develop their ideas and plans to build up viable businesses.

It's first class on Pulman St.



The house that Jack and Mark and Steve and Robert and 33 other YTS trainees built. It is the first council house in Britain to be built entirely by YTS people.

YTS trainees in Hull have built their first council house as part of a training project, and a happy family has now moved into number 1 Pulman Street.

The four-bedroomed, detached house is one of 18 dwellings designed around a courtyard by city architect Ian Colquhoun who incorporated many elements of the City and Guilds crafts certificates.

Apprentice masters were recruited by Hull City Council to train the youngsters in bricklaying, joinery/carpentry, electrics, roofing, plumbing and other construction skills. And the house they built was all their own work and was completed in 15 months.

"The Pulman Street training initiative is a superb example of what young people can achieve," commented Jeremy Walker, Training Agency regional director.

The initiative has involved 44 school leavers, 12 adult trainees recruited from the long-term unemployed and over 100 traditional apprentices, and it has enabled them to gain construction skills which are in short supply on Humberside.

Training took place in portable classrooms and workshops on the construction site and many of the YTS trainees have been employed by the council as indentured apprenticeships.

Because of the scheme's success a second project to build 25 dwellings at the Drypool Construction Site was undertaken and a third one is planned for this year.

Hull City Council was the first construction organisation in Humberside to achieve Approved Training Organisation status for its high quality YTS training.

ET—100,000 and still rising

The number of long-term unemployed people benefiting from the Employment Training programme has passed the 100,000 mark for the first time, Employment Secretary Norman Fowler announced at the CBI's conference, *A World of Change*. ET has been in operation for only three months.

"To get to 100,000 trainees in such a short space of time is an enormous achievement. No other programme in recent years has matched that," he commented.

"The fact is that ET is now established and that over 1,000 organisations throughout the country are now providing training through this programme. A number of major employers are taking part, including such well known names as Sainsbury's, Wimpey, IBM, Pilkington and ICI. Chambers of commerce are playing an important part, as are many voluntary organisations and local authorities," Mr Fowler added.

Unsatisfactory year for industrial health and safety

Poor safety management in construction, agriculture and quarrying, as well as several major disasters made 1987-88 "an unsatisfactory year for industrial health and safety. This was reported in a joint annual report by John Cullen, chairman of the Health and Safety Commission (HSC) and by John Rimington, director general of the Health and Safety Executive (HSE).

Speaking at the publication of the report, they warned that company directors and managers could face individual prosecution with the HSC pressing to increase the maximum fine for offences brought to magistrates from £2,000 to £5,000.

And construction companies could be required by law to appoint a manager responsible for on-site safety.

Last year there were more than 500 fatal accidents and 33,000 serious injuries at work but Dr Cullen commented: "The Commission is much concerned that the statistical base on which we rely may be compromised by the under-reporting of injuries. We believe this to be substantial, with widespread ignorance of the reporting

requirements, particularly among the expanding number of new, small businesses."

It was pointed out that fatal injuries in all industries had fallen from around 600 in the early 1980s to, provisionally, 525 in 1987-88. But those in construction increased from 128 in 1981 to 140 in 1986-87 and, provisionally, 157 in the latest year. A total of 33,746 major injuries were reported to the enforcing authorities during the year, and 154,171 other injuries, giving a total of 188,442 fatal, major and other injuries.

Dr Cullen also pointed to the economic as well as the human cost, reporting that assisting the Kings Cross investigation had cost the Executive £750,000.

He said: "The cost to industry of a major accident can run into millions, sometimes hundreds of millions of pounds. The overall impact in terms of trauma to survivors, families and reputation will be sufficient to daunt the largest of companies. And for a very small company, the cost of injury to a key employee can be greater even than this, for it may mean extinction."



Photo: Wharfe Valley Times

Employment Minister John Cope (left) visited small businesses in Yorkshire which benefit from the Department's Enterprise Allowance Scheme. "Stork and Carriage" was set up by Mark Jackson (centre) when his sister had trouble finding what she wanted for her first child.

Taking on the big guns

While many government departments are making it easier for small firms to sell to them, the Ministry of Defence has taken the practical step of publishing a booklet *Selling to MOD*.

The book provides small suppliers with a clear idea of MOD's contract requirements long before the tendering stage is reached, thus saving them time and money. It also provides product-linked contact points to enable the supplier to speak directly to the right person.

MOD's purchasing staff have built-up contacts with small firms' organisations all over the country by attending events and seminars. This has led to the introduction of a 'new suppliers' service' which has already saved thousands of pounds and provided value-for-money improvements for MOD.

Information about selling to government departments is available through the Small Firms' Service by dialling 100 and asking for Freephone Enterprise.

Winners show the way to success

Eighty National Training Award winners celebrated their success at the Queen Elizabeth II Conference Centre in London in November (see special feature, opposite).

This is the second year of the awards, which according to the judging panel showed standards well up on quantity and quality compared with the previous year. Commented one of the judges, Trevor Thomas: "In this year's winners there are the seeds of—and tips for best practice, which will make us *all* more competitive."

Three of the winners have been chosen to receive special Patrons Awards. These are Rolls Royce in Derby, who achieved considerable cost savings by restructuring their operating methods as a result of improved training; European Profiles of Dyfed who used their YTS programme particularly effectively to create a sharper and more flexible workforce; and Quality Inspection Services of Stockton-on-Tees, who managed to place a high percentage of their trainees in relevant full-time jobs with enhanced vocational qualifications.

Information on how to enter the 1989 Awards will be released early this year by the Department of Employment.



Training is bringing home the bacon at D & R Stevenson (see p 13).

Photo: Crown copyright

Training is the key The 1988 National Training Awards

by John Roberts

This article highlights with examples the themes that emerged from companies which undertook training and were successful in winning the 1988 National Training Awards. It also describes the criteria that the assessors and judges were looking for.

Training was the key element in increasing the competitiveness of all 80 of the winners of the 1988 National Training Awards.

This year—the second year of the competition—there were some 1,468 entries for the National Training Awards—25 per cent up on 1987.

There were winners from both the public and private sectors, from manufacturing, services and commerce and from all parts of the United Kingdom. Some were everyday household names, others were newly established or hitherto unknown outside their specialised industry. All were able to demonstrate what they had achieved through

training. Investing in their people had worked.

The National Training Awards were first launched in April 1987. Their purpose is to recognise exceptionally effective training and to focus attention on the link between investment in training and improved business performance.

There were three main categories:

- training organised by employers (for any or all posts of the workforce);
- training designed and delivered by training providers;
- innovation in training methods and media.

Keys and links

The assessors and judges of the competition identified six key elements and links which a demonstrably effective training initiative might be generally expected to include. These provided a framework on which the entries were judged and a basis for evaluating the effectiveness of the training. As illustrated in the figure, they were:

Organisational need

The operating requirement of the organisation normally provided the stimulus for the training initiative, for example, in entering new markets, commissioning new plant, reducing costs, redeveloping a workforce and raising the quality of service. These often made it necessary for employees to acquire new or additional competences, in perhaps marketing or sales, finance, manufacturing, services, administration or organisation, research and development or people management.

Training objectives

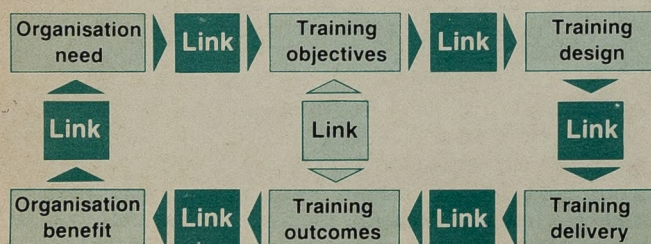
The judges looked for the way the aims and purposes of the training for the specific target group were formulated in order to meet the needs of the organisation. They were an answer to the question: "what is the training intended to achieve for the people participating in it?" In other words, what the trained person is expected to be able to do and to what standards. This involves looking at the criteria and indices against which they could be assessed. Objectives could relate to immediate remedial training or longer-term development.

Training design

This is the plan by which the learning opportunities were provided in order to achieve the objectives. It includes what is to be done, the training modules and methods, resources, programmes for training, records of progress and methods of evaluation.

Training methods were not restricted to conventional course-based learning (which might not always be appropriate), but might cover on-the-job coaching,

The key elements and the important links



"This nation's people are its most precious resource. Our companies and organisations, of whatever size and in whatever business, must recognise the need to invest in people to give them the skills of the future. Effective investment in training is crucial to business success. That is why it is so important for employers to be involved in local training provision. Only in this way will we remain competitive and prepared for the challenges ahead".—Margaret Thatcher, Prime Minister.

"I would like to congratulate all the winners of today's awards. By their achievements they have demonstrated the crucial importance of training for economic success. I would urge all British business to follow their example.

"The creation of the Single European Market in 1992 will create new opportunities, but it will also increase competitive pressures. Training will be a crucial factor in determining whether our companies remain competitive and whether they can seize the new opportunities which will become available. Our ability to maintain and improve our share of the international market will depend above all on the skills of our workforce. Them most successful companies will be those which give training a high priority."—Norman Fowler, Employment Secretary.

"Your success in winning a National Training Award is a clear demonstration of your commitment to sound investment in training. I congratulate you. It is vital that others in British industry and commerce should learn from your example."—Roger Dawe, Director General, Training Agency, addressing the competitors at the award ceremony.

"The most successful companies are now beginning to regard training as a strategic route to improved performance and increased competitiveness. This is particularly heartening news for the future success of our nation.

"We also saw the quite remarkable results that can be achieved by focussing on quality improvement. I would encourage anyone interested in improving quality to take a long hard look at our winners."—Sir Austin Pearce, CBE, Patron of the 1988 National Training Awards.

work-based learning, project groups, individual continuous development programmes, mentoring, open and distance learning.

The important thing was the way design met the objectives and the reasons for the choice of particular methods.

Training delivery

Delivery is the implementation of the training design and plan. What is important here is how the training is managed. Are the resources used effectively? Are deadlines met? What problems are encountered? Should they have been anticipated? Could they have been avoided? How were they overcome? The delivery will indicate much about the quality of the training design.



Kitchens Direct now installs more kitchens than any other kitchen fitting company in Britain.

Photo: Crown copyright

Training outcome

Outcome refers to what the training actually achieved. What measures of success were used and why were they chosen? What shortfalls were there and why did they occur? Where there any unexpected results and spin-off benefits?

Outcomes of a less tangible kind were also taken into consideration such as improvement in role-perception, morale, self-confidence, relationships, affiliation with the organisation. What is important for "exceptionally effective training" is that these outcomes are clearly specified; relate to significant organisation needs; are defined as learning/training objectives; govern the training content and methods; and are clearly distinguished as outcomes.

Organisation benefit

This is the pay-off for an organisation, the contribution of the outcomes of the training to the success of an organisation. The benefits should, of course, be the answer to the organisation's needs. The benefits, however, may not entirely fulfil the originally identified need and may also include some unanticipated, yet nevertheless worthwhile, achievements. What was important was that it could be demonstrated that the desired training outcomes relate to the organisation benefits obtained.

The links between the elements

The links are important in demonstrating the reasoning behind the development of the particular training initiative. The links between the elements in the 'chain' display the coherence of the training and the organisation's business objectives.

Two links in particular were the most crucial to the judgement of "exceptionally effective training".

The first link, that between training objectives and

training outcomes, was the ultimate basis for evaluating the effectiveness of training as training.

The second, that between organisation need and organisation benefit, is the ultimate basis for evaluating the contribution of training to the effectiveness of an organisation.

Main themes

As Sir Austin Pearce pointed out, an extraordinarily wide range of organisations won National Training Awards showing that there is an opportunity for every firm or organisation in the country—no matter how large or small—to improve its performance through training.

Many were intent on improving the quality of their products and services; others saw training as the route to improving the efficiency of managers and supervisors. Yet more have made an impressive contribution to the in-house training of new and young workers: some of the latter have greatly enhanced the quality and value of young people on YTS, while at Sainsbury's there has been a noteworthy exercise in collaboration with the Government's Inner City Task Force in the provision of training and jobs in a run-down area of North London. The following provides examples of these themes.

Quality at ICL

The slogan "first time, on time and every time" was adopted in the 1980's when ICL experienced a down turn in business and it became evident that the way forward was a customer-led rather than a technology-led business. This developed into "Quality, the ICL Way," a programme designed to meet the customers' product, system and service requirements.

Starting with five-day management courses, the programme of "quality education" rolled down into the



Staff exchanging thoughts during an interval at one of Girobanks' Quality Awareness Programme sessions.

Photo: Crown copyright

workplace, where managers established schedules of training for their teams. Training sessions for all staff were given by line managers (some 350 were specially trained as instructors) and practical examples, video programmes, exercises and "Quality Improvement Tools" were used. By early 1989, ICL expect that every one of its 20,000 workforce worldwide will go through the "Quality Education Programme"

The results of the programme have been demonstrated by the marked improvement in customer satisfaction. The number of customers satisfied with ICL's telephone support service increased from 70 per cent in 1986 to 95 per cent in 1987. The rating on ICL's hardware reliability and support went up significantly, overtaking many of its rivals, while there was a 30-fold improvement in the reliability of ICL's series 39 mainframes.

Kitchens Direct

The aim of a kitchen installation company is to ensure that deliveries to customers are fast and accurate. Even though deliveries were treble checked by computer, it is important to eliminate any chance of the wrong components being delivered to customers.

Kitchens Direct, which has grown from 20 to 700 employees in the past seven years achieved this goal through improved staff training. In the Spring of 1987 it launched a Customer Care Programme lasting six months for its warehouse staff, designers, salesmen, surveyors and deliverymen. It has also totally restructured its entire Customer Service Department and taken on a Senior Quality Control Inspector whose sole job is to ensure the continuing success of the scheme.

As a result, the cost of errors in deliveries has fallen by a

massive 41.7 per cent, saving the company almost £160,000.

Girobank plc

Girobank reckons that it has saved about £1 million by investing £25,000 in training staff on its Quality Awareness Programme. In a now highly competitive banking market it has used the concept of quality awareness as part of its drive to increase its market share. A decision was taken to improve the quality in its Operations Directorate which represents 40 per cent of its workforce and undertakes most of the processing and data capture functions at the main operational site.

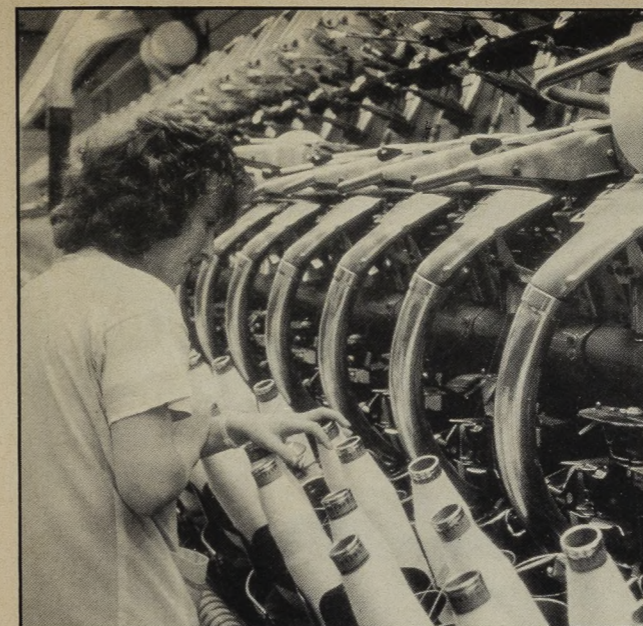
The one-day Quality Awareness Module was devised and delivered in-house through 69 individual workshops run by a team of 25 managers who had been given special training as Quality Moderators. The Girobank's auditorium was used as a training centre at which videos, case studies, syndicate group sessions and open forums were the means of getting across the theme that quality matters. This was backed up by an internal publicity campaign.

As a result, there has been a reduction of 22 per cent in keying errors, a reduction of 28 per cent in stationery re-orders and a reduction in the scrutiny of customer transaction documents. The number of useful staff suggestions has expanded and staff morale has improved and overall commitment has risen.

Management development

Management training is high on the list of many companies' priorities and the Confederation of British Wool Textiles has got in on the act.

The Confederation is the trade association for 360



Confederation of British Wool textiles.

Photo: Crown copyright

companies employing 30,000 people in the wool textile industry and is heavily involved in training—not least for young people with management potential.

The Confederation has set up a Career Structure Scheme to standardise entry and training for supervisory technicians, specify competences and establish a framework of qualifications. So far, nine development programmes have been devised in fields like combing, spinning, engineering and quality control. Each company has a manager to supervise the trainees and act as a mentor. Trainees also study for BTEC and National Examination Board for Supervisory Studies awards.

The Career Structure Scheme has made a significant contribution to the development of "human resources". Technicians in the industry are much more competent; they can assume managerial responsibilities and succession planning is much easier. They contribute greatly to improved quality performance and output in the industry.

Dowty Group

One of the major training priorities of the Dowty Group was the training of directors. Every director was to be covered, including the managing director of subsidiary companies and the Chief Executive and his group management colleagues.

The programme of training was based on four themes—competitive strategy, financial management, marketing and leading. Nine residential courses were attended by 133 directors from across the world.

The training has contributed to a major culture change within the Dowty Group. Directors now have a very clear view on how to implement their companies' strategy and asset management is given much higher priority. Other benefits are a greater sense of team-work and commitment to change. Thus, the training has played a key part in the achievement of business objectives.

Pinneys of Scotland Ltd

Pinney's was established in the early 1970's in the business of supplying smoked salmon. It expanded rapidly into the production of patés, recipe dishes, fresh fish and high quality delicatessen products.

Intent on expanding further, there was some concern

within the company as to whether the managerial and organisation structure was sufficiently flexible and of sufficient strength to achieve the company objectives.

Discussions were held with the company training consultant and later with the then Manpower Services Commission through which a grant was negotiated which led to the setting up of a "project wheel". The 'hub' consisted of a senior management taskforce and the seven 'spokes' were areas for action, namely management information, capacity, quality, packaging, recruitment, training and the understanding of employment legislation.

Help with management skills training came from a number of providers including the Skills Training Agency, Strathclyde Business School and private consultancies. A series of theoretical and practical workshops, were mounted—linked with "real life" problems.

The overall goal of the training has been achieved and the company has entered upon a further process of growth with confidence in the quality and performance of its management and workforce; and an organisational restructure has taken place.

The increase in sales turnover demonstrates its success—from £9.5 million in 1985-86 to £18.1 million in 1986-87. This has exceeded the original target by £4.6 million as well as the increase in planned recruitment. Total staff has grown from 360 before the training project to 700 after it. The training status has given the team the confidence to go forward and improve on its international status.

Training the workforce

Mastercare

Norman Fowler in his speech at the award ceremony recognised the achievement of Mastercare, a subsidiary of the Dixons Group in recruiting a workforce of inexperienced and unskilled staff at its electrical workshop and training them in basic electronics.

This approach was hit on in the face of rising numbers of repairs as a result of increased sales of inexpensive products—the cost effectiveness of this service having become uncertain.

It set up a Central Workshop in Doncaster and in parallel devised a training programme and course materials based on the syllabus of the City and Guilds 726 "Basic Electronics Modules" scheme. This was delivered by a professional team of technical training instructors using an intensive induction programme followed by a fortnight's on-the-job training. Tests were set for the trainees in the middle and at the end of the course. As a result,



Director training at the Dowty Group.

Photo: Crown copyright

Training aids the inner city

A notable instance of collaboration in training between the public and private sectors was singled out by Employment Secretary Norman Fowler for praise. This was a pre-recruitment course set up to give local people the chance to acquire the skills needed when a major new store is opened.

Sainsbury's, when it was opening its new store in the inner city area of North Kensington in London, faced the problem of recruiting staff of the right calibre. The DTI's Inner City Task Force had the answer. It approached Sainsbury's in July 1986 about the possibility of recruiting local people for the new Ladbroke Grove store and it was suggested that Project Fullempley should organise any necessary skill training to help them compete for new jobs.

Sainsbury's were very enthusiastic about the idea as their research indicated that, despite the fact that their new store was sited in an area of high unemployment, recruitment difficulties would arise due to:

- the large number of high calibre applicants required; and
- the low skill level of available labour coupled with the depressing effects of unemployment often leading to decreased motivation to work.

They were keen to open the store with 350 well-trained and motivated people and to assist the development of this important and ethnically-mixed community by providing local employment.

It was subsequently agreed that Project Fullempley would run five pre-recruitment courses for 50 taskforce area residents with the guarantee that all participants who completed the course would be granted an interview.

The training courses

The Task Force paid for the courses (£14,000) and Sainsbury's contributed to the design of the courses and provided a secondee for six months to help with the training. Sainsbury's objective in helping participants to gain employment led to a course focussed on:

- employment and job-finding skills—personal development, applications for employment and interviewing skills;
- general retailing skills, customer relations and marketing;
- working for Sainsbury's—history and development of the company, the working environment and work experience.

Each course lasted for 12 days. Targets for attendance, punctuality and work standards were set with extra assistance available for those performing at a sub-standard level.

Role play and syndicate exercises ensured that the courses were highly participative with trainees accepting responsibility for their own learning, using equipment ranging from videos and slide projectors to flip charts and product samples to create as diverse and interesting a learning environment as possible. A room on



Photo: Crown copyright
Pre-recruitment training for Sainsbury's organised by Fullempley.

Fullempley's premises was converted into a retailing room with a display of promotional materials and photographs of black employees in supervisory or management positions to encourage identification from the trainees.

The work experience provided the opportunity to consolidate the new found skills. Trainees were able to choose two departments and they fed their experience back to the branch and the rest of the group during presentations.

Sainsbury's also helped with other local problems: ensuring local nursing centres were available for children of single-parent trainees; and arrangements in connection with registration for DHSS benefits.

The benefits

Sainsbury's found that the performance of the trainees on the pre-recruitment course compared very favourably with those recruited through conventional methods.

Of the 49 trainees who completed the course, 38 (77 per cent) were offered employment, compared with 41 per cent of applicants applying directly. And 69 per cent have been retained, compared with 40 per cent for the non-course group.

The potential for trainees for progression has also been good; five have been promoted to supervisory positions within six months, against the average of 12 to 18 months.

Those rejected were consulted and assisted by Project Fullempley to find alternative employment and only two are still unemployed to date.

The experiment was considered highly successful by all parties. The Task Force had initiated an innovative project which involved the active participation of a major company in providing customised training and jobs for Task Force area residents. It has subsequently been replicated in other Task Force areas and has encouraged other companies to undertake similar campaigns.

For Project Fullempley it had reflected their commitment to train local people for local jobs and

demonstrated their concern to build partnerships between the private sector and the community.

For Sainsbury's, it had helped to meet local recruitment needs, extend equal opportunities while maintaining high recruitment standards and helped to enhance their image in the community.

Following the success of the Ladbroke Grove experiment, early in 1988 the North Peckham Task Force contracted the Industrial Society to run a customised training course and is about to commence a second. The North Kensington Task Force, Project Fullempley and Sainsbury's are now negotiating about

semi-skilled technicians were productive within time scales never achieved before in the industry.

The productivity of the new workshop "per technician" is more than double that on traditional products and the cost of each repaired unit has been reduced by two-thirds. Spares stock has been rationalised and obsolescence reduced. The traditional sites were able to deliver a better service on the more complex and expensive work.

D & R Stevenson Ltd

If D & R Stevenson, a well-established family run bacon processor, was to get maximum benefit from the modernisation of its factory and investment in new machinery, it was necessary that it should invest in a new workforce as well and get involved in YTS.

The company took on 12 trainees who received on-the-job training direct from supervisors and managers and off-the-job training at the Glasgow College of Food Technology. Using an extensive range of modern training techniques, trainees are encouraged to compete among themselves on a league basis and prizes are awarded for good performance and progress.

Though its involvement in YTS, the company is nurturing a solid core of highly-skilled young people for the future. At the same time, however, due to new levels of craftsmanship, output and prestige has increased significantly and new major multiple clients have been won. And, nowadays, the company has virtually no "returns" and no complaints about its products.

TSB Scotland plc

The Trustee Savings Bank of Scotland was the first bank in Scotland to become involved in YTS. It wanted to give opportunities to school leavers who, due to their educational qualifications, might not have gained immediate entry into banking. Given this new type of entrant it was necessary to devise a new kind of training.



Photo: Crown copyright
YTS trainees at Trustee Savings Bank of Scotland.

the possibility of a further course expected to start early in the New Year.

Owen Thomas, Director of Personnel at Sainsbury's, commented:

"We are delighted to have received National Training Award for this initiative in pre-employment training. The programme has been an enormous success. Trainees had been unemployed for an average period of 18 months before the programme and we were very pleased to see their job-finding skills and confidence raised to a level where we could offer such a large proportion of them jobs careers with us."

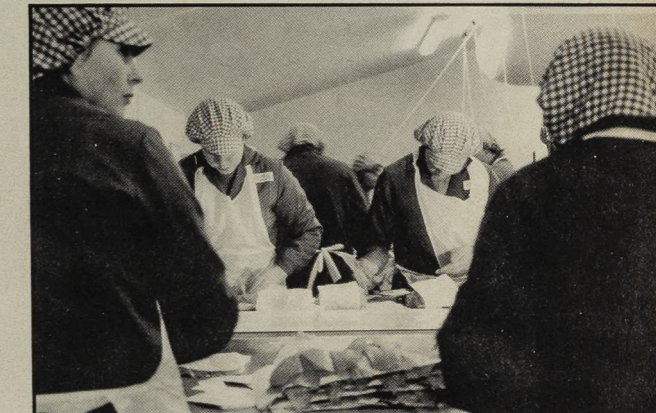


Photo: Crown copyright
Smoked salmon preparation at Pinney's of Scotland (see p 11).

Its YTS programme was based around the need to provide training in technical banking skills alongside life and social skills and to offer opportunities for personal development. Practical banking was taught at an in-house training centre while in their local branches the trainees were introduced successively to new and more demanding clerical and cashier duties. They had the chance of gaining a City and Guilds Certificate in Computer Literacy and also a number of certificated SCOTVEC modules relevant to the world of business. Outward bound courses, First Aid and team-work activities provided opportunities to foster personal development.

As a result of running YTS, TSB of Scotland now has a group of very enthusiastic trainees who are keen to be offered a permanent position in the bank. More than 90 per cent of the trainees have been offered jobs which has made the training very cost effective. Moreover, the YTS experience has encouraged self-confidence and initiative which is raising the standard of customer service.

Conclusion

As Norman Fowler pointed out, one of the important effects of demographic change in the 1990's is that school leavers with the abilities and qualifications that employers require are going to be increasingly difficult to find. Employers will be recruiting young people in a sellers' market.

Employers will need to develop to the full all the human resources which are available to them. This will involve both the training and retraining of existing staff and tapping new sources of recruitment among the longer-term unemployed, women, ethnic minorities and older workers. They will not be able to ignore the potential of unemployed people.

The National Training awards have highlighted the achievements of companies who have already gone down this path and who show that they have understood the importance of training for the 1990's. ■

Special Feature



Photo: Uppa Ltd.

Duncan Rutter (HCTB), Professor Thompson (NCVQ), John Barnes (C & G) and Elizabeth Gadsby (HCIMA) with the six candidates at the presentation of the first NVQ.

NVQs—what they mean

by Professor Peter J Thompson

Chief Executive, National Council for Vocational Qualifications

The National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) was established two years ago by the Government to undertake the reform of our system of vocational qualifications. This article explains some of the main features of its developments and their implications for those in education and training.

National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) differ in a number of important respects from most vocational qualifications available at present. Traditionally, vocational qualifications have been awarded for the successful completion of a formal course of either vocational education or training. They have indicated the potential for employment or progression to other programmes of study. An NVQ, however, is awarded to people who have achieved employment-led competence and who have demonstrated that they can perform in employment through assessment either in the workplace or in a realistic simulated work environment. Any means of learning—through employment, formal

courses, open and distance learning or private study—can be suitable ways of gaining the competence needed for employment. In particular, it is not necessary to attend formal courses to gain NVQs. This approach opens access to the awards recognised by the NCVQ. Those who set standards are asked by the NCVQ to define requirements in units of competence and to work with awarding bodies to ensure that these units can be separately assessed, certified and accumulated over a period of time.

Most people think about education in terms of the provision of a broad foundation of studies composed of many separate courses and qualifications leading eventually to fewer specialised studies at higher levels. In

other words, the model of our education provision is a pyramid, tapering away from a broad base towards higher levels.

New system

The National Council was asked to introduce a new system for vocational qualifications based on the needs of employment within a simple structure, known as the NVQ framework. This has some different features from those of the traditional concept of provision and has implications which require some adjustment to accepted approaches and thinking.

The NVQ framework orders vocational standards and qualifications according to occupational areas and levels of attainment. Each level relates to a range of skills, knowledge and understanding, and the ability to apply these in employment. The lowest level relates to jobs with a modest range of competence, while higher levels relate to jobs with ever increasing and more complex needs. The model of the NVQ framework therefore is one based on a limited range of attainments at the lowest level which broadens out at the higher levels.

Progression

Progression is therefore from a modest base to something which is more extensive and demanding at higher levels. It is however a mistake to build into an award at any level the extra studies or learning needed only for progression to the next stage. If extra requirements are built into an award for progression purposes alone many people would be precluded from holding the award who could otherwise do so and could succeed in the area employment for which it is meant.

The National Council therefore sees progression being possible by the provision of learning opportunities that build on the attainments achieved at the lower level and that extend achievement in the learning experiences needed for the higher award being sought. And it should be remembered that an NVQ is awarded for the ability to be employed in a range of occupations and not as a means of demonstrating the potential to do other things, although it may sometimes do this as well—this is a very important distinction. Additionally, many will obtain high level awards by programmes of learning designed to lead directly to them.

The abilities needed to face future changes, such as the challenges of new technology, require standards which prepare people for work both now and in the foreseeable future and which have within them a broad range of skills, and knowledge and understanding needed to cope with change. But this is very different from providing extra studies in an award for progression purposes only. The prerequisites for progression and requirements for flexibility should not be confused.

Defining the standards

Another important feature of the NCVQ's approach is that those in employment—employers, employees, professionals and their advisers—should decide the standards needed. The National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) is a statement of competence, but it is also a statement of what the holder of the NVQ should be able to do in employment, and the needed level of performance.

First, only those who are conversant with the occupations to which an award relates can define what the standards should be, for they are the only group of people who really understand what is required, and the levels of

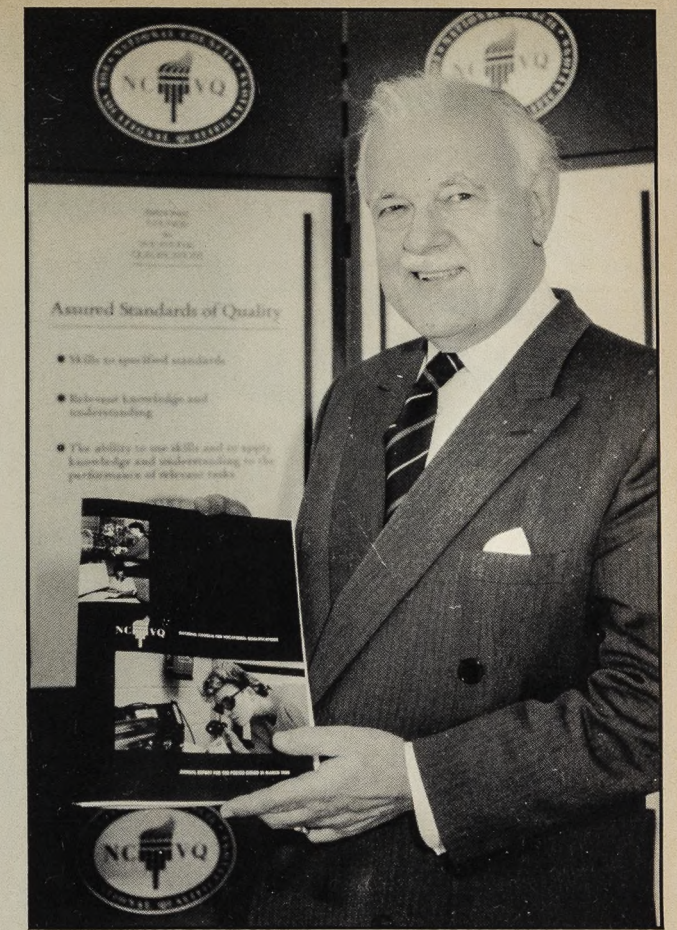


Photo: Jim Stagg

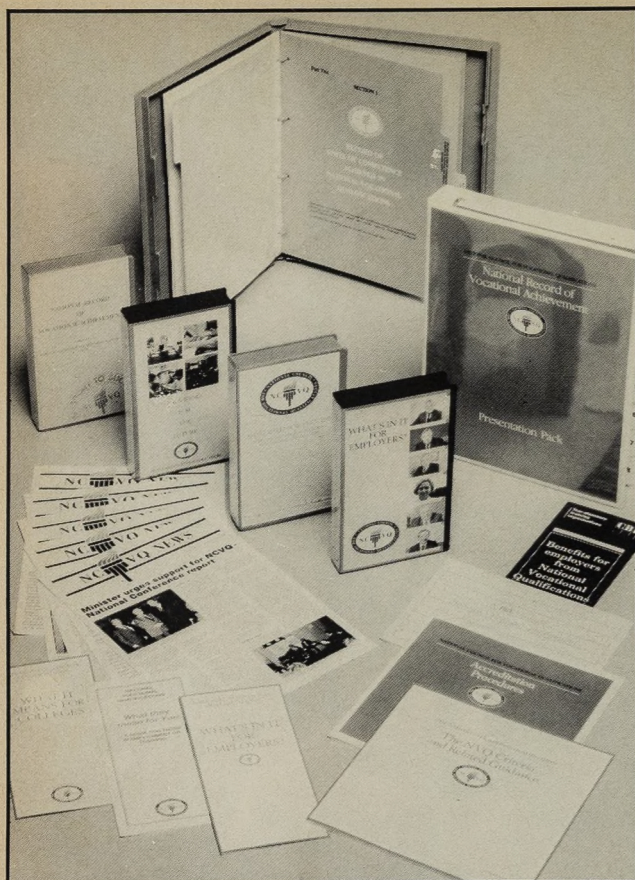
Oscar De Ville, Chairman NCVQ at launch of the 1988 Annual Report.

performance that are needed. Second, what they prescribe are the outcomes of learning and standards of performance which need to be assessed; they are not a syllabus or a programme of learning. It is the task of those in education and training to decide the type of learning experience that leads to the outcomes defined. The NCVQ approach, therefore, leads to a sensible separation of roles—it requires those in employment to define the outcomes needed and those in education and training to decide what type of learning is required on formal courses to lead to these outcomes.

Assessment

Some people, of course, will learn a part of what is required for an NVQ mainly through experience on the job. It must be recognised that learning at work is valid and has an important role to play in preparing people for NVQs in the future. To embrace this and other non-course-based learning in our future system, attitudes to assessment need to change and take into account assessment at work. Most assessment provided today is an integral part of a course or formal programme of study. People enrol on a course and are appropriately assessed either during or at the end of it. Also the aim of so much assessment today is to measure relative performance, either in relation to some norm or to a course group.

There is a need to change much of this. People's ability to do things needs to be assessed against clear criteria of performance. It is of little value to know that one person is better than another, if both perform inadequately for employment. Assessment should be therefore seen as a means of measuring whether a required outcome of



Range of NCVQ publications

learning has been attained. If it is only available to those enrolled on a course it severely restricts the variety of methods of learning which may be used. It must therefore be separated from courses or programmes of learning.

Once clear standards have been established, any mode of learning—by course, employment, open, or distance learning and private study etc—can be used to gain the competence needed for an award. It would also greatly increase flexibility if assessment could be offered to all who are ready for it—in other words, provided on demand.

An NVQ means that the holder has shown he or she can do a job and not just that they have the skills, and/or knowledge to underpin performance in employment. Some assessment of performance at work or in a realistic simulated work environment is therefore essential.

Rationalising the system

The National Council is required to simplify and rationalise the present system of qualifications, a system which many see as confusing. It is attempting to do this by ensuring that there is a single employment-led standard in each occupational area and at each level of attainment. Different awarding bodies who seek to offer NVQs in a common area must base their award on this single standard. Monopoly rights are not to be given to awarding bodies, but all awards in the same area and at the same level of attainment must be identical no matter who awards them. This should greatly ease the provision of courses in colleges. In addition, awarding bodies must be able to offer NVQs in all parts of England, Wales and Northern Ireland, and must have adequate arrangements to guarantee and monitor their standards. Regional examining bodies cannot meet these requirements on

their own, and are being encouraged to work with national examining or validating bodies to award NVQs under unified arrangements. These approaches should lead to simplification and will benefit employers and individuals alike.

Credit accumulation

During the NCVQ's first two years it was concerned to develop those aspects of the system which facilitate access, progression and continued learning. One of its developments has been the introduction of a new national system for credit accumulation which enables individuals to gain the competence needed for employment in steps and at a pace which suits them. This accumulation system is based on units of competence—the major sub-divisions of the requirements for NVQs—and enables these units to be separately certified and recorded in the National Record of Vocational Achievement (NROVA)—a record introduced by the National Council in June, 1988.

The eventual aim is to encourage those in employment and in training, as well as unemployed people to participate in this scheme. The credit accumulation system is being made available to those on the Employment Training programme and thereafter to those on the Youth Training Scheme and other national training programmes.

Ways are being sought to enable people who have gained competence mainly through experience in employment to have their existing achievements assessed and certified as a means to begin credit accumulation towards NVQs. This will be an important way of involving the largest possible number of people in the new national system, an essential step in moving towards a more qualified society. This is one of the reasons for extending open access to assessment.

The NCVQ wants to create an environment in which all have an opportunity to have their abilities properly assessed and certified, and in which all see the relevance of building on their existing competence as a route to more rewarding roles in employment.

Conclusion

The changes described will not occur overnight, but the National Council is confident it can provide the NVQ framework by 1991—the target date set by the Government for the first four levels of the framework to be in place. It recognises that those in education and training need help to develop their own skills to cope with that new system. It is therefore working with the Department of Education and Science, the Further Education Unit and the DE Training Agency to ensure that opportunities for staff development are provided. The National Council's success will benefit employers and employees alike, and enable a wide range of people to gain qualifications which relate directly to their work in order to maximise their opportunities in employment. ■



Special Feature



Oxford University students

Photo: Rex Features Ltd

Graduates and the labour market in the 1980s Results from the Labour Force Survey

by Stephen Creigh and Andrew Rees

Economics Branch, Department of Employment

This article analyses the labour market experience of British graduates during the 1980s using information from the Labour Force Survey. The main features of the pattern of graduate employment in 1987 are outlined and changes between 1983 and 1987 are discussed.

- In 1987 there were 2 million graduates of working age—equivalent to 6 per cent of the population of working age. Two-thirds of the graduates were male and half were under 35 years of age.
- Graduate employment is highly concentrated. Over half are in the 'other services' sector of industry, with a further 18 per cent in 'banking, finance and insurance'. Almost 90 per cent are in the 'managerial and professional' occupation group. Some 45 per cent of graduate employment is in the South-East region. They

- are, however, under-represented in small workplaces.
- Between 1983 and 1987 the numbers of full-time graduate employees rose by 12 and 18 per cent for males and females respectively. Part-time employment and self-employment rose much more rapidly—in the case of females by 33 and 71 per cent respectively.
- Unemployment is relatively low for graduates (3.8 per cent for males and 5.7 per cent for females, based on the labour force definition) and has fallen substantially since 1983. Labour market participation among female

Table 9 Normal weekly working hours* of people of working age†

	Great Britain, Spring 1987					
	Graduates in employment			All people in employment		
	Employees** per cent	Self-employed** per cent	All† in employment** per cent	Employees** per cent	Self-employed** per cent	All† in employment** per cent
Males						
31 hours or more	88.3	89.9	88.3	94.5	92.8	93.6
30 hours or less	11.7	10.1	11.7	5.5	7.2	6.4
Females						
31 hours or more	61.3	44.6	59.2	52.9	48.7	52.7
30 hours or less	38.7	55.4	40.8	47.1	51.3	47.3
Total						
31 hours or more	79.8	77.2	79.2	76.0	81.9	76.4
30 hours or less	20.2	22.8	20.8	24.0	18.1	23.6
Thousands	1,489	213	1,711	20,278	2,829	23,603

* Basic usual weekly working hours, excluding paid or unpaid overtime and meal breaks, for main job in spring 1987.

† Men aged 16 to 64 and women aged 16 to 59.

** Percentages are based on all hours excluding those who did not answer or to whom the survey question did not apply.

‡ Including those on Government employment or training schemes.

Source: 1987 LFS estimates

study, the proportion of male graduates working part-time was still a comparatively high 10.2 per cent.

For females the picture is very different. Graduate females are more likely to work full-time (61.3 per cent of employees did so) than all females (52.9 per cent). However, some 55.4 per cent of the 60,000 female self-employed graduates usually worked for 30 hours or less per week, a slightly higher proportion than for all self-employed females (51.3 per cent).

Trends in graduate employment patterns between 1983 and 1987 in terms of full and part-time employment and employment status are outlined in table 10. The table 10 data are based on the self-assessment of respondents into full or part-time categories. They are thus not directly comparable with the basic weekly hours based data used in table 9. Only self-assessment data are available over the whole period 1983 to 1987.

The number of graduate employees has risen strongly and virtually continuously across all groups. Over the whole period full-time graduate employees in employment rose by around 160,000 (13.4 per cent). Male numbers grew more slowly (11.8 per cent) than females (17.7 per cent). However, the rapid expansion of graduate employment means that both male and female graduates increased their shares in all employees in full-time employment—from 8.0 to 9.1 per cent of total for men and from 6.4 to 7.2 per cent for women.

Graduates have also shared in the recent growth of part-time employment. Part-time work in a main job among male employees generally is still confined to a small minority, but (as shown above) it is relatively more important among graduates, with the number of graduate male part-time employees rising by 53 per cent since 1983.

The share of graduates in part-time male employees fluctuated between 6 and 7 per cent over the study period.

Part-time employment is much more important for female graduates. From 1983 to 1987 it grew by 33.3 per cent for employees, almost twice the rate of growth seen for full-time female graduate employees. Nevertheless, the share of graduates in all female part-time employees was fairly stable at 2.4 to 2.6 per cent over the period, reflecting the growth of part-time work generally.

For both sexes graduate self-employment grew strongly over the four-year study period as a whole (up to 27.5 per cent for males and 71 per cent for females, although from a very small base in the latter case). Female graduates actually raised their share of all family self-employment from 7.2 to 8.5 per cent although most of this occurred between 1983 and 1984. Among males the expansion of self-employment for graduates parallels that of all self-employment.

Overall, it is clear that the number of graduates other than full-time employees (that is self-employment and part-time employees) grew by over 90,000 between 1983 and 1987, almost matching the growth in full-time male graduate employees, at 105,000. However, the general growth in self-employment and part-time employees means that there is little obvious sign of a rise in the share of such employment accounted for by graduates. Thus the growth of self-employment and part-time employees among graduates parallels rather than leads that for all people.

Sectoral shifts 1983–1987

Given the high concentration of graduate employment

Table 11 Sectoral changes in employment of graduates of working age*, 1983 to 1987

Year Spring	Great Britain, Spring estimates											
	Manufacturing†						Services**					
	Graduates in employment thousands			Percentage of all in employment			Graduates in employment thousands			Percentage of all in employment		
	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
1983	194	26	220	4.8	1.7	3.9	750	399	1,148	11.4	5.8	8.6
1987	207	44	252	5.3	2.9	4.6	863	479	1,342	12.1	6.0	8.9

* Men aged 16 to 64 and women aged 16 to 59.

† Industry divisions 2 to 4.

** Industry divisions 6 to 9.

Source: LFS estimates

in certain key industries and the 'managerial' and professional' occupational category, the increased graduate employment might reflect increased general employment within those industries/occupations. Alternatively, irrespective of overall employment in the industries/occupations concerned, increased requirements for a highly qualified workforce due to greater technological sophistication may have altered the structure of labour demand and if accompanied by increased supply of graduate labour (through both increases in the population qualified to degree level and rising participation rates for graduates), this may have resulted in increases in graduate employment density. In some cases both effects may be at work—overall industry growth may be accompanied by increases in the share of graduates.

Some evidence on these effects is presented in tables 11 and 12. Manufacturing is a classic example of where an increasing graduate employment density has occurred within a declining employment base. The share of manufacturing in total graduate employment expanded from 3.9 to 4.6 per cent, a numerical increase of 32,000. Significantly, this was at a time when total manufacturing sector employment actually fell by 147,000. In contrast, the increased overall graduate employment in the service sector, up 194,000 in the four years to 1987, occurred within the context of a rise of over 1.7 million in general employment over the period, so that graduate density rose rather less dramatically from 8.6 to 8.9 per cent.

In table 12 attention is focused on the 'managerial and professional' occupational category. Graduate employment registers increases in total and as a proportion of all employment for both sexes in manufacturing and overall. However, increasing graduate employment density is clearly not a universal trend. In the dominant services sector the number of female graduates in 'managerial and professional' positions rose sharply by 15 per cent between 1983 and 1987, a numerical rise of 60,000. However, the share of graduates among females

in this occupational category within services actually declined—from just above to just below 17 per cent. Across all sectors, the share of female graduates in all employment in the 'managerial and professional' category between 1983 and 1987 remained fairly stable.

Unemployment

In the LFS unemployment is measured in two distinct ways. As conventionally defined in the British labour force, unemployed people are those without a job who were seeking work in the week of the survey, or who were prevented from seeking work by temporary sickness, or holiday, or who were waiting for the results of a job application or waiting to start a new job they had already obtained. In contrast, the International Labour Office (ILO)/Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) standard definition includes people without a job who were available for work and had either looked for work at some time in the last four weeks or were waiting to start a job they had already obtained.

At first sight, this would lead one to expect ILO/OECD totals to exceed labour force estimates since people may have looked for work over the last four weeks but not in the survey week, the wider 'time horizon' effect. However, the position is more complicated since if people on training courses such as the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) report they were looking for work during the survey week they are regarded as unemployed in conventional labour force terms. However, full-time students seeking work but who were not available to start a job within two weeks (because they had to complete their education) are not regarded as unemployed but are classed as inactive in labour force terms.

Thus, it is difficult to predict which definition will yield a greater unemployment figure. Of course, both labour force and ILO/OECD survey based measures are likely to differ substantially from the claimant count data published

Table 10 Trends in employment of graduates of working age*, 1983 to 1987

Year Spring	Great Britain, Spring estimates							
	Graduate male employees				Graduate female employees			
	Full-time†		Part-time†		Full-time†		Part-time†	
	000s	per cent	000s	per cent	000s	per cent	000s	per cent
1983	887	(8.0)	17	(7.0)	310	(6.4)	78	(2.4)
1984	902	(8.2)	19	(6.4)	305	(6.3)	88	(2.4)
1985	936	(8.4)	19	(5.8)	350	(7.0)	84	(2.2)
1986	980	(8.9)	21	(6.0)	354	(7.1)	99	(2.5)
1987	992	(9.1)	26	(6.6)	365	(7.2)	104	(2.6)

* Men aged 16 to 64 and women aged 16 to 59.

† Based on respondents' own assessments of whether they worked full-time or part-time, not whether they worked less than 30 or 30 hours or more each week.

() Figures in brackets give graduates as a percentage of relevant group total, for example, the 887,000 full-time male graduate employees make up 8.0 per cent of all full-time male employees in 1983.

Source: LFS estimates

Table 12 Changes in graduates of working age* in 'managerial and professional' broad occupation group between 1983 and 1987

	Great Britain, Spring estimates							
	Males				Females			
	1983		1987		1983		1987	
	Thousands in employment	Per cent of all in employment	Thousands in employment	Per cent of all in employment	Thousands in employment	Per cent of all in employment	Thousands in employment	Per cent of all in employment
Manufacturing†	167	17.5	179	17.7	18	14.2	32	20.4
Services**	680	25.5	787	26.2	340	17.3	400	16.9
Total	928	22.2	1,060	23.0	363	16.9	439	16.9

* Men aged 16 to 64 and women aged 16 to 59.

† Industry divisions 2 to 4.

** Industry divisions 6 to 9.

Source: LFS estimates

Table 13 Unemployment rates† by age and sex for people of working age*

Great Britain, Spring 1987

Age	Graduates			All		
	Males per cent	Females per cent	Total per cent	Males per cent	Females per cent	Total per cent
GB Labour Force definition**						
16-24	9.9	6.4	8.5	16.3	13.7	15.2
25-34	3.8	7.0	4.9	11.0	12.0	11.4
35-44	2.2	4.5	2.9	7.6	7.3	7.5
45-54	2.9	3.3	3.0	8.7	6.5	7.7
55-59	6.8	5.6	6.5	11.1	6.0	9.0
60-64	1.9	—	1.9	10.3	—	10.3
All	3.8	5.7	4.4	10.9	9.8	10.4
ILO/OECD definition‡						
16-24	9.4	5.6	7.9	16.5	14.8	15.7
25-34	3.8	6.8	4.9	11.2	13.2	12.0
35-44	2.0	4.9	2.9	7.7	7.5	7.6
45-54	3.2	3.2	3.2	8.5	6.6	7.7
55-59	6.1	7.5	6.4	10.9	6.6	9.2
60-64	1.9	—	1.9	11.4	—	11.4
All	3.7	5.6	4.3	11.0	10.4	10.8

Source: 1987 LFS estimates

* Men aged 16 to 64 and women aged 16 to 59.
 † Unemployment as a percentage of all economically active graduates and the total economically active population of working age.
 ** People without a job who were seeking work in the week of the survey, or who were prevented from seeking work by temporary sickness, or holiday, or who were waiting for the results of a job application or waiting to start a new job they had already obtained.
 ‡ People without a job who were available for work and had either looked for work at some time in the last four weeks or were waiting to start a job they had already obtained.

by the Department of Employment each month.¹

The pattern of unemployment rates by age and sex for graduates and the total economy active population in 1987 is summarised using both definitions in *table 13*². At the one decimal point level, rates calculated on the two separate bases are very close to each other. There is little practical difference between them.

Graduates clearly experience much lower levels of unemployment than the general population. Overall, on both the LFS and ILO/OECD definitions graduate unemployment rates are less than half of general levels, 4.4 per cent for graduates against 10.4 per cent generally in labour force terms. The differential is more marked among males, where the general rate approaches three times that for graduates (10.9 per cent compared with 3.8 per cent) than for females where general rates are rather less than twice the graduate rate (9.8 per cent against 5.7 per cent).

Among graduates, females experience significantly higher unemployment rates than males. On the labour force definition, the female graduate rate was 5.7 per cent against 3.8 per cent for males. In contrast, for the general labour force female unemployment rates were typically lower than those for males (9.8 per cent against 10.9 per cent on labour force definitions).

Unemployment rates for graduates and the general economically active population show some common features. In both cases rates decline with age to reach their minimum in the 35 to 54 age range and then increase thereafter.

The trend in graduate and overall unemployment by sex since 1983 is set out in *table 14*. Male graduate unemployment rates remained low throughout the period (the maximum—of 4.6 per cent in labour force terms—

was reached in the Spring of 1986). The general male unemployment rate fell to 10.9 per cent (in labour force terms) by 1987—the lowest figure recorded. However, even then the general male rate was nearly three times that for male graduates.

Among female graduates unemployment fell noticeably from 6.5 to 5.7 per cent between 1983 and 1987, in labour force terms, and from 7.2 per cent to 5.6 per cent under the ILO/OECD definition between 1984 and 1987. Throughout the study period female graduate unemployment stood at less than two-thirds of the overall female unemployment rate.

Graduate manpower utilisation

Clearly Britain's stock of just over 2 million graduates of working age was heavily utilised in 1987. Thus the scope for meeting any increased overall demand for graduate manpower from the existing stock is limited. However, this section examines the scope for increasing participation rates, moving part-time workers into full-time work, reducing unemployment, and increasing the effectiveness of the use of the existing stock of graduates.

Looking at participation, the constraint is that rates are already very high. Part of the reason for this is that labour force participation tends to rise with qualification levels so that at graduate level rates are at their highest. However, within these generally very high participation rates, there are some groups with lower rates and the scope for increasing the utilisation of graduates in these groups will be examined.

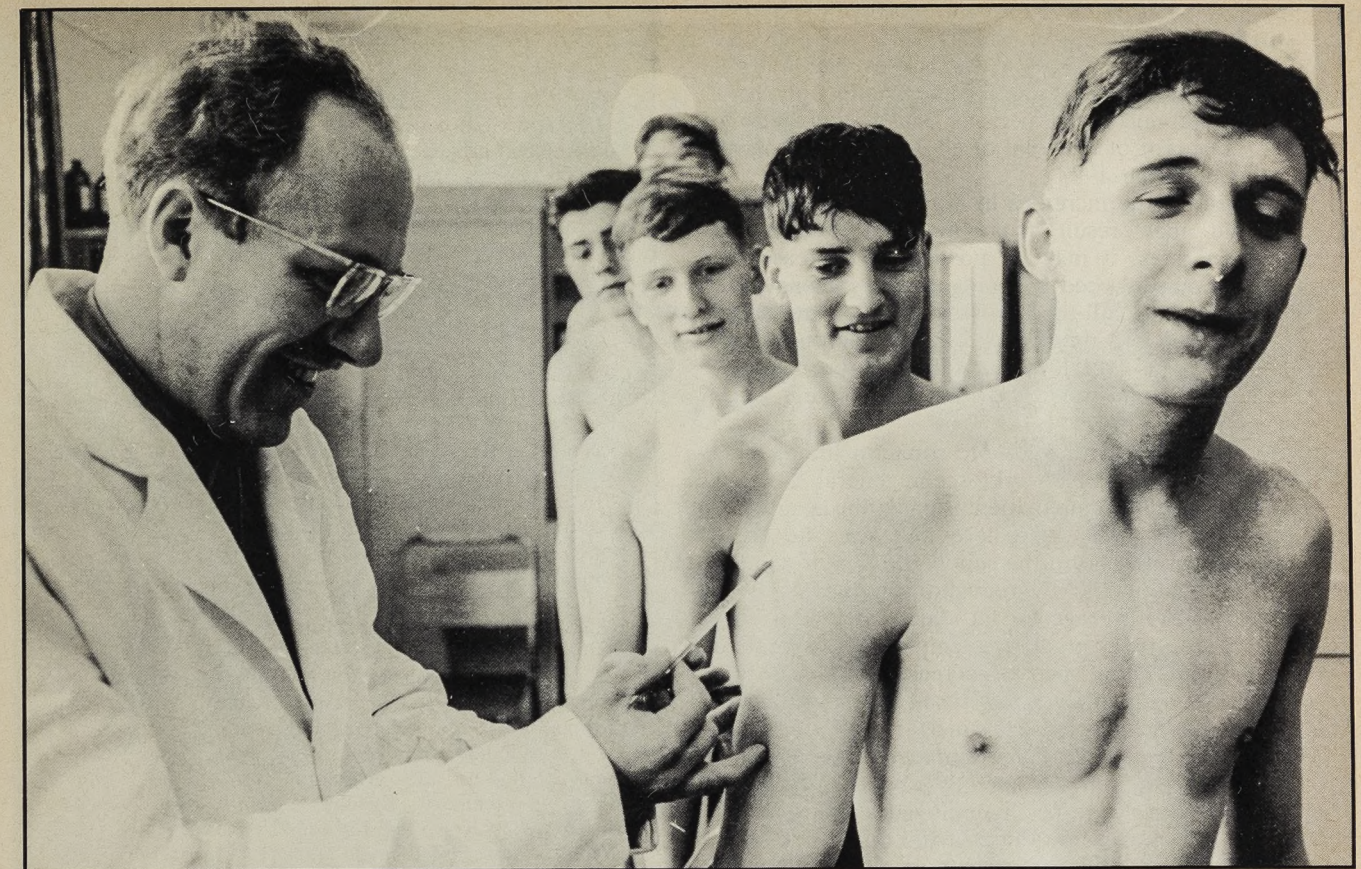
Among female graduates of prime working age, the only practical scope for increased participation is with married women, who accounted for over two-thirds of the female graduate population in 1987. But at 76.5 per cent, their participation rate is already over 10 per cent above that for all married women (65.9 per cent). Furthermore, married women alone comprise rather less than one-quarter (23.4 per cent) of all graduates.

However, if the participation rate of married women were to rise to that for non-married women, that is, from 76.5 to 89.9 per cent, there would be a modest impact on the overall number of economically active graduates. Each 1 per cent rise in the participation rate of married women raises the total number of economically active graduates by around 4,700. Thus the increase outlined above would raise the proportion of total economically active graduates (in Spring 1987) by about 3.5 per cent, equivalent to an increase of about 63,000 graduates.³

Another group with participation rates that are low, compared with the average for all female graduates, are females with pre-school age children (see *table 15*). However, for this group the participation rate already stands at almost 60 per cent, 15 per cent higher than the average for all females with pre-school age children.

To illustrate the impact of rising participation among female graduates with pre-school age children, each percentage rise in their participation rate adds around 1,000 to the total of economically active graduates (there are just over 100,000 women in total in this category). In the very unlikely event that participation among this group rose to the level for graduates without pre-school age children, then there would be about 1.5 per cent increase in the total economically active graduate population (in Spring 1987). This would increase the graduate labour force by around 27,000.

Another possibility is an improvement in the participation rates of persons during the last five years before conventional retirement age. At this point participation rates fall even for graduates, although they



Army doctor giving the jab

Photo: Rex Features Ltd

Table 14 Unemployment rates for people of working age†, 1983 to 1987

Great Britain, Spring estimates

Year Spring	GB labour force definition**				ILO/OECD definition‡			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Graduates per cent	All per cent	Graduates per cent	All per cent	Graduates per cent	All per cent	Graduates per cent	All per cent
1983	4.2	11.9	6.5	10.3	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
1984	3.6	11.6	6.5	10.8	3.6	11.9	7.2	11.8
1985	4.0	11.1	6.1	10.2	4.1	11.5	6.4	11.0
1986	4.6	11.2	5.9	10.1	4.8	11.5	5.7	10.8
1987	3.8	10.9	5.7	9.8	3.7	11.0	5.6	10.4

Source: LFS estimates

Percentages are based on estimates of the unemployed of working age as a proportion of the economically active population* of working age†.

* People who had a job or did some paid work in the reference week, or were looking for work.

† Men aged 16 to 64 and women aged 16 to 59.

** People without a job who were seeking work in the week of the survey, or who were prevented from seeking work by temporary sickness, or holiday, or who were waiting for the results of a job application or waiting to start a new job they had already obtained.

‡ People without a job who were available for work and had either looked for work at some time in the last four weeks or were waiting to start a job they had already obtained.

remain well above the overall figures (61.7 for male graduates aged 60 to 64 years against 54.5 per cent overall and 65.8 per cent for female graduates aged 55 to 59 years against 52.7 per cent for all females)—see *table 3*.

Within the graduate population aged 55 years and over, males are dominant accounting for almost 82 per cent of

the total graduate population. Male participation is clearly the key factor. However, the limited provision of higher education in the years immediately after World War Two is reflected by the fact that in 1987 the British population of working age included only 155,000 graduates aged over 55 years in total.

Table 15 Labour force participation by females with pre-school age children

Great Britain, Spring 1987

	All		With child under five years		Without child under five years (includes those with children aged five and over)	
	Working age population* thousands	Economic activity rate† per cent	Working age population* thousands	Economic activity rate† per cent	Working age population* thousands	Economic activity rate† per cent
Female graduates	699	80.9	108	59.4	591	84.8
All females	16,070	68.2	2,240	44.5	13,831	72.0

Source: 1987 LFS estimates

* Women aged 16 to 59.

† Proportions of people in these groups who were economically active (people who had a job, or did some paid work in the week before interview, or were looking for work in that week).

Even if, contrary to all historical trends, male graduate labour force participation in the 55 years and over age bands had risen to that for 45 to 54 year olds, that is 98 per cent, the total graduate labour force would only have increased by around 29,000 persons. This is equivalent to about 1.7 per cent of the total of all economically active graduates in Spring 1987.

In addition to the increases in the supply of graduate labour that may result from marginal changes in participation rates, it may be possible to increase the number of hours worked by graduates by moving part-time workers into full-time work. However the trend towards more part-time employment among both graduates and the overall labour force has been clearly established for some time, and it seems unlikely to be reversed.

In 1987 part-time work was more common among male graduates than in the male workforce in general, 11.7 per cent of male graduate employment is part-time against 6.5 per cent overall (table 9.) There may thus be some potential for an increase in the supply of hours through a shift to full-time work. A reduction in the share of part-timers to the average for all males would raise the number of full-time graduates employed by around 91,000. It is likely that such an increase would raise the supply of working hours by a significant amount although the exact numerical increase is unclear.

The share of female graduates employed on a full-time basis, at 59.2 per cent, is already above the overall average of 52.7 per cent for all employed females. Scope for further increases in the share of full-time work seem limited, especially in the dominant employee category where 61.3 per cent of female graduates are already working full-time.

Turning to the scope for reducing unemployment, it is inevitable and indeed necessary that there is some 'frictional' unemployment in a dynamic economy as individuals move between jobs. Unemployment among economically active graduates was at a relatively low level in the Spring of 1987 whichever definition is used. For males the rate was around 3.7 per cent which represented about 48,000 graduates. Among female graduates, the rate was rather higher at about 5.6 per cent, equivalent to around 39,000 people. Whether such unemployment rates can be attributed to purely frictional effects is a matter for debate. Evidence from graduate follow-up studies¹ does, however, suggest that frictional unemployment among graduates could be as low as 2 per cent. Thus after allowing for this frictional component, there may be some 45,000 or more graduates who could usefully be introduced into productive employment.

Conclusion

The patterns of labour force participation, working hours and unemployment among graduates in the late

¹ See footnote² on p 18.

Note on Labour Force Survey

The LFS was carried out biennially between 1973 and 1983, and annually thereafter.

LFS interviews cover a representative random sample of some 60,000 private households in Great Britain (about 120,000 persons aged 16 or over)—around one in every 350 households. The questionnaire used yields information on a wide range of demographic, economic/labour market characteristics. However, no data are collected on earnings.

Respondents are asked about qualifications held. For coding purposes individuals holding higher education qualifications at degree level are decided as follows:

- higher degree;
- first degree (including Bachelor of Education degrees);
- other degree level qualifications such as graduate membership or professional institute.

In this article the first two categories are simply grouped together as 'graduates with first degrees (or above)'. The Spring 1987 survey yields information from about 7,000 graduates of working age, representing a grossed up figure of just over 2 million people. This sample size allows reliable estimates to be made for graduates' participation in most labour market categories. However, in this article the usual convention is followed in that grossed up estimates of under 10,000 persons are not presented since they are subject to relatively high sampling errors.

Further details of the LFS survey and the qualifications question therein are given in "1987 Labour Force Survey—Preliminary Results", *Employment Gazette* March 1988 issue, pp 144-158 and "Economic Activity and Qualifications" *Employment Gazette* October 1988 issue, pp 549-563.

1980s indicate that the scope for meeting an increased overall demand for graduates from the existing 'stock' is limited. This underlines the importance of efficiently allocating the existing 'stock' of graduates across the economy. There are some areas where efficient redeployment of graduates is possible. For example, around 3.7 per cent of male graduates and 12.3 per cent of female graduates, amounting in total to almost 110,000 graduates, are employed in the comparatively low-skilled 'clerical and related (including secretarial)' occupations. A reduction of the female rate to a level equivalent to the male rate would release over 45,000 graduates into alternative more highly skilled employment. Since the 1970s, as graduate labour has become more abundant, various commentators have claimed to detect a 'trickle down' of graduates into jobs previously done by non-graduates. Subsequent increases in the demand for graduate labour could see a reversal of this process leading to a more efficient allocation of graduate labour. ■

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Special Feature



Irvine McCutcheon (foreground) with his team of workers at Cargo Pallets, Middlesbrough, a firm which has grown with the help of the Small Firms Service.

Identifying fast growth small firms

by Catherine Hakim

Social Science Branch, Department of Employment

It is often argued that government support for small business should be targeted at those with the best growth prospects. This article looks at the incidence and characteristics of fast growth firms and shows why a selective policy is unworkable.

Substantial sums of public money, and other resources, are devoted to helping small firms. For example the Enterprise Allowance Scheme helps unemployed people to start their own business. The Small Firms Service provides advice, across the board, to small businesses with a view to helping them not only survive, but expand, in competitive markets. This is also an objective of

Local Enterprise Agencies, sponsored by private and public sector bodies.

It is often argued that this investment of the taxpayer's money in stimulating and supporting enterprise would be more fruitful, for example in terms of the number of extra jobs created, if it were targeted on the most successful firms. One proponent of this view is David Storey, who has

repeatedly argued for a *selective* small firms support policy (see for example Storey and Johnson, 1987; Storey and others, 1987).

This article looks at the incidence and characteristics of fast-growth small firms with a view to assessing the *feasibility* of a policy of selective support. The *desirability* of a selective policy—in economic, social or political terms—is not addressed. If a selective policy is in any event unworkable, not feasible for practical reasons, then arguments of principle have no practical policy implications.

Although a variety of evidence is brought to bear on the question, the main source of information is a survey of small firms that is widely used in the private sector but has until now been under-utilised by public sector researchers. This is the MAS Business Line survey. All tables are from this source unless otherwise specified.

Defining small firms

As Curran pointed out recently, research on small firms is impeded by a number of technical problems. The two most significant are the absence of an agreed definition of the small firm and the lack of any sampling frame covering small firms (Curran, 1986, pp 7-11).

This means, in turn, that it is difficult to summarise research results on 'small firms'. Studies which appear to be talking about the same thing, but yield conflicting results, may actually be talking about firms of quite different size,

in different industries and different parts of the country, identified through very different mechanisms.

One of the most common, and misleading elisions is the practice of discussing research findings on *manufacturing* small firms as if they applied to small firms generally. In fact manufacturing firms are a minority group, however they are counted. Only one-quarter of *all employees* work in manufacturing firms, and the proportion rises to no more than 27 per cent among small firms with fewer than 50 employees (*table 1a*). The Workplace Industrial Relations Survey (WIRS) shows that about one-quarter of all *establishments* with 25 or more employees were in manufacturing industries in 1980 or one-third if construction firms are included (Hakim, 1985, p 22) and by 1984 private manufacturing establishments accounted for only one-fifth of the total (Millward and Stevens, 1986). So there is no reason to expect small manufacturing firms to be representative of all small firms, when they are outnumbered three to one by small firms in the service sector.

MAS Business Line survey

The MAS Business Line survey has the advantage of a well-defined sampling frame, although the definition of a small firm is a little rough and ready. It fully covers the service sector: only one-quarter of small firms in the survey are in manufacturing and construction.

Table 1a Distribution of employees by size of employing organisation

Table with 13 columns: Industry divisions (1980 SIC codes), All, Full-time, and sub-categories for sizes 10-24, 25-49, 50-199, Over 200, and All organisations. Data includes counts for various industry sectors.

Source: New Earnings Survey 1986, Part F, Table 187, p F96. Data for Great Britain, April 1986, for employees (full-time and part-time).

Notes: * includes all public sector. † includes returns for employees where size of organisation was not stated.

Table 1b Percentage of employees in each size band by industry division

Table with 7 columns: Industry divisions (1980 SIC code), Under 10, 10-24, 25-49, 50-199, Over 200, All (Base = 100%). Shows percentages of employees within different size bands.

Source: New Earnings Survey 1986, Part F, Table 187, p F96. Data for Great Britain, April 1986, for employees (full-time and part-time).

Notes: * includes all public sector. † includes returns for employees where size of organisation was not stated.

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

Unemployment and vacancies: 01-273 5599 (Ansafone Service). Retail Prices Index: 0923 228500 ext. 456 (Ansafone Service). Tourism: 01-273 5507. Employment and hours: 0928 715151 ext. 2570 (Ansafone Service). Average Earnings Index: 0923 228500 ext. 408 or 412.

Trends in labour statistics

Summary

The workforce in employment is estimated to have grown by 41,000 during the second quarter of 1988, giving a rise of 438,000 for the year to June. As in previous quarters the latest rise is mainly accounted for by further growth in the service sector. Third quarter figures for manufacturing employment suggest that the trend is still downwards, although at a slower rate than in previous years.

Seasonally adjusted unemployment fell by a further 49,000 between October and November, making the continuous reduction since July 1986 more than 1 million. The unemployment rate now stands at 7.5 per cent, the lowest for well over seven years.

The underlying increase in average earnings in the year to October 1988 was 9 per cent (provisional estimate). This is a reduction of 1/4 percentage point on

the rate of increase for the year to September.

Latest productivity figures for the whole economy show that output per head in the second quarter of 1988 was just under 4 per cent higher than in the corresponding quarter of 1987.

The annual rate of price inflation was 6.4 per cent in November, the same as that recorded for October. Final effects of the October increase in mortgage interest rates were included in the November figure.

It is provisionally estimated that 3.7 million working days were lost through stoppages of work due to industrial disputes in the year to October 1988. This compares with 3.6 million days lost in the previous 12-month period, and an annual average of 10.6 million days for the 10-year period to October 1987.

Overseas residents made an estimated 1,590,000 visits to the United Kingdom in September 1988, 6 per cent more than in September 1987. Also in

September 1988 UK residents made around 3,850,000 visits abroad, 11 per cent more than in September 1987.

Economic background

The latest output figures for the production sector show further strong growth. *Output of the production industries* in the three months to October 1988 is provisionally estimated to have been 1/2 per cent higher than in the previous three months and 3 per cent higher than in the corresponding period a year earlier. *Manufacturing output* in the three months to October was 2 1/2 per cent higher than in the previous three months and 7 per cent higher than in the same period a year earlier. Between the two latest three-month periods there were increases of 4 per cent in the

output of the chemicals industry, 3 per cent in the output of the engineering and allied industries, and 2 per cent in the output of the metals industry, other minerals and 'other manufacturing' industries. The output of food, drink, and tobacco increased by 1 per cent, while the output of textiles and clothing fell by 1 per cent. Output of the energy sector in the three months to October, which was affected by the loss of production from Piper Alpha and its associated fields, fell by 3 per cent compared with the previous three months, and was 5 per cent lower than in the same period a year earlier.

The provisional third quarter estimates of the three independent measures of GDP—Input, Expenditure and Output—show wide discrepancies. In particular, it is believed that the Expenditure measure is seriously underestimated. The growth in the average measure, GDP(A), between the second and third quarters has therefore been calculated, at constant prices, using the proportional growth in the Output based measure, which is usually the most reliable indicator of short-term changes. Calculated in this way, the average measure of GDP at constant factor costs is provisionally estimated to have been 3 1/2 per cent higher in the third quarter of 1988 than a year earlier.

The provisional estimate of the seasonally adjusted index of the volume of *retail sales* in November 1988 was 140.5 (1980 = 100). This is a little below October's figure but above the average for the third quarter. In the three months September to November, the level of sales was 1 per cent above that in the previous three months (after seasonal adjustment) and 5 1/2 per cent higher than in the corresponding period a year earlier.

Preliminary estimates show that *consumers' expenditure* in the third quarter of 1988 was £63.6 billion; at 1985 prices, about 2 per cent higher than in the previous quarter and more than 5 1/2 per cent higher than a year earlier.

Revised estimates of investment in the third quarter show a fall compared with the second quarter, but remain high. *Capital expenditure* by the manufacturing, construction, distribution, and financial industries (at 1985 prices and seasonally adjusted) was over 4 per cent lower in the third quarter of 1988 than in the preceding

quarter, but still almost 11 per cent higher than in the third quarter last year. Within the total, expenditure by manufacturing industry fell by nearly 3 per cent between the latest two quarters, but was almost 8 per cent higher than in the second quarter of 1987. Investment by the construction, distribution and financial industries was over 6 per cent lower than in the second quarter this year, but almost 12 1/2 per cent higher than in the third quarter last year.

Also in the third quarter, the level of *stocks held by UK manufacturers, wholesalers and retailers* (at 1985 prices and seasonally adjusted) is provisionally estimated to have fallen by about £20 million, following an increase of around £675 million in the previous quarter. Wholesalers and retailers increased their stocks by around £85 million and £35 million respectively, while manufacturers reduced their stocks by about £140 million. Retailers have now been stockbuilding for 14 successive quarters. Third quarter stocks estimates for other industries are not yet available.

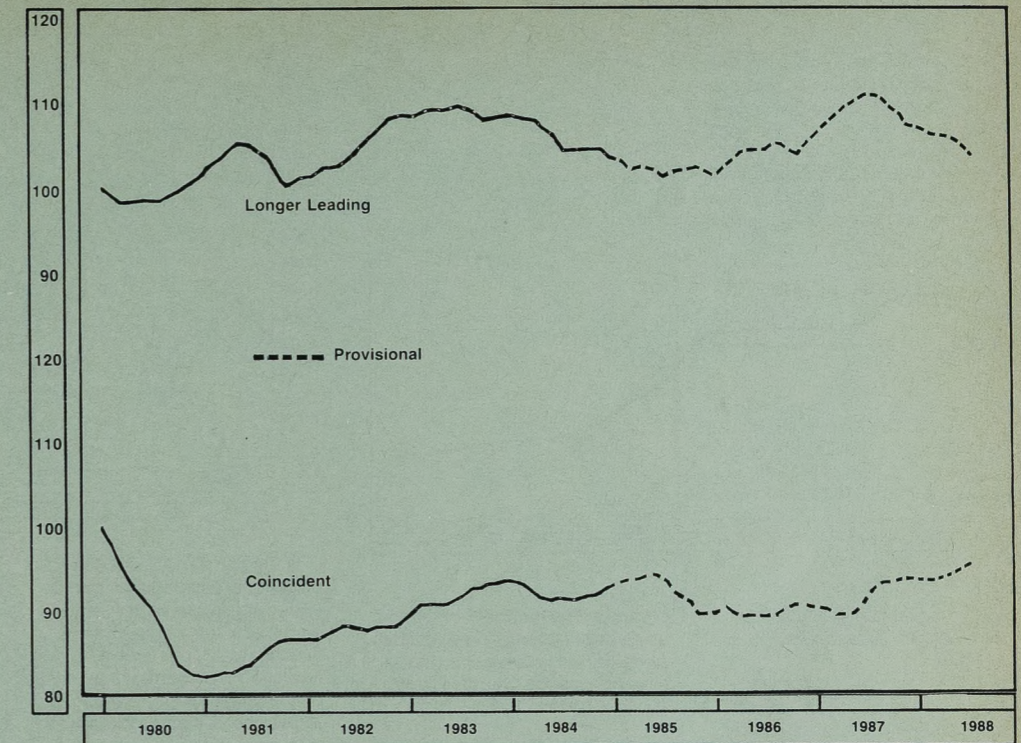
The *Public Sector Borrowing Requirement* (PSBR, not seasonally adjusted) in November is provisionally estimated to have been minus £0.2 billion (that is, a net repayment), bringing the total PSBR for the first eight months of the financial year 1988-89 to minus £6.2 billion. This compares with a PSBR of minus £0.8 billion in the first eight months of the previous financial year, 1987-88. There were no proceeds from privatisation in November. The PSBR excluding privatisation proceeds is provisionally estimated to have been minus £1.3 billion in the first eight months of 1988-89, compared with £4.2 billion in the same period of last year.

Sterling's effective exchange rate index (ERI) for November 1988 rose by 1 per cent to 77.1 (1975=100). The currency rose by over 4 per cent against the US dollar but fell by 1/2 per cent against the yen while the EMS currencies in total remained close to the October figure (similar for deutschemark). ERI was 2 1/2 per cent higher than in the same month a year ago; over the period sterling rose by 2 per cent against the dollar, and 6 1/2 per cent against the EMS currencies in total (a 6 per cent rise against the deutschemark), but fell by nearly 7 1/2 per cent against the yen.

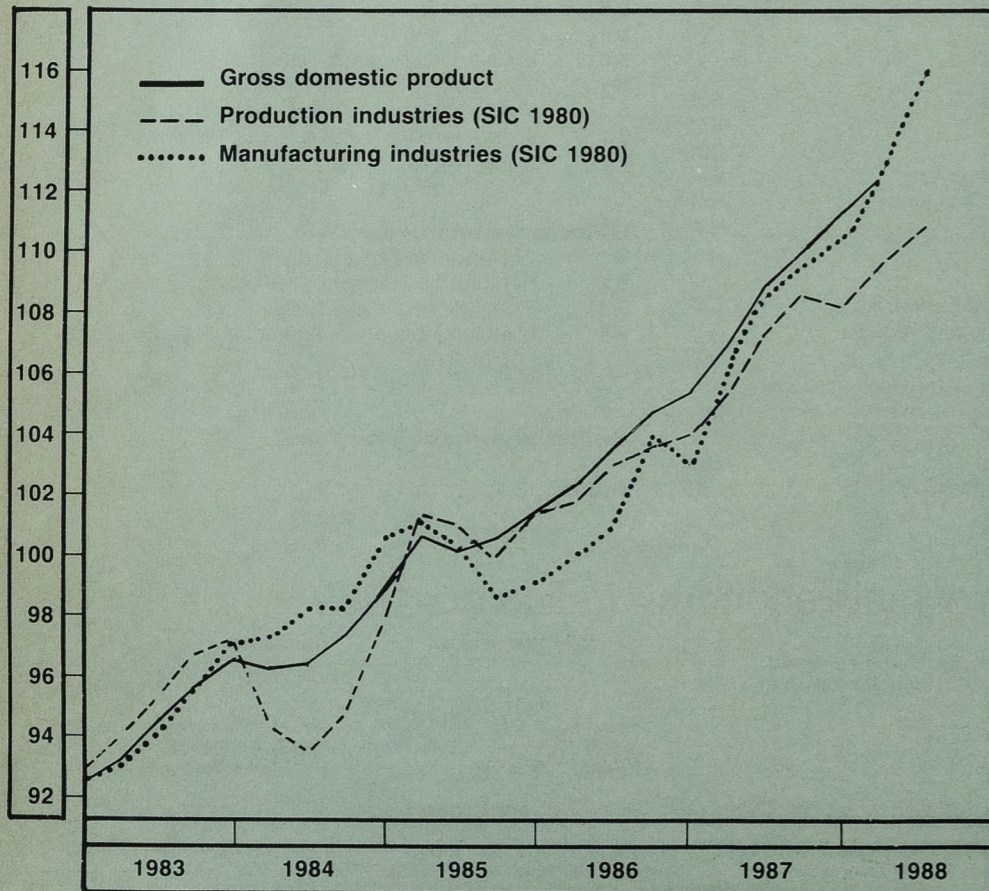
The *UK base lending rate* increased by 1 percentage point to 13 per cent on November 25, 1988. It was 9 per cent on February 1, 1988, fell to a trough of 7 1/2 per cent by May 17, and then increased to reach 12 per cent on August 25 before moving to its present level.

The current account of the *balance of payments* in the three months to October 1988 is estimated to have been in deficit by £4.4 billion, compared with a £4.5

CYCLICAL INDICATORS: Composite indices of indicator groups



OUTPUT INDICES



Seasonally adjusted (1980 = 100)

billion deficit in the previous three months. Visible trade in the same period was in deficit by £5.9 billion, following a £6.0 billion deficit in the previous three months. Over the period the surplus on trade in oil fell slightly, while the deficit on non-oil trade rose fell by £0.1 billion. The volume of exports fell by 1 per cent in the three months to October 1988, but was 2 per cent higher than in the corresponding period a year earlier. The volume of imports rose by 1 per cent in the three months to October 1988, and was 14 per cent higher than a year earlier.

Employment

The number of *employees in manufacturing industry* in Great Britain is estimated to have fallen by 7,000 in October 1988 following a fall of 18,000 in the third quarter of the year. The latest figures suggest that the trend is still downward. In the 12 months to October 1988 there was a fall of 50,000 compared with falls of 66,000 in the year to October 1987 and 162,000 in the year to October 1986.

The estimated number of employees in the energy and water industries fell by 5,000 in October to 442,000. This follows a fall of 3,000 in the third quarter and 37,000 in the year to October; the reduction is concentrated in the coal industry where employment fell by 24,000 in the year to October 1988.

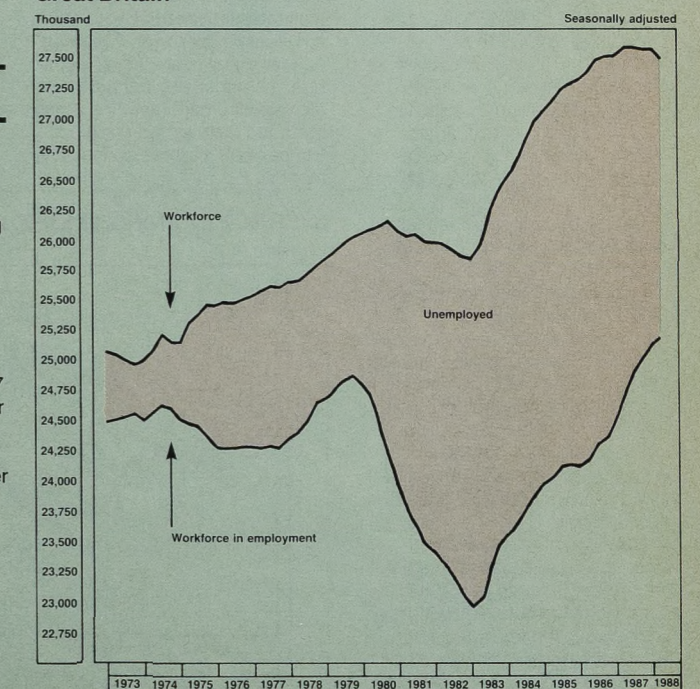
Estimates of the *workforce in*

employment—employees in employment, the self-employed, HM Forces and participants on work-related government training programmes—in Great Britain remain as reported in November. The workforce in employment is estimated to have increased by 41,000 in the second quarter of 1988, by 438,000 in the year to June 1988, and by 2,177,000 between March 1983 (when the upward trend began) and June 1988.

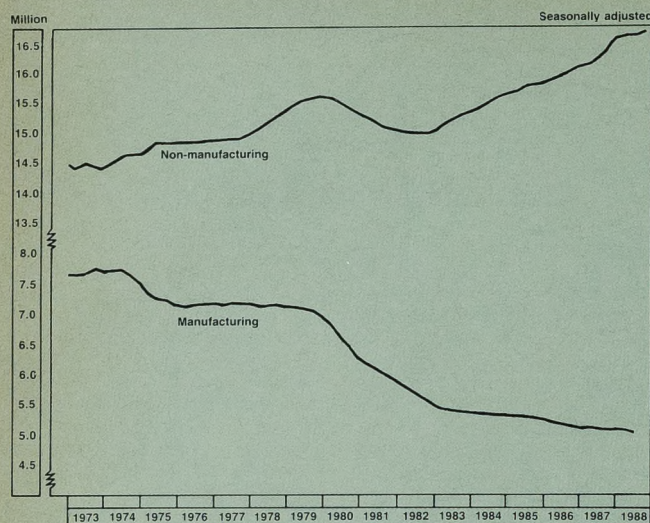
Overtime working by operatives in manufacturing industries was very high in October, with an estimated 15.00 million hours per week worked. This is the highest level recorded since December 1979; however, as monthly figures tend to be erratic it is too soon to say whether this represents a substantive increase in the level of overtime worked or is merely an erratic fluctuation.

Hours lost through *short-time working* in manufacturing

WORKFORCE AND WORKFORCE IN EMPLOYMENT: Great Britain



MANUFACTURING AND NON-MANUFACTURING EMPLOYEES IN EMPLOYMENT: Great Britain



industries remained low at 0.25 million hours per week lost in October.

The *Index of average weekly hours worked* by operatives in manufacturing industries (which takes account of overtime and short-time as well as normal basic hours) was estimated at 102.0 for October 1988. This gives an average over the three-month period ending October 1988 of 101.5 and compares with an average of 100.8 for the three months ending October 1987.

Unemployment and vacancies

The seasonally adjusted level of *unemployment* in the United Kingdom fell by 49,300 between October and November to 2,108,600, 7.5 per cent of the total workforce. The continuous fall over the 28 successive months since July 1986 has now exceeded 1 million (1,025,000). The fall has averaged nearly 43,000 per month over the past six months.

Unemployment has been falling in all regions. Over the 12 months to November the seasonally adjusted unemployment rate for the UK has fallen by 1.8 percentage points. The largest falls in the rate over this period, were in the West Midlands (2.3 percentage points), the North West (0.2 points) and Wales (1.9 points).

The *unadjusted total of unemployed claimants* in the UK fell by nearly 52,000 to 2,067,000 in November.

The stock of *vacancies at jobcentres* (seasonally adjusted) fell back by 6,300 to 244,900 in the month to November, following the sharp rise in the previous month. This was caused mainly by an increase in the outflow, including

placings. The number of newly-reported vacancies (inflow) remains fairly stable while the level of vacancies remains high.

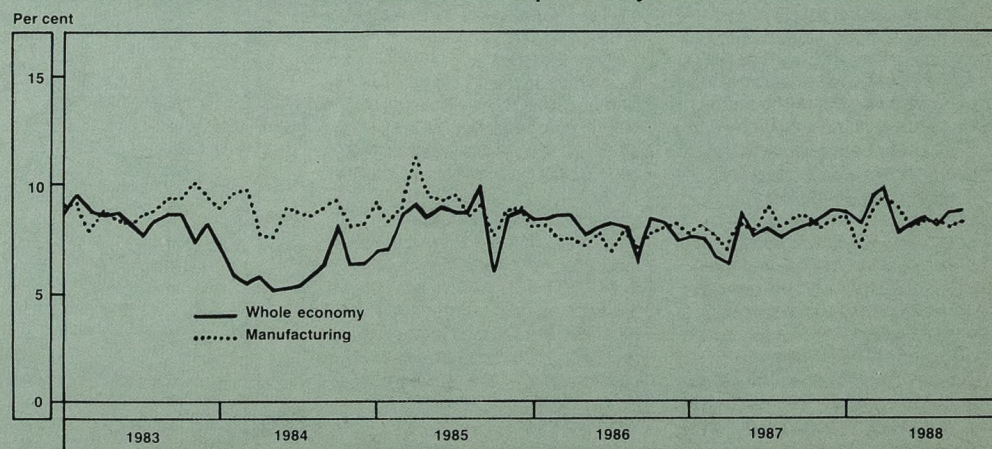
Average earnings

The provisional estimate of the underlying rate of increase in *average earnings* in the year to October 1988 was 9 per cent. This is $\frac{1}{4}$ percentage point lower than the underlying rate of increase for the year to September.

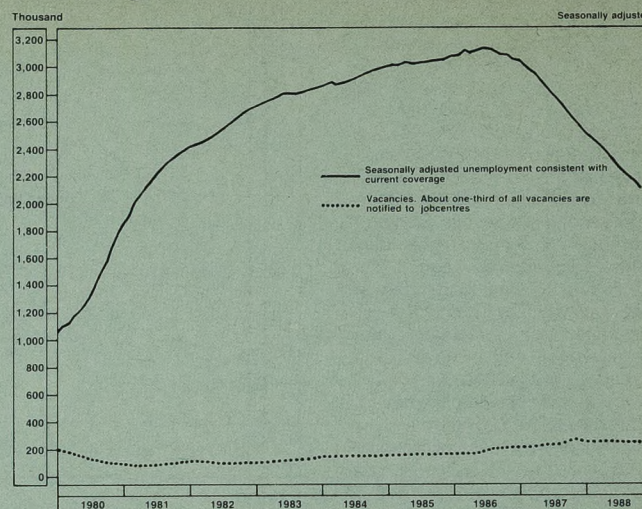
In the *production industries* the provisional underlying increase in average earnings in the year to October was $8\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, the same as the revised figure for the year to September.

Within this sector the underlying increase for manufacturing was also the same as the September figure, at $8\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. Following a downward revision to the August rate, the underlying annual rate of increase for manufacturing is now recorded to have been stable at $8\frac{3}{4}$ per cent for three consecutive months.

AVERAGE EARNINGS INDEX: Increases over the previous year



UNEMPLOYMENT AND VACANCIES: United Kingdom



In the *service industries* the provisional estimates for the underlying increase in average earnings in the 12 months to October was 9 per cent, a reduction of $\frac{1}{4}$ percentage point on the figure for the year to September. This reduction in the year on year rate of increase follows the end of the contribution to the current annual rate of the high 1987 pay settlements for local authority manual employees and teachers. The underlying rate of increase for both the service sector and the whole economy is currently well above the actual rate mainly because the underlying rate, takes fuller account of the nurses' pay settlement while the actual index includes only the 4 per cent paid to date.

The average earnings index series shown in *table 5-1* of this issue has been extended to give a complete run of figures back to 1980 on the 1985 = 100 basis. It is planned to include a similar run of figures back to 1980 for the average earnings index by industry (*table 5-3*) in the February 1989 issue of *Employment Gazette*.

The average level of *actual earnings in manufacturing* (seasonally adjusted) in the three months to October was $8\frac{1}{4}$ per

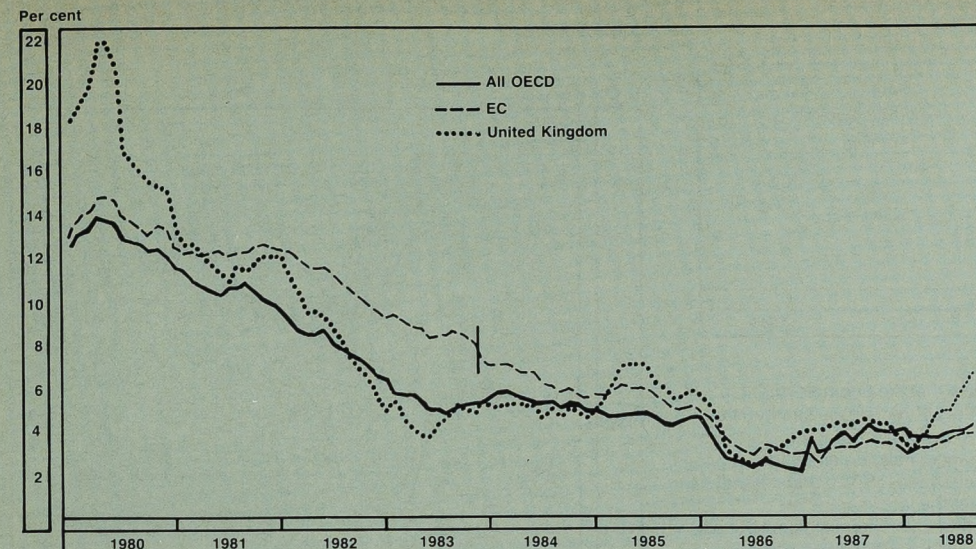
cent higher than the average for the same three months a year ago. Over this period there was an increase in manufacturing productivity of over $7\frac{1}{4}$ per cent; as a result wages and salaries per unit of output in manufacturing in the three months to October 1988 were about 1 per cent higher than a year earlier.

The latest *unit wage cost* figures for the whole economy for the second quarter of 1988, show an increase of 5 per cent over the second quarter of 1987. This is a little lower than the corresponding figure for the previous quarter, but 1 percentage point higher than the average rate of increase recorded during 1987. Wages and salaries per head rose by about 8 per cent in the year to the second quarter of 1988; this was offset by an increase in productivity for the whole economy of a little over 3 per cent.

Productivity

Latest productivity figures for the whole economy show that *output per head* in the second quarter of

CONSUMER PRICES INDICES: Increases over the previous year



1988 was just over 3 per cent higher than in the corresponding quarter of 1987. This improvement in productivity over the year is slightly lower than that recorded in the year to the previous quarter but still better than the average rate of increase for 1987 as a whole.

Since the first quarter of 1987 output growth in the manufacturing sector has been particularly rapid, and when combined with slowly declining employment, this has resulted in estimates of productivity showing growth of over 7 per cent for the year to the first quarter of 1988. Provisional figures for manufacturing output up to October 1988 suggest that the high rate of output growth has continued. At the same time a further fall in manufacturing employment has occurred so that good productivity growth has continued during 1988. Productivity in the three months to October 1988 is provisionally estimated to have been $7\frac{1}{4}$ per cent higher than for the same period of 1987. Although historically high, this is still below the $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent figures of mid-1987.

Prices

The *annual rate of inflation*, as measured by the 12-month change in the Index of Retail Prices, was 6.4 per cent for November, the same as that recorded for October. The overall level of prices was 0.5 per cent higher in November than in October, the same increase as occurred between the corresponding months last year (when there was a correction for the error discovered in the index). Final effects of the October increases in mortgage interest rates were included in the November figures, and there were

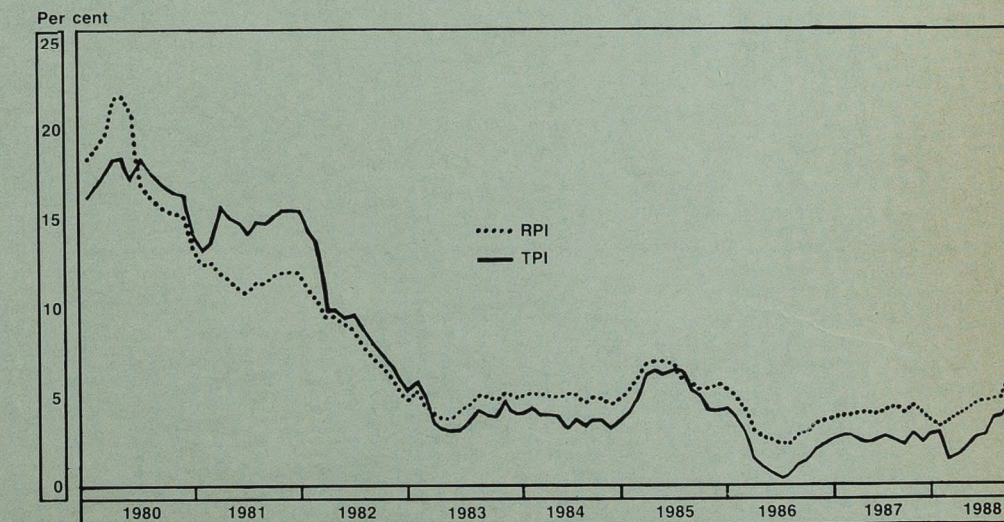
higher prices for some foods, and clothing and footwear.

The annual increase in the price index for home sales of manufactured products was 4.8 per cent in November; little change as compared with 4.7 per cent in October. This rate has been fairly stable — in the range $4\frac{3}{4}$ to 5 per cent — for the past five months.

Prices for materials and fuels purchased by manufacturing industry rose by $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent between October and November, mainly reflecting the first instalment of the normal winter increase in costs of industrial electricity (although fuel prices in total remained below their 1987 levels). The annual change in these input prices is now 4.1 per cent (much higher than the 2.5 per cent recorded for October), largely because of higher prices for metals and other materials.

The *tax and price index* increased by 4.4 per cent in the year to November compared with 4.5 per cent recorded for October.

RPI AND TPI: Increases over the previous year



During the 12 months to October 1988 a *provisional total* of 770 stoppages has been recorded as being in progress; this figure is expected to be revised upwards because of late notifications. The figure compares with 1,033 stoppages in the 12 months to October 1987 and an annual average in the ten-year period ending October 1987 of 1,492 stoppages in progress.

Overseas travel and tourism

It is provisionally estimated that overseas residents made 1,590,000 *trips to the UK* in September 1988, an increase of 6 per cent compared with September 1987. At 890,000, the number of visits from Western European residents was 21 per cent higher than in September last year. But the 350,000 visits from North American residents showed a fall of 7 per cent on the number in September a year ago. Also at 350,000 and lower than a year ago, the number of visits from the rest of the world was 9 per cent down on September 1987.

In the same month an estimated 3,850,000 *visits abroad* were made by UK residents, 11 per cent more than in September 1987. This total was made up of 260,000 trips to North America (26 per cent more than September 1987), 3,350,000 trips to Western Europe (10 per cent more than September 1987) and 240,000 trips to other areas (15 per cent more than September 1987).

Overseas residents spent an estimated £660 million in the UK in September 1988, while UK residents spent £1,130 million abroad. This resulted in an estimated deficit of £470 million on the *travel account of the balance of payments* for the month, compared with a deficit of £312 million in September 1987.

EMPLOYMENT 1.11

Overtime and short-time operatives in manufacturing industries

GREAT BRITAIN	OVERTIME					SHORT-TIME									
	Operatives (Thou)	Percentage of all operatives	Hours of overtime worked			Stood off for whole week		Working part of week			Stood off for whole or part of week				
			Average per operative working over-time	Actual (million)	Seasonally adjusted	Operatives (Thou)	Hours lost (Thou)	Operatives (Thou)	Hours lost (Thou)	Average per operative working part of the week	Operatives (Thou)	Percentage of all operatives	Hours lost		Average per operative on short-time
													Actual (Thou)	Seasonally adjusted	
1981	1,137	26.6	8.2	9.37		16	621	320	3,720	11.4	335	7.8	4,352	12.6	
1982	1,198	29.8	8.3	9.93		8	320	134	1,438	10.7	142	3.5	1,776	12.4	
1983	1,209	31.5	8.5	10.19		6	244	71	741	10.2	77	2.0	1,000	12.9	
1984	1,297	34.3	8.9	11.39		6	238	40	402	10.4	43	1.5	645	14.4	
1985	1,329	34.0	9.0	11.98		4	165	24	241	10.2	28	0.7	416	15.1	
1986	1,304	34.2	9.0	11.72		5	192	29	293	10.1	34	0.9	485	14.4	
1987	1,359	36.1	9.3	12.68		4	148	21	207	10.0	25	0.7	364	14.8	
Week ended															
1986 Oct 14	1,346	35.6	9.0	12.18	11.77	8	300	43	445	10.4	50	1.3	745	814	14.9
Nov 15	1,393	36.9	9.1	12.69	12.06	5	184	33	319	9.7	37	0.9	503	482	13.5
Dec 13	1,354	35.8	9.2	12.49	11.62	4	164	26	256	9.9	30	0.8	420	511	14.0
1987 Jan 10	1,136	30.6	8.6	9.75	11.47	11	423	28	281	9.9	39	1.0	704	568	18.1
Feb 14	1,305	35.1	9.3	11.97	12.09	4	172	34	341	10.0	38	1.0	514	417	13.4
Mar 14	1,354	36.3	9.2	12.44	12.27	3	109	35	339	9.8	37	1.0	448	357	12.0
Apr 11	1,329	35.8	9.2	12.25	12.44	4	103	29	273	9.5	33	0.9	435	406	13.3
May 16	1,353	36.4	9.3	12.65	12.38	3	129	23	229	10.1	26	0.7	358	369	13.9
June 13	1,396	37.2	9.3	12.97	12.68	3	129	14	132	9.4	17	0.5	262	306	15.2
July 11	1,334	35.3	9.4	12.54	12.49	4	172	16	153	9.9	20	0.5	325	355	16.4
Aug 15	1,268	33.5	9.4	11.88	12.70	3	116	15	124	8.4	18	0.5	240	281	13.6
Sept 12	1,377	36.0	9.5	13.09	12.96	2	89	12	104	8.7	14	0.4	193	236	13.6
Oct 10	1,468	38.4	9.7	14.10	13.66	3	117	15	140	9.5	18	0.5	264	287	14.5
Nov 14	1,516	39.6	9.5	14.24	13.58	3	105	15	245	15.9	18	0.5	395	376	19.5
Dec 12	1,476	38.6	9.7	14.32	13.42 R	3	106	14	118	8.5	17	0.4	224	276	13.5
1988 Jan 16	1,370	36.1	9.3	12.72	14.48	3	127	19	179	9.6	22	0.6	306	246	14.0
Feb 13	1,433	37.7	9.3	13.33	13.44	3	102	23	237	10.5	25	0.7	339	276	13.5
Mar 12	1,452	38.2	9.4	13.59	13.40	2	80	20	206	10.4	22	0.6	286	227	13.2
Apr 16	1,445	38.1	9.1	13.14	13.33	2	72	19	170	8.9	21	0.5	241	225	11.6
May 14	1,500	39.5	9.2	13.85	13.59	1	49	17	171	9.9	19	0.5	221	240	11.9
June 11	1,424	37.4	9.5	13.47	13.18	1	47	17	157	9.1	18	0.5	203	240	11.0
July 16	1,423	37.1	9.8	13.95	13.91	4	148	14	150	10.8	18	0.5	298	324	17.0
Aug 13	1,351	35.2	9.6	12.99	13.83	2	91	13	142	10.6	16	0.4	234	273	14.9
Sept 10	1,413	36.7	9.6	13.63	13.49	2	70	11	97	8.4	13	0.3	167	206	12.6
Oct 15	1,571	40.9	9.8	15.46	15.00	3	115	13	118	8.8	16	0.4	233	252	14.3

EMPLOYMENT 1.12

Hours of work—operatives in: manufacturing industries

Seasonally adjusted
1985 AVERAGE = 100

GREAT BRITAIN	INDEX OF TOTAL WEEKLY HOURS WORKED BY ALL OPERATIVES*					INDEX OF AVERAGE WEEKLY HOURS WORKED PER OPERATIVE				
	All manufacturing industries	Metal goods, engineering and shipbuilding 31-34, 37, Group 361	Motor vehicles and other transport equipment 35, 36 except Group 361	Textiles, leather, footwear, clothing	Food, drink, tobacco	All manufacturing industries	Metal goods, engineering and shipbuilding 31-34, 37, Group 361	Motor vehicles and other transport equipment 35, 36 except Group 361	Textiles, leather, footwear, clothing	Food, drink, tobacco
SIC 1980 classes	21-49			43-45	41, 42	21-49			43-45	41, 42
1981	107.6	107.8	115.9	103.7	113.2	95.6	94.4	93.6	96.2	98.5
1982	102.1	102.5	107.3	98.2	107.5	97.4	96.3	95.6	98.4	99.0
1983	99.7	99.5	103.3	98.6	104.9	98.3	97.3	97.6	100.0	99.7
1984	100.5	101.7	98.4	100.5	101.2	99.5	98.8	99.0	100.2	99.7
1985	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1986	96.7	94.8	91.9	98.5	99.2	99.9	99.1	98.7	99.1	99.5
1987	96.5	93.7	89.5	96.9	97.7	100.5	101.1	101.1	99.9	99.5
Week ended										
1986 Mar 8	98.0	96.6	96.6	100.1	101.5	99.9	99.4	99.4	99.5	99.8
June 14	96.3	94.5	92.7	99.1	100.1	99.4	98.8	98.0	98.9	99.2
July 12	96.2					99.6				
Aug 16	95.9					99.7				
Sept 13	95.7					99.6				
Oct 11	95.3	94.3	89.4	97.4	97.5	99.4	98.6	98.3	98.7	99.4
Nov 15	95.5					99.7				
Dec 13	95.5	93.9	88.7	97.3	97.8	99.7	99.5	99.1	99.1	99.5
1987 Jan 10	94.9					99.6				
Feb 14	95.5					100.0				
Mar 14	95.7	93.0	89.2	97.0	98.6	100.2	100.2	100.4	99.6	99.3
Apr 11	95.7					100.3				
May 16	95.9					100.2				
June 13	96.3	93.4	89.2	97.5	97.6	100.5	100.8	101.0	99.8	99.5
July 11	96.1					100.4				
Aug 15	96.3					100.6				
Sept 12	96.5	93.7	89.7	97.0	97.3	100.7	101.1	101.2	100.0	99.9
Oct 10	99.5					101.1				
Nov 14	99.3					101.0				
Dec 12	96.8	94.6	89.9	96.1	97.3	101.2	102.4	101.9	100.1	99.4
1988 Jan 16	97.5					101.7				
Feb 13	96.8					101.1				
Mar 12	96.8	94.0	88.4	96.2	97.4	101.2	102.3	101.9	99.9	99.1
Apr 16	96.4					101.0				
May 14	96.5					101.2				
June 11	96.1	92.9	87.6	94.0	97.8	100.9	101.8	102.1	99.0	99.5
July 16	96.8 R					101.3				
Aug 13	96.9 R					101.3				
Sept 10	96.5	93.5	86.7	93.7	96.0	101.1	101.8	101.8	99.7	99.7
Oct 15	100.0					102.0				

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
MALE AND FEMALE														
1987														
Nov 12	907	740	19	86	137	81	160	244	72	90	250	2,046	—	2,046
Dec 10	785	663	25	78	139	64	110	202	68	72	195	1,738	—	1,738
1988														
Jan 14	578	463	23	91	118	79	94	173	68	374	185	1,783	—	1,783
Feb 11	546	440	26	85	116	74	76	163	68	55	174	1,383	—	1,383
Mar 10	508	410	32	89	126	76	80	176	75	54	175	1,391	—	1,391
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

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	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-59	60 and over	All ages †
MALE AND FEMALE								
1985								
Oct	22.6	17.3	12.2	7.5	8.4	13.5	5.1	11.8
1986								
Jan	23.5	18.1	12.7	7.9	9.0	14.2	5.5	12.2
Apr*	21.6	17.2	12.5	7.9	8.9	14.3	5.4	11.9
July	20.9	17.8	12.2	7.7	8.8	14.0	5.4	11.7
Oct	20.8	16.6	12.1	7.6	8.8	14.1	5.5	11.6
1987								
Jan	22.0	16.8	12.3	7.8	9.1	14.7	5.6	11.7
Apr	20.0	15.7	11.7	7.5	8.8	14.4	5.3	11.0
July	18.3	15.3	10.8	7.0	8.3	13.6	4.8	10.3
Oct	17.7	13.6	10.1	6.6	8.0	13.3	4.4	9.8
1988								
Jan	17.0	13.6	10.2	6.6	7.9	13.1	4.1	9.7
Apr	14.9	12.4	9.6	6.3	7.5	12.6	3.7	9.0
July	13.5	12.0	8.7	5.7	6.9	11.7	3.3	8.2
Oct	13.1	10.7	8.2	5.3	6.6	11.5	3.3	7.5
MALE								
1985								
Oct	24.2	19.0	13.2	9.6	10.5	16.5	7.1	13.5
1986								
Jan	25.6	20.3	14.0	10.3	11.4	17.5	7.7	14.2
Apr*	23.6	19.4	13.7	10.2	11.2	17.6	7.6	13.8
July	22.5	19.6	13.3	9.8	11.0	17.2	7.5	13.5
Oct	22.1	18.4	13.1	9.7	11.0	17.2	7.6	13.3
1987								
Jan	24.6	18.8	13.6	10.2	11.6	18.4	7.9	13.7
Apr	22.6	17.7	13.1	9.8	11.3	18.0	7.4	13.1
July	20.6	17.0	12.1	9.0	10.5	16.9	6.6	12.1
Oct	19.7	15.3	11.4	8.5	10.1	16.6	6.1	11.5
1988								
Jan	19.1	15.4	11.6	8.6	10.0	16.3	5.7	11.4
Apr	16.9	14.1	10.9	8.1	9.5	15.6	5.2	10.7
July	15.3	13.4	9.8	7.3	8.7	14.4	4.6	9.7
Oct	14.8	12.2	9.3	6.9	8.3	14.3	4.5	9.0
FEMALE								
1985								
Oct	20.7	14.9	10.5	4.5	5.6	8.7	0.3	9.3
1986								
Jan	21.2	15.2	10.5	4.6	5.7	9.0	0.3	9.3
Apr*	19.3	14.4	10.4	4.6	5.8	9.1	0.2	9.0
July	19.1	15.4	10.4	4.7	5.8	9.1	0.3	9.1
Oct	19.3	14.2	10.4	4.7	5.8	9.3	0.3	9.1
1987								
Jan	19.1	14.1	10.1	4.6	5.9	9.3	0.3	8.8
Apr	17.1	13.0	9.4	4.4	5.7	9.1	0.3	8.1
July	15.7	13.0	8.6	4.2	5.4	8.6	0.3	7.7
Oct	15.5	11.3	8.0	3.9	5.2	8.5	0.3	7.3
1988								
Jan	14.6	11.2	8.0	3.9	5.1	8.3	0.2	7.1
Apr	12.8	10.1	7.5	3.7	5.0	8.1	0.3	6.6
July	11.6	10.1	6.9	3.5	4.7	7.6	0.3	6.2
Oct	11.3	8.7	6.4	3.2	4.4	7.4	0.2	5.4

* See footnotes to tables 2.1 and 2.2.

† 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 approximate mid-year estimates of the workforce in the corresponding age groups, and are 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 under 20 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
MALE AND FEMALE														
1987														
Nov 12	75	40	49	32	172	564	369	284	195	243	1,849	3,832	869	4,701
Dec 10	66	49	39	27	185	262	541	241	187	199	1,598	3,345	967	4,312
1988														
Jan 14	88	40	172	37	346	436	568	437	403	245	2,626	5,358	1,154	6,512
Feb 11	138	100	143	118	792	652	586	512	722	310	2,874	6,847	1,572	8,419
Mar 10	147	96	52	45	667	709	1,294	537	289	432	2,278	6,450	1,405	7,855
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

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

2.18 UNEMPLOYMENT Selected countries

THOUSAND											
	United Kingdom*	Australia §§	Austria †	Belgium ‡	Canada §§	Denmark †	Finland ††	France †	Germany † (FR)	Greece**	
NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) NOT SEASONALLY ADJUSTED											
Monthly											
1987	Nov	2,686	567	166	417	1,024	215	117	2,670	2,133	110
	Dec	2,696	620	201	422	1,025	220	124	2,677	2,308	137
1988	Jan	2,722	645	227	432	1,161	264	151	2,689	2,519	147
	Feb	2,665	643	215	428	1,126	259	128	2,635	2,517	143
	Mar	2,592	642	188	419	1,181	261	131	2,548	2,401	133
	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	2,633	2,100	83
	Oct	2,119	377	963	2,074	90
	Nov	2,067	2,190	..
Percentage rate: latest month											
latest month: change on a year ago											
		7.3	7.1	4.2	13.7	7.2	8.3	3.9	10.5	7.7	4.7
		-2.2	-0.7	N/C	-1.7	-0.4	+1.0	-0.3	-0.3	+0.2	N/C
NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) SEASONALLY ADJUSTED											
Annual averages											
1984		2,921	642	130	512	1,397	270	159	2,309	2,265	71
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	..
Monthly											
1987	Nov	2,604	619	159	425	1,081	217	117	2,546	2,242	..
	Dec	2,569	610	174	421	1,070	217	123	2,573	2,258	..
1988	Jan	2,519	615	168	414	1,072	218	139	2,578	2,224	..
	Feb	2,485	584	157	412	1,046	219	119	2,582	2,230	..
	Mar	2,454	588	162	409	1,036	217	126	2,535	2,247	..
	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	114	2,578	2,268	..
	July	2,267	541	152	404	1,057	240	112	2,614	2,265	..
	Aug	2,226	560	159	400	1,069	244	111	2,610	2,249	..
	Sept	2,192	559	159	388	1,048	2,556	2,242	..
	Oct	2,160	381	1,061	2,231	..
	Nov	2,109	2,211	..
Percentage rate: latest month											
latest three months: change on previous three months											
		7.5	7.1	5.4	13.9	7.9	8.8	4.3	10.2	7.8	..
		-0.4	-0.6	-0.1	-0.4	+0.2	+0.3	-0.4	N/C	-0.1	..
OECD STANDARDISED RATES: SEASONALLY ADJUSTED (2)											
Latest month											
		Aug	Sep	..	Sep	..	Sep	..	Sep
	Per cent	8.0	6.9	..	10.1	7.8	..	4.4	10.3	6.2	..

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

UNEMPLOYMENT 2.18 Selected countries

THOUSAND											
	Irish Republic**	Italy ††	Japan§	Luxembourg †	Netherlands †	Norway †	Portugal †	Spain**	Sweden §§	Switzerland †	United States §§
NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) NOT SEASONALLY ADJUSTED											
Monthly											
1987	Nov	241	3,325	1,560	2.8	680	31	301	2,998	76	21.0
	Dec	250	3,447	1,500	2.9	697	31	310	3,024	71	22.4
1988	Jan	252	3,531	1,680	3.0	700	43	323	3,069	95	24.2
	Feb	251	3,640	1,730	3.0	701	43	326	3,042	71	23.2
	Mar	247	3,635	1,800	2.7	687	43	321	2,996	78	22.0
	Apr	242	3,624	1,660	2.5	664	43	313	2,940	70	21.1
	May	236	3,638	1,560	2.3	647	38	306	2,878	66	19.8
	June	238	3,762	1,440	2.2	674	42	297	2,824	58	18.6
	July	242	3,850	1,480	2.3	686	45	294	2,776	77	18.3
	Aug	243	3,870	1,570	2.2	692	53	291	2,745	80	17.5
	Sept	236	3,868	1,510	2.4	688	54	291	2,743	78	..
	Oct	233	678	74	..
	Nov	234
Percentage rate: latest month											
latest month: change on a year ago											
		18.1	16.7	2.4	1.5	13.9	3.9	6.8	18.8	1.7	0.7
		-0.6	+2.4	-0.3	-0.2	+0.8	+1.7	+0.2	-1.1	N/C	N/C
NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED, NATIONAL DEFINITIONS (1) SEASONALLY ADJUSTED											
Annual averages											
1984		214	2,955	1,613	..	823	67	..	2,477	136	32.1
1985		231	2,959	1,566	..	762	52	..	2,643	124	27.0
1986		236	3,173	1,667	..	712	36	..	2,759	98	22.8
1987		247	3,294	1,731	..	686	32	319	2,924	84	..
Monthly											
1987	Nov	245	3,335	1,640	..	682	34	294	2,965	82	..
	Dec	245	3,414	1,620	..	685	30	301	2,980	71	..
1988	Jan	243	3,422	1,660	..	680	36	306	2,981	81	..
	Feb	245	3,493	1,660	..	683	36	307	2,957	72	..
	Mar	243	3,528	1,620	..	684	40	306	2,936	78	..
	Apr	241	3,603	1,570	..	683	43	303	2,916	78	..
	May	240	3,641	1,540	..	679	46	303	2,918	82	..
	June	240	3,760	1,450	..	695	48	302	2,911	71	..
	July	244	3,893	1,550	..	680	48	302	2,887	80	..
	Aug	242	3,955	682	50	302	2,863	64	..
	Sept	241	3,922	683	56	302	2,817	62	..
	Oct	241	679	77	..
	Nov	239
Percentage rate: latest month											
latest three months: change on previous three months											
		18.4	16.9	2.5	..	13.9	4.0	7.0	19.2	1.8	..
		-0.1	+1.1	-0.2	..	-0.1	+0.4	N/C	-0.4	-0.3	..
OECD STANDARDISED RATES: SEASONALLY ADJUSTED (2)											
Latest month											
		Sep	..	Sep	May	May	May	Sep	Sep
	Per cent	2.5	..	9.5	3.2	6.1	19.5	1.5	5.3

† Numbers registered at employment offices. Rates are calculated as percentages of total employees.
 ** Numbers registered at employment offices. Rates are calculated as percentages of civilian labour force, except Greece, which excludes civil servants, professional people, and farmers.
 † 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		INFLOW†						
Month ending		Male and Female		Male		Female		
		All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	Married
1987	Nov 12	375.3	-39.9	241.1	-25.7	134.2	-14.2	52.0
	Dec 10	328.6	-28.0	217.6	-18.0	111.0	-10.0	44.8
1988	Jan 14	344.4	-24.3	214.7	-16.8	129.7	-7.4	52.4
	Feb 11	345.2	-53.6	220.5	-42.7	124.6	-11.1	51.0
	Mar 10	313.0	-29.1	202.5	-18.5	110.5	-10.6	47.0
	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	
UNITED KINGDOM		OUTFLOW†						
Month ending		Male and Female		Male		Female		
		All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	All	Change since previous year	Married
1987	Nov 12	432.3	-0.6	273.8	7.3	158.5	-7.9	61.8
	Dec 10	317.5	-25.7	203.6	-8.8	113.9	-16.9	42.7
1988	Jan 14	321.5	26.6	202.6	26.2	119.0	0.5	49.8
	Feb 11	406.6	-54.2	264.5	-32.0	142.1	-22.1	57.9
	Mar 10	392.5	-38.9	255.6	-22.7	136.9	-16.2	55.7
	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	

* 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 4 1/3 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		Age group										
Month ending		Under 18	18-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-44	45-54	55-59	60 and over	All ages	
MALE	1988 May 12	13.1	18.1	41.0	25.9	17.5	26.0	18.9	8.9	5.8	175.1	
	June 9	11.4	18.6	41.8	25.8	17.2	25.3	18.1	8.3	5.5	171.9	
	July 14	11.2	24.1	67.4	29.6	18.0	26.0	18.0	8.6	5.6	208.5	
	Aug 11	10.2	22.1	52.3	28.1	17.7	25.9	18.3	8.8	5.5	188.9	
	Sept 8**	8.4	26.7	53.3	29.9	19.1	28.2	20.9	11.0	6.2	203.6	
	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	
	FEMALE	1988 May 12	9.4	11.4	23.6	15.0	8.6	12.6	9.1	3.1	—	92.7
	June 9	8.0	12.0	23.8	14.8	8.3	12.8	8.6	2.7	—	91.1	
	July 14	8.5	17.8	46.0	17.5	9.7	14.9	9.4	3.0	—	126.8	
Aug 11	7.7	15.8	33.8	16.7	9.9	15.7	10.1	3.2	—	112.8		
Sept 8**	6.1	20.0	31.6	16.8	9.6	14.6	10.2	3.7	—	112.6		
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		
Changes on a year earlier												
MALE	1988 May 12	-7.7	-2.1	-3.9	-1.7	-1.5	-2.8	-1.6	-0.8	-1.1	-23.3	
	June 9	-3.2	-3.5	-6.0	-2.3	-1.5	-2.9	-1.8	-1.1	-1.2	-23.3	
	July 14	-4.1	-6.5	-15.9	-4.3	-3.4	-5.4	-3.7	-2.1	-1.9	-47.4	
	Aug 11	-4.2	-5.7	-13.0	-5.1	-3.5	-5.0	-3.2	-1.5	-1.4	-42.7	
	Sept 8**	-34.5	-13.9	-8.8	-3.2	-2.3	-3.2	-1.6	-0.4	-0.6	-68.5	
	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	
	FEMALE	1988 May 12	-5.3	-1.9	-3.9	-3.1	-1.9	-2.5	-0.5	+0.1	—	-19.1
	June 9	-2.4	-2.7	-5.2	-2.9	-1.8	-1.6	-0.4	-0.4	—	-17.8	
	July 14	-3.3	-5.8	-12.9	-3.7	-2.3	-2.8	-1.0	-0.5	—	-32.3	
Aug 11	-3.0	-4.4	-10.6	-4.7	-2.3	-2.9	-1.0	-0.4	—	-29.3		
Sept 8**	-25.1	-13.3	-7.5	-3.6	-2.3	-2.6	-0.5	-0.3	—	-55.2		
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		

OUTFLOW		Age group										
Month ending		Under 18	18-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-44	45-54 †	55-59 †	60 and over †	All ages	
MALE	1988 May 12	13.2	22.3	55.2	35.2	23.9	36.5	23.8	9.8	8.4	228.2	
	June 9	11.7	21.1	52.4	33.8	22.9	35.1	23.0	9.2	7.6	216.7	
	July 14	11.3	21.2	53.2	32.6	22.1	33.6	21.7	8.3	7.0	211.0	
	Aug 11	9.9	20.2	54.5	30.5	20.3	30.9	20.3	7.9	6.7	201.4	
	Sept 8**	9.6	17.5	47.6	26.0	17.3	26.4	17.3	6.7	5.5	173.7	
	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	
	FEMALE	1988 May 12	9.7	15.9	32.3	20.4	11.9	16.5	10.9	3.4	0.1	120.9
	June 9	8.7	14.7	29.9	18.9	10.9	15.1	10.2	3.3	0.1	111.7	
	July 14	8.8	15.2	30.9	17.9	10.3	13.9	9.4	2.8	0.1	109.5	
Aug 11	7.8	15.0	34.8	18.0	9.9	13.6	9.1	2.9	0.1	111.2		
Sept 8**	7.5	13.2	32.2	15.4	9.4	14.9	9.2	2.6	0.1	104.6		
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		
Changes on a year earlier												
MALE	1988 May 12	—	-2.5	-2.8	-0.2	-0.2	-1.1	-0.8	-0.6	-1.4	-9.6	
	June 9	-1.3	-3.7	-5.1	-1.8	-1.6	-2.8	-1.5	-0.7	-1.8	-20.3	
	July 14	-2.5	-6.1	-8.9	-3.7	-2.6	-4.5	-2.7	-1.4	-2.3	-34.6	
	Aug 11	-2.5	-5.8	-10.2	-4.6	-2.9	-4.5	-2.7	-1.3	-2.4	-36.6	
	Sept 8**	-6.0	-10.7	-22.2	-10.3	-6.1	-8.7	-5.1	-2.4	-3.2	-74.9	
	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	
	FEMALE	1988 May 12	-0.3	-2.6	-5.1	-3.9	-2.2	-2.2	-0.3	-0.2	—	-17.0
	June 9	-1.3	-2.7	-4.8	-3.1	-1.7	-1.6	-0.2	-0.1	—	-15.3	
	July 14	-1.6	-4.5	-6.6	-5.0	-2.5	-2.2	-0.5	-0.5	—	-23.2	
Aug 11	-1.8	-4.3	-7.3	-3.8	-2.1	-2.0	-0.5	-0.3	—	-21.9		
Sept 8**	-3.9	-8.2	-17.7	-8.6	-5.1	-6.2	-3.0	-1.0	—	-53.8		
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		

* Flow figures are collected for four or five-week periods between count dates; the figures in the table are converted to a standard 4 1/3 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.

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

	South East	Greater London**	East Anglia	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	Yorkshire and Humber-side	North West	North	England	Wales	Scotland	Great Britain
1985	34,926	23,601	3,585	13,615	29,803	17,660	33,319	35,784	24,834	193,526	15,027	26,424	234,977
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
1987 Q3	3,101	1,669	443	3,488	2,620	1,524	3,017	5,277	2,982	22,452	1,182	4,838	28,472
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	5,368	5,781	5,131	3,612	27,169	2,289	3,158	32,616
1988 Q2 R	3,873	2,755	382	3,468	1,889	1,569	5,212	5,103	2,868	24,164	1,089	2,836	28,089
1988 Q3	3,083	1,310	306	2,429	886	1,213	2,013	4,017	2,901	16,848	1,450	3,582	21,880
1987 Nov	999	779	154	1,641	758	1,028	568	1,615	948	7,711	369	2,122	10,202
1987 Dec	1,355	714	301	715	760	791	1,103	1,728	1,015	7,768	571	1,513	9,852
1988 Jan R	929	535	135	548	675	1,208	1,140	1,233	1,200	7,148	577	841	8,566
1988 Feb R	906	577	378	593	378	1,516	1,128	1,694	1,011	7,604	359	1,370	9,333
1988 Mar R	1,418	795	53	798	466	2,644	3,513	2,204	1,321	12,417	1,353	947	14,717
1988 Apr R	1,594	1,101	179	1,134	677	1,123	2,461	1,778	827	9,773	639	899	11,311
1988 May R	1,067	771	143	1,556	436	243	1,705	1,364	1,131	7,645	184	864	8,693
1988 June R	1,212	883	60	778	628	203	1,046	1,961	910	6,798	266	1,073	8,137
1988 July	1,003	450	111	1,128	155	240	750	1,951	819	6,157	398	1,467	8,022
1988 Aug	896	402	45	311	261	305	603	1,026	1,044	4,491	385	1,553	6,429
1988 Sept R	1,193	458	150	990	470	668	660	1,038	1,038	6,209	667	562	7,438
1988 Oct*	925	448	48	480	186	205	447	1,472	372	4,135	184	1,119	5,438
1988 Nov*	987	430	89	183	122	611	203	693	418	3,306	244	873	4,423

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

GREAT BRITAIN	Division or Group	1986	1987	1987 Q3	Q4	1988 Q1	Q2	Q3	1988 Sep	Oct*	Nov*
SIC 1980											
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	0	422	489	213	91	39	74	22	0	0	0
Coal extraction and coke	11-12	16,430	13,498	462	1,765	8,116	1,518	213	86	94	62
Mineral oil and natural gas extraction	13	2,621	880	469	345	0	0	0	0	20	0
Mineral oil processing	14	1,432	551	103	9	73	110	0	0	0	0
Nuclear fuel production	15	33	303	77	81	124	137	81	27	27	27
Gas, electricity and water	16-17	591	287	85	0	30	9	52	28	3	3
Energy and water supply industries	1	21,107	15,519	1,196	2,200	8,343	1,774	346	141	144	92
Extraction of other minerals and ores	21-23	1,157	137	20	27	45	196	36	0	0	0
Metal manufacture	22	7,321	2,983	687	505	304	624	210	86	154	91
Manufacture of non-metallic products	24	4,159	1,934	416	145	314	837	102	46	8	31
Chemical industry	25	5,182	3,518	786	760	394	476	688	233	74	52
Production of man-made fibres	26	37	0	0	0	0	19	0	0	0	0
Extraction of minerals and ores other than fuels; manufacture of metals, mineral products and chemicals	2	17,856	8,572	1,909	1,437	1,057	2,152	1,036	365	236	174
Shipbuilding and repairs	30	3,540	1,864	245	136	139	38	0	0	0	0
Manufacture of metal goods	31	6,884	4,918	988	1,256	684	604	302	101	26	49
Mechanical engineering	32	28,260	16,726	3,110	5,302	4,255	3,977	4,456	1,279	944	669
Manufacture of office machinery and data processing equipment	33	2,031	1,261	240	133	29	148	147	12	47	12
Electrical and electronic engineering	34	16,079	13,222	2,572	2,743	1,933	2,526	811	235	394	339
Manufacture of motor vehicles	35	10,932	3,842	487	668	523	415	56	19	50	0
Manufacture of aerospace and other transport equipment	36	4,239	7,053	1,662	1,694	1,430	1,656	1,026	246	0	0
Instrument engineering	37	931	717	136	102	105	212	64	0	15	3
Metal goods, engineering and vehicles industries	3	72,896	49,603	9,440	12,034	9,098	9,576	6,862	1,892	1,476	1,072
Food, drink and tobacco	41-42	13,378	10,922	2,618	2,164	2,893	3,309	1,895	667	394	931
Textiles	43	6,278	4,382	1,276	825	895	688	856	249	732	100
Leather, footwear and clothing	44-45	6,031	3,167	882	484	943	948	211	519	214	61
Timber and furniture	46	2,583	1,800	253	425	354	332	488	249	129	61
Paper, printing and publishing	47	9,340	4,354	1,564	638	754	1,441	731	118	121	60
Other manufacturing	48-49	5,220	4,177	747	942	753	328	722	376	63	241
Other manufacturing industries	4	42,830	28,802	7,140	5,478	6,592	7,046	5,664	1,870	1,958	1,607
Construction	5	19,438	10,615	1,995	2,830	1,850	1,889	2,276	320	297	407
Wholesale distribution	61-63	6,864	5,280	1,192	1,006	764	1,038	809	404	424	52
Retail distribution	64-65	12,311	8,657	1,866	1,913	2,480	1,441	1,272	418	97	170
Hotel and catering	66	3,640	2,342	137	207	199	328	390	312	23	55
Repair of consumer goods and vehicles	67	1,013	834	79	42	25	15	30	30	14	0
Distribution, hotels and catering, repairs	6	23,828	17,113	3,274	3,168	3,468	2,822	2,501	1,164	558	277
Transport	71-77	17,198	4,256	995	826	685	1,473	1,299	388	445	399
Telecommunications	79	717	648	37	10	114	0	27	18	11	19
Transport and communication	7	17,915	4,904	1,032	836	799	1,473	1,326	406	456	418
Insurance, banking, finance and business services	8	4,104	1,789	344	429	526	228	262	212	37	23
Public administration and defence	91-94	9,060	3,569	1,207	554	460	767	1,099	727	176	339
Medical and other health services	95	5,935	2,068	651	146	157	98	1	73	0	0
Other services nes	96-99,00	2,610	1,092	71	217	227	131	388	340	27	14
Other services	9	17,605	6,729	1,929	917	844	1,055	1,585	1,068	276	353
All production industries	1-4	154,689	102,496	19,685	21,149	25,090	20,548	13,908	4,268	2,945	2,945
All manufacturing industries	2-4	133,582	86,977	18,489	18,949	16,747	18,774	13,562	4,127	3,670	2,853
All service industries	6-9	63,452	30,535	6,579	5,350	5,637	5,578	5,674	2,850	1,327	1,071
ALL INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES	0-9	238,001	144,135	28,472	29,420	32,616	28,089	21,880	7,438	5,438	4,423

* Provisional figures as at November 1, 1988; final figures are expected to be higher than this. The total for Great Britain is projected to be about 7,000 in October and 7,000 in November.
† 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 edition of *Employment Gazette*.

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
1983	137.3			181.7		179.5		137.0	
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	
1986 Nov 7	209.9	2.9	3.0	223.1	1.0	219.5	2.6	163.8	1.7
1986 Dec 5	209.0	-0.9	2.6	221.1	0.2	218.2	-	162.4	0.2
1987 Jan 9	212.9	3.9	2.0	222.5	0.6	221.5	1.2	162.8	0.2
1987 Feb 6	212.3	-0.6	0.8	207.9	-5.1	211.5	-2.7	157.2	-2.2
1987 Mar 6	217.0	4.7	2.7	230.9	3.3	225.8	2.5	166.8	1.5
1987 Apr 3	219.6	2.5	2.2	222.4	-	214.7	-2.2	156.8	-2.0
1987 May 8	231.6	12.1	6.4	223.1	5.1	215.5	1.4	156.8	-0.1
1987 June 5	233.7	2.0	5.5	229.8	-0.4	227.0	0.4	163.3	-1.2
1987 July 3	235.3	1.7	5.2	221.1	-0.4	217.9	1.1	155.3	-0.5
1987 Aug 7	237.7	2.4	2.0	224.4	0.4	219.4	1.3	155.8	-0.3
1987 Sept 4	244.4	6.7	3.6	229.3	-0.2	220.4	-2.2	156.7	-2.2
1987 Oct 2	259.9	15.5	8.2	235.6	4.8	223.8	2.0	157.6	0.8
1987 Nov 6	265.1	5.2	9.1	234.9	3.5	229.4	3.3	158.9	1.0
1987 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
1988 Feb 5	249.6	-1.2	-5.2	234.7	-0.1	239.2	3.3	165.3	2.1

VACANCIES

Regions: vacancies remaining unfilled at jobcentres and careers offices

														THOUSAND
														United Kingdom
	South East	Greater London*	East Anglia	South West	West Midlands	East Midlands	Yorkshire and Humberside	North West	North	Wales	Scotland	Great Britain	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
Vacancies at jobcentres: total †														
1983)	50.8													137.3
1984) Annual	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) averages	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
1987 Nov 6	110.9	45.7	9.1	20.1	26.2	13.5	17.6	26.7	13.2	11.6	21.4	270.2	1.8	272.0
Dec 4	99.0	39.4	8.2	17.4	23.5	11.8	15.7	22.0	11.4	10.1	18.9	238.0	1.7	239.7
1988 Jan 8	92.8	36.4	7.8	16.5	22.8	11.3	14.6	20.2	10.2	10.1	16.8	223.1	1.7	224.8
Feb 5	91.6	33.8	7.8	16.8	23.0	11.7	14.4	19.9	10.3	10.1	17.0	222.5	1.7	224.2
Mar 4	91.7	31.9	8.4	18.5	22.4	12.4	14.7	22.1	10.8	10.6	18.5	230.2	1.9	232.0
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
Vacancies at careers offices														
1983)	3.6	1.9	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.3	7.2	0.3	7.4
1984) Annual	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) averages	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	0.7	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
1987 Nov 6	13.8	8.1	0.6	1.0	1.9	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.4	21.1	0.9	22.0
Dec 4	13.3	8.0	0.5	1.0	1.6	0.8	0.6	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.5	19.7	0.8	20.5
1988 Jan 8	12.6	7.5	0.5	0.9	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.5	19.1	0.8	19.9
Feb 5	12.2	7.0	0.5	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.3	0.2	0.5	18.0	0.8	18.8
Mar 4	12.7	6.7	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.0	0.7	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.5	19.6	0.8	20.4
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

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—industry

SIC 1980	12 months to October 1988			12 months to October 1987		
	Stoppages in progress			Stoppages in progress		
	Stoppages	Workers involved	Working days lost	Stoppages	Workers involved	Working days lost
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	—	—	—	—	—	—
Coal extraction	164	94,700	233,000	329	105,100	224,000
Coke, mineral oil and natural gas	1	100	†	—	—	—
Electricity, gas, other energy and water	7	2,700	20,000	4	900	5,000
Metal processing and manufacture	9	1,800	12,000	6	1,900	7,000
Mineral processing and manufacture	10	1,800	9,000	11	2,400	17,000
Chemicals and man-made fibres	10	2,200	24,000	6	1,300	9,000
Metal goods nes	19	4,000	34,000	13	3,300	32,000
Engineering	62	20,700	73,000	88	42,600	217,000
Motor vehicles	63	96,000	584,000	87	64,200	93,000
Other transport equipment	35	31,800	797,000	29	39,300	79,000
Food, drink and tobacco	23	8,600	55,000	32	7,500	33,000
Textiles	7	12,600	70,000	5	1,900	18,000
Footwear and clothing	13	2,700	10,000	21	8,400	41,000
Timber and wooden furniture	3	200	1,000	2	200	1,000
Paper, printing and publishing	7	800	4,000	15	1,800	18,000
Other manufacturing industries	11	1,800	4,000	17	1,700	6,000
Construction	17	4,000	15,000	27	4,200	20,000
Distribution, hotels and catering, repairs	9	600	2,000	13	700	4,000
Transport services and communication	152	269,200	1,531,000	159	189,000	1,690,000
Supporting and miscellaneous transport services	18	6,100	13,000	29	4,700	19,000
Banking, finance, insurance, business services and leasing	2	200	†	6	900	3,000
Public administration, education and health services	126	106,400	193,000	122	433,300	998,000
Other services	15	8,000	34,000	19	3,400	40,000
All industries and services	770**	677,000	3,719,000	1,033**	918,900	3,574,000

** 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.
 † Less than 500 working days lost.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES 4.1
 Stoppages of work

Stoppages: October 1988

United Kingdom	Number of stoppages	Workers involved	Working days lost
Stoppages in progress	64	25,700	43,000
of which, stoppages:			
Beginning in month	57	18,100†	27,000
Continuing from earlier months	7	7,600‡	16,000

† includes 17,000 directly involved.
 ‡ includes 700 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 for 1988 are provisional.

Stoppages: cause

United Kingdom	12 months to October 1988		
	Stoppages	Workers involved	Working days lost
Pay—wage-rates and earnings levels	280	298,900	1,149,000
—extra-wage and fringe benefits	16	30,700	779,000
Duration and pattern of hours worked	22	15,300	35,000
Redundancy questions	36	58,400	229,000
Trade union matters	23	27,500	40,000
Working conditions and supervision	75	18,200	31,000
Manning and work allocation	223	181,000	1,355,000
Dismissal and other disciplinary measures	95	46,900	100,000
All causes	770	677,000	3,719,000

Stoppages of work*: summary 4.2

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	All industries and services (All orders)	Mining and quarrying (II)	Metals, engineering and vehicles (VI-XII)	Textiles, clothing and footwear (XIII, XV)	Construction (XX)	Transport and communication (XXII)	All other industries and services (All other orders)	
SIC 1968											
1976	2,016	2,034	666†	668†	3,284	78	1,977	65	570	132	461
1977	2,703	2,737	1,159	1,166	10,142	97	6,133	264	297	301	3,050
1978	2,471	2,498	1,001	1,041	9,405	201	5,985	179	416	360	2,264
1979	2,080	2,125	4,586	4,608	29,474	128	20,390	108	834	1,419	6,594
1980	1,330	1,348	830†	834†	11,364	166	10,155	44	281	253	1,065
1981	1,338	1,344	1,512	1,513	4,266	237	1,731	39	86	359	1,814
1982	1,528	1,538	2,101†	2,103†	5,313	374	1,458	66	44	1,675	1,697
SIC 1980											
1982	1,528	1,538	2,101†	2,103†	5,313	380	1,457	61	41	1,675	1,699
1983	1,352	1,364	573†	574†	3,754	591	1,420	32	68	295	1,348
1984	1,206	1,221	1,436	1,464	27,135	22,484	2,055	66	334	666	1,530
1985	887	903	643	791	6,402	4,143	590	31	50	197	1,391
1986	1,053	1,074	538	720	1,920	143	895	38	33	190	622
1987	1,004	1,016	884	887	3,546	217	458	50	22	1,705	1,095
1986 Oct	128	148	41	48	167	19	74	—	7	39	27
Nov	89	107	88	98	117	16	28	10	1	18	43
Dec	73	91	43	50	97	16	23	—	1	7	50
1987 Jan	99	111	168	171	889	9	55	3	—	787	35
Feb	102	123	44	148	928	24	59	17	5	778	45
Mar	104	120	209	215	251	20	54	3	1	8	164
Apr	114	135	131	155	336	28	49	4	1	10	244
May	78	95	88	126	222	13	30	—	2	20	158
June											

EARNINGS
Average earnings index: all employees: main industrial sectors

GREAT BRITAIN	Whole economy (Division 0-9)				Manufacturing industries (Revised definition) (Division 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		
			% change over previous 12 months				% change over previous 12 months				% change over previous 12 months				% change over previous 12 months		
	SIC 1980		Underlying*		Underlying*		Underlying*		Underlying*		Underlying*		Underlying*		Underlying*		Underlying*
																	1985 = 100
1980	65.0				61.5				61.9				66.1				
1981	73.3				69.6				70.3				75.4				
1982	80.2				77.4				78.2				81.3				
1983	87.0				84.4				84.9				88.4				
1984	92.2				91.7				89.8				94.0				
1985	100.0				100.0				100.0				100.0				
1986	107.9				107.7				108.0				107.7				
1987	116.3				116.3				116.7				116.0				
1980	Jan	58.3	59.1		56.3	56.9		56.6	57.1		56.6	57.1	58.5	59.2			
	Feb	59.8	60.6		57.0	57.4		57.3	57.7		57.3	57.7	60.6	61.2			
	Mar	61.7	61.8		58.8	58.7		59.8	59.6		59.8	59.6	61.9	62.2			
	April	62.4	62.8		59.5	59.9		60.1	60.1		60.1	60.1	63.0	63.2			
	May	63.7	63.7		61.0	60.9		61.5	61.3		61.5	61.3	64.3	64.5			
	June	65.6	65.1		62.8	62.0		63.2	62.4		63.2	62.4	66.4	66.2			
	July	66.1	65.5		63.4	62.6		63.8	63.1		63.8	63.1	66.4	65.8			
	Aug	66.4	66.3		62.4	62.9		62.9	63.3		62.9	63.3	68.1	67.6			
	Sept	68.7	68.6		62.9	63.5		63.4	63.9		63.4	63.9	71.8	71.6			
	Oct	67.6	67.7		63.2	63.4		63.7	64.1		63.7	64.1	69.3	69.7			
	Nov	68.7	68.3		64.9	64.4		65.3	64.9		65.3	64.9	70.1	70.2			
	Dec	70.4	69.6		65.4	65.2		65.6	65.6		65.6	65.6	72.9	71.8			
1981	Jan	68.9	69.8	18.1	65.2	65.7	15.6	65.9	66.5	16.3	65.9	66.5	70.5	71.3	20.4		
	Feb	69.5	70.3	16.1	66.0	66.5	15.8	66.7	67.2	16.5	66.7	67.2	70.8	71.6	17.0		
	Mar	70.7	70.8	14.6	67.0	66.9	13.9	67.9	67.7	13.6	67.9	67.7	78.6	78.9	26.8		
	April	71.0	71.5	14.0	66.7	67.0	12.0	67.5	67.5	12.3	67.5	67.5	72.8	73.0	15.5		
	May	72.0	72.0	13.0	68.1	68.1	11.7	68.8	68.6	11.8	68.8	68.6	73.6	73.8	14.3		
	June	73.4	73.0	12.0	70.1	69.2	11.7	70.9	70.0	12.2	70.9	70.0	74.4	74.2	12.1		
	July	74.0	73.3	12.0	70.7	69.9	11.6	71.5	70.6	12.0	71.5	70.6	75.1	74.4	13.1		
	Aug	75.2	75.0	13.2	71.0	71.6	13.7	71.5	72.0	13.7	71.5	72.0	77.2	76.6	13.4		
	Sept	75.4	75.2	9.7	71.1	71.6	12.9	71.7	72.4	13.2	71.7	72.4	77.3	77.1	7.7		
	Oct	75.8	75.8	12.0	72.4	72.6	14.6	73.0	73.4	14.5	73.0	73.4	77.0	77.4	11.1		
	Nov	76.6	76.3	11.7	73.7	73.0	13.4	74.1	73.7	13.6	74.1	73.7	77.7	77.8	10.9		
	Dec	77.6	76.7	10.2	73.7	73.4	12.7	74.1	74.0	12.9	74.1	74.0	79.3	78.1	8.8		
1982	Jan	76.4	77.4	10.9	73.8	74.4	13.2	74.5	75.1	12.9	74.5	75.1	77.8	78.8	10.4		
	Feb	77.4	78.2	11.2	74.2	74.7	12.4	75.7	76.2	13.5	75.7	76.2	78.3	79.2	10.6		
	Mar	78.4	78.6	11.0	75.7	75.7	13.1	76.6	76.4	12.8	76.6	76.4	79.3	79.6	0.9		
	April	78.4	79.0	10.5	76.0	76.3	13.9	76.6	76.7	13.5	76.6	76.7	79.2	79.4	8.8		
	May	79.5	79.6	10.6	77.5	77.4	13.7	78.0	77.8	13.4	78.0	77.8	80.3	80.4	8.9		
	June	80.6	80.1	9.8	78.2	77.2	11.5	79.0	78.1	11.5	79.0	78.1	81.3	81.1	9.3		
	July	82.0	81.3	10.8	78.4	77.6	11.0	79.3	78.4	11.1	79.3	78.4	83.6	82.8	11.3		
	Aug	80.9	80.7	7.6	77.5	78.2	9.2	78.4	78.9	9.6	78.4	78.9	82.3	81.7	6.6		
	Sept	80.8	80.6	7.1	77.7	78.2	9.2	78.6	79.3	9.6	78.6	79.3	81.8	81.6	5.9		
	Oct	81.3	81.4	7.3	78.9	79.1	8.9	79.2	79.7	8.6	79.2	79.7	82.4	82.9	7.1		
	Nov	83.0	82.7	8.4	80.3	79.5	8.9	81.4	80.9	9.7	81.4	80.9	83.9	84.0	8.0		
	Dec	83.7	82.6	7.8	80.7	80.4	9.5	81.5	81.4	9.9	81.5	81.4	84.9	83.6	7.0		
1983	Jan	83.1	84.1	8.7	80.5	81.1	9.0	81.3	81.8	8.9	81.3	81.8	84.7	85.8	8.9		
	Feb	84.8	85.6	9.5	80.9	81.5	9.1	81.6	82.2	7.9	81.6	82.2	87.3	88.4	11.6		
	Mar	85.2	85.4	8.7	81.7	81.7	7.9	82.6	82.5	8.0	82.6	82.5	86.9	87.2	9.5		
	April	85.1	85.8	8.6	82.6	83.0	8.8	83.5	83.6	9.0	83.5	83.6	86.1	86.4	8.8		
	May	86.4	86.5	8.7	84.1	84.0	8.5	84.5	84.4	8.5	84.5	84.4	88.0	88.2	9.7		
	June	87.2	86.7	8.2	84.6	83.5	8.2	85.2	84.1	7.7	85.2	84.1	88.6	88.5	9.1		
	July	88.4	87.5	7.6	85.2	84.3	8.6	85.9	85.0	8.4	85.9	85.0	90.1	89.1	7.6		
	Aug	87.6	87.5	8.4	84.5	85.2	9.0	85.2	85.8	8.7	85.2	85.8	89.4	88.7	8.6		
	Sept	87.7	87.6	8.7	85.0	85.7	9.6	85.7	86.5	9.1	85.7	86.5	88.8	88.6	8.6		
	Oct	88.4	88.5	8.7	86.4	86.7	9.6	87.3	87.7	10.0	87.3	87.7	89.0	89.5	8.0		
	Nov	89.1	88.7	7.3	88.2	87.5	10.1	88.2	87.6	8.3	88.2	87.6	89.6	89.7	6.8		
	Dec	89.4	89.4	8.2	88.5	88.1	9.6	88.3	88.1	8.2	88.3	88.1	92.0	90.6	8.4		
1984	Jan	89.0	90.0	7.0	87.8	88.3	8.9	87.7	88.2	7.8	87.7	88.2	90.3	91.4	6.5		
	Feb	89.6	90.6	5.8	88.7	89.3	9.6	88.7	89.4	8.8	88.7	89.4	90.4	91.4	3.4		
	Mar	89.9	90.1	5.5	89.7	89.7	9.8	89.4	89.2	5.7	89.4	89.2	91.6	91.8	5.3		
	April	90.1	90.7	5.7	89.4	89.4	7.7	89.9	89.4	4.1	89.9	89.4	92.3	92.6	7.2		
	May	90.7	90.9	5.1	90.5	90.4	7.6	90.5	90.4	4.4	90.5	90.4	92.6	92.8	5.2		
	June	91.8	91.2	5.2	92.2	91.0	9.0	91.7	89.7	5.4	91.7	89.7	92.9	92.9	5.0		
	July	93.0	92.1	5.3	92.7	91.7	8.8	93.0	89.3	5.1	93.0	89.3	94.9	93.8	5.3		
	Aug	92.8	92.6	5.8	91.7	92.5	8.6	89.3	89.9	4.8	89.3	89.9	95.2	94.5	6.5		
	Sept	93.1	93.1	6.3	92.7	93.4	9.0	90.4	91.2	5.4	90.4	91.2	94.7	94.5	6.7		
	Oct	95.6	95.7	8.1	94.2	94.8	9.3	91.9	92.4	5.4	91.9	92.4	98.4	98.9	10.5		
	Nov	94.8	94.4	6.4	95.3	94.5	8.0	93.1	92.6	5.7	93.1	92.6	96.0	96.1	7.1		
	Dec	96.2	95.1	6.4	95.7	95.2	8.1	93.4	93.1	5.7	93.4	93.1	98.3	96.8	6.8		
1985	Jan	95.1	96.2	6.9	96.0	96.5	9.3	94.0	94.4	7.0	94.0	94.4	96.3	97.5	6.7	7	
	Feb	95.8	96.9	7.0	96.1	96.8	8.4	94.2	95.0	6.3	94.2	95.0	97.0	98.2	7.4	7	
	Mar	97.8	97.9	8.7	97.9	97.9	9.1	97.2	97.1	11.4	97.2	97.1	98.0	98.2	7.0	7	
	April	98.6	99.0	9.2	99.1	99.5	11.3	98.7	98.9	13.7	98.7	98.9	98.5	98.8	6.7	7	
	May	98.6	98.7	8.6	98.9	98.9	9.4	99.7	98.6	11.9	99.7	98.6	98.7	98.8	6.5	7	
	June	100.0	99.4	9.0	100.8	99.5	9.3	1									

5.3

EARNINGS Average earnings index: all employees: by industry

GREAT BRITAIN	Agri- culture and forestry*	Coal and coke †	Mineral oil and natural gas	Electricity, gas, other energy and water supply	Metal processing and manufacturing	Mineral extraction and manufacturing	Chemicals and man-made fibres	Mechanical engineering	Electrical and electronic engineering	Motor vehicles and parts	Other transport equipment	Metal goods and instruments	Food, drink and tobacco	Textiles
SIC 1980 CLASS	(01-02)	(11-12)	(14)	(15-17)	(21-22)	(23-24)	(25-26)	(32)	(33-34)	(35)	(36)	(31, 37)	(41-42)	(43)
1985 } Annual averages	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 } Annual averages	105.5	113.3	109.5	106.9	106.5	107.8	107.9	106.9	108.0	108.7	107.9	107.4	108.7	107.2
1987 } Annual averages	112.2	121.6	120.0	115.0	116.5	116.9	116.9	114.7	117.6	118.0	115.7	116.0	116.9	116.1
1985 Jan	88.9	50.3	95.5	95.7	97.7	94.5	95.4	95.3	95.3	101.2	94.7	95.5	95.8	96.2
1985 Feb	92.4	53.1	96.9	96.3	93.4	96.0	95.1	96.1	96.3	96.1	96.3	96.7	97.2	96.8
1985 Mar	92.4	83.2	97.2	96.3	96.8	97.7	96.6	98.1	99.5	99.3	98.6	97.7	96.0	98.2
1985 April	95.1	93.7	97.1	95.1	103.5	98.6	97.0	98.0	101.6	99.0	98.4	99.5	98.3	98.5
1985 May	94.1	84.8	99.8	96.3	96.3	98.8	97.5	99.0	99.4	99.9	97.7	100.2	99.2	99.6
1985 June	102.1	100.5	99.2	99.9	96.8	101.6	99.8	100.6	100.4	99.6	107.3	100.2	100.9	101.5
1985 July	105.0	101.6	99.9	105.7	109.5	100.3	101.4	101.4	100.7	102.3	100.7	100.4	100.9	101.4
1985 Aug	110.1	102.4	99.2	101.1	97.3	100.9	100.9	99.7	99.3	98.8	98.2	99.4	98.9	99.4
1985 Sept	111.9	103.9	102.9	106.5	108.2	102.4	100.4	101.2	100.2	98.0	99.9	100.9	100.5	101.0
1985 Oct	108.7	104.3	101.7	102.4	97.3	101.9	100.7	101.9	101.2	99.0	102.0	101.5	101.2	101.7
1985 Nov	99.2	108.2	103.9	103.1	97.5	102.4	109.0	104.5	102.2	104.0	101.4	104.6	104.4	102.9
1985 Dec	100.1	107.2	106.4	101.2	105.7	105.6	106.1	104.3	104.0	102.5	104.5	103.4	106.7	102.9
1986 Jan	97.3	116.8	103.6	101.5	103.7	102.3	102.4	103.1	103.9	102.1	105.1	103.4	105.8	104.5
1986 Feb	96.5	113.0	104.9	103.8	99.1	102.7	102.8	104.9	104.1	104.5	104.3	104.0	104.8	104.2
1986 Mar	97.3	115.6	105.4	103.6	101.6	103.7	104.0	105.9	105.7	110.1	106.0	105.9	104.6	105.8
1986 April	99.3	111.9	105.3	103.7	111.6	105.9	103.9	106.8	109.4	105.4	105.2	104.9	107.1	104.5
1986 May	100.9	108.4	111.8	104.6	102.4	106.3	105.8	105.8	106.2	107.9	104.5	107.1	107.9	106.1
1986 June	104.8	108.3	109.4	104.8	105.5	111.1	107.6	106.8	109.5	112.8	108.1	107.4	110.3	108.5
1986 July	107.0	109.2	109.1	112.0	113.2	108.2	107.4	108.6	108.0	109.2	106.6	107.8	108.6	108.2
1986 Aug	115.7	109.9	108.7	113.4	104.5	107.6	107.4	106.2	107.4	108.1	110.5	107.4	106.7	106.7
1986 Sept	118.2	114.7	110.5	108.4	104.5	110.5	107.8	106.7	107.8	108.5	107.6	108.1	109.3	107.8
1986 Oct	115.9	116.2	108.9	109.0	114.5	109.5	109.8	107.7	109.7	108.5	108.9	108.6	109.2	108.3
1986 Nov	107.4	117.3	122.8	109.3	118.1	110.8	118.1	109.7	110.9	112.3	114.0	112.6	114.3	111.4
1986 Dec	106.1	118.3	113.7	109.0	112.3	114.4	117.6	111.1	113.7	115.2	113.8	111.2	115.6	110.6
1987 Jan	102.4	118.6	114.1	113.7	113.1	110.3	110.8	109.8	111.9	112.4	113.0	110.4	115.2	111.1
1987 Feb	102.1	119.4	114.1	111.2	108.0	111.7	112.1	111.4	112.2	115.3	113.2	112.5	111.7	113.4
1987 Mar	102.8	121.3	114.9	110.7	108.4	113.4	111.1	112.2	114.4	116.4	118.0	113.0	112.0	114.9
1987 April	108.0	125.7	117.5	110.2	121.3	113.6	113.7	111.4	117.1	115.3	112.1	112.7	115.8	110.8
1987 May	106.7	117.3	123.3	111.1	113.3	114.0	114.9	112.4	115.7	117.4	112.1	114.0	117.7	114.2
1987 June	111.7	120.9	119.8	111.0	112.8	119.1	116.6	115.3	119.3	123.5	115.3	116.6	117.0	118.2
1987 July	114.0	120.2	124.9	116.0	129.1	118.9	118.9	116.5	118.9	119.5	114.9	117.1	117.3	119.0
1987 Aug	118.2	121.3	119.0	123.9	110.9	116.7	117.0	115.4	117.8	116.9	114.5	116.3	116.2	116.5
1987 Sept	124.2	120.9	117.2	118.3	114.6	119.6	114.6	115.7	118.8	118.3	115.8	118.0	118.4	117.3
1987 Oct	122.3	123.5	118.1	117.9	130.0	118.2	117.4	116.7	119.6	119.5	115.8	118.5	117.6	118.1
1987 Nov	120.7	124.7	133.5	119.8	114.5	119.9	127.9	119.0	121.2	120.1	118.4	122.4	120.5	120.9
1987 Dec	113.5	125.9	124.1	116.2	122.1	127.0	128.2	120.3	124.4	120.8	125.4	120.4	123.8	118.8
1988 Jan	106.1	128.1	127.0	116.0	126.2	120.6	121.3	120.2	124.6	120.0	118.8	120.7	121.2	119.6
1988 Feb	105.0	116.8	125.8	115.6	115.7	121.3	120.3	121.4	125.7	102.5	119.0	123.2	121.2	120.0
1988 Mar	108.0	131.9	126.9	116.0	117.6	123.5	120.5	124.6	126.1	132.9	119.9	122.7	121.2	122.6
1988 April	112.4	141.9	129.6	120.2	136.5	123.9	125.1	122.9	128.5	127.1	118.9	124.3	124.8	122.6
1988 May	112.1	134.2	138.8	123.5	129.1	128.3	125.1	124.3	126.5	129.9	119.0	125.7	126.6	123.7
1988 June	115.2	133.1	128.2	122.5	124.0	127.9	126.8	123.9	129.1	137.0	112.5	126.3	128.6	125.8
1988 July	118.7	139.7	134.2	125.5	141.7	127.9	126.0	126.7	128.7	135.8	114.3	128.0	125.7	124.8
1988 Aug	128.8	138.5	131.2	125.8	129.8	124.8	125.9	124.9	127.1	129.5	111.6	127.1	125.0	123.6
1988 Sep	134.4	140.9	131.4	124.0	123.4	127.4	126.1	125.4	128.0	128.5	121.8	127.3	126.0	123.9
[Oct]	**	141.8	134.4	124.9	142.1	127.2	128.6	127.2	130.8	129.3	124.5	128.7	126.7	124.7

* 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.

EARNINGS 5.3

Average earnings index: all employees: by industry (not seasonally adjusted)

Leather, footwear and clothing	Timber and wooden furniture	Paper products, printing and publishing	Rubber, plastics and other manufacturing	Construction	Distribution and repairs	Hotels and catering	Transport and communication‡	Banking, finance and insurance	Public administration	Education and health services	Other services††	Whole economy	GREAT BRITAIN
(44-45)	(46)	(47)	(48-49)	(50)	(61-65, 67)	(66)	(71-72, 75-77, 79)	(81-82 83pt.-84pt.)	(91-92pt.)	(93,95)	(97pt.-98pt.)	SIC 1980 CLASS	
1985 } Annual averages	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 } Annual averages	107.4	107.1	107.5	107.9	107.9	107.0	107.3	106.5	110.1	105.6	110.1	107.9	107.9
1987 } Annual averages	114.5	116.5	116.2	116.9	116.5	114.9	115.7	114.9	121.8	112.8	117.9	115.3	116.3
1985 Jan	96.4	99.8	94.2	96.6	93.3	96.6	97.3	95.6	94.5	97.2	95.8	100.1	95.1
1985 Feb	97.3	97.0	94.7	96.8	95.6	96.7	95.1	95.7	94.3	100.1	97.4	97.6	95.8
1985 Mar	99.2	95.8	97.1	97.8	99.9	97.8	96.2	97.7	103.0	98.5	96.7	98.5	97.8
1985 April	99.1	98.6	99.0	98.4	98.9	101.3	97.2	99.0	96.3	97.9	97.9	98.0	98.6
1985 May	99.3	95.4	99.5	100.1	97.6	99.3	99.4	99.0	100.2	97.8	98.0	97.6	98.0
1985 June	101.7	98.4	101.9	100.9	101.3	99.9	99.4	98.9	100.1	101.1	97.3	94.7	100.6
1985 July	99.9	100.4	101.2	100.8	101.2	100.4	99.7	101.2	101.2	99.2	100.8	97.2	101.1
1985 Aug	99.1	106.6	100.6	100.3	98.6	99.3	101.7	102.3	97.9	99.1	106.6	99.6	100.9
1985 Sept	100.7	102.6	102.5	100.0	102.7	101.2	101.9	100.5	98.9	102.2	106.7	107.7	102.5
1985 Oct	100.4	103.4	102.1	101.1	101.8	101.7	100.1	99.2	101.9	101.0	101.8	101.2	101.2
1985 Nov	101.9	103.0	104.2	103.5	104.1	101.5	106.8	100.4	102.4	99.4	102.2	102.9	102.9
1985 Dec	105.2	99.0	103.2	103.8	105.3	108.8	103.1	113.6	102.8	103.0	105.2	104.8	104.8
1986 Jan	104.4	105.4	102.6	104.1	102.5	103.0	100.8	102.5	102.4	102.0	100.7	105.1	102.9
1986 Feb	105.0	105.2	103.2	104.7	103.1	104.0	101.7	102.7	103.4	101.2	104.3	103.5	103.5
1986 Mar	106.8	100.0	105.2	105.1	106.7	104.7	101.7	114.0	104.0	110.7	102.7	106.2	106.2
1986 April	106.9	103.8	106.3	106.2	106.1	108.7	104.1	104.8	103.5	114.2	103.9	107.1	107.1
1986 May	105.6	102.9	107.0	106.2	105.4	107.8							

5.6 EARNINGS AND HOURS

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

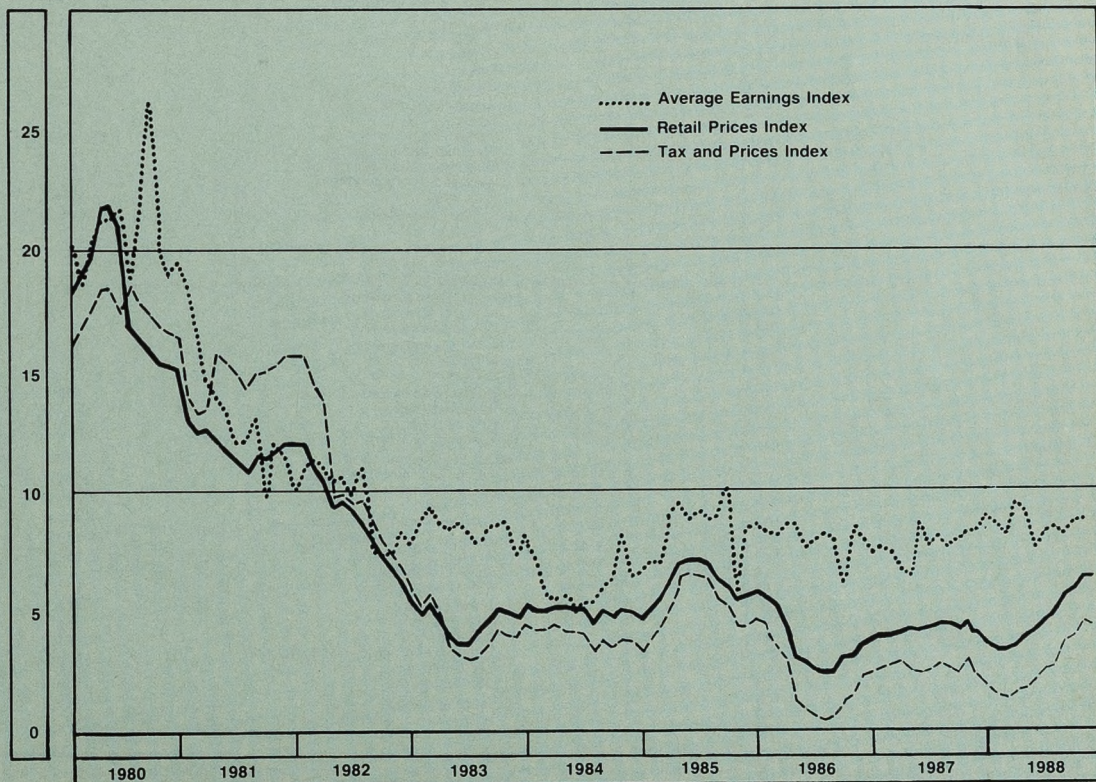
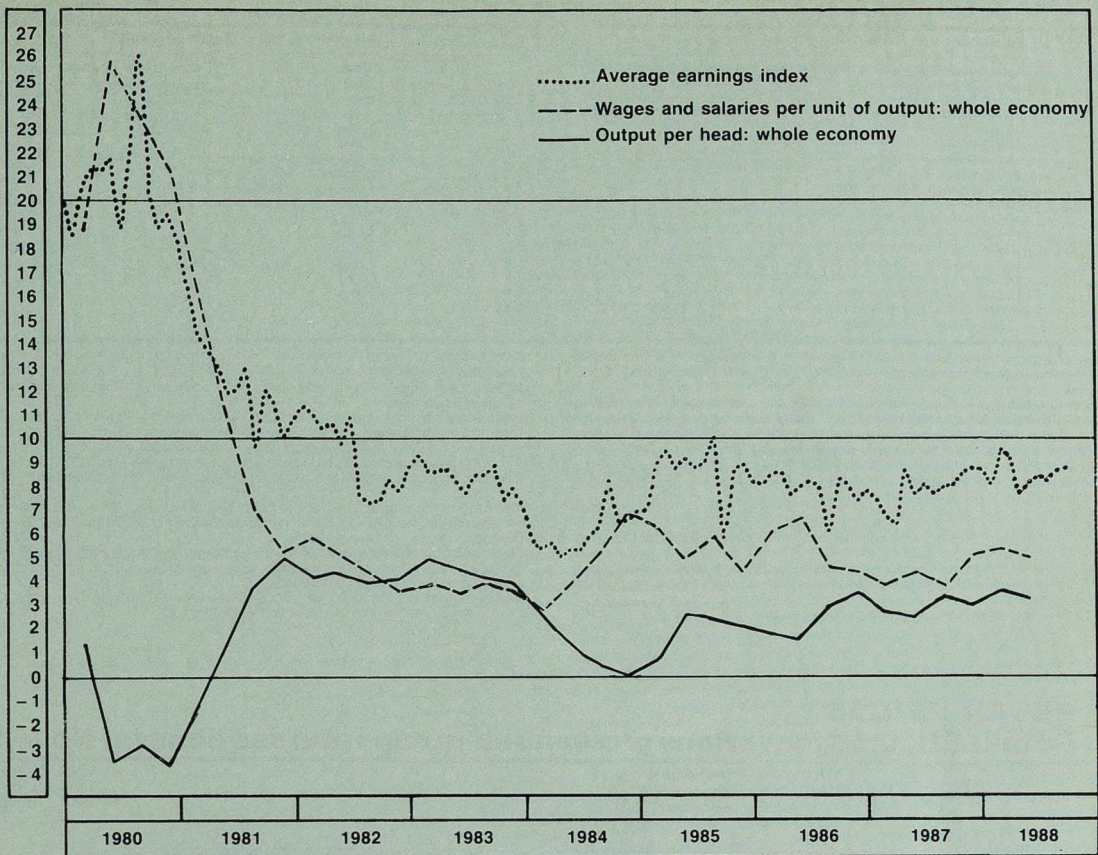
GREAT BRITAIN	MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES*					ALL INDUSTRIES AND SERVICES					
	Weekly earnings (£)		Hours	Hourly earnings (pence)		Weekly earnings (£)		Hours	Hourly earnings (pence)		
	including those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	including overtime pay and overtime hours	excluding overtime pay and overtime hours	including those whose pay was affected by absence	excluding those whose pay was affected by absence	including overtime pay and overtime hours	excluding overtime pay and overtime hours	including overtime pay and overtime hours	excluding overtime pay and overtime hours
April of each year											
FULL-TIME MEN†											
Manual occupations											
1982*	134.8	138.1	43.8	315.1	307.9	131.4	133.8	44.3	302.0	294.7	
1983†	134.4	137.8	43.9	313.7	306.7	131.4	133.8	44.3	302.0	294.7	
1984	142.8	147.4	43.7	336.7	329.2	140.3	143.6	43.9	326.5	319.0	
1985	141.0	145.5	43.6	333.0	325.5	138.4	141.6	43.8	322.7	315.2	
1986	153.6	158.9	44.4	358.1	348.5	148.8	152.7	44.5	368.0	356.8	
1987	167.5	172.6	44.6	386.8	373.8	159.8	163.6	44.5	392.6	380.8	
1988	178.4	183.4	44.5	411.6	398.5	170.9	174.4	44.5	416.5	404.3	
1987	191.2	195.9	44.7	437.6	423.8	182.0	185.5	44.6	416.5	404.3	
1988	206.8	212.3	45.2	468.5	451.7	196.3	200.6	45.0	445.7	431.5	
Non-manual occupations											
1982*	180.1	181.4	38.8	457.9	457.0	177.9	178.9	38.2	462.5	462.3	
1983†	179.5	179.8	38.9	453.4	452.5	177.9	178.9	38.2	462.5	462.3	
1984	193.2	194.6	39.1	491.6	491.0	193.7	194.9	38.4	503.4	502.9	
1985	191.4	192.9	39.1	487.3	486.6	190.6	191.8	38.4	494.8	494.2	
1986	211.7	213.5	39.3	537.8	537.1	207.3	209.0	38.5	537.4	536.4	
1987	230.7	232.0	39.3	582.0	580.7	223.5	225.0	38.6	574.7	573.2	
1988	254.4	255.7	39.3	641.0	640.0	243.4	244.9	38.6	627.3	625.8	
1987	271.9	273.7	39.4	684.1	684.0	263.9	265.9	38.7	679.9	679.3	
1988	299.1	300.5	39.4	744.9	744.1	292.1	294.1	38.7	748.8	748.3	
All occupations											
1982*	148.8	152.6	42.2	357.0	354.0	151.5	154.5	41.7	365.6	364.6	
1983†	147.9	151.8	42.3	354.2	351.4	151.5	154.5	41.7	365.6	364.6	
1984	158.6	163.3	42.2	383.0	380.0	163.8	167.5	41.5	399.1	398.0	
1985	156.4	161.2	42.2	378.1	375.0	161.1	164.7	41.4	392.6	391.2	
1986	171.2	176.8	42.8	409.9	406.2	174.3	178.8	41.7	423.0	421.4	
1987	187.2	192.6	42.9	444.3	438.6	187.9	192.4	41.9	452.5	449.9	
1988	202.3	207.8	42.9	479.1	474.0	203.4	207.5	41.8	488.9	486.6	
1987	217.0	222.3	43.0	511.0	506.5	219.4	224.0	41.9	527.3	526.2	
1988	236.3	242.3	43.3	549.8	544.1	240.6	245.8	42.1	573.6	573.1	
FULL-TIME WOMEN†											
Manual occupations											
1982*	79.9	82.9	39.6	209.5	207.1	78.3	80.1	39.3	205.0	202.7	
1983†	79.6	82.6	39.6	208.9	206.6	78.3	80.1	39.3	205.0	202.7	
1984	86.7	90.3	39.7	227.3	224.9	85.6	87.9	39.3	224.3	222.0	
1985	86.7	90.4	39.7	227.7	225.3	85.8	88.1	39.3	224.9	222.6	
1986	91.9	96.0	39.9	240.9	238.1	90.8	93.5	39.4	238.0	235.1	
1987	100.1	104.5	40.0	261.7	257.3	98.2	101.3	39.5	256.9	252.9	
1988	107.0	111.6	40.0	278.9	274.6	104.5	107.5	39.5	273.0	269.2	
1987	113.8	119.6	40.3	297.2	291.9	111.4	115.3	39.7	292.0	287.4	
1988	121.2	127.9	40.5	315.5	309.6	118.8	123.6	39.8	310.5	305.6	
Non-manual occupations											
1982*	97.2	97.6	37.2	260.3	259.0	104.3	104.9	36.5	283.0	282.2	
1983†	97.0	97.4	37.2	259.8	258.5	104.3	104.9	36.5	283.0	282.2	
1984	105.5	106.2	37.2	283.3	281.9	114.2	115.1	36.5	310.0	309.0	
1985	106.2	107.0	37.2	285.4	284.0	115.1	116.1	36.5	312.9	311.9	
1986	115.8	117.2	37.4	310.8	308.7	123.0	124.3	36.5	334.3	333.1	
1987	125.5	126.8	37.4	336.5	334.7	132.4	133.8	36.6	359.1	357.6	
1988	135.8	136.7	37.4	363.2	361.2	144.3	145.7	36.7	390.6	388.8	
1987	147.7	149.1	37.5	391.6	389.4	155.4	157.2	36.8	418.0	415.9	
1988	161.6	163.3	37.6	430.0	427.5	172.9	175.5	36.9	467.7	465.3	
All occupations											
1982*	87.1	89.7	38.5	232.1	230.4	97.5	99.0	37.1	263.1	262.1	
1983†	86.8	89.4	38.5	231.4	229.7	97.5	99.0	37.1	263.1	262.1	
1984	94.5	97.6	38.6	251.8	250.1	106.9	108.8	37.2	288.5	287.5	
1985	94.7	97.9	38.6	252.7	251.0	107.6	109.5	37.2	290.6	289.5	
1986	101.7	105.5	38.8	270.9	268.8	114.9	117.2	37.2	310.3	309.1	
1987	110.6	114.7	38.8	294.4	291.5	123.9	126.4	37.3	334.0	332.4	
1988	119.2	123.2	38.8	316.1	313.3	134.7	137.2	37.3	362.5	360.7	
1987	128.2	133.4	39.0	339.2	335.9	144.9	148.1	37.5	388.4	386.2	
1988	138.4	144.3	39.2	365.8	362.3	160.1	164.2	37.6	431.3	429.0	
FULL-TIME ADULTS											
(a) MEN, 21 years and over AND WOMEN, 18 years and over											
All occupations											
1982*	134.0	138.0	41.3	329.6	325.4	134.1	136.5	40.2	334.6	332.1	
1983†	133.3	137.2	41.4	327.2	323.1	134.1	136.5	40.2	334.6	332.1	
1984	143.2	148.0	41.4	354.1	349.9	145.4	148.3	40.0	365.1	362.5	
(b) MALES AND FEMALES, 18 years and over											
All occupations											
1982*	132.0	135.9	41.3	324.6	320.3	132.1	134.5	40.2	329.3	326.7	
1983†	131.2	135.2	41.4	322.3	318.2	132.1	134.5	40.2	329.3	326.7	
1984	141.2	146.0	41.4	349.1	344.8	143.2	146.1	40.1	359.5	356.8	
(c) MALES AND FEMALES on adult rates											
1983	142.2	147.0	41.4	351.5	347.3	144.5	147.4	40.1	362.6	360.0	
1984	155.2	160.8	41.9	380.6	375.4	155.3	159.3	40.3	389.9	386.7	
1985	169.2	174.7	41.9	411.8	404.8	167.4	171.0	40.4	416.8	412.7	
1986	183.1	188.6	41.9	444.4	437.7	181.2	184.7	40.4	450.8	446.9	
1987	196.0	202.0	42.0	474.1	467.6	194.9	198.9	40.4	484.7	481.1	
1988	212.7	219.4	42.3	509.4	501.7	213.6	218.4	40.6	529.2	525.9	

Note: New Earnings Survey estimates.
 * Results for manufacturing industries in the first row of figures for 1982 relate to orders III to XIX inclusive of the 1968 Standard Industrial Classification [SIC]. Results for manufacturing industries for 1983 to 1988 inclusive and the second row of figures for 1982 relate to divisions 2, 3 and 4 of the 1980 SIC.
 † Results for 1982 and the first row of figures for 1983 relate to men aged 21 and over or women aged 18 and over. Results for 1984 to 1988 inclusive and the second row of figures for 1983 relate to males or females on adult rates.

LABOUR COSTS 5.7

All employees: main industrial sectors and selected industries

	Total labour costs (pence per hour)	Percentage shares of labour costs*					
		Total wages and salaries	of which holiday, sickness and maternity pay	National insurance	Redundancy payments	Voluntary social welfare payments	All other labour costs†
Manufacturing	1975 161.68 1978 244.54 1981 394.34	88.1 84.3 82.1	9.4 9.2 10.0	6.5 8.5 9.0	0.6 0.5 2.1	3.9 4.8 5.2	0.9 1.8 1.6
	1984 509.80 1985 554.20 1986 597.60 1987 625.00	84.0 84.7 84.2 84.5	10.5 10.6 10.5 10.6	7.4 6.7 6.7 6.7	1.3 1.3 1.3 0.9	5.3 5.3 5.8 5.8	2.0 2.0 2.0 2.1
Energy (excl. coal) and water supply**	1975 217.22 1978 324.00 1981 595.10	82.9 78.2 75.8	11.1 11.2 11.5	6.0 6.9 7.0	0.6 0.4 1.9	8.5 12.2 13.1	2.1 2.2 2.2
	1984 811.41 1985 860.60 1986 964.60 1987 1,009.50	77.7 78.6 75.4 77.6	11.5 11.5 11.4 11.7	5.5 5.1 4.9 5.0	1.9 1.3 5.3 2.5	12.1 12.2 11.7 12.2	2.8 2.8 2.7 2.8
Construction	1975 156.95 1978 222.46 1981 357.43	90.2 86.8 85.0	7.2 6.8 7.8	6.3 9.1 9.9	0.2 0.2 0.6	1.7 2.3 2.8	1.6 1.7 1.7
	1984 475.64 1985 511.20 1986 552.00 1987 594.50	86.0 86.6 86.5 86.7	8.0 8.0 8.0 8.1	7.7 7.2 7.2 7.2	0.6 0.5 0.6 0.3	4.1 4.1 4.1 4.1	1.6 1.6 1.6 1.7
SIC 1980		Manufacturing	Energy and water supply	Production industries	Construction	Production and construction industries††	Whole economy
Labour costs per unit of output §		per cent change over a year earlier					per cent change over a year earlier
1985 = 100							
1980	84.3	22.2	106.4	88.9	83.5	87.6	78.0
1981	92.3	9.4	112.7	95.5	96.4	95.2	86.6
1982	95.4	3.4	111.7	97.3	93.8	96.4	90.2
1983	94.3	-1.2	104.9	95.0	94.8	94.8	93.4
1984	96.1	1.9	89.6	96.9	98.3	97.1	96.3
1985	100.0	4.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1986	103.9	3.9	96.2	102.1	106.0	102.8	104.7
1987	104.5	0.6	93.9	103.6	110.4	105.0	108.7
1985 Q1	98.0
Q2	98.7
Q3	101.0
Q4	101.9
1986 Q1	103.5
Q2	104.2
Q3	104.6



RETAIL PRICES INDEX C2

Per cent

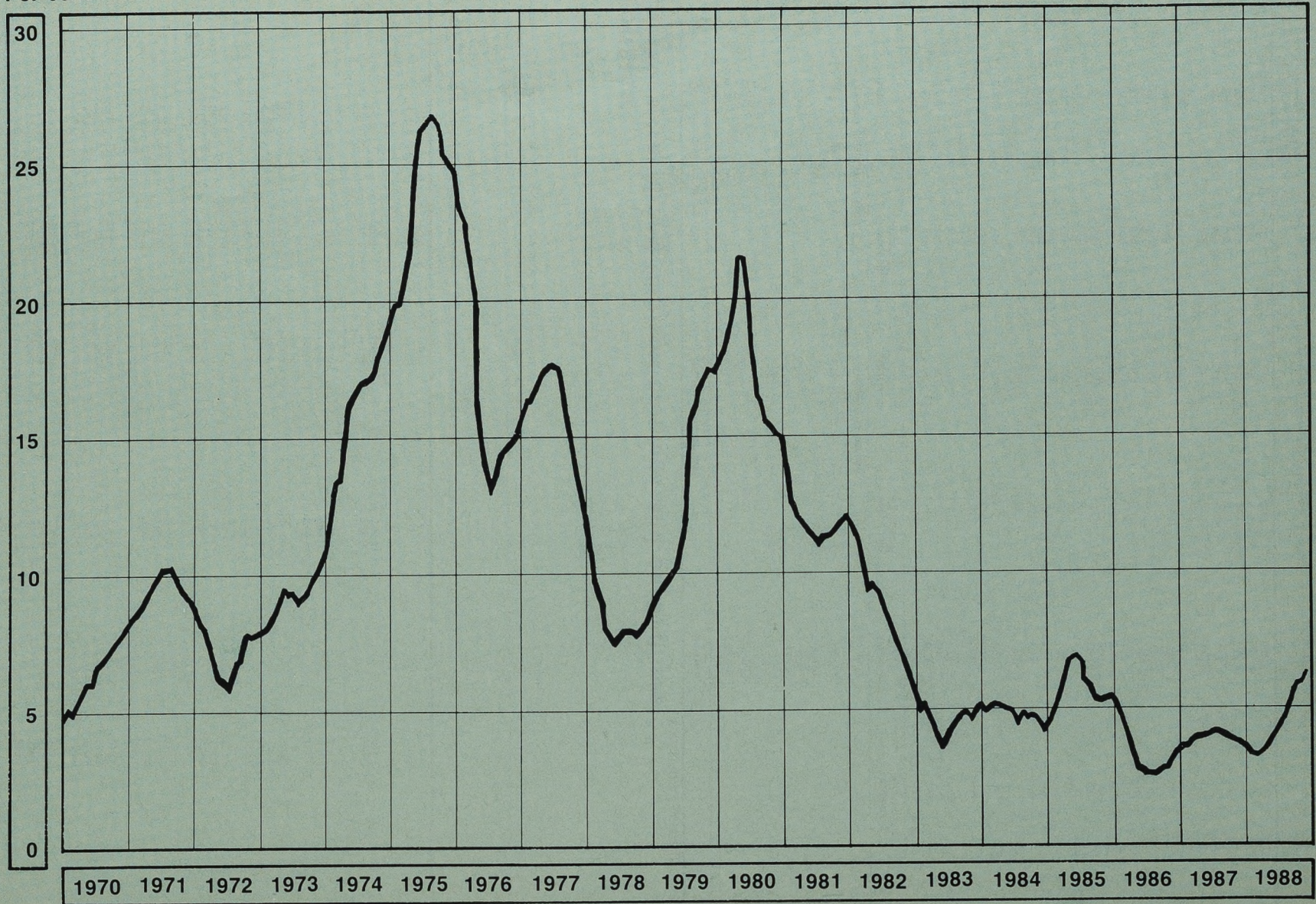


Table 7 Characteristics of small independent establishments

	Independent establishments N = 100 per cent	Home-based	Business premises	Home-based	Business premises
No of people employed full-time at establishments including owner-manager salesmen, drivers, etc					
	Row = 100 per cent			Column = 100 per cent	
1-2	366,120	48	52	69	39
3-4	134,780	27	73	14	20
5-9	127,510	22	78	11	20
10-24	90,820	15	85	5	16
25-49	28,750	11	89	1	5
All under 25	719,220	35	65	99	95
All 25-49	28,750	11	89	1	5
Age of business (date started)					
before 1977: 11+ years	376,770	34	66	51	50
1978-81: 6-10 years	96,570	35	65	13	13
1982-85: 2-6 years	150,040	26	74	15	23
1986-88: up to 2.5 years	124,590	42	58	21	15
Type of business					
Government subcontractors (GP, etc)	380,100	17	83	3	6
Limited company	196,360	17	83	13	33
Partnership	127,620	42	58	21	15
Sole trader	350,260	43	57	60	40
Other (clubs, charities, etc)	35,730	21	79	3	6
Sex of respondent (usually owner-manager)					
Male	528,230	30	70	63	75
Female	219,740	43	57	38	25
Industry					
Mining, construction, etc	84,070	66	34	22	6
Manufacturing	113,760	18	82	8	19
Distribution	251,480	28	72	28	37
Government, health services	64,850	39	61	10	8
Business services, finances, etc	58,090	15	85	3	10
Personal services, recreation	113,010	43	57	19	13
Transport and utilities	32,840	44	56	6	4
Other, don't know, no answer	29,880	36	64	4	4
Location:					
major cities	231,650	24	76	22	35
other	516,330	38	62	78	65
Region					
North	267,340	33	67	34	36
Midlands	161,280	44	56	28	18
South	319,350	30	70	38	45
All independent establishments in Britain with up to 50 workers	748,000	34	66	250,000	500,000

form of the business and even with growth as measured by the number of employees.

These three characteristics taken together have consequences for further growth of the business.

As might be expected, new businesses are usually home-based. Some three-quarters of people using the government's Enterprise Allowance Scheme work at home or from home as a base. A spring 1987 national survey of small businesses set up in the period 1983-87 found that over four-fifths worked at home, or using their home as a base, with less than one-fifth having a separate workplace (Hakim, 1988, p 430).

Because of the requirement that the business must be sufficiently well established to have a business telephone line, the Business Line survey identifies fewer of these very new and small business start-ups. Even among firms set up within the preceding 2½ years, less than half (42 per cent) were home-based, the majority already having separate premises. Among older firms around two-thirds have separate premises (table 7). But it is notable that even among the oldest small firms, with over ten years in business, one-third remain home-based. Not surprisingly, construction firms are especially likely to remain home-based.

The transition from a home-based business to one with separate premises is closely associated with an expansion in the staff from an initial one or two people only (which might be the owner plus another relative in the first

instance) and with the transition from unincorporated to incorporated status (table 7).

The great majority of home-based small firms consist of sole traders (60 per cent) and partnerships (21 per cent) with only the owner-manager and no staff or just one other full-time worker (69 per cent), even though the business is most commonly at least 10 years old (table 7).

Firms with separate business premises and with fewer than 50 staff are a more mixed group, including shops and pubs as well as manufacturing workshops, GP surgeries and mini-cab co-ops. The group includes sole traders (40 per cent) and partnerships (15 per cent) as well as limited companies (33 per cent), and small workforces of 1 to 2 people as well as workforces of 10 or more staff (table 7). But the general trend is highlighted by the fact that four-fifths (83 per cent) of the limited companies have separate business premises (as well as a business telephone line) and almost all (89 per cent) of the firms with 25 to 49 employees also have separate business premises (table 7).

Other characteristics do not differentiate between small firms to any great extent. Overall 70 per cent are run by men, 30 per cent by women—very much in line with the pattern found among the self-employed nationally (Hakim, 1988, p 421). One-third are located in the six major cities (London, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Manchester, Liverpool and Birmingham) and two-thirds in other areas. However the proportions change among home-based businesses, with four-fifths located outside major cities.

There is a small tendency for small firms with 25 to 49 employees and firms with separate business premises, to be concentrated in the south of Britain, which is not surprising.

Thus the three key factors of the legal form of the business, size (in terms of numbers of workers/employees) and whether home-based or with separate business premises combine to create three main types of small firm. Among these small firms, there are some 200,000 unincorporated businesses that are home-based and employ no more than two persons (including the owner-manager). There are roughly another 200,000 unincorporated businesses employing no more than two people full-time, but with separate business premises. And there are just under 200,000 incorporated firms with separate business premises, virtually all of them employing more than just two people. Many other combinations complete the picture, but they are all much rarer types of small firm.

It is tempting to look for a natural progression between these three types of business, locating each type at a point along a continuum from the new and small to the larger, incorporated firm. But the indications are that they each represent different and stable forms of small business. Which is why the three groups are so large. Change and evolution are more likely to be found among the other types that are numerically rarer—such as the home-based business that has already been incorporated, or already employs over ten employees.

Sociological research based on case studies also cautions us against looking for 'stages of growth' patterns in these data, and points to the different kinds of entrepreneur and the small businesses they create—such as the artisan entrepreneur (or craftsman entrepreneur), the small firm manager and the opportunistic (or classical) entrepreneur. The social action model of the small firm offered by Stanworth and Curran (1976) is dynamic, and can explain change and growth without insisting that the only goal of the small firm is growth.

We turn now to an assessment of whether there are any marked differences between small firms in terms of aspirations for growth and patterns of growth.

Aspirations for growth

The ideology of self-employment contains two separate strands. The first emphasises independence, flexibility, choice and freedom. The second stresses financial rewards: the idea of earning more money than as an employee, and

of reaping the rewards of one's labour. People who have recently set up their own business mention both these attractions, but it is notable that the 'independence' motive is twice as common as the 'financial rewards' motive (Hakim, 1988, pp 433-437). As Curran points out, not all small businesses are entrepreneurial; most owner-managers are simply cloning an existing, well proven form of enterprise (such as the corner shop) and many people simply prefer to 'own their own job' (Curran, 1986, p 17; Curran and Burrows, 1987, pp 165-168).

So it is not really surprising that all surveys show that only a minority of small firms aim for, or achieve, fast growth.

The June 1988 Business Line survey shows that only one in ten small firms seek rapid expansion (table 8). Fast growth firms are outnumbered three to one by firms seeking slow steady growth. And slow growth firms are outnumbered by firms that have already achieved their desired expansion, and do not plan further growth. This latter group—which can be called no growth firms for convenience—numbers some 400,000 small firms or over half the total (table 8).

It is well known that questions about aims, plans, aspirations and hopes for the future are vulnerable to small changes of emphasis in question-wording, which can have a large impact on the pattern of response. So it is all the more notable that two surveys carried out quite independently of each other, and with quite different question-wording, both produce the same answers.

The September 1987 Business Line survey had a single question worded quite differently from the two June 1988 questions, with 'significant expansion' being the first option read out to respondents instead of the last. In effect, small firm owners and managers were encouraged to say they aimed for growth rather than no further change. On the other hand the September 1987 question included 'a degree of contraction' as one option for change, whereas the June 1988 question did not (compare tables 8 and 9).

Given the quite different wording of the earlier question, it is remarkable how similar the results are to those of the June 1988 survey. One in seven firms aim for fast growth; one-third aim for slow growth; and just over half fall into the no growth category. This survey reveals that the no growth group includes a small minority that anticipate a contraction rather than maintaining their current level of business (table 9). Overall, the results are virtually identical to the pattern shown in the June 1988 survey.

The September 1987 survey contained a fortunate

Table 8 Small firms' plans for growth, June 1988

	All small firms		Home-based		Business premises	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
We have found that some companies have already achieved their desired expansion and do not plan further substantial growth, while others say they are looking to expand their business. Which of these categories apply to you?						
Stay the same (No growth firms)	408,690	55	174,020	69	234,680	47
Likely to expand, and expansion seen as:	339,280	45	79,530	31	259,750	53
Slow steady growth (Slow growth firms)	261,620	35	61,238	24	200,008	40
More rapid expansion probably with either new products or entering new markets (Fast growth firms)	73,520	10	17,497	7	54,547	11
Don't know, no answer	4,140	*	795	*	5,195	2
Total all independent firms with fewer than 50 workers/employees	747,970	100	253,550	100	494,430	100

Table 9 Small firms' plans for growth, 1987

	Establishments with fewer than 50 employees		Total
	Independent small firms	Parts of larger organisation	
	per cent		
Different organisations have different attitudes to growth—would you say you were:			
— actively looking for significant expansion	15	36	22
— expecting to grow, but fairly slowly	33	32	33
— more concerned to maintain current level	47	30	40
— anticipating a degree of contraction	5	2	4
Total (including no reply)			
— national estimate	716,500	443,400	1,159,930
— base N	1,237	781	2,018

Source: September 1987 Business Line Survey

mistake in that the distinction between small firms and small establishments was overlooked and the questions aimed at small firms were actually addressed to all small establishments instead. This was fortunate for our purposes, as it allows us to draw comparisons between independent small firms with fewer than 50 staff and establishments of the same size that are parts of a larger organisation (branch offices, headquarter offices and other subsidiaries). Not surprisingly, some 4 per cent of establishments could not answer the question about growth plans—no doubt policy was made elsewhere. But the vast majority did answer the question, and show that fast growth plans are far more common among subsidiaries of larger organisations than among the small firms. One third of the subsidiaries said they were actively looking for significant expansion—twice as many as among the independent small firms. The effect of combining this big firm element with the small firm responses is to create a far more even distribution between the no growth, slow growth and fast growth groups (*table 9*), which we now know is misleading. On balance the results of the June 1988 survey are the most accurate as they do not rely on leading questions.

It might be objected that plans and aspirations can be (and indeed should be) optimistic rather than realistic, thus presenting an exaggerated picture of actual growth patterns. However the results of another survey suggest that plans tend to be realistic, and closely parallel actual growth.

The Small Business Research Trust (SBRT) conducts a quarterly survey of the members of the three key small firms associations: the National Federation of the Self-Employed (NFSE), the Forum of Private Business and the Association of Independent Business.⁴

Almost all (over 95 per cent) respondents to the quarterly survey have fewer than 50 employees (part-time as well as full-time). So the SBRT quarterly survey covers firms of much the same size as the Business Line Survey—although (as noted earlier) very small firms are less well represented (see *table 5*).

At periodic intervals the quarterly survey obtains information on patterns of expansion and contraction, actual change as well as expected change. The results

demonstrate that expectations are generally more conservative than actual change (SBRT, 1985 and following years). In the small firms sector plans, aspirations and expectations do not generally run ahead of reality; if anything the contrary is true.

Although the SBRT survey does not claim to provide nationally representative results (as does the Business Line survey), the picture of actual change is in fact a close parallel of the picture of growth plans. One quarter of small firms experienced growth in sales *and* employment in the period spring 1987 to spring 1988; four per cent experienced a contraction of sales *and* employment over the year (a figure very similar to the 5 per cent anticipating contraction in *table 9*). Two-thirds of respondents reported either no change or else mixed changes in sales and staffing levels (*table 10*). This pattern of results has remained virtually unchanged since 1985, although the proportion of small firms experiencing a contraction in their business does seem to be declining over the 1980s (SBRT, 1985 and following years).

In sum, roughly half of small firms have attained their preferred size with no further plans for growth. At any one point in time only a very small minority plan rapid expansion, with rather more planning slow growth. The very rarity of fast growth small firms suggests that they will have clearly identifiable features distinguishing them from all the others.

Characteristics of fast growth firms

The degree of separation between home and workplace, the legal form of the business and size as measured by the number of workers or employees are all associated with the distinction between no growth, slow growth and fast growth small firms.

Most home-based small firms have a no growth strategy—69 per cent as shown in *table 8*. Four-fifths serve a purely local market, and the vast majority (91 per cent) do not expect this to change in the future. The majority (85 per cent) have not increased their staff in the last year. The majority (79 per cent) have never asked for any outside advice, counselling or consultancy to help in running and developing the business, and the majority (77 per cent) would not consider asking any outsider for advice or consultancy to help in running or developing the business in the future.

The size and legal form of the business have similar effects. For example incorporated businesses are most likely to serve a market that is regional, national or

Table 10 Expanding and contracting small firms*

	1987-Q3 compared with 1986-Q3 Per cent	1988-Q2 compared with 1987-Q2 Per cent
Expanding small firms (sales up <i>and</i> employment up)	26	28
Contracting small firms (sales down <i>and</i> employment down)	5	4
All other respondents (including mixed pattern of change and no response)	69	68
Total	100	100
Base: number of respondents	977	983

* Level of employment (full-time and part-time staff) and sales turnover in current quarter as compared with the same quarter one year previously.

Source: Small Business Research Trust Quarterly Survey of Small Business in Britain, vol 3, no 4, 1987, page 8 and vol 4, no 3, 1988, page 8.

international rather than purely local, and most likely to believe their market will change in the future. They are most likely to employ more staff than they did one year ago (one-third compared to one-fifth of all other types of business). They are most likely to have ever obtained advice on running and developing the business in the past (one-third compared to one-fifth of other types of business); and they are more open to seeking such advice in the future (one-third would do so compared to one-quarter of other types of business).

Detailed analysis allows the identification of the key watersheds in business expansion, measured in the number of full-time staff. These are:

- 1 to 2 workers: the self-employed person with at most one other full time worker/partner
- 3 to 9 full-time employees
- 10 to 24 full-time employees
- 25 to 49 full-time employees

It is notable that this classification supports Wright's classification of the *petite bourgeoisie*, small employer and *bourgeoisie* (Wright, 1985; see also Marshall, 1988) although it adds a further significant break at under/over 25 employees, and there may well be other break points at 100

employees and so on. Although exact comparisons cannot be made, a special study of expanding firms in the SBRT Quarterly Survey also identified natural break points at around 10 and 100 employees (SBRT, 1986, pp 7–10).

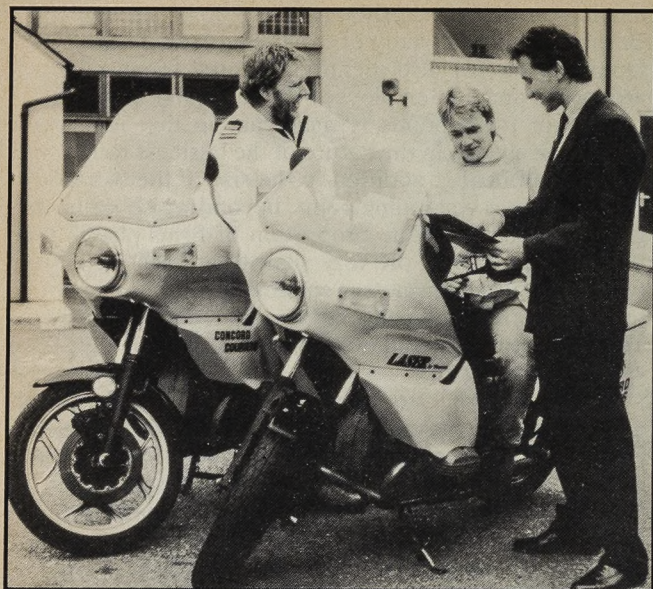
Each of these points is significant in that it marks a qualitative change in the nature of the business rather than just a small further addition to the size of the workforce. Each serves as a stopping point, beyond which no further growth is planned. The proportion of firms planning no further growth falls off very sharply at each step, from two-thirds of the businesses employing only 1 to 2 people, to half of those employing 3 to 9 people, one-third of those employing 10 to 24, and one-fifth of those employing 25 to 49 staff (*table 11*).

In summary, no growth firms are typically unincorporated businesses (sole proprietorships or, less frequently, partnerships) that are home-based and employ only 1 or 2 people including the owner-manager. In contrast, fast growth firms are typically incorporated businesses with larger workforces based in separate business premises. All other factors (such as region, location in a major city or elsewhere and so forth) are of minimal or no importance. The only exception is age of the business. Most new businesses (created within the last three years) that have a business telephone line are

Table 11 Characteristics of fast growth, slow growth and no growth small firms

	No growth firms	Slow growth firms	Fast growth firms	No growth firms	Slow growth firms	Fast growth firms
	Column = 100 per cent			Row = 100 per cent		
No of people employed full-time at establishment including owner-manager, salesman, drivers, etc						
0-2	60	38	26	68	27	6
3-4	15	22	21	47	42	11
5-9	15	20	19	47	48	11
10-24	8	15	25	37	42	21
25-49	2	6	9	23	55	22
All under 25	98	94	91	56	35	9
All 25-49	2	6	9	23	55	22
Age of business (date started)						
before 1977: 11+ years	60	40	33	66	28	7
1978-81: 6-10 years	12	14	15	52	37	12
1982-85: 2-6 years	16	26	21	45	45	10
1986-88: up to 2.5 years	11	21	31	37	45	18
Type of business						
Government dependency (GP, etc)	7	2	4	76	16	8
Limited company	20	32	44	41	42	17
Partnership	15	21	16	48	43	9
Sole trader	54	41	33	63	30	7
Other (clubs, charities, etc)	3	4	3	54	39	7
Sex of respondent (usually owner-manager)						
Male	67	75	74	52	37	10
Female	33	25	26	61	30	9
Industry						
Mining, construction, etc	15	6	9	73	19	8
Manufacturing	13	17	21	47	40	13
Distribution	33	35	32	54	37	9
Government, health services	9	8	10	56	32	12
Business services, finance, etc	5	11	9	37	52	11
Personal services, recreation	15	16	12	56	37	8
Transport and utilities	3	5	8	41	41	18
Other, don't know, no answer	6	1	1	86	12	2
Location: major cities	29	35	30	51	39	10
other	71	65	70	57	33	10
home-based	43	23	25	69	24	7
business premises	57	77	75	48	41	11
Region						
North	39	31	33	60	31	9
Midlands	24	20	15	60	33	7
South	37	49	52	48	40	12
All independent establishments in Britain with up to 50 workers	410,000	260,000	75,000	55	35	10

⁴ See note 3 on page 32.



Simon Bliss (right) started Concord Couriers with £500, a car, a borrowed motorcycle and his parents' spare room. His motorcycle messenger service last year achieved a turnover of £1.3 million and a staff of 100.

planning further growth, whereas most older businesses (running for 11 years or more) plan no further growth (table 11).

These results seem conclusive enough. But of course they aren't.

Firms that have stopped growing, at one or another of the key stopping points, have grown in the past in order to reach their current size. The analysis has not really been able to differentiate between small firms that have never grown beyond the original owner-manager (plus one other in some cases) and small firms that have stopped growing at one of the watershed points. The Labour Force Survey shows that one-person businesses without any employees are by far the most common, numbering some 2.0 million in spring 1987 (table 3). We still do not really know what leads some people to go no further than 'owning their own job' while others go on to create larger enterprises.

The results only report probabilistic statements, without denying that the opposite can also be true, albeit less commonly so. For example three-quarters of fast growth firms have separate business premises, but then so do roughly half of no growth firms. Two-thirds of the no growth firms employ only 1 to 2 people, but then this is also true of one-quarter of fast growth firms. Almost half of the fast growth firms are limited companies, but then again so are one-fifth of the no growth businesses. And so on.

None of the characteristics of no growth and fast growth firms are mutually exclusive to a sufficient degree to allow us to make predictions about future expansion. A change of status from sole trader to limited company, for example, is not in itself a guarantee or reliable predictor of future business development.

Other research on picking winners

Other studies have also failed to identify any distinctive or distinguishing features of fast growth firms, even among larger and more profitable small firms. Perhaps the most noteworthy is a recently completed study by Storey, Watson and Wynarczyk (1988) of fast growth firms in North-East England. The study set out to identify observable and important differences between a group of 20 fast growth firms and a control group of 20 firms that were matched on age and industry, but with no attempt to identify their growth record. The study showed marked

differences between the two groups on what might be described as the defining characteristics of fast growth firms, but it was unable to identify any other features which might reliably differentiate between the two groups—for example, to enable financiers and accountants to pick out the fast growth firms.⁵

For example, the stated ambitions and objectives of fast growth firms placed somewhat more emphasis on a desire to increase market share or sales and to achieve long term growth, whereas owners of the matched firms placed more emphasis on job satisfaction (table 12). On the other hand both groups worked equally long hours, and gave equal emphasis to achieving high profits and maintaining high standards. The majority of fast growth firms were expanding their product range: over four-fifths compared to two-fifths of the control group. On the face of it, fast growth firms had grown faster since they were founded, and had larger workforces, assets and funds measured in absolute terms. However there were no differences between the two groups in terms of relative profitability; if anything the control group had a higher rate of return on assets and investments.

On most other factors, the similarities between the two groups outweighed the differences. No differences could be identified in the characteristics and previous work experience of the firms' founders, nor in the events providing the catalyst for the transition out of employee jobs and into self-employment.

Fast growth firms were slightly more likely than the control group to export some of their product. But even here differences are a matter of degree rather than sharp differentiating features: 45 per cent of the fast growth firms exported at least some of their product compared with only 15 per cent of the 20 matched firms; 20 per cent were significant exporters compared with only 5 per cent of matched firms. Putting aside the small size of the two study groups, the narrow geographical location and other features which prevent broad generalisation, one could not conclude from these group differences that a fast growth firm had to be an exporter: most did not.

The one major difference between the two groups was that fast growth firms normally had a marketing expert in the management team compared with only one-third of the control group. In this case, it is not easy to sort out whether this is a cause or consequence of being a fast growth firm, as the authors admit.

The study found that fast growth firms seek advice from public and private sources (accountants, government departments and so forth) more often than the matched group. But here again, there is no suggestion that they

Table 12 Small business owners' own criteria for judging the success of their business

	Fast growth firms Per cent	Matched firms Per cent
Achieving high profits	37	35
Increasing sales	8	—
Increasing market share	23	11
Achieving long term growth	15	4
Achieving job satisfaction	9	34
Providing a job for life	6	8
Maintaining high standards	3	8
Total	100	100
Base (number of firms)	37	26

Source: Table 9.9 in Storey, Watson and Wynarczyk (1988).

⁵ The 40 firms in the study were virtually all single establishment businesses, and all were located in North East England. Fifteen firms in each group were manufacturers and five were in the service sector, so the industrial composition of the 40 firms does not correspond with the national picture in any case, quite apart from the fact that a sample of this size can only be illustrative rather than representative. Full details are given in the report by Storey, Watson and Wynarczyk (1988).

dominate the advice-seeking group; on the contrary they would form a minority among advice-seekers.

As Storey, Watson and Wynarczyk themselves concluded, differences between the two groups of firm emerge as they get older, so the characteristics of fast growth firms become apparent with hindsight—after firms with similar characteristics have ceased to trade. They note that there is even less hope of identifying fast growth firms at the start up phase, or early in the life of the firm—as we have already discovered.

These results provide yet another illustration of the fact that tests of statistical significance provide a poor measure of the size or magnitude, and the substantive or practical importance of research results (Morrison and Henkel, 1970, p 106). Most social scientists rely heavily, explicitly or implicitly, on tests of statistical significance to assess whether their results are 'important'. But policy research is focused on actionable results, and hence requires much larger and more robust results that are of substantive significance (Hakim, 1987b, p 7). For example, it is not sufficient for fast growth firms to be significantly more likely to have a characteristic if that characteristic is still found among a minority of such firms and thus cannot be used as an identifying feature for selective assistance or benefits—as in the case of export activity within Storey's sample of firms.

The results of this highly focused study are consistent with the results of a much larger recent study by the same team which sought to isolate the identifying characteristics of firms which fail as well as those of fast growth firms. This earlier study was restricted to single-plant independent manufacturing companies which traded at some stage between 1965 and 1978 in North East England.

The report provides a wealth of research findings, which tend to obscure from view the central conclusions. The research team concluded that it is not possible to devise an identikit picture of a successful manufacturing limited company which is likely to create significant numbers of new jobs, even though such companies are very different from the 'norm' (of failure) from the second year of their life, and they admit that they had made extremely limited progress towards producing a satisfactory model of small firm failure (Storey, Keasey, Watson and Wynarczyk, 1987, pp 170, 317).

The best predictor identified by the study correctly classified 76 per cent of failures and non-failures in the 1970s compared with the 50 per cent which could be obtained by chance. However, the authors acknowledge that the financial indicators needed to produce the predictions required detailed accounting information of the sort presented in annual reports lodged at Companies House, so their best predictor was thus not a practical decision aid even before 1981: it could not be applied to unincorporated small firms, and relied heavily on formal accounting data that is most likely to be lacking in the run-up to a business failure. Since then, the very different macro-economic conditions of the 1980s may affect the reliability of the predictor, but the UK 1981 Companies Act renders their best predictor non-feasible and non-operational in many cases, even for incorporated small companies. The 1981 Act included a reporting concession which allows small companies to submit only an abridged set of accounts to Companies House. Thus the failure prediction model could not be operated unless one obtained access to the full set of accounts produced for the company's shareholders (Storey, Keasey, Watson and Wynarczyk, 1987, pp 15, 256, 296-7, 322-3).

The unavoidable conclusion is that no matter how desirable it may be in principle, a selective policy of support



Saree shop on Soho Road, Birmingham.

Photo: Roshini Kempadoo/Format

for small firms is simply unworkable, not feasible on operational grounds, neither at the business start up stage nor later on when the small firm has begun to expand into a sizeable company.

The behaviour of fast growth small firms

One final possibility is that fast growth firms distinguish themselves by their behaviour. Advice-seeking behaviour is of particular interest to all organisations that provide advice and consultancy to small firms.⁶ Are the firms that actively seek advice from the Small Firms Service, Local Enterprise Agencies and similar organisations a self-selected group that have the greatest growth potential?

Again, the answer is equivocal. Firms planning rapid expansion are much more likely than no growth firms to be open to advice and to actively seek it (table 13). For example, half of the fast growth firms would consider obtaining advice on business development compared to one-fifth of no growth firms. Self-selection is operating, as expected.

On the other hand those that have obtained advice in the past, or that would consider doing so in the future are almost as mixed a group as those that prefer to go it alone (table 14). Fast growth firms are found in both groups, along with slow growth and no growth firms. Although fast growth firms are rather more likely to be found among the

Table 13 Propensity to seek advice

	Ever asked for advice in the past?	Would consider advice in the future?
	Per cent Yes	Per cent Yes
No growth firms	17	18
Slow growth firms	33	37
Fast growth firms	34	52
All small firms with 0-50 staff	24	28

⁶ There are a variety of public and private sector organisations providing advice and consultancy to small firms including: Small Firms Service (ED); Local Enterprise Agencies, Business Expansion Scheme and others at the Department of Trade and Industry; Shell Enterprise Unit; and so on.

Table 14 Advice-seekers and go-it-alone firms

	Per cent		
	Yes	No	All
Whether firm has ever asked for outside advice, counselling or consultancy to help in running and developing the business in the past			
No growth firms	38	60	55
Slow growth firms	48	31	35
Fast growth firms	14	9	10
Total	100	100	100
Whether would consider seeking such advice in the future			
No growth firms	35	62	55
Slow growth firms	47	32	35
Fast growth firms	18	6	10
Total	100	100	100

advice-seekers than among the go-it-alone group, the fact remains that they are a small proportion of all firms seeking advice, never more than one-fifth at the outside.

It is the slow growth firms that predominate among advice-seekers, about half the total (table 14). From a practical point of view, it may not be so easy to distinguish them from no growth advice seekers. So even here there is no basis for a selective assistance policy, quite apart from the fact that all three categories of small firm may value the advice obtained as being helpful to each of them within their circumstances.



Photo: Margaret Robinson Photography

Mr and Mrs Harkness have managed to turn around their small hotel business in Blackpool from no bookings to full house.

It could be argued that a policy of selective assistance is not necessary as there is already a sufficient degree of self-selection operating. Table 14 shows that most (two-thirds) of the firms that claim to have no interest at all in advice and consultancy are no growth firms. In contrast, most (two-thirds) of the firms that are now interested in advice and counselling, or have sought it in the past, are those seeking growth—either slow and steady growth or rapid expansion. If we abandon the focus on the small group of fast growth firms to consider all firms seeking growth, then advice-seekers are for the most part appropriately self-selected.

Table 15 Relationship between past and future growth

	No increase in staff over last year			Some increase in staff over last year			All small firms
	0-25 staff	25-49 staff	Total	0-25 staff	25-49 staff	Total	
No growth	66	54	65	26	4	24	55
Slow growth	28	46	29	53	62	53	35
Fast growth	6	0	6	21	34	23	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 16 Relationship between recent and anticipated growth

	Proportion (per cent) with increase in staff in last year
No growth firms	11
Slow growth firms	39
Fast growth firms	59

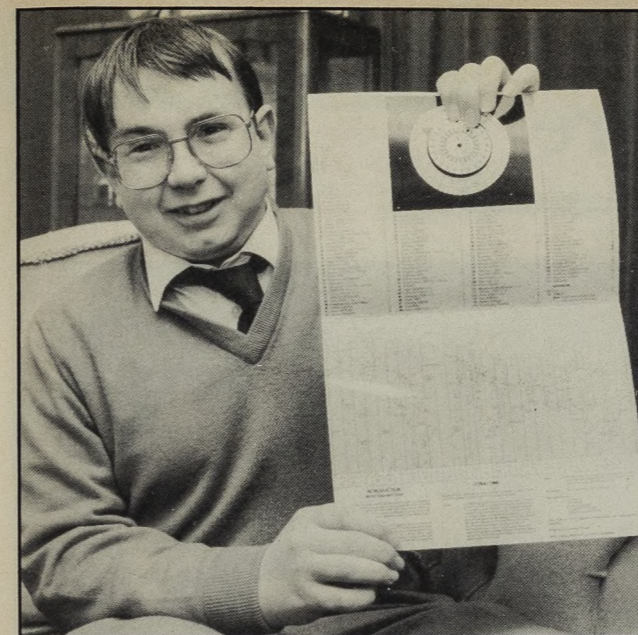


Photo: Margaret Robinson Photography

Despite a partial handicap, Neil Norris was determined to be independent. He designed products and now has formed a small company with his father to market them.

The factor most strongly associated with growth plans is past growth. Only 6 per cent of the smallest firms (under 25 staff) with no staff increase in the past year are planning rapid expansion. This increases almost six-fold to 34 per cent among larger firms (with 25 to 49 staff) that had some increase in staff in the past year (table 15). Firms planning no further growth had rarely taken on any extra staff in the past year (11 per cent had done so); in contrast almost two-thirds (59 per cent) of the firms anticipating fast growth had taken on new staff in the previous year (table 16). Past growth is the best predictor of future growth. Success breeds success. Advice tends to help the process along, but then those planning growth are most likely to seek advice. Even then, a 'pick the winner' policy could only work when a business is already set on a path of expansion and growth.

Conclusions

Fast growth small firms represent a tiny minority of the small firm sector, let alone the entire business community. The Business Line survey identified fewer than 100,000 fast growth small firms with fewer than 50 staff and a business telephone line. Small firms aiming for slow steady growth are far more numerous: over one quarter of a million in mid-1988. The largest single group of small firms consists of firms that have fulfilled their growth objectives and seek no further growth—some 400,000 in mid-1988.

Contrary to expectation, it proves impossible to pinpoint any key distinguishing feature of fast growth firms compared with no growth firms. Although certain characteristics are more common among fast growth firms, they are never exclusive, and small proportions of no growth firms display the same features. Fast growth firms may be rare, but they do not look any different from the rest.

Very similar results were obtained from another recent study of fast growth firms carried out by David Storey himself—the main proponent of a policy of selective aid to small firms.

The inescapable conclusion is that a selective aid policy is simply not feasible. Irrespective of the economic, social and political merits of such a policy, it could not be made to work. ■

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"People are the Group's most important asset".

Photo: David Kendall

People—the key to success

by Julian Haviland

This article describes the progress made on Human Resource Development (HRD) in the Employment Department Group. It gives a view of the department's strategy set out in the booklet, *Developing People in the Employment Department Group: An Agenda for Action*.

“What on earth are you talking about?” asked a puzzled under secretary at the Department of Employment when I wondered what he was doing in the way of HRD. That was a year ago, and the initials then were meaningless to him and to many of his colleagues. Not so today, I suspect. A booklet which went last month to every one in the Employment Department Group put human resource development at or near the top of the agenda, and declared: “HRD is an essential investment if the Group is to meet future challenges effectively.”

The joint authors were Geoffrey Holland, the permanent secretary, and his four chief executives, Mike Fogden, head of the Employment Service, Roger Dawe of the

Training Agency, John Rimington (Health and Safety Executive) and Douglas Smith (ACAS). Because of the commitment of these five top men to the programme of action which the booklet describes, its publication is a notable event. It is of much potential importance in the promotion of three linked and worthy objectives: the greater success of British enterprise, the greater efficiency and effectiveness of government and—more fundamental even than these—the morale of every man or woman employed in either the private or the public sector.

Human resource development is the systematic application within an employing organisation of an idea so obvious that most employers would think it hardly worth discus-

sing: that, if you treat your employees intelligently and considerately, then both their personal lives and your corporate life—your business—will thrive. So obvious that only a fool would dissent? Yes, but—as I have seen in talking with a number of enthusiasts for HRD—a simple idea can raise enough practical difficulties to daunt many a busy board member or manager. After more than two years' gestation, in spite of the energetic advocacy of respected chief executives like Bob Reid of Shell, John Egan of Jaguar and others, HRD has looked until now like an idea whose time had not quite come. Perhaps this shove from Holland and his colleagues will be found during 1989 to have brought it at last into full public recognition.

Background

First, a little history: Neddy (the National Economic Development Council) in 1986 brought together a steering group to consider ways of encouraging organisations to invest adequately in the people they employ. Their spur was the growth of international competition and perception that British employers in general were not good at mobilising the abilities of their people. Their labours produced some excellent practical guidance to employers on how to plan strategically for the development and deployment of their people with as much care as they design their products or develop their markets. “People, the key to

This article gives an independent view of the development of HRD in the Employment Department Group. Julian Haviland is a freelance journalist and broadcaster.

success” was the Neddy slogan, and their literature cites the best practice in firms which lead the field in good internal communications; in giving learning opportunities to their workforce; in relating pay to performance by equitable methods of assessment; in everything that is likely to make an employee keen, competent, adaptable and happy.

Another study, by the Confederation of British Industry, of the practices of successful companies led to publication in November 1988 of their report “People—the cutting edge”. This expressed the concern that for too many British firms the revolution in the management of people, on which their survival depended, had not yet begun.

The Neddy group included employer and trade union participants. The only two representatives of the public sector (apart from the Neddy members) were Geoffrey Holland and Roger Dawe. Geoffrey Holland, then director of the Manpower Services Commission, adopted his own advice promptly. An internal review which he instituted found many good things but some weaknesses—for example, that the Commission was not good at trying to foresee what tasks would be likely to fall to its people and whether they would cope. A wholly new HRD strategy for the MSC was adopted.

Strategy for the Employment Department Group

The latest booklet now describes such a strategy for the whole Employment Department Group and, although its foundations were laid before Geoffrey Holland's promotion last March, it displays his continuing zeal (as he put it in conversation with me) “to turn on its head the old approach in which people were residual”. The new message, he says, is that what the Employment Department Group is able to do, is determined by the people it employs and by their capability.

On the first page the five co-authors subscribe to what should be a truism but, sadly, is not always so regarded: “people are the Group's most important asset.” They go on to lay down that, since the Employment Department's work “is fundamentally about the application and development of the national human resource”, the development of all staff is to be a prime corporate objective from 1989 onward. At the same time HRD is to be fully incorporated into operational planning at all levels.

An “agenda for action”, to motivate and develop staff, is then set out and it includes an improved annual reporting system; personal development plans; better arrangements for promotion and for management succession; a study of the need for new formal qualifications to encourage professionalism; and (rather more sensitive) a review of pay arrangements to see whether they provide adequate performance incentives. Urgent work is being done on all these tasks.

“Opportunity” is the key word, and any formalism disappears when Geoffrey Holland explains that he wants his people so far as possible to be able to choose for themselves the patterns which their lives and their careers will follow. “People must own their careers,” he said. “HRD is not something that is done to them.”

A summary of Employment Department Group objectives reminds staff that their business is to help young people prepare better for work, unemployed people to get the skills they need and everyone to build upon their skills throughout working life. So the Group must set an example and aim as an employer “to be equal to the best outside the Civil Service,” making the most of each employee's talent and potential.

Is it Geoffrey Holland's second, unspoken objective that the Group should also be the best employer within the Civil Service? “I think it is incumbent on this Department to be a leader—not necessarily the best, but certainly not behind the best.” He is well aware that the service will face ever stronger competition in a very tough job market. “If we are to recruit and retain people in the 1990s, we have to offer them opportunity, job satisfaction and progression. There's only one source of the needed skills, and that's the people we've got.”

Cost of HRD

HRD is expensive. Taken together, the expense of formal staff training, of the salaries of those engaged in it and personal development plans amount already to between four and five per cent of the group's running costs. But Geoffrey Holland says the Department won't be bidding in next year's public expenditure survey for more resources specifically for HRD, because “I'd be astonished if in our work there weren't things we could drop or stop to make room, time and money for HRD and training. It's very important to push at those before you queue up for more money.” The Department subscribes to the Management Charter Initiative Code of Practice which stipulates requisite support and time released for off-the-job training for each manager each year.

Unleashing initiative

The permanent secretary agreed that some field-workers in the Training Agency and the Employment Service might be tempted to think HRD a passing fashion, especially if there was no extra cash for it; and that development work was always likely to be set aside by people under pressure. But the pressure for HRD had come, he said, from those very staff members at the sharp end who, in their dealings with outside employers, had felt the need to equip themselves with more professional skills. “The thing has caught

fire at local level, and we've unleashed a tremendous amount of initiative locally, for example, in seeing a job that needs doing as a developmental opportunity for someone. There's great enthusiasm among managers who've already noticed an enhancement of motivation, indeed of competence, in their staff."

Pay—a key motivation

To an outsider the most interesting of the Department's reviews is the one considering how pay arrangements might be changed to meet managerial needs, including the need for incentives. The Group's HRD strategy acknowledges that pay is "a key motivator".

Private sector companies which take HRD seriously endorse that. Among such companies, the design of fair performance-related pay systems is a central preoccupation. Geoffrey Holland puts a gloss on his document here: "In his own department," he says with some pride, "the prime motivator is not the rewards system but the work that is done and its importance to individuals and the country. I think the rewards package matters less to someone who cares passionately about finding an unemployed person a job, for example, than to someone who makes or sells a non-essential consumer good."

The Treasury's system of merit pay, innovative by Whitehall standards, is tentative by comparison with such private-sector leaders as the MB Group (formerly Metal Box) which offers individual bonuses of up to 25 per cent. Geoffrey Holland is looking for a way of relating rewards to team performances as well as individual effort, knowing of colleagues who have been uncomfortable at being singled out for recognition because they have been conspicuous as team leaders. He is interested too in performance-related budgets, which allow people more money next year for programmes which prove this year that they are worth extra support. He wants to examine private sector practice "and not rush into a mechanistic system which could be the antithesis of a real performance-related system".

Management freedom

The Downing-Street-led thrust for improved management, and in particular the "Next Steps" move to create executive agencies, is his ally. The Ibbes Efficiency Unit's report said firmly that "to strengthen (the agencies') operational effectiveness there must be freedom to recruit, pay, grade and structure." Geoffrey Holland's discussions with Treasury colleagues have a familiar sound. "It's a chicken and egg, but they see a different chicken and a different egg. We say, if we are going to be accountable for results, if we're going to deliver the goods that Ministers expect of us and write into the contracts with agencies, then we need certain freedoms—for example, to vire money from one budget to another, to carry an underspend forward from one year to the next. We say 'we need those freedoms before we can deliver the results.' They say, and I understand their point of view, 'are you sure you need those freedoms? Show us the need first.'"

It is a happy thing for Geoffrey Holland, with his obvious



Geoffrey Holland

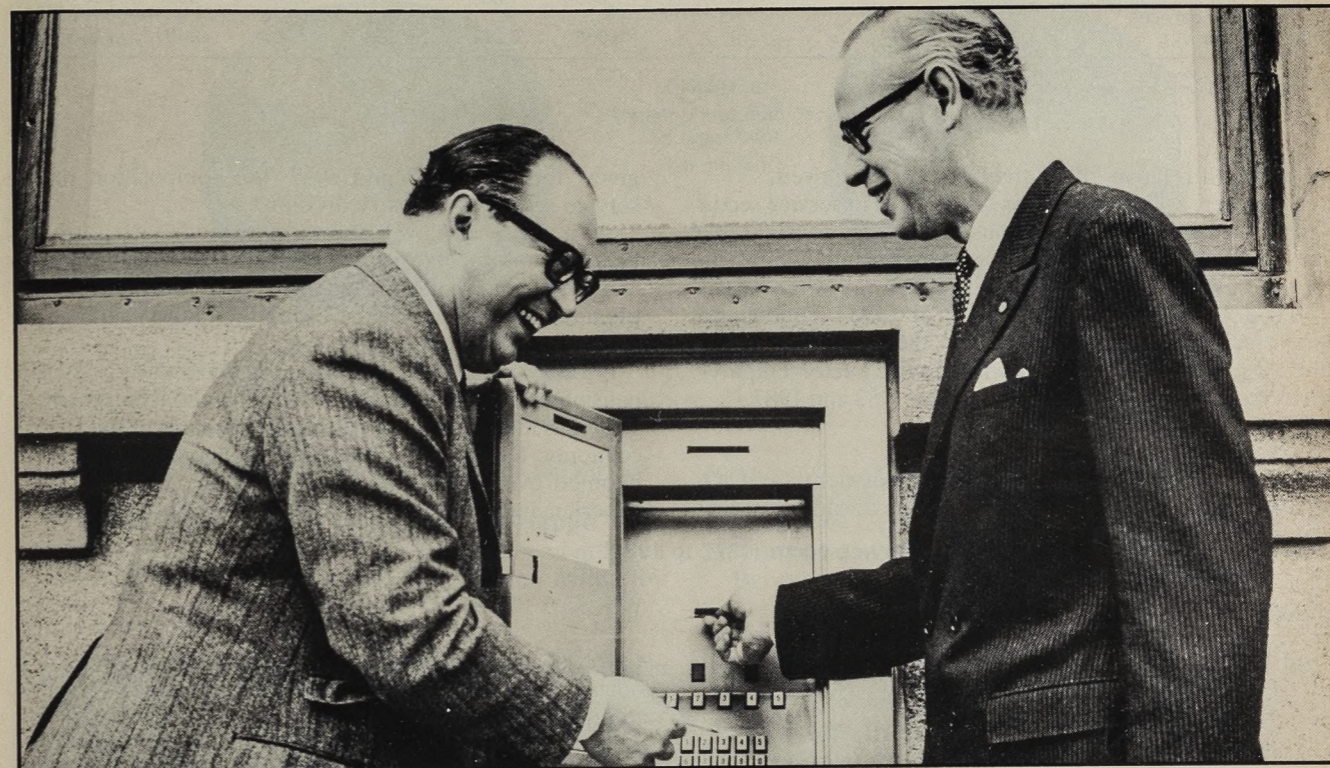
Photo: Jim Stagg

relish for path-finding, that his Group is likely to have two very big Ibbes-type agencies (certainly for some while); the Employment Service, 40,000 strong, looks likely to be the largest of all in staff numbers; and the Training Agency the largest spender on programmes, with a budget of some £3,000 million. The inevitable growth of different pay or recruitment arrangements for different tasks, once rooted in the agencies, seems bound to invade the headquarters of the Employment Department and others.

Annual reports

If so, its acceptance may depend on something which is closer than pay to the heart of HRD—a fair and above all open system of annual reporting and assessment, with no fear of an increment being given or withheld at a manager's whim. The Department is in no doubt that its established system of annual reports, must be reviewed and further improved. Constructive discussion between managers and staff members—about performance, about prospects for the service, the team and the individual—are of central importance and must become standard practice. This must be right. Soon, perhaps very soon, no successful employer, whether inside or outside the public service, will be allowed to offer anything less. ■

Special Feature



Banking, finance and insurance has shown a spectacular growth in employment.

Photo: Rex Features Ltd.

1977 to 1987: A decade of service

by N Graham, M Beatson and W Wells

Employment Market Research Unit, Department of Employment

This article considers what has happened in the service sector in Great Britain over the ten years from 1977 to 1987. It concentrates on employment trends but also gives some consideration to output, productivity and earnings. The decade was a period of transition and change within the economy, covering the downturn of the early 1980's and subsequent recovery.

- The period 1977–87 has been a decade of growth for both employment and output in the service sector.
- Employment growth has been particularly marked amongst the self-employed, workers in the financial sector, women and part timers.
- However, with the exception of some transport industries employment growth in service industries has been fairly general.
- There is some evidence that the share of employment in small establishments is growing.
- Employment growth in different industries has been accompanied by very different patterns of productivity

and earnings growth. Employment is determined by a variety of factors of which earnings and productivity are but two.

Employment

By June 1987 there were 16.3 million employed in service industries, 17.5 per cent more than a decade earlier. As a result, the service sector accounted for 67 per cent of the 24.1 million employed in all industries and services in 1987, compared with 58 per cent in 1977. In contrast, over the same period, the relative share of manufacturing employment has decreased from 31 to 22 per cent with an absolute

Employment advice and information

Department of Employment leaflets are listed on page 2

Inquiry office:
Telephone 01-273 6969

Table 1: Employment in services by industry at June each year

Great Britain SIC 1980	Division class or group	Thousands				Change 1977-87	
		1977	1980	1982	1987	number	per cent
All industries and services	0-9	23,969	24,408	23,025	24,126	157	0.7
Service industries	6-9	13,855	14,572	14,432	16,275	2,420	17.5
Distribution, hotels, catering, repairs, of which,	6	4,634	4,907	4,758	5,188	553	11.9
retail distribution	64,65	2,390	2,544
Transport and communication	7	1,512	1,558	1,455	1,481	-30	-2.0
Banking, finance, insurance etc of which,	8	1,643	1,835	1,972	2,601	958	58.3
business services	83	1,058	1,516
Other services	9	6,066	6,272	6,246	7,005	940	15.5

Note: Figures refer to employees in employment plus the self-employed. Members of the Armed forces and domestic servants are excluded.

as well as a relative fall in the numbers employed.

However, as figure 1 shows this growth in service sector employment was not continuous. There was considerable growth between 1977 and 1980, when employment increased by over 700,000 but there was a fall when nearly 150,000 jobs were lost between 1980 and 1982. Following a slight recovery in the following year there has been strong and sustained growth since, with service sector employment increasing by 1.8 million between 1982 and 1987.

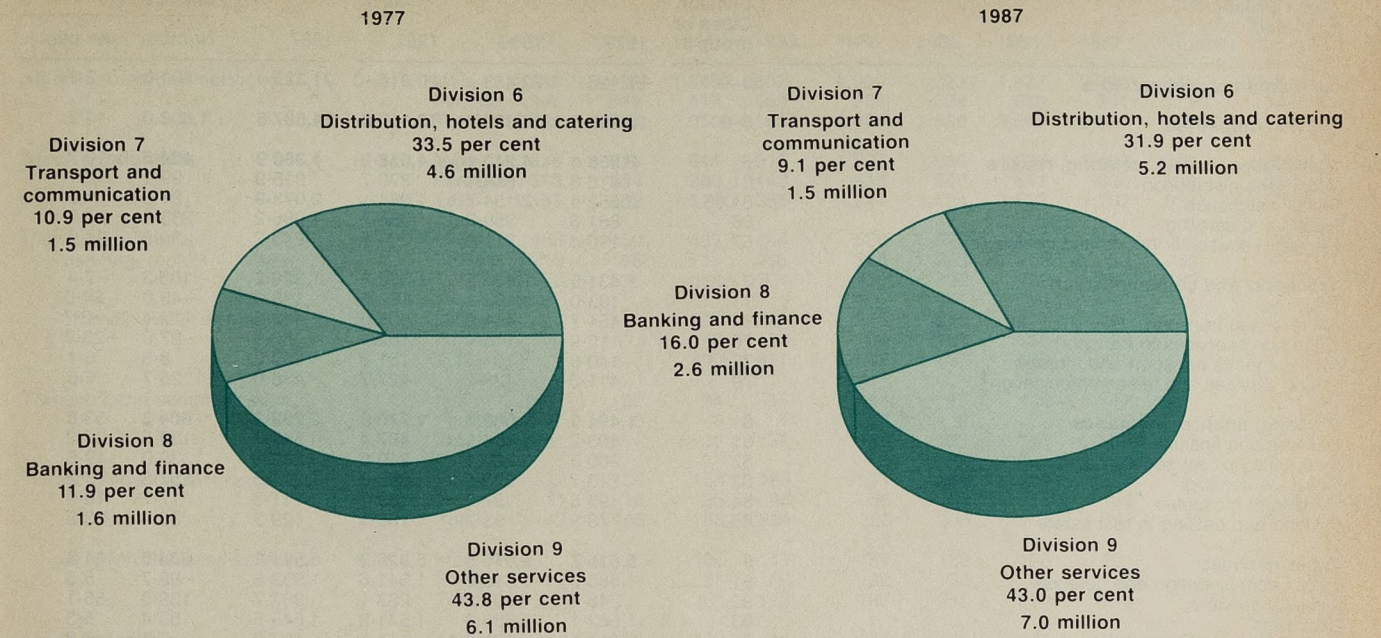
Employment by industry

Table 1 shows the numbers in employment for each industry division and the growth over the decade. Figure 2

Figure 1: Employment change in the service sector 1977 to 1987



Figure 2: Employment in service industries: by division



almost 40 per cent of all employment growth in the service sector.

In contrast, employment in division 7, 'transport and communications', fell over the decade. Employment here has been stagnant since 1982, with the division failing to recover, in employment terms, from heavy job losses during the early 1980's.

Employment in division 6, 'distribution, hotel and catering', and division 9, 'other services' (which includes leisure and tourist industries as well as a large part of the public sector), has grown by well over 10 per cent in each. Both divisions experienced growth up to 1980, declined during the recession, and have had steady growth since.

Male/female composition of employment

The service sector as a whole has a higher than average proportion of female employment. In 1987, 52 per cent of all those employed in the service sector were women compared with 43 per cent in the economy as a whole. And, as figure 3 shows, the female share of employment in the

service sector (and in the general economy) has increased over the decade. This is despite the fact that male employment in the service sector grew rapidly. It is just that employment growth among women was even faster.

Between 1977 and 1987 male employment in the service sector increased by 13 per cent; from 6.9 million to 7.7 million. Over the same period female employment grew by 1½ million (22 per cent) from 7 to 8½ million.

Employees in employment

Information on employees in employment is available at a more disaggregated level than for the self-employed and, therefore, than for employment as a whole. Thus, for employees in employment it is possible to consider changes in industries below division level. It is also possible to consider the split between full-time and part-time employees in employment and how this has changed over the decade. Finally, there is some patchy information on the size of establishments that employees work in. This information is

Figure 3: Employment in service industries: by sex and hours of work

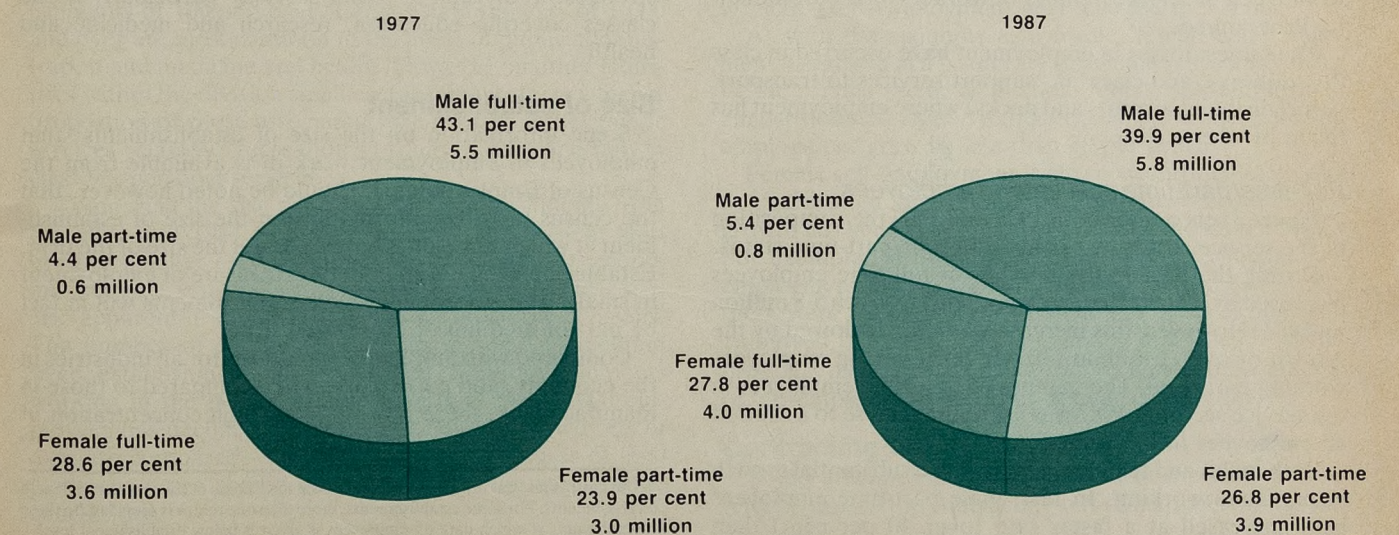


Table 2: Employees in employment in services: by industry at June each year

Great Britain SIC 1980	Division Class or group					Change 1977-87	
		1977	1980	1982	1987	Number	per cent
All industries and services	0-9	22,126	22,458	20,916	21,325	-801.0	-3.6
Service industries	6-9	12,699.5	13,383.7	13,117.0	14,507.5	1,808.0	14.2
Distribution, hotels, catering, repairs	6	3,956.4	4,240.1	4,058.2	4,380.9	424.5	10.7
Wholesale distribution	61	816.8	894.1	870.7	915.9	99.1	12.1
Retail distribution	64,65	2,052.4	2,134.7	1,984.1	2,073.9	21.5	1.0
Hotels and catering	66	861.6	959.3	958.7	1,095.2	233.6	27.1
Repair of consumer goods and vehicles	67	190.4	211.8	204.5	245.2	54.8	28.8
Transport and communication	7	1,431.5	1,464.5	1,359.8	1,326.2	-105.3	-7.4
Railways	71	183.0	182.1	168.3	138.0	-45.0	-24.6
Other inland transport	72	454.7	451.0	405.6	442.3	-12.4	-2.7
Supporting services to transport	76	113.9	115.4	102.1	86.9	-27.0	-23.7
Miscellaneous transport and storage	77	140.6	161.7	151.8	149.2	8.6	6.1
Postal services and telecommunication	79	411.3	428.2	427.7	438.0	26.7	6.5
Banking, finance, insurance	8	1,494.9	1,668.7	1,770.8	2,299.2	804.3	53.8
Banking and finance	81	408.2	454.1	467.4	547.7	139.5	34.2
Insurance, except social security	82	200.5	220.1	219.6	239.5	39.0	19.5
Business services	83	713.7	803.5	889.0	1,271.5	557.8	78.2
Renting of movables	84	93.6	97.4	89.7	111.3	17.7	18.9
Owning and dealing in real estate	85	78.9	93.7	105.1	129.3	50.4	63.9
Other services	9	5,816.7	6,010.5	5,928.2	6,501.2	684.5	11.8
Public administration and defence	91	1,685.3	1,615.9	1,541.6	1,592.6	-92.7	-5.5
Sanitary services	92	248.4	309.5	283.1	387.7	139.3	56.1
Education	93	1,562.1	1,585.8	1,541.3	1,645.5	83.4	5.3
Research and development	94	114.1	120.9	111.1	107.0	-7.1	-6.2
Medical and other health services	95	1,150.4	1,213.5	1,257.7	1,266.2	115.8	10.1
Other services (social welfare etc)	96	466.8	548.9	579.9	794.8	328.0	70.3
Recreational and cultural services	97	393.9	429.0	436.7	516.6	122.7	31.2
Personal services	98	195.7	184.1	176.9	190.7	-5.0	-2.6

Members of the Armed Forces and domestic servants are excluded.

drawn from the Census of Employment which is a survey of employers and only covers employees in employment.

Employees in employment by industry class

Table 2 sets out how the numbers of employees in employment have changed 1977-87 both at divisional level and within divisions. The divergences within each division are at least as large as for the division as a whole. At individual industry (class) level the fastest growth over the decade has occurred in class 83, 'business services' (which includes, among others, accountants, advertising agencies and estate agencies) where the number of employees has increased by more than three-quarters. Other industries where the number of employees has increased by more than 50 per cent are class 85, 'real estate' (land and estate owners); class 92, 'sanitary services'; and class 96, 'other services'. The growth in class 96, 'other services' category has been mainly within the 'social welfare' category which would include a large number of workers on the Community Programme.

The largest losses in employment have occurred in class 71, 'railways' and class 76, 'support services to transport' (which includes airports and docks) where employment has fallen by over a fifth.

Full-time/part-time split among employees

Figure 3 sets out for both 1977 and 1987 the composition of the service sector by sex and full-time/part-time status.

During the decade the number of full-time employees increased by 700,000 (nearly 8 per cent) to reach 5.8 million by 1987. However, this increase was overshadowed by the growth of over 1 million (30 per cent) among employees working part-time. The number of part-time employees in the service sector in 1987 was 4.7 million, close to a third of all employees in this sector.

Both males and females have enjoyed substantial growth in part-time working. In fact, male part-time employees have increased at a faster rate (over 40 per cent) than

females (28 per cent); although they did start from a much smaller base. Among full-time employees the growth amongst females was greater than for males (11 per cent compared to 6 per cent).

Overall, female employment has grown faster than male. Part of the reason for this is that employment has grown more quickly in industries which have traditionally employed a higher proportion of female workers. However, there has also been a shift towards female employment over and above that caused by the faster growth of these activities. This relative shift has been most pronounced in division 7 'transport and communications' and division 9, 'other services'. In division 8, 'banking and finance', there has been very little shift towards female employment which grew at about the same rate as male employment.

The other major trend, as suggested earlier, is that there has been a shift from full-time to part-time working (although both have risen in absolute terms). This shift was strongest in division 9, 'other services' particularly in the classes covering education, research and medicine and health.

Size of establishment

Some information on the size of establishments¹ that employees in employment work in is available from the Census of Employment. It should be noted however, that the census provides information on the size of establishment at which a person is employed not the size of the firm. Establishment size is an imperfect measure of employment in small firms since many small establishments will in fact be part of medium or large sized firms.

Compared with employment patterns for all industries in the economy, and particularly when compared to those in manufacturing, there is a relatively high concentration of

¹ In most cases, but not all, information from the Census of Employment refers to establishments. For some establishments, more than one return is provided. In these cases the unit at which data on employees is given is below establishment level.

Table 3: Self-employment in services: by industry at June each year

Division	1977	1979	1981	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	Thousands		
									Change 1977-87		
									Number	per cent	
All industries and services	0-9	Male 1,463	1,499	1,640	652	1,850	1,923	1,937	2,099	636	43.5
		Female 388	343	417	508	586	628	630	701	321	84.5
		Total 1,864	1,842	2,058	160	2,435	2,550	2,567	2,801	958	52.0
Service industries	6-9	Male 838	818	914	912	1,027	1,084	1,081	1,163	324	38.6
		Female 316	284	360	443	514	540	541	604	288	91.1
		Total 1,155	102	1,274	355	1,541	1,624	1,622	1,767	612	53.0
Distribution, hotels, catering, repairs,	6	Male 463	450	485	464	530	529	516	527	60	12.8
		Female 215	186	214	236	266	263	265	280	69	32.7
		Total 678	636	698	701	795	792	782	807	129	19.0
of which Retail distribution	64,65	Male	257	261	278	275	271	296
		Female	143	150	164	163	158	174
		Total	400	411	442	437	429	470
Transport and communication	7	Male 76	82	94	87	111	97	102	147	71	93.4
		Female 4	5	6	5	7	6	9	8	4	100.0
		Total 80	87	99	92	118	103	111	155	75	93.8
Banking, finance, insurance etc,	8	Male 132	129	153	168	171	207	217	233	101	76.5
		Female 11	16	35	46	55	53	58	69	53	331.3
		Total 143	145	188	214	226	260	275	302	154	104.1
of which Business services	83	Male	136	147	151	183	196	201
		Female	28	26	32	32	38	43
		Total	164	173	183	215	234	244
Other services	9	Male 162	156	183	193	215	251	245	256	92	56.1
		Female 84	77	106	155	186	218	209	247	161	187.2
		Total 246	233	289	348	401	469	454	503	253	102.4

service sector employees working in small to medium sized establishments.

However, there are major differences in establishment size between the divisions, within the service sector. The concentration towards smaller establishments is most marked in division 6, 'distribution, hotel and catering' and division 8, 'banking and finance'. In fact, over half of all employees in class 66, 'hotels and catering' and class 64-65, 'retail distribution' work in establishments of less than 25 employees. However, again it should be noted that although the actual work unit may be small, it is often part of a very much larger firm.

In contrast in division 7, 'transport and communications', few employees work in small establishments. A large proportion, particularly in class 71 'railways' are in the 100 to 999 employee size category, while over 26 per cent of those in the class 76 'supporting services to transport' work in establishments of 1,000 and over employees.

In division 9, over half of the employees work in establishments of 100 and over. Large establishments of 1,000 and over are most common in the areas of public administration and medicine and health. However, in other industries within the division small establishments form a higher proportion of those associated with class 96 'other public services', class 97, 'recreation and culture' and especially in class 98 'personal services'.

Comparing the size distribution of establishments from the 1981 and 1984 Censuses, there is a consistent shift towards smaller establishments across all areas of economic activity, especially in manufacturing industries. It is also apparent in the service sector across all the divisions. The number of employees working in small to medium sized establishments has increased while the numbers working in the largest establishments of over 1,000 employees has declined. However, because only two sets of data are compared—the 1981 and 1984 Censuses of Employment—care should be taken in drawing any definite conclusions.

Self-employment

Table 3 provides the information on the numbers self-employed.

Self-employment in the service sector grew quickly over the decade. By 1987 there were almost 1.8 million self-employed people in this sector compared to under 1.2 million in 1977; an increase of 53 per cent. This rate of increase is virtually the same as for the economy as a whole.

Division 6, 'distribution, hotel and catering', had the largest numbers of self-employed people, 807,000 in 1987, representing 45 per cent of self-employment in the service sector. And, within the division there is an even greater concentration in class 64-65, 'retail distribution'. Over a quarter of all self-employed people in the service sector work in this industry.

Although not as important in absolute terms as division 6, self-employment in the other divisions grew at a much faster rate. In division 8, 'banking and finance', self-employment doubled to 302,000 by 1987. In division 9, 'other services', self-employment also doubled to 504,000.

As with the economy as a whole, female self-employment has grown at a faster rate than male self-employment. In the service sector as a whole female self-employment almost doubled from 316,000 to 604,000 while male self-employment grew by less than 40 per cent.

Female self-employment is also concentrated in division 6, 'distribution, hotels and catering'. However, the rate of growth has been faster in other areas, of the service sector. For example, in division 9, 'other services', female self-employment almost trebled over the decade and in 1987 there were almost as many female (247,000) as male self-employed (256,000). In the 'banking and finance' sector, division 8 there was an extraordinary increase in the numbers of self-employed people (but from a very low base).

Contracting out

Some of the employment growth in the service sector may be due to the contracting out of activities which were

previously done in-house. For example, if a manufacturing firm previously employed cleaning staff to clean their factory but now use outside contractors, then employment in manufacturing will fall while employment in the service sector will rise because the cleaning staff will now be assigned to the cleaning firm rather than the manufacturing firm.

It is true that industries which could be expected to have benefited most from contracting out have experienced strong employment growth over the decade and it is likely that contracting out has been responsible for some of this growth. For example, cleaning, catering and business service industries have all enjoyed large employment increases. It is not, however, possible to quantify exactly how much of the increased employment in the service sector is due to contracting out.

Yet, even though the effect of contracting out is unquantifiable it is unlikely to explain all, or even most, of the employment growth in services. With the exception of some transport industries, most parts of the service sector have had employment growth over the decade 1977-87. Some of the largest employment increases (in absolute terms) have been in industries such as distribution, recreation, education and health services which are unlikely to benefit from contracting out. Also, it is very unlikely that all of the employment increases in the contracting out sectors will be due to such transfers.

Therefore, although it may be one factor contributing to the employment increases in the service sector, contracting out is unlikely to have been responsible for more than a minor proportion of the employment growth of 2.4 million. The growth is much more likely to be a reflection of the fact that demand for services tends to increase as countries become wealthier. This trend is evident in other major industrialised countries where the share of the economy's output and employment taken up by the service sector has also increased substantially.

Output, productivity and earnings

This final section briefly considers the links between employment growth and output, productivity and earnings. However, it should be noted that the output of service sector activities is, in many cases, very difficult to measure.¹ This is especially true in service industries (for example, the Civil Service and the National Health Service) which are non-traded. In these industries it is not possible to use the value that the market puts on the activity in calculating how output has moved. Therefore, some caution is required in the interpretation of the movements in output and productivity, particularly for the non-trading sector.

In this section a number of contentions that have been made about employment growth in the service sector are examined—in particular, whether employment growth has been in areas with:

- low productivity growth;
- low earnings;
- low earnings growth.

None of these contentions are found to be generally true. It is possible in each case to find counter-examples where, for example, employment growth has been very strong in areas where productivity growth and the level and rate of change of earnings are high. Similarly, it is possible to find industries where productivity growth or earnings growth

has been high but the employment record has been relatively poor.

There is some support for the view that high output growth is necessary to allow large employment gains. However, even this is not sufficient to ensure that employment will increase.

Output

Figure 4 shows the annual rate of growth of output, employment and productivity over the decade. In common with the rest of the economy, the growth rate dropped during the recession, becoming negative during 1980. But since 1983 output has grown by at least 3 per cent per year and by over 5 per cent in 1987.

Table 4 gives the average annual growth in output and productivity at a more disaggregated level for 1978 to 1987 (see table for explanation of change in date) while figure 5 provides the same information for the four industry divisions together with the average annual growth in employment.

As with other characteristics of the service sector, output growth has not been homogenous across all the divisions. Output growth in division 8, 'banking and finance' has been spectacular: even during the recession the annual growth rate never dipped below 2.5 per cent and for 1986 and 1987 it reached 10 per cent.

Output growth in the other divisions was not as great and some industries, particularly retail distribution, suffered large output falls during the recession. However, the service sector as a whole grew at a faster rate than the whole economy and this is true even if division 8, 'banking and finance' is excluded. It is clear that output and employment growth are closely, but imperfectly, related. The corres-

Table 4: Output and productivity growth 1978 to 1987¹
Annual average growth rate per cent per year

Great Britain SIC 1980	Division class or group	Output	Productivity
Service industries	6-9	+2.5	+0.8
Distribution, hotels, catering, repairs	6	+2.2	+1.0
Wholesale distribution	61	+2.0	+1.0
Retail distribution	64, 65	+2.9	+2.4
Hotels and catering	66	+1.8	-0.6
Repair of consumer goods and vehicles	67	-0.8	-2.8
Transport and communication	7	+2.5	+2.8
Railways	71	0.0	+3.3
Other inland transport	72	+1.8	+0.6
Supporting services to transport	76	+3.1	+6.1
Miscellaneous transport and storage	77	+2.3	+2.7
Postal services and telecommunication	79	+4.5	+3.7
Banking, finance, insurance	8	+7.0	+2.0
Banking and finance	81	+7.1	+3.9
Insurance, except social security	82	+6.5	+4.1
Business services	83	+8.4	+2.0
Renting of movables	84	+4.9	+2.4
Owning and dealing in real estate	85	+1.9	-3.9
Other services	9	+1.5	0.0
Public administration and defence	91	0.0	+0.6
Sanitary services	92	+3.1	-1.4
Education	93	+0.9	+0.1
Research and development	94	+2.2	+3.7
Medical and other health services	95	+2.1	+0.9
Other services (social welfare etc)	96	+5.7	-0.1
Recreational and cultural services	97	+3.2	-0.3
Personal services	98	+1.4	-1.5

¹ The period used is 1978-1987 not 1977-1987 because information on output for 1977 does not exist for every industry.

² Productivity is output per person employed (employees in employment plus the self-employed).

³ Numbers of self-employed were estimated using the 1981 Census of Population.

Figure 4. Output, employment and productivity in services

Annual percentage growth: 1977-87



¹ Even if the output of some activities in terms of quantities produced could be correctly measured, there are additional difficulties in assessing the quality of output produced.



Catering services along with cleaning shown large employment growth.

Photo: Crown copyright.

pondence between the output and employment growth in the divisions in figure 5 and the (lagged) response of employment to output changes in figure 4 both suggest that output growth is a necessary prerequisite for employment growth.

However, to achieve employment growth it is not sufficient just to have output growth close to the average for the service sector as a whole; employment in division 7, 'transport and communications' actually fell marginally (see figure 5).

Productivity

Labour productivity is a measure of the efficiency with which labour input is translated through the production process into output. Thus, productivity together with the cost of labour are major factors in determining the price and/or quality of a good or service. It therefore plays an important part in determining the level of output and employment.

However, there is also a definitional/arithmetic link between output, employment and productivity. As labour productivity is defined as the amount of output per person employed then for given levels of output and employment, productivity too is given.

Output growth and employment growth are similarly linked arithmetically through productivity growth. Productivity growth is the increase in output per person employed. Thus, as in the case of division 7, if productivity increases by more than output grows then the number employed falls. Similarly, if productivity growth were lower, more of any output growth would be translated into employment.

In the light of this, the contention that rapid employment growth in the service sector has been strongest in areas of low productivity growth is unsurprising. If output were to grow at a constant rate across all industries then, by definition, the largest growth in employment would be in the industries with the lowest productivity growth.

However, output does not grow at the same rate in all industries. Thus, because output in division 8, 'banking and finance' increased by so much, both employment growth and productivity growth are above the average for the service sector as a whole.

Therefore, once the importance of output growth is recognised, it is easy to see why there need be no connection between high employment growth and low productivity growth. It is also easy to find industries with high employment growth and a wide range of rates of productivity growth; for example, the average annual growth in productivity in class 83, 'business services' grew by 2 per cent a year while in class 85, 'owning and dealing in real estate', there was a fall of 4 per cent a year.

Similarly, where employment has fallen, productivity growth has also varied from a fall of 3 per cent a year in Class 67, 'repairs of consumer goods and vehicles' to growth of 6 per cent a year in class 76, 'supporting services to transport'.

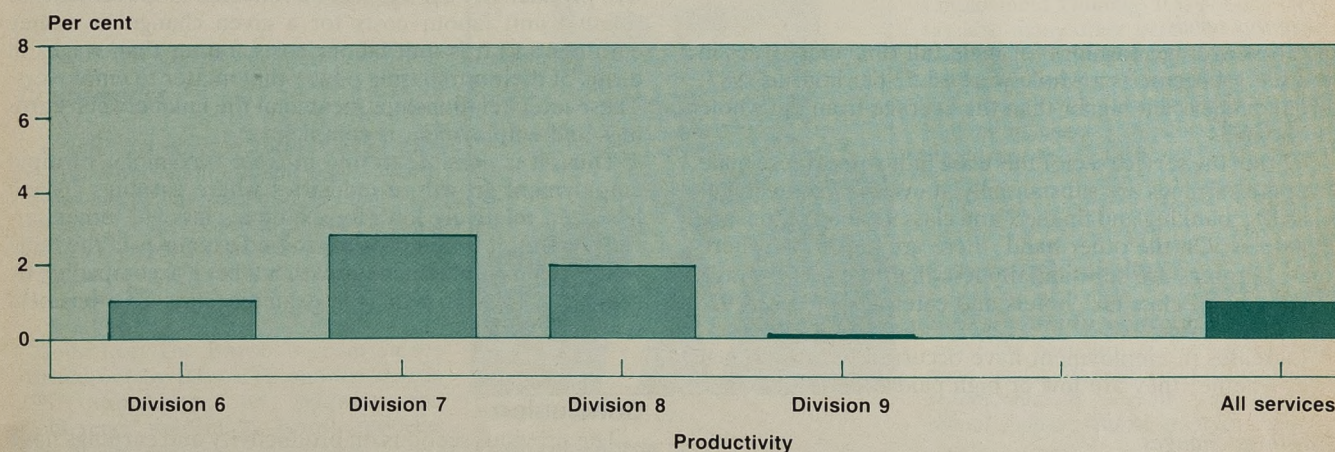
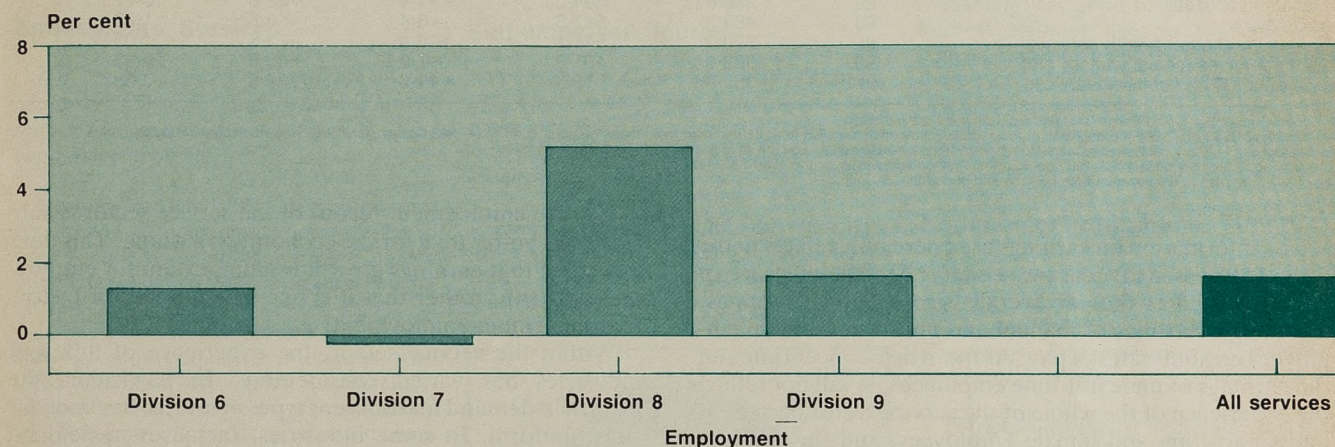
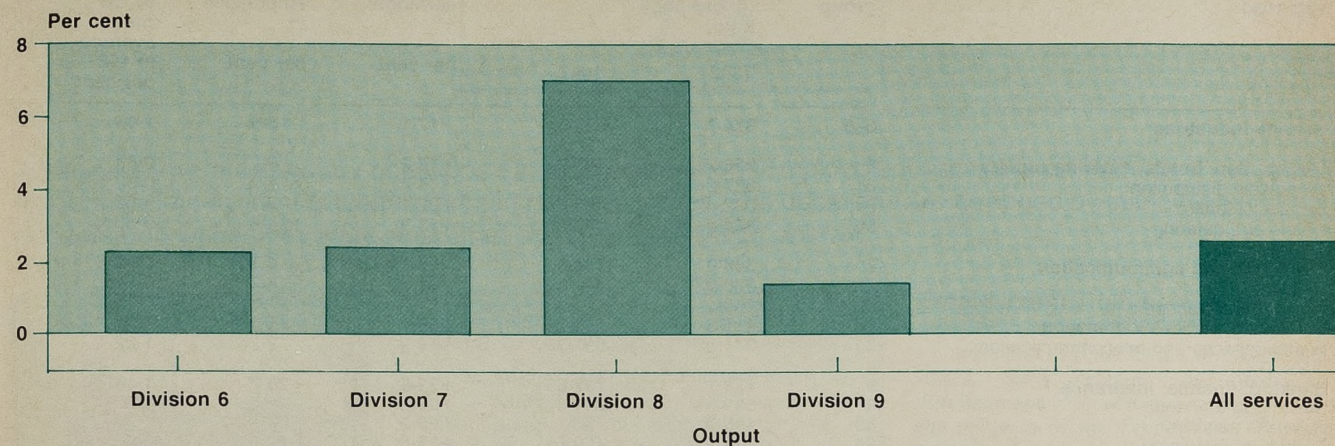
So far, the discussion has been about productivity growth. It might also be the case that the employment growth is in areas of the economy where the level of productivity is low; the so called 'low or no-tech' jobs. It is impossible to completely rebut this contention, as there is very little quantifiable information on relative levels of productivity across the economy. However, employment growth in the service sector has been widespread. Therefore, if employment growth has been in 'low-tech' jobs, then most of the industries in the service sector would have to be classified as low productivity.

Finally, on productivity it is again important to remember that the relationship between output, employment and productivity growth described above is purely arithmetic. It says nothing about whether high, or low productivity growth is a good or bad thing.

In particular, it is not possible to infer that low productivity growth is preferable because more of output growth is translated into employment growth. Such a statement would be true if output was unaffected by changes in labour productivity. However, this is unlikely as the price and/or quality of the service provided will depend, among other things, on the level and rate of change of labour productivity and the cost of labour, of which earnings is the largest part. Thus, increases in the quality or efficiency of the labour input should, other things being equal, help to reduce the price or increase the quality of the service provided and so stimulate further output growth.

Figure 5 Output, employment and productivity: by division

Average annual percentage growth: 1978 - 87



Division 6: Distribution, hotels and catering

Division 7: Transport and communications

Division 8: Banking and finance

Division 9: Other services

Table 5: Earnings and employment growth in the service sector
Average gross hourly earnings, including overtime, of manual and non-manual male employees whose pay was unaffected by absence

Great Britain SIC 1980	Division class or group	Average nominal earnings (pence per hour)		Change in real earnings **	Change in male employees ††	Earnings as proportion of GB male average in 1987 per cent
		1982†	1987	per cent	per cent	
Service industries	6-9	374.7	551.5	+17.1	+8.5	1.05
Distribution, hotels, catering repairs	6	296.7	437.0	+17.2	+6.2	0.83
Wholesale distribution	61	337.9	485.8	+14.4	+3.1	0.92
Retail distribution	64,65	282.4	433.3	+22.1	+2.1	0.82
Hotels and catering	66	244.4	349.9	+13.9	+14.6	0.66
Transport and communication	7	348.0	494.5	+13.1	-4.3	0.94
Railways	71	320.9	441.5	+9.5	-18.7	0.84
Other inland transport	72	300.1	411.1	+9.0	+7.7	0.78
Supporting services to transport	76	411.3	561.6	+8.7	-15.3	1.07
Postal services and telecommunication	79	374.3	537.7	+14.3	+3.2	1.02
Banking, finance, insurance	8	478.1	737.6	+22.8	+26.7	1.40
Banking and finance	81	552.5	841.9	+21.3	+21.0	1.60
Business services	83	448.9	733.1	+29.9	+38.5	1.39
Renting of movables	84	314.9	450.6	+13.8	+22.0	0.85
Other services	9	399.8	558.3	+11.1	+9.2	1.06
Public administration and defence	91	405.6	574.3	+12.7	+5.5	1.09
Sanitary services	92	288.8	404.2	+11.4	+32.0	0.77
Education	93	483.8	647.3	+6.4	+0.8	1.23
Medical and other health services	95	370.3	544.1	+16.9	-3.5	1.03
Other services (social welfare etc)	96	362.6	491.8	+7.9	+45.6	0.93
Recreational and cultural services	97	357.5	515.0	+14.6	+24.5	0.98

Members of the Armed Forces and domestic servants are excluded.
* Between 1982 and 1987 the definition of male adults changed in the NES from 21 and over to all those on adult rates. The 1982 figures have been adjusted to take account of this.
** Real earnings are calculated as nominal earnings from the NES deflated by the April value of the Retail Price Index.
† The estimating period is 1982-1987 because information by industry on the 1980 SIC is not available before 1982.
†† All employees in employment both full-time and part-time.

Earnings

The information on earnings used here only relates to the period 1982-87 (for reasons see table 5). The measure of earnings used is that of average gross hourly earnings, including overtime, of manual and non-manual male employees on adult rates of pay. As the article concentrates on the earnings of male full-time employees, it will not reflect the experience of the whole of the service sector because it omits part-time and female employees, and the self-employed, all of whom are important elements in the sector. Therefore, the results can only be taken as illustrative.

Earnings levels

Gross average earnings for male full-time employees in the service sector as a whole were £5.52 per hour in 1987; around 5 per cent higher than the average from the whole economy.

Within the service sector there are industries where male average earnings are substantially above the GB average; class 81, 'banking and finance' and class 93, 'education' are examples. On the other hand, there are industries where male earnings are substantially less than the GB average for example, class 66, 'hotels and catering' and class 92, 'sanitary services'.

Increases in employment have occurred in most industries whether they are low or high paid.

Earnings changes

Average male earnings in the service sector as a whole have risen substantially both in nominal (that is, money terms) and real terms (that is, adjusted for retail price inflation). In the five years to 1987 average male earnings increased in real terms by 17 per cent.

Average male earnings in the service sector have grown at roughly the same rate as the average for the economy as a whole over the period 1982 to 1987. (Analysis of the Average Earnings Index, which does include part-time and female employees but not the self employed, yielded similar conclusions.)

Yet the employment record of the service sector is substantially better than for the economy as a whole. This does not mean that earnings growth is unimportant for employment growth, rather that it is one of a number of factors that determine employment.

Within the service sector, the experience of different industries has varied considerably. In particular, the growth in demand for different types of service has been far from uniform. In some industries, increases in demand have been met to a considerable extent by increases in productivity; in other industries this is not possible. Relative productivity change will be reflected in movements in relative unit labour costs for a given change in money earnings and it is unit labour costs, rather than wages in terms of their purchasing power that matter to employers. These inter-relationships mean that the link between earnings and employment is complex.

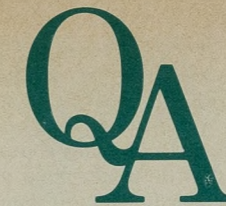
Thus, it is possible to find in table 5 examples of rapid employment growth in industries where earnings growth has been relatively low (for example class 96, 'other services'). But, it is also possible to find examples in the table where rapid employment growth has been accompanied by rapid earnings growth (for example class 83, 'business services').

Conclusion

The previous sections on productivity and earnings have shown that the experiences of industries within the service sector have not been homogeneous. This is unsurprising given the very different nature of the industries within the sector.

Employment is determined by a number of factors of which productivity and the cost of labour (including earnings growth) are two. It also depends, among other things, on the output of the industry, the amount and cost of capital goods available and the price of competing goods. It is not possible to establish the relative contribution of each factor from the information reported in this article. ■

Questions in



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

Employment Service

Ian Bruce (Dorset South) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement on the development of the Employment Service.

Norman Fowler: In the six months since April, the Employment Service placed over 3/4 million unemployed people in jobs, including over 120,000 long-term unemployed.

It has also introduced new procedures such as more effective interviews with those making a new claim for benefit.

Since last October when we established the Employment Service, unemployment has fallen by 504,000 overall, with particularly steep falls in long-term unemployment.

(December 6)

Conferences

Conal Gregory (York) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what is his estimated contribution of the conference industry to the economy; what are the numbers employed in the industry; and what is the current level of grant from his Department.

John Lee: The British Tourism Survey carried out by BTA/ETB showed that in 1987 expenditure on Business and Conference tourism by British residents was £1,700 million.

ETB estimates that over £220 million worth of major construction work for the Conference market was under way or completed in the period January-June 1988. Since April 1988, almost £2 million has been offered by ETB from the section 4 Innovation Fund towards the costs of developing conference facilities.

No information is available on the total number employed in the conference industry.

(November 15)

Self-employed figures

John Maples (Lewisham West) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many people in the United Kingdom are currently self-employed; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: In June 1988, the latest date for which estimates are available, there were 2,985,000 self-employed people in the United Kingdom.

(December 6)



Norman Fowler

Loan guarantee

Tim Smith (Beaconsfield) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement about the future of the Loan Guarantee Scheme.

John Cope: The Loan Guarantee Scheme is currently due to run to March 31, 1989. An announcement about the future of the Scheme will be made as soon as possible.

(December 6)

Employment Training progress

James Paice (South East Cambridgeshire) asked the Secretary of State for Employment, if he will make a statement on the progress of the Employment Training scheme.

Patrick Nicholls: Employment Training is making very good progress indeed and interest amongst long-term unemployed people remains high. By November 25 there were already 91,500 people training with training managers.

(December 6)

Community Programme

Ray Powell (Ogmore) asked the Secretary of State for Employment how many people employed under the previous Community Programme are still with their old employers under their old contracts.

Patrick Nicholls: At September 30, 1988 there were 9,984 filled Community Programme places with agents and sponsors that had not moved forward into Employment Training. It is not possible to say how many other people remaining on Community Programme terms and conditions, but receiving training and work experience with Employment Training training managers, are still with their old employers under their old contracts.

(November 8)

School-industry links

Hilary Armstrong (North West Durham) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what is his estimate of the numbers of school students currently participating in school industry-linked compact schemes.

John Cope: My Department is currently assisting partnerships of employers and education authorities in 30 inner city areas to develop plans to establish Compacts in 1989.

Applications for operational funding are due to be submitted early in the new year. Until then it will not be possible to provide any estimate of the number of young people who will be participating.

(December 6)

Girls on YTS

Hilary Armstrong (North West Durham) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will publish in the Official Report figures to show the categories of training and numbers of trainees on each, undertaken by females on YTS schemes: (a) nationally and (b) in Durham North West constituency.

John Cope: At the end of October 1988 there were 169,500 females in training on YTS nationally. The occupational breakdown of these trainees is shown below.

Information is not available for trainees in Durham North West constituency. However information on the numbers of females in training by training occupation for the Training Agency Durham Area is available, but not immediately to hand. I will write to the hon member shortly and place a copy of the letter in the library.

Occupational breakdown of females on YTS schemes, October 31, 1988

Occupations	Number of females in training
Administrative and clerical occupations	56,500 ✓
Creative and educational and recreational service occupations	3,700 ✓
Health, community and personal service occupations	44,600 ✓
Selling and storage occupations	27,900 ✓
Scientific occupations	700 ✓
Catering and food preparation and processing occupations	8,400 ✓
Agricultural and related occupations	5,100 ✓
Fishing occupations	700 ✓
Transport operating occupations	500 ✓
Construction and civil engineering occupations	1,600 ✓
Mining, oil extraction and quarrying occupations	700 ✓
Electrical and electronic engineering occupations	700 ✓
Mechanical engineering and metal production and processing occupations	1,400 ✓
Motor vehicle repair and maintenance occupations	800 ✓
Non-metal processing occupations	900 ✓
Printing occupations	700 ✓
Clothing and textiles manufacturing occupations	10,200 ✓
Security service occupations	5,700 ✓
Others	5,700 ✓
All	169,500

* Less than 50 trainees

(December 6)

Teenage problems

Robert McCrindle (Brentwood and Ongar) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what provision is made for difficult to place teenagers; what measures are being considered to increase the level of provision; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: There are more than sufficient premium places on YTS to cater for difficult to place young people. The scope of funding for the disabled has been widened to include, for example, young people with emotional or behavioural problems. YTS initial training has been

introduced for those young people who need a period of preparation and assessment before entering mainstream YTS. Places for difficult young people are also available on Community Industry.

I believe that these increased measures provide a valuable foundation at the start of their working lives for young people with difficulties.

(December 1)

YTS—ethnic response

Hilary Armstrong (North West Durham) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what is the number and proportion of YTS trainees who are of black or Asian origin.

John Cope: Of the 396,100 young people in training on YTS at March 31, 1988, the latest available date, the number of young people who identified themselves as of black or Asian origin was 10,966 (2.8 per cent).

Number and participant rates for ethnic minority trainees on Employment Training are not yet available.

(December 6)



John Cope

Small firms

Michael Lord (Central Suffolk) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement on his Department's initiative to encourage the Government to purchase goods and services from small firms.

John Cope: The Government is committed to improving value for money in purchasing and small firms have an important part to play in achieving this. I therefore discussed with Ministerial colleagues ways to increase their Department's purchasing from small firms. Departments who are large purchasers now publish booklets designed to help small firms become suppliers to government, and, in collaboration with the Central Unit on Purchasing, we will shortly be publishing further guidance for officials on small firm purchasing.

(December 6)

ILO health convention

Terry Patchett (Barnsley East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment whether the Government will ratify International Labour Organisation Convention 161 and Recommendation 177 on occupational health services.

John Cope: The Government has deferred a decision on whether to ratify International Labour Organisation Convention 161 and to accept Recommendation 171 on occupational health services for a period of three years because of anticipated developments in this field. At the end of that time it expects to receive further advice from the Health and Safety Commission.

(December 5)

Employment Act 1988 (Commencement)

Mr Ian Bruce asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he has made a commencement order in respect of the remaining provisions of the Employment Act 1988.

John Cope: The Employment Act 1988 (Commencement No. 2) Order has been published today. It provides that section 8 (use of funds for indemnifying unlawful conduct) and sections 19 to 21 (appointment of and assistance from the Commissioner for the Rights of Trade Union Members) will come into force on December 5, 1988. Section 15 (independent scrutiny of certain ballots and elections) and related provisions in schedule 3 to the Act will come into force on February 1, 1989.

(December 2)

Women leavers and training

Alice Mahon (Halifax) asked the Secretary of State for Employment whether he has any proposals to increase the number of women school leavers who enter technical training courses; and if he will make a statement.

John Cope: The Government gives priority to ensuring that school leavers have equal opportunities to enter technician training or other training courses in technical or information technology subjects. The Training Agency policies reflect this, including YTS special women-only courses, reserved place schemes, local action plans and new initial training arrangements to help young women to enter training which is unconventional to their gender.

The Technical and Vocational Education Initiative which is now being extended across all education authorities will also enable girls aged 14-18 to experience technology, and encourage them to obtain skills and qualifications of more direct relevance to working life, while still at school or college.

(December 6)

Service industries

Tim Yeo (South Suffolk) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what has been the increase in the numbers of those employed in service industries in the last five years.

John Lee: Between June 1983 and June 1988, there was a net increase of 2,205,000 in employment in the service industries in Great Britain.

(December 6)

Invisibles and leisure

John Butterfill (Bournemouth West) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what was the total value of Britain's invisible exports in 1987; and what percentage of this sum is attributable to the tourism and leisure industry.

John Lee: In 1987 UK invisible exports amounted to £80 billion. The tourism account amounted to 8 per cent of this, £6.2 billion.

(December 6)

Worker directors and the European Community

Teddy Taylor (Southend East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement on the current European Economic Community discussions on worker representatives on the boards of companies; and whether such measures fall to be dealt with under the majority voting procedures set out in the Single Act.

John Cope: The Government is opposed to EC proposals which would require statutory employee participation as such participation is more effective on a voluntary basis. The only relevant EC proposal currently under discussion for which a legal base has been proposed is the Fifth Company Law Directive. The proposed legal base would entail qualified majority voting.

(December 5)

TVEI

Timothy Wood (Stevenage) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement on the progress of the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative.

John Cope: All education authorities in Great Britain are now participating in the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative and 48 of them have begun to extend the Initiative to all their secondary schools and colleges. Students in some 1,400 schools and colleges are benefiting from the enriched curriculum provided by TVEI, and the education of virtually all 14-18 year olds in Great Britain will become more relevant to working life as the extension programme develops within the overall framework of the Government's education policies.

(December 6)



John Lee

Youth training survey

Dawn Primarolo (Bristol South) and Andrew F Bennett (Denton and Reddish) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if his Department will undertake a survey of the training opportunities for those who enter employment at the age of 16 years.

John Cope: This Department already collects information from a variety of sources on the training opportunities for young people who enter employment at 16. The principal sources at national level are the surveys undertaken through the Youth Cohort Study and specifically commissioned research into vocational training standards in particular occupations.

The best local source of information is from the local authority Careers Service.

(December 6)

European court

John Heddle (Mid-Staffordshire) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what assessments he has made as to the likely effect on: (a) his Department's capital building programme and (b) the rent the Department will pay under occupational leases, of implementation of the European Court of Justice's judgement on value-added tax on non-domestic building.

John Cope: Implementation of the European Court of Justice's judgement on VAT will have no effect on my Department's capital building programme, since compensating adjustments have been made to the relevant expenditure provisions. At this stage, before landlords have decided whether to exercise their option to tax rents, it is not possible to offer meaningful estimates of the effects of the judgement on rental costs.

(December 7)

Tourism grants

Ronnie Fearn (Southport) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will set out numbers of hotels and tourism-related establishments that have benefited from receiving section 4 grants in the year 1987, and the amounts of those grants as applied through each tourist board region.

John Lee: Offers of section 4 assistance by regional tourist board regions for 1987-88 are given in the table. Figures for the 1987 calendar year could only be obtained at disproportionate cost.

(December 5)

Tourist Board	No of projects	Total value of S4 offers £'000
Cumbria	39	469
East Anglia	34	502
East Midlands	31	759
Heart of England	47	1,049
London	12	1,030
Northumbria	26	1,480
North West	73	2,062
South East England	44	1,221
Southern	52	922
Thames and Chilterns	30	880
West Country	157	3,125
Yorkshire and Humberside	64	1,346
All	609	14,845

(December 5)

Social fund

Tony Banks (Newham North West) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what arrangements his Department is making for applications to the European Social Fund as part of the reformed European structural funds; and what action he proposes to take in regard to consultations with local authorities in drawing up the plans to be submitted to Brussels by June 30, 1989.

John Cope: The European Commission is currently consulting with member states about how best to implement the objectives of the reformed structural funds, including the European Social Fund. In the light of these consultations my Department is considering the arrangements which will need to be made and guidance will be issued as soon as possible to all the parties concerned, including local authorities.

(December 6)

VAT

Dudley Fishburn (Kensington) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement on the number of new registrations for value added tax in 1987-1988.

John Cope: In 1987, the latest year for which figures have been published, the number of VAT-registered businesses in the United Kingdom increased by 45,000, or nearly 900 a week on average. The indications are that the rate of increase during 1988 has been faster.

(December 6)

Mining safety

Michael Meacher (Oldham West) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what has been the rate of (1) deaths and (2) serious accidents in the mining industry per 100,000 workers employed in each year since 1970.

Patrick Nicholls: The information requested is listed in the table below:

Year	No employed (thousands)	Fatal rate per 100,000 employed	Serious injury rate per 100,000 employed
1970	304.4	29.9	210.8
1971	297.7	24.2	215.8
1972	289.7	22.1	179.6
1973	270.1	29.6	204.8
1974	256.7	18.7	194.1
1975	259.2	24.7	226.2
1976	254.5	19.7	210.6
1977	252.6	15.9	198.8
1978	248.1	25.4	199.2
1979	243.5	18.9	194.6
1980	242.6	17.3	211.6
1981(a)	232.4	15.1	351.3
1982	220.5	17.3	393.2
1983	206.3	14.6	400.0
1984-5(c)(d)	175.4	12.6	216.0
1985-6(c)(e)	154.6	18.2	464.3
1986-7(b)(c)(e)	125.4	12.0	761.6
1987-8(c)(e)	104.4	8.6	702.9

Source: Health and Safety Executive and British Coal.
 (a) NADOR Regulations 1980—introduced 1.1.81.
 (b) RIDDOR Regulations 1985—introduced 1.4.86.
 (c) Average number employed during the year.
 (d) Covers 15-month period January 1984-March 1985—not comparable with earlier calendar year data.
 (e) Excludes licensed mines.

(December 5)

Eric Illsley (Barnsley Central) asked the Secretary of State for Employment whether, in view of the accident rates of contractors to British Coal he will take any measures to improve safety records of those companies through stricter enforcement of the relevant legislation.

Patrick Nicholls: The Health and Safety Executive (HSE) enforce the Health and Safety at Work Etc Act 1974 and other legislation as it applies to contractors and their employees within mines. This Act and the Mines and Quarries Act 1954 also require British Coal and its managers to ensure the safety of contractors. British Coal has also recently taken action with its major contractors to improve safety standards and safety awareness.

(December 7)

Eric Illsley (Barnsley Central) asked the Secretary of State for Employment whether, in view of the accident rates of contractors to British Coal he will take any measures to improve safety records of those companies through stricter enforcement of the relevant legislation.

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Coal has also recently taken action with its major contractors to improve safety standards and safety awareness.

(December 7)

Child care schemes

Archy Kirkwood (Roxburgh and Berwickshire) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what plans he has to introduce child care facilities for participants in Government training schemes.

Patrick Nicholls: Assistance with child care costs of up to £50 per week per child is already available to help all lone parents participating in Employment Training, the new programme for unemployed adults.

(December 6)

Older workers

James Couchman (Gillingham) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he has any plans to encourage employers to recruit older workers into jobs; and if he will make a statement.

Patrick Nicholls: My right hon friend and I have emphasised through public media the need for employers to recognise fully the potential contribution of older workers, particularly in view of the declining numbers of young people, and we will continue to do so. Jobcentres, where appropriate, raise with employers the need for age restrictions in vacancies they notify. We will keep under review how best to put the message across.

(December 6)

Funding health and safety

Gavin Strang (Edinburgh East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will provide additional resources for the Health and Safety Executive.

Patrick Nicholls: Yes. The gross supply provision for 1988-89 is £109 million and the previously planned provision for 1989-90 is £112 million. This will now be increased following the outcome of PES discussions, and consideration is being given as to the amount.

(December 6)

Ionising radiation

James Cran (Beverley) asked the Secretary of State for Employment when he expects the Health and Safety Commission Working Group on Ionising Radiations to report on its review of dose limits for acceptable levels of exposure to radiation.

Patrick Nicholls: The Working Group on Ionising Radiation is currently finalising its End of Year Report which will include advice on dose limitation. The Report will be submitted to the Health and Safety Commission in the New Year.

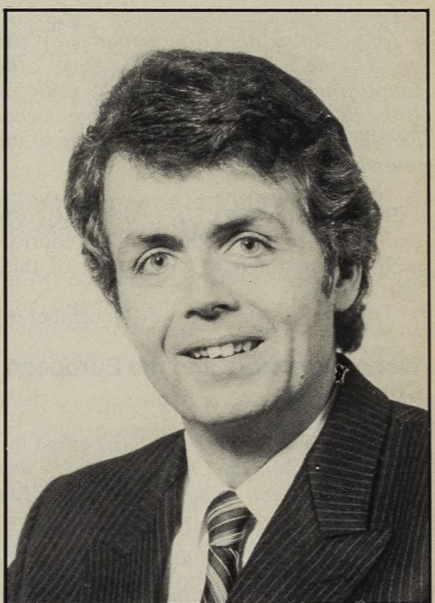
(December 9)

Dock labour

Roger Moate (Faversham) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if he will make a statement about the future of the National Dock Labour Scheme.

Patrick Nicholls: The Government is fully aware of views expressed about the drawbacks of the scheme. However, as was made clear in the previous parliamentary session, there are no current plans to change its operation.

(December 6)



Patrick Nicholls

Hours of work for minors

David Blunkett (Sheffield, Brightside) asked the Secretary of State for Employment if his Department has conducted research into the possible effects on the physical and mental health of 16 year olds of working hours considerably in excess of 48 per week without properly regulated rest periods.

Patrick Nicholls: The Department has not conducted any such research as there is no medical evidence to suggest that young people are less capable of working extended hours than adults.

(December 6)

Jobseekers

Ron Leighton (Newham North East) asked the Secretary of State for Employment what is his Department's estimate of the number of economically inactive people who would like a job.

John Lee: It is estimated from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) that in spring 1987 there were 2,180,000 people without a job who were economically inactive using the ILO/OECD definition, that is either not seeking or not available for work, aged 16 and over in Great Britain, who said they would like a job.

(December 9)

Topics

Challenge to personnel selection

The methods used by UK employers to select staff have been called seriously into question by a new report from the Institute of Manpower Studies.

The report, *Employee Selection in the UK*, IMS 160 criticises current selection methods as being unscientific, subject to bias and unreliable.

"The drop in school leavers over the next five years, coupled with the likely increase in the number of mature women being recruited will expose the inadequacy of many employers' current selection techniques," commented Stephen Bevan, author of the report. He added: "Our survey of over 300 UK employers demonstrates that the three most commonly used techniques—interviews, references and application forms—are the three least valid and reliable measures of future job performance."

The report, which presents findings from the IMS employer survey of current practice, also reviews the substantial body of research looking at the validity and reliability of various selection methods.

It was found over 99 per cent of employers retain their faith in the selection interview, despite evidence that it is the least reliable selection technique.

Only 16 per cent of employers used psychological testing—the method which, according to the report, has consistently been shown to be the most reliable.

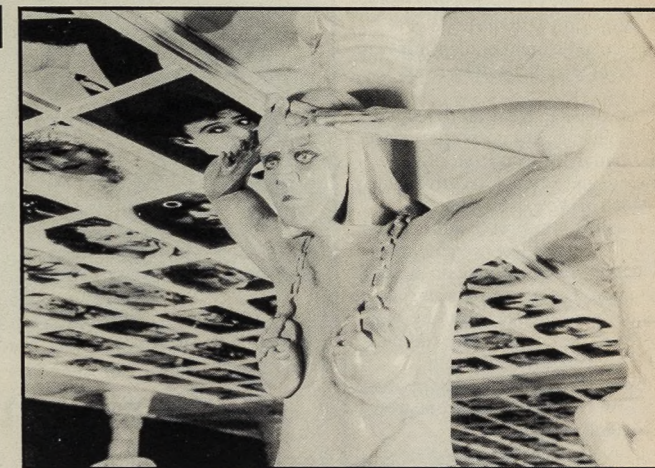
Again, few employers select recruits on the basis of systematic analysis of job requirements, preferring to rely on their subjective judgements of a candidate.

The report added that most selection methods are used to filter out unsuitable candidates rather than to select in those who are best suited—this encourages recruiters to adopt techniques which disqualify candidates, or catch them out with clever questions.

"Perhaps the most significant aspect of this study is the message it has for employers about the 1990s," said Stephen Bevan at the press launch. "The decline in the number of school leavers will force employers to apply different selection criteria. For example, lowering or abandoning minimum academic qualifications for school leavers will require new screening criteria; while recruiting women re-entering the labour market after a period outside employment will mean rethinking the qualities required by employers and the methods used to identify them."

A number of alternative selection approaches are discussed. These include 'weighted application forms', 'situational interviewing', structured reference forms and the increased use of selection tests. □

Copies of the report are available from the Institute's offices at Mantell Building, University of Sussex, Brighton, Sussex BN1 9RF. Price £15 (IMS subscribers £10) plus £1.25 p and p. ISBN 1851840605.



Temple of the Gods at Museum of the Moving Image.

Tourism awards

Over 500 leading representatives of England's tourism industry were present at the first-ever 'England for Excellence' awards, hosted by the English Tourist Board.

Among the 14 winner categories were hotels, holiday centres, and visitor attractions, chosen by the

judging panels.

Each category had its particular merits though judges were unanimous in considering the newly opened Museum of the Moving Image in London as a potential 'world-scale' attraction. □

Health at work

A new leaflet *Protecting Your Health at Work*, which gives advice on a whole range of questions being posed to the Health and Safety Executive has been published by the Executive.

Dr Tim Carter, HSE's director of medical services, commented that while the prime responsibility for health and safety lay with

employers, there was much that workers could do to protect their own health by following up advice contained in the leaflet.

A copy of the free leaflet is available from HSE area offices and HSE public inquiry points in Sheffield (tel 0742 752539), Merseyside (tel 051-951 4381) and London (tel 01-221 0870). □

Career loans

£2 million has been lent since July to people taking vocational training courses through the Career Development Loans scheme, with more than 800 loan applications approved by the participating banks—Barclays, the Clydesdale and the Cooperative.

Career Development Loans for sums between £300 and £5,000 are available for students and those wishing to upgrade their skills either in or out of work. The loan can be used at universities, polytechnics and colleges of higher education, as well as a wide variety of training schools and distance learning courses. □

Help for disabled graduates

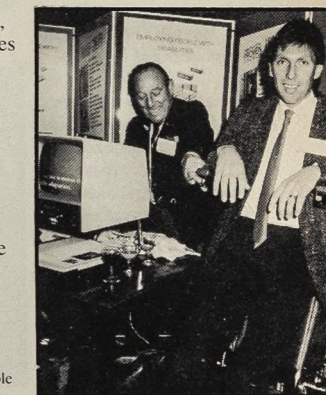
A unique pilot project to help disabled graduates find employment has proved so successful that it is being launched as a national charity to ensure its survival. David Moorcroft MBE, former 5,000 metre world record holder, launched an appeal for the £75,000 a year needed to keep the service going.

The Disabled Graduates Careers Information Service (DGCIS) was started as an experiment three years ago. Backed by grants from the EEC and the then Manpower Services Commission, with a staff of two disabled graduates, it quickly proved its worth.

Using a computerised database, it helped put hundreds of graduates with disabilities in touch with employers, giving them a wide range of advice and assistance. DGCIS is now operating from Hereward College, in Coventry.

Rees Williams, the college principal, commented that: "Our experience has shown that graduates with disabilities become highly valued as employees, showing dedication, skill and imagination." □

Further information on the appeal is available from Rod Seville, project co-ordinator (tel 0203 694302).



David Moorcroft at the launch.

Photo: B K Smith

Heavy loads

New proposals have been published by the Health and Safety Commission with the hope of reducing the number of injuries associated with handling loads at work.

Introducing the draft regulations and guidance at a press conference in London Dr Don Rolt, of the Health and Safety Executive said: "Much of the existing law is difficult to interpret or enforce and relies excessively on weight limits which are inappropriate on medical grounds. The new proposals reflect modern knowledge about the way in which back injuries are caused and what should be done to prevent them. The regulations are designed to protect everyone who handles loads at work."

Comments on the consultative document should be sent by March 1, 1989 to R Beveridge, Safety Policy Division, Health and Safety Executive, London.

Drive against age discrimination

The newly launched Association of Retired Persons (ARP) has announced that it will be taking the initiative in a drive against age discrimination by using its membership for political lobbying. A similar organisation in the US has been responsible for radical changes in legislation regarding age discrimination, pensions and healthcare.

Robert Rose, chairman of ARP, said: "Our basic premise can be summed up by three letters—PEP—that is concern for the 'practical, the emotional and the political' attitudes of the older generation."

"ARP believes that it is in a unique position to be a force against discrimination. You have only to look at a similar organisation in the US, The American Association of Retired Persons (AARP) which, from small roots, today has 30 million members and is second only to the Catholic church in its numbers. It has been responsible for radical changes in legislation regarding age discrimination, pensions and healthcare."

In the US, where most 'ageist' job advertisements are prohibited, it is now unlawful for an employer to not employ, to sack, or to reduce the employment conditions or status of a person in any way because of age.



Ken Dodd, in Liverpool, opens Britain's first jobclub for people with literacy problems.

Women in business

Recent figures produced by the United Nations International Labour Office show that in the United States women now make up more than 50 per cent of the workforce and own 25 per cent of the businesses. In Finland 30 per cent of all entrepreneurs are women, while in Sweden it is 25 per cent. In France 21 per cent of businesses are owned by women and in the Federal Republic of

Germany it is 20 per cent. Canadian women own nearly one enterprise in three and about half of the new jobs generated come from these businesses.

Figures are more difficult to obtain in developing countries. But a 1985 regional survey counted 19.6 per cent of the women in Africa as employers and self-employed workers, 13 per cent in Asia and 15.1 per cent in Latin America. □

Statistics note

A minor error occurred in table 1 of the special feature article "Unemployment statistics: revisions to the seasonally adjusted series" published in the December 1988 *Employment Gazette*.

The total unemployment rate for February 1988 (p 663) should be 8.8 per cent and not 8.6 per cent as published. The figures in table 2.1

of the labour market data section were given correctly.

Also part of table 2.3 (page S22) of the Labour Market Data section was omitted. Data for the Northern Region, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland were not included. However table 2.3 in this edition contains more up-to-date figures, up to November 1988.

"This Act covers employees from the ages of 40 to 69 and prohibits compulsory retirement, prior to the upper age limit, of anyone who otherwise performs the job satisfactorily. In the coming year the Association of Retired Persons intends to be the catalyst against age discrimination."

Eric Midwinter of The Centre for Policy on Aging spoke about

the way that discrimination creeps into so many general areas of life. "What, for instance," he said, "about a discrimination which applies only against men? Why should women benefit from pensions and bus passes a full five years before men?" □

Further information can be obtained from ARP, Hill House, Highgate Hill, London N19 5UY.



ARP seeks to 'PEP' up life for Britain's retirees.

Retailer faces up to demographic challenge

In a bid to circumvent the impending labour shortage in young people, high street retailers Dixons Stores Group have introduced an innovative national recruitment scheme aimed specifically at the over forties and mothers who are looking to return to work.

Retail resourcing manager, Avril Stead commented:

"Back-to-work mums is an area so far untapped as a resource of recruitment. We are looking to encourage the recruitment of back-to-work mums with guaranteed term-time work and the added benefit of leave of absence during school holidays. We can cover this period with student employment and offer a 'refresher course' on product and pricing updates upon their return."

As an aid to this, Dixons Stores Group has introduced a "school of selling" as a confidence building exercise for those who have not been in a selling environment previously. Dixons is convinced the scheme will prove to be a great success. □

Diary dates

- **Business Location Strategy**—an agenda for Europe. January 10-12, 1989 at the Barbican Centre, London.

The conference is designed to outline the future direction of regional strategy and also to explore opportunities for business development and joint ventures in the international and European markets.

- **Human Resource Management in the Public Sector.** February 16 at RIPA, Regent's College, Regent's Park, London NW1.

- **The Institute of Personnel Management** is holding a two-day non-residential course entitled *Human Resource Planning in Practice*, at the Rubens Hotel, Buckingham Palace Road, London SW1 on February 28, March 1 and September 6-7, 1989.

Further details can be obtained from: Course and Conference Department, IPM, IPM House, Camp Road, Wimbledon, London SW19 4UW (tel 01-946 9100). □

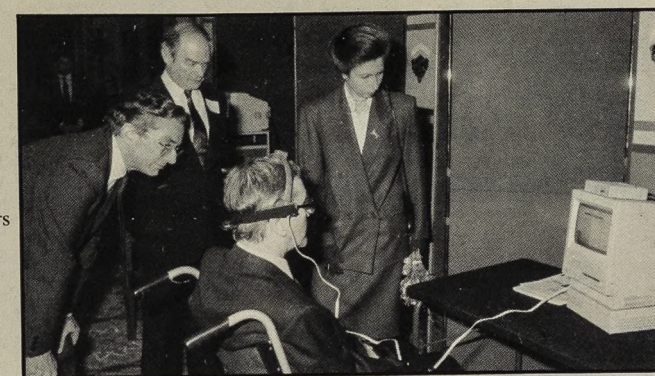
Fit for Work Awards

HRH The Princess Royal and Employment Secretary Norman Fowler welcomed winners of the 1988 Fit for Work Awards.

Mr Fowler said: "All the winners in their own particular way have recognised the potential and capabilities of people with disabilities and provided the opportunities for them to apply them in their everyday work."

In his welcoming address Mr Fowler referred to his Department's 'Code of Good Practice' on the employment of disabled people, launched in 1984, adding that the Department had received many inquiries from abroad concerning the provisions in the code.

The awards are given in recognition of companies' achievements in employing people with disabilities. This year they include two firms which have won the award for the third time—Luncheon Vouchers Ltd of London and IBM (UK) based in Greenock.



Bit 32 Headstart demonstrated at award ceremony

To re-inforce the message that

workers with disabilities can contribute highly effectively in today's working environment, seven technology companies had systems on display which enable people with various handicaps to operate office technology with confidence. □

Shifts in working time

Standardised working time practices familiar to a generation of workers are fast disappearing. Shorter hours, longer holidays, new forms of leave, increased part-time work and innovative work schedules are increasingly common.

These developments have generated sharp controversies concerning impacts on competitiveness, employment and the well-being of workers, which are being discussed by the International Labour Office (ILO).

A report to the ILO on *Working Time Issues in Industrialised Countries* points out that a combination of developments in legislation and collective bargaining have decisively broken through the traditional 40-hour week in many countries, in particular in Western Europe. Coupled with longer annual leave, the reductions are sufficient, claim employers, to unbalance competition with Japan and North America. On the other hand, many trade unions claim that still more reductions are necessary in order to

reduce unemployment for social progress. In manufacturing, hours of work have fallen 15 per cent since 1960 in Western Europe, the report shows. In market economies outside Europe, hours have been stable over the same period. One result is that Western European manufacturing hours have fallen below those in the United States.

Japan, with much longer hours, has responded by adopting new legislation imposing a 46-hour week with the objective of reaching a 40-hour week as soon as possible.

Shorter hours are arriving just as employers are seeing ways to lengthen the operating hours of factories and services in order to make full use of facilities and equipment. Innovative scheduling arrangements, such as annual hours schemes, are one result.

Different countries take very different approaches to the regulation of working time. Some countries have detailed regulations, while others leave almost everything to collective bargaining. The resulting

differences in conditions can be very large, especially for benefits such as annual leave. There is no legal minimum for leave in the United States, where many workers receive less than two weeks' leave. Six countries have a legal minimum of five weeks' leave for all workers, while in the Federal Republic of Germany, six weeks is common.

Tradition plays an important role in working time arrangements. A country may have strict regulations regarding, for example, shop-opening hours or night work for women, while its neighbour may have no regulations at all.

The rapid changes in working time policies and practices at national level have important international implications. The report points out that "working time reductions could have greater employment effects if they were undertaken on a co-ordinated basis internationally". At the same time "it is becoming more and more difficult to ignore the decisions of trading partners when considering working time policy". □

Human signpost for jobcentres

Budding entrepreneurs could find themselves directed towards business success via a Department of Employment pilot scheme operating in five locations throughout the country.

Heather Gribben, who describes herself as a 'human signpost' is one of five enterprise advice officers

working to raise awareness of the many sources of help available to anyone thinking of starting up in business.

The North West pilot scheme covers the Blackburn, Darwen, Accrington, Burnley and Pendle areas, with special emphasis on pro-active outreach work to

increase awareness of the 'enterprise package' among ethnic minority communities.

Heather does not provide business advice herself, but guides people towards the appropriate sources of information and advice, working in unemployment benefit offices and community centres. □

Payroll problems?

More than 40 per cent of employers reviewed by the Inland Revenue PAYE (Pay As You Earn) audit team have been found to have irregularities in their operation of PAYE. This has resulted in businesses making total settlements to the Inland Revenue of £94 million for the tax year 1986-87.

Resources continue to be channelled into the Inland Revenue's PAYE Audit Division and so for employers, the probability of an Inland Revenue audit increases each year. Over 70,000 audits were carried out in the year to April 5, 1987.

At present, settlements can be decided upon by looking at unpaid PAYE and National Insurance for the last six years. But from 1992, when the Revenue's computerisation programme is complete, companies will also have to pay interest on this.

To help organisations ensure that their payroll systems are within the law, The Payroll Alliance, the professional organisation for payroll personnel, has launched a PAYE audit service, providing a complete audit of an organisation's PAYE, National Insurance and benefit processing systems. □

Further information is available from Rosemary Lovatt at The Payroll Alliance (tel 01-530 5052).

Tourism and education links

The tourism industry can offer much greater assistance to educational establishments, according to a report *Education and the Tourism Industry* just published by the English Tourist Board.

As well as work experience and industrial placements, the industry can help with finance and provide teaching and training materials.

Prepared by eminent catering and tourism educationalist, Dr Bernard Hawes, the report analyses 17 case studies to show the wide range of opportunities and benefits which can result from the close collaboration between employers and educational establishments. □

The illustrated report is available, price £10 including p and p from Department D, English Tourist Board, 4 Bromells Road, London SW4 0BJ.

Topics

One stop guide to training

Information on 15,000 training opportunities is now available through the PICKUP training directory, funded by the Department of Education and Science.

The directory replaces the time-consuming searches of printed directories, brochures and leaflets with a single one-stop source of information on training opportunities. Its computerised database contains concise, up-to-date details on work-related short courses.

Designed to answer four key questions: Who is providing training? Where? When? and at What cost? the directory covers the full spectrum of subjects, such as management, commerce, finance, safety, office work, technology, and service industries.

In addition to listing courses available, the directory also shows which training establishment, whether private institution or public sector, can provide tailor-made training to meet a client's requirements.

The directory is available on Prestel by keying *8881881, and also on IBM PC floppy disc. □

REVIEWS

Streetwise franchising



MollyMaid franchise

Photo: British Franchise Assoc

Streetwise Franchising is subtitled *Everything You Need to Know about Taking up and Running a Successful Franchise*. Over the last two years, says the author, the number of franchises has doubled.

However, as she points out, among the wealth of franchising success stories there have also been some disasters.

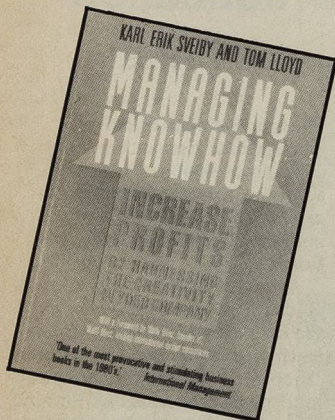
If this book has one message, it is that still too many would-be franchisers enter the business without careful market research and without first seeing if a

franchise works.

The book covers many of the legalities of the subject, directing the reader towards what organisations to consult, giving examples of various financing operations available and an analysis of a number of the most common contracts and methods of trading. □

Streetwise Franchising by Danielle Baillieu, published by Hutchinson Business, Century Hutchinson Ltd, Brookmount House, Chandos Place, London WC2N 4NW. Price £16.95. ISBN 0 09 173680 3.

Managing knowhow



The new companies riding the wave of information exchange and technology present distinct problems in management. Harnessing the creative energies of people whose output is not easy to quantify in terms of physical production but in the quality of solutions, is the subject of *Managing Knowhow*—an Anglo-

The Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) has issued a booklet *Advice and Help* to illustrate its range of industrial relations services.

The ways in which help is given,

Swedish venture by Karl Sveiby and Tom Lloyd.

The book breaks new ground in arguing that any company failing to take into account the special factors inherent in 'knowhow driven' companies does so at its peril and warns that reliance on traditional key financial indications can be dangerous.

In a provocative and stimulating book, the authors argue that new ideas in management are needed to successfully develop the business interests of such companies. Creativity can be focussed to increase profits. □

Managing Knowhow by K Sveiby and T Lloyd is published by Bloomsbury Publishing Ltd, 2 Soho Square, London W1V 5DE. Price £7.99. ISBN 0 7475 0331 1.

Advice for work problems

along with examples of ACAS work in circumventing problems, are clearly outlined. □

The 12-page booklet *Advice and Help* is available free from any ACAS office or contact, ACAS, 27 Wilton Street, London SW1X 7AZ.

Job hunting guide for the blind

The Royal National Institute for the Blind has produced a job-hunting guide for visually handicapped people.

The booklet gives advice on the do's and don'ts of looking for work, paying particular attention to the problems faced by blind or visually-impaired people. □

Get that job is free to individuals (£1 for organisations) and is available in large print, tape or braille from RNIB Employment Services, 224 Great Portland Street, London W1N 6AA.

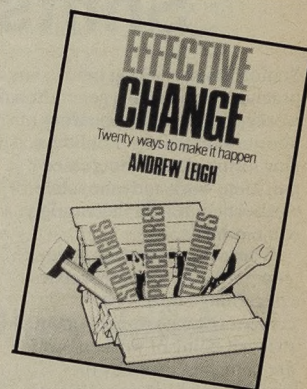
Working for yourself

The latest edition of *Working for Yourself* by Godfrey Golzen has been revised and updated to reflect the growing emphasis successive governments have placed on self-employment and small business as a means of enterprise.

The book looks at home-working, freelance activity, sole-trading and small business partnerships and is particularly useful for its comprehensive overview of all aspects of small business development. Each subject is taken step by step, giving advice on the options available.

As a point of reference for anyone considering self-employment, *Working for Yourself* is a good starting point. □

Working for Yourself is published by Kogan Page Ltd, 120 Pentonville Road, London N1 9JN. Price £7.95. ISBN 1 85091 5628.



Effective change

Effective Change outlines underlying social factors for change and the blocking mechanisms to it within organisational structures.

The author makes a distinction in personal style between 'management' and 'leadership' and goes on to discuss ways in which effective change is more likely to occur through a clear analysis of tactics.

Effective Change is an interesting and quite complex book, tackling the subject of management psychology from the viewpoint of a strategist. Interestingly, the author has sent a copy of the book along with a covering letter to Mr Gorbachev. Results are awaited. □

Effective Change by Andrew Leigh is available from the Institute of Personnel Management, IPM House, Camp Road, Wimbledon, London SW18 4UW. Price £7.16 (members) £8.95 (non-members) plus £1.13 p and p. ISBN 0 85292 412 7.